

Language Teacher Development in Digital Contexts

Edited by
Hayriye Kayi-Aydar
Jonathon Reinhardt

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Nelleke Van Deusen-Scholl
Center for Language Study
Yale University

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Jonathon Reinhardt

University of Arizona

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Contributors

Editors

Hayriye Kayi-Aydar is a teacher educator and Associate Professor of English Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition and Teaching at the University of Arizona, USA. Her research focuses on teacher identity and agency in multilingual/multicultural contexts. Mostly using teacher narratives and an intersectional lens, she aims to understand how teachers construct professional identities and how social categories (e.g., race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status) intersect as they shape teacher identity and agency. Her publications in which she analyzes life stories of teachers and documents marginalized and minoritized identities have appeared in *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *System*, *Language Teaching*, *Journal of Latinos and Education*, *Action in Teacher Education*, *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, and *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*. She is the author of the monograph *Positioning theory in applied linguistics: Research design and applications* (Palgrave MacMillan, 2019) and co-editor of *Theorizing and analyzing language teacher agency* (Multilingual Matters, 2019).

Jonathon Reinhardt is Professor of English Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition and Teaching at the University of Arizona, USA. His scholarly interests lie in the relationship between technological change and the theory and practice of technology-enhanced second and foreign language pedagogy, especially with emergent technologies like social media and digital gaming. He is the author of over 40 scholarly articles and book chapters, including most recently a 2019 state of the art review of social media in L2 teaching and learning in *Language Teaching*, and a 2019 book *Gameful second and foreign language teaching and learning: Theory, research, and practice* (Palgrave MacMillan, 2019). He is an associate editor of *Language Learning and Technology*, and is the 2021 Past President of CALICO.

Authors

Fatemeh Asadnia holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics. She is currently working as a visiting lecturer at Kharazmi University in Tehran, Iran. Her areas of research interest include computer-assisted language learning (CALL), teacher education, and ESP. She has co-authored numerous articles in (inter)national journals and has presented papers at international conferences.

Peter I. De Costa is currently an Associate Professor in the Department of Linguistics and Languages and the Department of Teacher Education at Michigan State University, USA. He is the co-editor of *TESOL Quarterly* and the Second Vice President of the American Association for Applied Linguistics.

Melinda Dooly is Full Professor, Chair in Technology-Enhanced Language & Intercultural Education in the Department of Language & Literature Education and Social Science Education at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.

Curtis A. Green-Eneix is a doctoral candidate in the Second Language Studies program at Michigan State University, USA. He earned his MA in TESOL at the University of Arizona. His work has been featured in *TESOL Journal* and *English Today*.

Mirjam Hauck is a Senior Lecturer and Associate Head of School (Internationalisation, Equality, Diversity and Inclusion) in the School of Languages and Applied Linguistics at the Open University in the UK. She has written numerous articles and book chapters on the use of technologies for the learning and teaching of languages and cultures covering aspects such as task design, tutor role and training, and intercultural communicative competence. She is the President of the European Association for Computer Assisted Language Learning (EUROCALL). She also serves as Associate Editor of the *CALL Journal* and is a member of the editorial board of *ReCALL*. More recently her scholarly work and publications have centered on the impact of mediation and the relevance of critical digital literacy skills in collaborative online learning and teaching across the curriculum.

Emily K. Johnson, Ph.D., is an assistant professor of English at the University of Central Florida. She conducts research on educational technology, learning games, playful/gameful learning, simulations and learning, UX, user-centered design, self-regulated learning, learner motivation, and self-efficacy. She designs and researches educational games in VR, AR, mobile, PC/Mac, and nontraditional platforms. Her work has been published in the *Journal of Universal Computer Science*, *the Journal of Science Education and Technology*, and *Computers and Education*.

Mohammad Nabi Karimi holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics and is currently working as an associate professor in the Department of Foreign Languages, Kharazmi University, Tehran, Iran. He teaches courses such as Second Language Acquisition, Psycholinguistics, and Language Teacher Education to MA and PhD students. His main areas of research include L2 teacher education/development, teachers/learner cognition, and cognitive aspects of L2 acquisition. His papers have appeared in leading international journals, such as *Applied Linguistics*, *Modern Language Journal*, *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, and *System*.

Derya Kulavuz-Onal is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics and TESOL in the Department of English at Salisbury University, Maryland, USA. Her teaching and research interests focus on second language teacher education and professional development, computer-assisted language learning and teaching, sociolinguistics, and ethnography. Her recent research has appeared in journals such as *Language Learning and Technology*, *CALICO Journal*, and *Ethnography and Education*.

Amy Larner Giroux, Ph.D., is Associate Director of the Center for Humanities and Digital Research at the University of Central Florida, USA, where she assists faculty and graduate students with their digital projects. Dr. Giroux's research involves the contact zone between humans and technology within the intersections of history and learning. By leveraging technologies such as AR/VR, she brings learning to both classroom and field. Dr. Giroux is the author of "Navigating People, Paper, and Pixels: Examining Contact Zones With(in) the Past" in *Florida Studies* (2018), and co-author of "Evaluating Multi-Criteria Connection Mechanisms: A New Algorithm for Browsing Digital Archives" in *Digital Scholarship in the Humanities* (2017).

Don Merritt is the Director of the Office of Instructional Resources at the University of Central Florida, USA, and holds a PhD in Texts and Technology. His experience includes international theatre projects that used telepresence to combine actors and audiences across North America in real time, contributions to Emmy-nominated productions, and internationally screened documentary work. He is interested in the relationship between people and media and how the situational environment affects that relationship. His current research investigates how people with disabilities interact with virtual worlds and video games with the goal of developing more accessible learning and entertainment environments.

Andreas Müller-Hartmann is Professor of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at the Pädagogische Hochschule, Heidelberg, Germany. He holds a Ph.D. in American Studies from the University of Osnabrück, Germany. His research interests include task-supported language learning (TSLL), the use of technology in the EFL classroom, the development of intercultural communicative competence, and teacher education. He has co-written books on TEFL in the secondary classroom (2004, 2009) and task-supported language learning (2011 and 2013) (with Marita Schocker). He has co-edited books on qualitative research in foreign language learning and teaching (2001) and task-based language learning with technology (2008). He teaches TEFL, TSLL, CALL and American Cultural Studies.

Sandra Sousa holds a PhD in Portuguese and Brazilian Studies from Brown University, USA. She is Associate Professor at the University of Central Florida, USA, where she teaches Portuguese language, Lusophone and Latin American Studies.

Her research interests include colonialism and post-colonialism; Portuguese colonial literature; race relations in Mozambique; war, dictatorship and violence in contemporary Portuguese and Luso-African literature; feminine writing in Portuguese, Brazilian and African literature. She has articles published in the USA, Brazil and Portugal. She is the author of *Ficções do Outro: Império, Raça e Subjectividade no Moçambique Colonial* (Esfera do Caos, 2015) and has co-edited *Visitas a João Paulo Borges Coelho. Leituras, Diálogos e Futuros* (Colibri, 2017).

Angel Steadman is an experienced ESL/EFL teacher and teacher educator and current faculty at Highline College in Washington, USA. Her research focuses on teacher education, identity development, and equity-based instruction in on-line educational contexts. She has published several book chapters and articles in peer-reviewed journals including *System* and *CALICO Journal*. She has taught English and coordinated language teacher education programs in numerous contexts across the United States, Latin America, and Asia.

Gergana Vitanova teaches in the M.A. TESOL and Graduate TEFL Certificate programs at the University of Central Florida, USA. Her research interests encompass various issues of identity and agency in second language learning and teaching. She has been particularly instrumental in introducing Bakhtin's dialogical framework to the field of second language studies. She is the writer of *Authoring the Dialogical Self: Gender, Agency, and Language Practices* (John Benjamins, 2010), and a co-editor of three volumes. Her most current topic is language teacher agency and how race, gender, and other social factors mediate this construct.

Natalia A. Ward is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at East Tennessee State University, USA. Her focus is on preparing pre- and in-service teachers to effectively teach literacy and, specifically, to work with multilingual students. Previously, she taught English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language at the elementary school level in the United States and Russia. Her research interests include equitable literacy education and assessment for diverse learners, online synchronous and asynchronous teaching and learning, and education policy enactment in local contexts.

Amber N. Warren is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Studies at the University of Nevada, Reno. Her teaching and research focus on teacher preparation for working with multilingual learners, particularly culturally and linguistically sustaining practices in content-based instruction. In her research, she primarily uses discourse and conversation analysis methods to examine teacher learning and knowledge construction through interaction in online contexts and the intersection of teacher practice and education policy in local settings.

Introduction

Hayriye Kayi-Aydar and Jonathon Reinhardt

University of Arizona

Social and post-structural approaches have helped redefine second/foreign language teacher development and education (Johnson, 2016). They highlight the importance of teachers' multiple identities and agency and challenge the traditional views that place the emphasis on "the acquisition of predefined competencies, skills, knowledge, and roles offered by institutions and other people" (Arvaja, 2016, p. 393) in teacher preparation. Particular attention has been recently given to the social, political, gendered, economic, ethnic, racial, and cultural histories and discourses embedded in the contexts where teacher learning and development occurs, as language teacher educators and applied linguists aim to understand who language teachers are and how they teach (Varghese et al., 2016). In line with these recent developments regarding the nature of language teacher preparation, we, the co-editors of this volume, define professional development as an ongoing process in which language teachers make sense of who they are as professionals, their professions, and the communities that they are part of, as they construct professional identities, build disciplinary knowledge, and develop other relevant competencies. Therefore, teacher learning or professional development, which we use interchangeably in this book, is not only limited to teachers' experiences in teacher education programs. Teachers develop knowledge and expertise in and through numerous additional ways (e.g., peer observations, participation in formal or informal professional development activities, etc.) but also in a wide array of platforms (Macià & García, 2016).

While the scholarly work in the fields of applied linguistics and language teacher education has mostly focused on how language teachers engage in professional development in traditional learning and teaching environments, such as in "on ground" classrooms, the goal of this edited volume is to better understand how language teacher learning and development occurs in and with digital environments. This may include, but is not limited to, online, hybrid, blended, flipped, distance, and/or enhanced contexts. CALL (computer-assisted language learning) is often treated as an add-on to traditional language teacher education, but in light of the increasingly ubiquitous and everyday presence of educational and personal

technology, educators are recognizing that technology-enhanced learning is not the ends but the means of situated learning and development, both formally and informally.

As digital settings and tools described in this book offer an alternative platform for teacher learning, they are also alternative spaces for teachers to develop new identities and negotiate existing ones. Online classrooms, for example, may offer many dialogic opportunities for teachers to understand and reflect on who they are as teachers. In online classrooms, it is not only the course participants and instructor that are part of the relational identity work, but the online class itself also positions language teachers in certain ways. Indeed, as Steadman shows in Chapter 2, “fully online, asynchronous classes that limit opportunities for interaction and positioning beyond responding to assignments may lead to the accumulation of more static and one-dimensional positional identities, even when individuals attempt to contest those identities.” As seen in numerous other chapters in this book, online course design (e.g., structure of discussion posts, the nature of opportunities to interact with course content, etc.) may privilege certain identities over others. This powerful role of online course design in shaping professional identities of teachers is successfully described and documented in much of the empirical analyses in this book.

Research shows that access to community membership plays a significant role in teachers’ professional identity development. Second/foreign language teachers may willingly and voluntarily choose to participate in online professional communities for self-learning, self-growth, support, collaboration, and social interaction. Digital technologies and online communities redefine meanings and understandings about “space.” The notion of space is no longer static in digital contexts; it extends beyond the confines of classroom walls. Online platforms or tools help eliminate distances and have the potential to bring together diverse groups of teachers from all kinds of places and settings. For example, Kulavuz Onal in Chapter 5 describes how members of a global community, *Webheads in Action*, form a collective identity by interacting and collaborating through computer-mediated communication (CMC) technologies. The distributed expertise along with the social and emotional support in the group positively influence the professional development of the group members and allow them to form a collective identity, or a shared professional identity, that they all benefit from. Such collective identities underlie professional development as language teachers share language(s), knowledge, certain values and beliefs, as well as competencies. In Chapter 7, Müller-Hartmann and Hauck demonstrate how virtual exchange supports the development of prospective language teachers’ pedagogical, intercultural, digital and language competencies as they bond together and jointly design and evaluate technology-based intercultural tasks.

Becoming a certain kind of teacher almost always involves certain agentic actions. We understand language teacher agency as a teacher's intentional authority to make choices and act accordingly in their local context (Kayi-Aydar, 2019). According to Davies (2000), the authority necessary for agency is nothing coercive in nature, but it is rather acquired through *authorship*. In other words, an agent is a "speaking/writing subject" who can "take up the act of authorship of speaking and writing in ways that are disruptive of current discourses, that invert, invent, and break old bonds" (p. 60). Without any doubt, digital technologies offer "new opportunities not only for exchanging and interpreting information but also for authoring knowledge and art and for building social networks" (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 4). Throughout the chapters presented in this book, we see examples of agency when teachers engaged in self-directed learning using digital tools (e.g., Chapter 7), created and used digital games for language learning (e.g., Chapter 3), learned about different digital pedagogical tools and implemented them in their teaching (e.g., Chapter 8), and evaluated their pedagogical choices through their engagement in digital technologies (e.g., Chapter 4).

Digital technologies, languages, and teacher learning are all dynamic. Indeed, a few months after we started working on this book project, COVID19 hit the world and shaped educators' interactions with, demands of, and perceptions about digital technologies as well as their values, beliefs, and identities. While such major shifts may not often occur, the dynamic nature of digital technologies, languages, and teacher learning still demands creativity, critical thinking, and appropriation in second/foreign language teacher education. It is only through shared experiences and further empirical evidence that we can continue to understand complexities associated with second/foreign language teacher learning and identity development in digital contexts and/or through the use of digital technologies. This book offers new knowledge in the areas of online course design in second/foreign language teacher education programs, second/foreign language teacher digital competencies, interactions, and perceptions, identity work, and pedagogical practices involving digital technologies. Nonetheless, many questions about teacher learning and development in digital contexts or through the use of digital technologies still demand attention: What kinds of inequities do digital pedagogies (re)produce for second/foreign language teachers and teacher educators? How can we use digital technologies in second/foreign language teacher education in order to create more inclusive learning spaces or transform second/foreign language teacher education for equity and social justice? In what ways can we use digital technologies to promote second/foreign teacher agency and support development of professional teacher identities? What does sustainable good practice look like in online second/foreign language teacher education programs? Perhaps overall, we should ask "What can digital

technologies take from and offer to second/foreign language teacher education?” We hope that this book paves the way to seeking answers to those questions by offering directions for future investigations.

Overview of the chapters

Through theoretical and empirical research, this volume provides an in-depth understanding of how digital tools and environments influence the development, learning, and identities of language teachers. The eight chapters investigate contemporary issues related to second/foreign language teacher learning and teacher development involving technologies, such as course or learning management software or systems, mobile platforms, digital games and virtual worlds, and/or websites. The chapters draw on a range of theories or approaches (e.g., positioning theory, communities of practice, etc.) while at the same time presenting various analytic approaches (e.g., discourse studies, narrative inquiry, etc.). The eight chapters presented in this book offer illuminating cases, examples, and experiences from different settings, illustrating various dimensions of language teacher development in diverse digital contexts. Collected and analyzed systematically, the data in each chapter are presented along with compelling analyses, insightful interpretations, and practical implications for second/foreign language teachers and teacher educators. Chapters also analyze numerous topics in relation to teacher development and learning, such as teacher identity, emotions, positioning, reflection, and competence as teachers interact with sociocultural communities in digital spaces. The authors analyze these topics in diverse contexts in numerous countries. As we have tried to deepen our understanding of language teacher development in digital contexts in our book, we hope to be able to show that the limitations and affordances each case, setting, or experience offers are unique.

In *the first chapter*, Warren and Ward investigate asynchronous online discussions from two fully-online courses offered as part of English as an additional language add-on certifications at two universities in the United States. Each course required participation in asynchronous online discussions as a substantial part of the overall course grade. Using analytic tools from conversation analysis (Sacks, 1992) and discourse analysis (Potter, 2012), this chapter presents an analysis of teachers' asynchronous online discussion posts, focusing on the ways that discursive and linguistic patterns, such as question-posing and imperatives (i.e., commands or requests), enable teachers to position themselves as knowledgeable with regard to language teaching practices and approaches. This microanalytically-informed analysis is leveraged to consider the relationship of the content of these posts to 'best practices' in language education and equity-oriented pedagogy. The chapter

closes with a consideration of the affordances and constraints of using asynchronous online discussion postings to examine teacher knowledge production in online courses.

The next chapter (*Chapter 2*) also reports findings from asynchronous courses that Steadman observed in a fully online MA TESOL program in the United States. Steadman examines the reflexive (self) and interactional (other) positioning of two teacher candidates enrolled in an online MA TESOL program over the course of five months, with a focus on how these positions iteratively emerge and sediment in distinctly different ways over multiple course interactions. The primary data analysis looks at: (a) discussion board postings in multiple classes; (b) video-recorded micro-teaching lessons and associated peer feedback; and (c) a series of three interviews held at the beginning, midpoint, and end of the semester observed. Steadman further contextualizes her findings within her larger, ethnographically-informed understanding of the online program, drawing on in-depth analysis of institutional and instructor positioning in course documents, communications, and interviews, as well as her own field notes and reflective journals from closely observing multiple courses and ongoing student interactions. This study provides useful insights and practical implications for the growing numbers of teachers, teacher educators, instructional designers, and administrators working in fully online contexts.

Vitanova and her colleagues investigate the identity of a teacher of Portuguese as a foreign language in a public university in the U.S. in *Chapter 3*. Their study focuses on how the participant constructs her teacher identity through the use of a suite of videogames originally designed for vocabulary practice, called ELLE: the EndLess LEarner. The teacher-participant in their study had the rare opportunity to contribute to the game development and to be one of its first testers in multiple versions (computer-based, VR, and a mobile mode). Using a combination of reflections, interviews, and journal entries as responses to the use of ELLE in this teacher's classroom, Vitanova et al. examine this teacher's perceptions and pedagogical values and how those evolved in relation to the game. The chapter also looks at the intersections of aspects of her teacher identity, such as gender, ethnicity, and emotions with her emergent gamer identity (Shaw, 2011). The chapter effectively illustrates the ways in which gamification of language teaching facilitates teachers' agentic practices.

Chapter 4 begins with an outline of the pedagogical design for language teacher education that integrates flipped instruction, in-class instruction, and telecollaboration. The design, which emerged from fourteen continuous years of telecollaborative exchanges between two classes, one in the EU, the other in the U.S., involves student teachers in various collaborative activities through different technology platforms, including but not limited to video forums, VOIP (e.g., Skype and zoom) and immersion technology (e.g., Second Life). In this chapter, Dooly examines

how ‘membership’ identities were co-constructed between the interlocutors in their digital interaction and afforded them opportunities for (digital) collaborative task accomplishment. She argues that ‘technology-immersion’ pedagogical designs can help future teachers discover the ‘distributive’ characteristic of knowledge as it is commonly constructed in increasingly common online and digital environments while they also collaboratively accomplish teacher identities. Micro-analytical studies of digital interaction such as this one can help teacher educators more fully understand how these type of learning environments can be optimized and enhanced.

Kulavuz-Onal explores, in *Chapter 5*, how members of *Webheads in Action*, an online community of practice of English language teachers, construct a collective identity of “webhead-ness” discursively, how certain community values are realized at the linguistic level in their email communication, and how the community’s collective identity and values shape participating teachers’ professional development over time. Through a corpus-driven discourse-analytic approach of the email communication and content analysis of in-depth interviews with two long-term active members in this community, Kulavuz-Onal reports that members frequently draw on specific discursive resources that seem to have evolved as idiosyncratic linguistic practices in the community’s culture. She argues that such idiosyncratic discursive practices that reinforce a collective identity are critical for cultivating and sustaining long-standing online communities of practice that foster teacher participation and professional development.

In *Chapter 6*, Green-Eneix and De Costa turn the attention to “affect” and explore how a fully asynchronous distance language teaching education program assists in-service language teachers’ professional development during times of experiencing cognitive/emotional dissonance in relation to their educational context. Their semester long netnographic case study (Kozinets, 2010) shows how the asynchronous classroom transformed the learning dynamic from a learning-to-teach orientation to that of teaching-to-learn. The short story analysis (Barkhuizen, 2016) of discussion board posts, course assignments, classroom observations, and semi-structured interviews with the teacher educator revealed that both the students and the teacher educator engage in guided collaborative reflection on their professional experiences to address cognitive/emotional dissonance they experienced. This collaborative reflection occurred on the discussion forum of the online class acting as a type of digital campfire in which the online class was not a fully separate context from their teaching. During these asynchronous digital campfires, students and the teacher educator implemented short stories of their teaching experiences to complete the assignments. This allowed them to become aware of their pedagogical practice and better understand and value the conceptual knowledge they were learning. Green-Eneix and De Costa conclude this chapter by further

complexing online asynchronous teacher education courses acting as a type of enhanced socialized professional development in which the practice and conceptual development are intertwined to develop Praxis teachers.

Shifting the attention to “competence” in the book, Chapter 7 focuses on the impact of Virtual Exchange on student-teachers’ pedagogical competence development. Reporting findings from the Evaluating and Upscaling Telecollaborative Teacher Education (EVALUATE) project – an Erasmus+ funded European Policy Experimentation (EPE) – that involved over 1000 student teachers at 34 Initial Teacher Training institutions in Europe and beyond, the chapter demonstrates the learning gains of a substantial student body engaged in different exchanges but following a bespoke model of VE. The study successfully illustrates the interrelationship between student teachers’ participation in VEs and the development of competences needed to teach, collaborate, and innovate effectively in an increasingly connected and digitalized world. The insights gained from a close examination of one EVALUATE exchange highlight how crucial systematic reflection and evaluation of the processes the trainees are involved in are for competence development in VE contexts.

Chapter 8 explored L2 writing teachers’ PD in terms of Web 2.0-mediated writing pedagogy within the technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) framework. Using reflective journals and in-depth interviews, Karimi and Asadnia report in this chapter that in an online L2 writing teacher education course, the writing teachers learned that they need to purposefully design Web 2.0-mediated writing tasks, guide learners’ use of Web 2.0 tools for writing practices and develop collaborative writing procedures for Web 2.0-based task completion. Their findings further reveal that using Web 2.0 sources for L2 writing instruction turned L2 writing teachers into empowered confident “teacherpreneurs” (Davis, 2006). The study promises implications for L2 writing teachers, researchers, and teacher educators.

In *the final chapter*, based on the scholarship in this volume, Reinhardt discusses what a socially-informed approach to online language teacher education (OLTE) and computer assisted language learning (CALL) professional development might offer for the development of teacher cognition, identity, and agency. In reconceptualizing OLTE through an interdisciplinary lens, Reinhardt critically revisits the notions of technology-mediated language use, technological knowledge, modern techno-identities, social presence and community, and translanguacultural awareness. The chapter concludes by emphasizing the importance and necessity of seeking out new theoretical and methodological insights from technology-related fields in further developing language teacher education, a major theme in this volume.

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Negotiating equitable language teaching practices

Membership and epistemic stance in asynchronous online discussions

Amber Warren and Natalia Ward

This chapter explores preservice teachers' (PSTs') forum discussions in an online language teacher education (OLTE) course to understand how participants discursively construct and display their stance toward equity-enriched pedagogies and practices. Framed in a post-cognitive stance toward epistemics as constructed in interaction, and drawing on conversation analytic membership categorization analysis, findings illustrate how participants' epistemic stance was contingent on the categories with which they were aligned. While PSTs supported equitable practices around bilingualism when evoking membership categories of language user and course participant, PSTs questioned the possibility of equitable multilingual education when taking up the stance of (future) teacher. This analysis offers insight into the role of OLTE for supporting teacher-learners in building equity-enriched orientations essential for supporting multilingual students.

Keywords: preservice teachers, online course, stance, equity-enriched pedagogy

Addressing educational injustice requires an intentional shift in focus in teacher preparation and development towards a renewed commitment to understanding and promoting equity, as well as culturally sustaining, linguistically responsive practice (Ladson-Billings, 2006; Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Paris & Alim, 2017). Teacher education programs are particularly important in this shift as they are responsible for preparing teachers to support students designated as “English learners” (ELs) – a group of students that has been underserved and marginalized by monolingual curriculum and policy in the U.S. (Lucas & Villegas, 2013). With at least 106 universities and colleges currently offering language teacher education courses online (Murray, 2013), it becomes imperative to understand the potential of these programs to support the development of preservice teachers' (PSTs')

understanding of equity-enriched orientations; that is, pedagogical stances that guide teachers in teaching for justice.

In this chapter, we explore teachers' knowledge construction regarding equity-enriched orientations using a post-cognitive view of epistemics grounded in a view of learning as inherently social and dialogic. From this stance, the content and organization of knowledge emerges from collaborative interactions and becomes an object of study in and of itself (Knight & Littleton, 2017). We leverage this analysis to consider the potential of online language teacher education (OLTE) for fostering equity-enriched orientations for teachers of ELs. Adopting this approach reimagines the role of OLTE programs as a locus of educational possibilities through placing "equity front and center" (Nieto, 2000, p. 180) and inviting teacher-learners to develop their theoretical and pedagogical knowledge through the lens of equity-enriched orientations essential for supporting multilingual students.

Equity-enriched orientations to language teaching

An equity-centered orientation to educating diverse students is essential for preparing and developing responsive educators (Gorski, 2016; Ladson-Billings, 2006; Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Paris & Alim, 2017). Understanding and fostering such orientations is critical considering that the majority of the teaching force remains female, white, monolingual and middle-class (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020) and may not have familiarity with their students' linguistic and cultural experiences. Teachers well prepared for diverse learners must possess, among others, such understandings, as insight into "political, economic, and racial antecedents of unequal schooling" (Lazar, 2018, p. 308) and key elements of culturally and linguistically sustaining pedagogy and sociology of opportunity (Lazar et al., 2012; Lucas & Villegas, 2013). For example, Gorski (2016) detailed a number of "equity-based abilities" teachers should possess, including the ability to identify and respond to inequities in education over the long and short term (p. 225).

Focusing specifically on linguistic responsiveness, Lucas and Villegas (2013) describe essential orientations, knowledge, and skills of teachers who aim to provide equitable and enriching opportunities for their multilingual students. Essential orientations include a value for linguistic diversity, a recognition of the relationship between language, culture and identity and the social and political dimensions of language instruction, and an inclination to advocate for diverse learners. Knowledge and skills include learning about students' language backgrounds, identifying language demands of classroom tasks, applying second language learning principles to classroom practice, and effectively scaffolding instruction for all students (Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

While these frameworks inform our thinking about equity-enriched knowledge and practices for teachers, their practical applications for teacher educators within higher education settings vary across contexts and are still being conceptualized. Thus, we next describe one approach for how these stances are incorporated and studied within OLTE programs.

Equity-enriched orientations to teacher education

Cochran-Smith and her colleagues (2016) proposed four essential tasks for teacher education programs to support equity:

1. conceptualizing the broad problems of educational inequality and inequity as well as conceptualizing the role of initial teacher education in challenging these problems;
2. defining the nature of “practice for equity,” based on the assumption that initial teacher education should produce teachers who enact practice that enhances equity for students traditionally not well-served by the system;
3. designing and implementing initial teacher education curricula and program structures that are equity-centered, complex, and finely-tuned to the patterns of inequality and inequity that characterize particular local histories and contexts; and,
4. developing and executing programs of research for studying equity-centered initial teacher education with the dual purposes of continuously improving local programs, on one hand, and building theory about how, why, to what extent, and under what conditions teacher candidates learn to enact practice for equity, on the other. (p. 68)

These tasks stand alone, as well as collectively, as pillars for investigation. They focus on the process of exploring broader contextual issues around equity, practical applications of conceptualizing equity-centered teacher education, and research of such applications to build theory and inform future iterations of this process.

In order to develop PSTs’ equity-enriched stances, teacher education programs have incorporated a number of opportunities for learning, either within individual courses or across multiple courses over time. These learning opportunities include setting up after-school clubs and community walks (Orellana, 2015), serving as pen pals with ELs (Hadaway, 1993), studying abroad (Newton et al., 2020), participating in service learning projects with diverse students (Zeller et al., 2010), and engaging in field-based experiences in richly multilingual classrooms (Lazar, 2018; Sugimoto et al., 2017).

Despite research emphasizing how teacher education can support teachers in developing an equity-enriched stance, there is a lack of clear and consistent guidance to doing so online. Research examining the quality of OLTE programs and their impact on teacher development is in its infancy (Shin & Kang, 2018). Yet, the importance of this line of inquiry is underscored by a steady increase in the number of language teacher education courses offered online (Murray & Christison, 2018) and by “a growing recognition that all teachers are, or will be, teachers of ELLs” (Lucas et al., 2018, p. 169). Exploring what specific methods, activities, and tools support PSTs enrolled in online courses in understanding equity-enriched orientations to educating ELs becomes imperative.

Emerging scholarship emphasizes the importance of embedding collaboration and interaction across individual courses. While online activities such as asynchronous discussion forums have been shown to facilitate reflection (Lee & Brett, 2015; Suh & Michener, 2019), other research shows surface level discussions often dominate, with teachers recounting events rather than reflecting on them critically (e.g., Gao et al., 2013). Still, generative dialogue may be promoted in online discussions (Lee & Brett, 2015; Delahunty, 2018; Piro & Anderson, 2018). For example, Lefstein et al. (2020) identified several essential discursive practices that may lead to more generative teacher discourse online. Such practices include “revealing and probing problems of practice, providing evidence or reasoning, making connections to general principles, building on others’ ideas, and offering different perspectives” (p. 8). These practices are promising for planning online teacher preparation in general; however, more research is needed to understand the role of specific online program structures (e.g., overall configuration of topics and materials as well as discussions, activities, and/or assignments) in developing teachers’ equity-enriched stances. Additionally, Murray and Christison (2018) argue that educating language teachers online warrants particular consideration as a field of study as it is significantly different from face-to-face teacher education approaches in a number of ways. Potential differences include the goals and objectives of learners who enroll in these programs, challenges associated with individual accountability, and best practices for course design, including an understanding of how to plan for collaboration and interaction in online spaces.

Post-cognitive view on epistemic stance

To develop understanding of how to plan for collaboration that promotes learning online, a view of learning as inherently social and dialogic is needed. Research has proposed various interrelated terms pertinent to examining talk about knowing and learning, including epistemic stance (Heritage, 2012a, 2012b; Kärkkäinen, 2006),

epistemic status (Heritage, 2012a, 2012b), and epistemic commitments (Knight & Littleton, 2017). It is not the place of this chapter to articulate the relationship of these terms, as these have been described elsewhere (see Heritage, 2012a, b; Knight & Littleton, 2017). Suffice it to say that the overarching concern of epistemics is with the ways that knowledge is conceptualized, including the processes by which one comes to ‘know’ something, and interactionally constructed. Within research interested in epistemics, stance has been primarily treated as a reflection of the speaker/writer’s internal state (Kärkkäinen, 2006). Given the influence of social and situative understandings of knowledge construction, however, there is a growing body of scholarship that seeks to orient to epistemic stance-taking as “a public action that is shaped by the talk and stances of other participants in sequentially unfolding turns-at-talk” (Kärkkäinen, 2006, p. 701). Insight regarding the sequential nature of epistemic stance-taking arises from conversation analytic research, which emphasizes the ways in which stance, like all exchanges of information produced for an audience, is emergent and contingent on the local interactional context (e.g., Schegloff, 1996). This understanding allows researchers to focus primarily on the ways that cognitive constructs are “implicated through language use” (Knight & Littleton, 2017, p. 18).

Drawing upon an understanding of knowledge as socially situated, researchers have proposed foregrounding the normative and pragmatic nature of knowledge claims, including attention to the ways in which standards for knowing are “constitutive of and emergent from group interaction” (Knight & Littleton, 2017, p. 23). That is, participants’ claims to knowledge are understood as leveraged within given social conditions, embedded in the ongoing interaction, and serving a social function. Thus, we orient to participants’ stance-taking as the sequentially unfolding expression in talk/writing of a position regarding certain information and/or the rights regarding access to that information. Examining the interaction of PSTs, then, may allow research to investigate the process of learning from a social stance in which epistemic stance-taking and the way in which it unfolds within a given interaction, is contingent on the social and pragmatic context and implicative for what follows.

Theoretical framework

This study is informed by an orientation to knowing and knowledge as socially constructed and displayed within particular interactional contexts (cf. Potter & Hepburn, 2008). As such, we viewed participants’ orientation to psychological constructs, such as knowing and understanding, as socially managed in and through the interactional context of the asynchronous online discussion forums.

To realize this, we drew upon discursive psychology (DP) (Potter, 2012) informed by conversation analysis (CA) (Sacks, 1992) to provide the theoretical and methodological grounding for the study. As a discursive approach, DP distinguishes itself through its epistemic stance toward concepts such as knowing and learning as contextually-bound and produced for interactional and rhetorical purposes. That is, cognition—like all discursive entities—is viewed as situationally bound and contingent on interaction (Edwards, 1997; Potter, 2012).

In online language teacher education, a common interactional practice involves asking participants to construct and negotiate such contested terminology through contributing to asynchronous online discussions. By taking up a view of discourse informed by DP's social-psychological orientation toward learning, it becomes possible to examine how concepts, such as those related to equity-enriched orientations, are defined and displayed through participants' talk/writing. Thus, asynchronous online discussions provide rich sites for examining teacher cognition as they are discursively constructed and displayed, allowing researchers and teacher educators "insight into the ways in which these epistemic stances are co-constructed within particular learning contexts" (Knight & Littleton, 2018, p. 57) for particular social aims (Edwards, 1993).

In DP, the use of CA provides a set of microanalytic tools that enable attention to the organization of human interactional practices. For instance, CA can be used to recognize patterns in language used by participants that make visible pertinent categorizational strategies as they are mobilized within an interactional space, such as an online classroom. Relevant to this is Sacks' (1972, 1992) program of membership categorization analysis (MCA). MCA is the analytical investigation of how "categories are discursively produced on particular occasions and what members accomplish by using or invoking them" (Kasper, 2009, p. 6). It involves the "production of group-level labels that describe persons in terms of demographic, professional, or other social categories" in talk/writing (Tracy, 2011, p. 68). Rather than assuming that members' categories are self-evident, the category membership of individuals is examined for how these categories are made relevant by the participants themselves. That is, rather than assuming on the basis of a priori researcher knowledge that particular categories such as teacher or student are immediately relevant to an interaction, the researcher will instead analyze an interaction to understand how such categories are treated by participants in the interaction – if indeed they are treated at all. While we were primarily interested in participants' epistemic stance-taking, we found MCA useful for treating the invocation of various participant identities (e.g., learner, teacher, bilingual language user) as they were introduced in participants' posts relative to the stances they took. Specifically, we traced how participants in an asynchronous online discussion position themselves epistemically and categorically with regard to equity-enriched orientations to language teaching.

Methods

Context and participants

This study investigates asynchronous online discussions from a fully-online course offered as part of a four-course series (12 university credit hours in teaching English learners (TEL) at a university in the western United States. Course readings were selected to promote participants' understanding of issues regarding linguistic parity and education policy enactment in US Pre-kindergarten-12th grade schools (e.g., Lippi-Green, 1997). Topics included linguistic identities, translanguaging in the classroom, and supporting bilingual/multilingual students who are dual identified for gifted and/or special education. Participants engaged in activities related to the readings through asynchronous online discussion and exploration/application of these concepts during practicum hours (e.g., analyzing linguistic landscapes of classrooms).

Asynchronous online discussions of course readings were held for eight weeks of the 15-week course. The other weeks were reserved for practicum-related assignments (e.g., completing observations, working with students in one-to-one or small group settings, or working with diagnostic data to design instruction). Each discussion began with an initial prompt posed by the instructor. Participants were asked to engage in the discussion by responding to the initial prompt and by posting at least twice more throughout the week in response to peers. The instructor's role was to share additional resources or provide additional questions or comments. An example prompt was: "Lippi-Green (1997) and de Jong (2013) both talk about the effect of language ideologies on educational policy and practice. How have language ideologies affected you, or someone you know very well? Share a specific example and discuss it in light of our readings."

Participants included 12 PSTs and the instructor (Author 1). The participants were ten females and two males. Five participants self-identified as bi/multilingual. Of these, three identified as bilingual Spanish/English speakers, while two participants described themselves as speaking more than two languages fluently. The other participants categorized themselves as primarily monolingual, though some shared that they had limited additional language experience (e.g., through high school courses).

Data analysis and warrants

Following IRB approval, data were collected and de-identified to protect participants' anonymity prior to analysis. Data included weekly discussion postings, course assignments, and instructor syllabi and discussion prompts for the course.

For this analysis, we concentrate on the asynchronous online discussions, with other sources providing background as appropriate. Our analytical process was iterative and began with both researchers reading all discussion posts from both courses to familiarize ourselves with the data. Our initial notes focused on the ways in which issues of equity, and equity-enriched orientations figured throughout the discussions (i.e., content-oriented memos related to discussion of course topics such as plurilingualism, assimilationism, translanguaging, etc.). We noted that participants' orientations to equity-enriched stances involved a range of cases involving the degree of commitment or certainty expressed when discussing pluralistic and/or assimilationist discourses (e.g., I think, it seems to me, I feel). Next, we re-read the data, turning to an examination of *how* these orientations were produced by considering the ways in which participants' epistemic stance-taking regarding these issues unfolded. Through recursive reading and memo-writing along with continued discussion in our weekly meetings, we began to identify patterns in the way that participants' concerns were bounded in their epistemic stance as (a) learners, (b) language speakers, and (c) future teachers and accomplished through a variety of discursive means. To trace the patterns we observed, we examined how epistemic stance displays associated with particular membership categories make visible participants' understandings of what it means to adopt an equity-enriched orientation to teaching and learning.

To illustrate our findings, we share excerpts from two focal discussions that took place during weeks three and twelve. These discussions were selected due to their representativeness of the dataset as a whole in terms of both the structure of the discussion and the ways in which participants' epistemic stance-taking revealed variability in candidates' constructions of equity-enriched pedagogy. To show how participants' epistemic stance is made relevant within different standardized institutional categories, we provide line-by-line description of our analysis (Wood & Kroger, 2000), as well as grounding for our claims in relevant literature to provide additional trustworthiness regarding our analysis of what is accomplished through the various interactional features we describe (Potter, 2004).

Findings

Analysis showed that evocation of epistemic stance was linked to particular membership categories and that these categories were implicated in their commitment toward equity-enriched orientations. Participants tended to display knowledge with certainty and conviction when drawing upon their personal experiences as a *learner* and a *language user* to index this authoritative stance. This pattern persisted regardless of whether or not participants identified themselves as bilingual. On the other hand, PSTs tended to display knowledge of enacting equity-enriched orientations

in school contexts as complex and less straightforward. When their membership as (*future*) teachers was invoked, participants took up conflicted and often less authoritative epistemic displays characterized by hedging or by highlighting the interplay between policy and practice.

Embracing linguistic pluralism and opposing English-only practices

PSTs often expressed unilateral support for linguistic pluralism and a multicultural approach to education promoted in equity-enriched orientations (cf. Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Paris & Alim, 2017). PSTs indexed their status as higher education learners, through making reference to their experiences in coursework, displaying their knowledge through references to relevant research. The following post exemplifies this pattern:

Extract 1.

I think that it is so important that as an educator we embrace diversity and take on a pluralist discourse. [...] I have also noticed that in my classes this semester and in the past that there is a more pluralistic focus on how to gear instruction for all students. One thing that stood out was when de Jong wrote that “pluralist language-in-education policies and programs are designed to build on and expand students’ linguistic and cultural resources to develop various levels of multilingual competence.” I think that this is something we should focus on in education. (PST 7)

Here, the PST supports her stated position (“I think that it is so important that as an educator we embrace diversity and take on a pluralist discourse”) by referencing her “classes this semester and in the past” and to course readings. In particular, a reference to course readings, with a direct quote embedded within the post, highlights the authoritative stance of these claims. Such direct reported speech is often prevalent in online courses, which may request that students support their claims with connections to reading; yet in addition to fulfilling such a requirement, the use of reported speech here is re-contextualized and rebound by the new setting in which it appears. The recontextualizing of reported speech functions as a way of adding trustworthiness to her stance by providing evidence that the position she has taken is not merely her own but also that of “an aggregate” (Buttny & Cohen, 2007, p. 736). Additionally, invoking the authoritative voice of a researcher adds to the overall stance of the post as factual and accurate.

Across the data, participants took up similar displays of knowledge to express support for pluralist views, while simultaneously rejecting assimilationist discourses. This discursive move was central in accomplishing the display of equity-enriched orientation regardless of the participants’ linguistic identity.

Highlighting linguistic pluralism as an equity-enriched practice

In addition to referencing their status as higher education learners who draw their authoritative stance from experts in the field, participants employed a “language user” stance to build a platform for sharing narratives of personal experience, which demonstrate their equity-enriched orientations toward linguistic pluralism. This epistemic stance was especially strongly displayed by students from multilingual backgrounds, though participants were able to make this stance visible through a variety of discursive/interactional moves regardless of their linguistic background. Here, we present an initial post (Extract 2a) and two replies this post received (Extracts 2b and 2c) to illustrate the ways in which participants implicate their own experience – whether or not they themselves identify as bilingual – in order to build a case for linguistic pluralism.

Extract 2a.

Assimilationist ideology has affected me as a learner and user of language. Growing up, my native language was Spanish. I communicated in Spanish at home and in my community. When I first started school, I had to learn English because that’s the norm in the US. We want to focus our school around one language to make it easier for everyone to communicate with one another. I find the ideology to have its benefits and its flaws. I was able to fluently begin to communicate with others within a year or two of practicing English, however, as I began to use English more as I continued to grow, I realized that my native language had been broke. I wasn’t able to articulate words as easily as I could the English. I could still communicate with my parents in my native language, just that at times, I do it with broken Spanish. [...] Since we live in a diverse US, it’s important that we become more diverse in our education because of the amount of people who have a native language that’s different from English. (PST 8)

In this extract, the PST immediately makes the membership categories of “learner and user of language” relevant to the topic of the post. The author of the post takes up an evaluative stance toward a monolingual ideology (Blackledge, 2000), stating that he “find[s] the ideology to have its benefits and its flaws.” In other words, by stating his position regarding monolingual ideology this way, the PST avoids taking an explicit stance on the issue at first and creating room to provide a compelling example from his personal experience as evidence against a wholly monolingual ideology, which caused his “native language [to be] broke.” His personal experience does particularly important work here, providing visceral evidence for taking up equity-enriched linguistic practices in education and ultimately positioning the PST in relation to the importance of such matters. Thus, his comment regarding the possible “benefits” of the “assimilationist ideology” is interpretable as an act of hedging, which is “generally understood as a discourse strategy that [...] reduces

the risk a speaker runs when uttering a strong or firm assertion” (Kaltenböck et al., 2010, p. 1). Inherent to hedging is a degree of openness that allows for difference between stances. On one hand, this potentially opens up his own position for disagreement; but on the other, it may avoid readers’ withdrawal from the interaction by signaling a willingness to continue the discussion by making himself open to other positions – even those he may disagree with.

PST 8 received two immediate replies to his initial post, and we include brief analysis of these here, as illustration for how the equity-enriched orientation introduced by PST 8 was continued by others in response. Extract 2b was posted by a self-identified monolingual member of the course who references this subtly in the framing of her response.

Extract 2b.

I’m curious: did being in an assimilationist community in school give you a bad view of speaking your native language?

I feel like this happens quite often, unfortunately. Students find a use for using only English since it is the language of the classroom, and they tend to lose their Spanish speaking ability over time. [lines omitted]

In my practicum classroom, a few students communicate with the teachers, substitutes, and teacher assistants in Spanish and English interchangeably. I was completely blown away by the teachers allowing for students to do so because I saw a very different experience in school as a student. I am happy to see the idea of using native languages in every aspect of students’ lives is becoming more and more prevalent. (PST 2)

PST 2 alludes to her monolingual identity first through her use of the deictic expression “they,” which subtly differentiates her experience from that of students who “tend to lose their Spanish speaking ability” due to “being in an assimilationist community.” Although she does not index her monolingualism explicitly, her direct question functions as both an affiliative move as well as to subtly demarcate differences between his childhood and hers. Thus, she accomplishes alignment with PST 8’s ultimate position while acknowledging her lack of first-hand experience, a fact which she addresses through description of her practicum experience in paragraph 3.

Given that her personal experience is monolingual, she displays her authority regarding the equitable orientation of promoting linguistic plurality through sharing observations from her practicum. She describes herself as “completely blown away” in response to seeing her lead teacher use multiple languages to communicate with students at her practicum site. This description includes an extreme case formulation (Pomerantz, 1986), an accountability device that functions to underscore the contrast between her practicum and what she “saw [...] in school

as a student.” This extreme formulation works to illustrate the degree to which this observation is being framed within the discussion as extraordinary, particularly in light of the contrast to not only her own past observations, but also PST 8’s preceding description of his experience. It also perhaps serves to emphasize the importance of drawing on students’ home languages in schools and “every aspect of students’ lives.” At the same time, verbs like “allow” in reference to “teachers allowing students” to use multiple languages in schools reflect circulating tropes regarding the language of schooling in the U.S. and warrant further examination within equity-enriched teacher education.

Extract 2c is another reply received in response to Extract 2a. In it, a second multilingual PST takes up a similar membership category to echo themes seen in Extract 2a.

Extract 2c.

I have to say that growing up I was in a very similar situation to you. I grew up with Spanish as my L1 and went through a very assimilationist curriculum back in [my city]. The result, like yourself, is that I am now fluent in English, and have lost some skills in Spanish. One way this has proven to be a setback for me is how effectively I am able to communicate with students who are EL. [...] It’s frustrating, and I know that it could have been mitigated with a curriculum that did not focus on shutting out my L1 [...] I feel a curriculum that emphasizes highlighting the similarities among languages, allowing English acquisition to occur naturally among peers, is key to better allowing our students to adjust and assimilate without losing their original identities in the process.

(PST 6)

Invoking their personal experience as language users, PSTs highlighted the deterioration or “loss” of their first language, (in this case Spanish), as a result of an “assimilationist curriculum.” The use of evocative language like “broken” and “shutting out” underscores the negative ramifications of focus on assimilation and English-only approach to educating multilingual students. Building on the epistemic stance made visible in the initial post, PST 6 also highlights the long-term implications of his home language loss on his work as a teacher, stating “One way this has proven to be a setback for me is how effectively I am able to communicate with students who are EL.” Expressions of emotions, such as “I feel” and “it’s frustrating” further ascribe negative value to and validate the PST’s experiences associated with “assimilationist” ways of educating multilingual children.

Being conflicted as a language teacher

While for the most part, participants epistemically positioned themselves as advocates for linguistic pluralism in their personal lives and in the context of higher education coursework, in interactions in which teacher membership categories were made relevant, fundamental contradictions and tensions became highly visible. In particular, the contrast between what participants identified as equity-enriched orientations and their anticipated or witnessed realities of the classroom setting became evident. Participants described a conflict between school policies as realized in classroom practices related to standardized testing and the pluralistic stance emphasized in their texts (and observed in their discussions of themselves as language users). For instance, in Extract 3 and 4, PSTs described how they aligned with the pluralistic view, but experienced conflict at the school site, particularly when mandated to prepare students to pass state exams.

Extract 3.

[...] de Jong points out that there are positive links between bilingualism and metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness, and problem-solving skills (p. 100). I agree with this observation and encourage linguistic diversity in schools as well admire the advantages of bilingualism. However, as a teacher I sometimes feel conflicted when meeting my English language learners' needs. English language learners are expected to prepare to pass the [state exam] in order to exit from receiving EL services and show they are proficient in the language. In some cases, I have noticed students being discouraged from using their native language to practice English proficiency. (PST 4)

Following a reference to published research, the membership category of "teacher" is made visibly relevant to ground the evaluative stance is introduced through the epistemic marker "feel," positioning the participant with regard to the aim of "meeting my English learners' needs." A conflicted stance is made visible and supported through her account of having "noticed students being discouraged from using their native language." Next, her brief personal narrative makes this conflict real for her audience while avoiding implicating her personally in the enactment of a monolingual stance, thereby allowing her to maintain epistemic consistency with her claim that she "side[s] with the pluralist point of view." Thus, although the PST identified practices and knowledge associated with equity-enriched orientations as central to high-quality instruction for emergent bilingual students; she described her field experiences as limited in evidence for such an orientation where there was "a high demand and emphasis on standardized testing."

Extract 4.

As a teacher, it makes it *very hard* to promote students' primary language in the classroom or at school when there is such a high demand and emphasis on standardized testing, which all contain our formal English language. Although many teachers still try to incorporate ELL strategies and L1 languages into their classrooms, it becomes very limited and often forgotten about because teachers have so much pressure on them to make sure that their students are well prepared and performing at or above grade level on those tests. This is very limiting because it is not what is necessarily best for the students or learners, but then again, they have to pass those tests in order to keep moving on, so it is often pushed to the side and overlooked and "justified." (PST 11)

This extract illustrates how, across the dataset participants used the membership category of teacher to make visible their knowledge of the classroom and adopt an epistemic stance of being "conflicted" due to pressure to put standardized assessments, rather than equity, "front and center" (Nieto, 2000). Here, the participant describes promoting students' primary languages as "very hard" noting that "it becomes very limited and often forgotten about" because of standardized testing. The contrast structures (Smith, 1978) employed in these two posts, in which words like "however" and "although" frame the argument, underscore the difference between the known and preferred (by the participants) practice of embracing linguistic diversity and the conflicting reality of the mandated assessment practices. The use of the deictic expression "those tests" while referring to standardized assessments is particularly complex. It at once functions to suggest a shared sense of familiarity with other members of the course while at the same time potentially distancing the participant from the nature of such assessments. When adopting the membership category of teacher, participants still took up an epistemic stance in support of equity-enriched orientations such as linguistic pluralism, but they oriented to this stance as inherently in contrast to the regulatory role of school policies and practices, such as standardized testing (García et al., 2017).

Discussion and implications for language teacher education in digital contexts

Designing and implementing online language teacher education that is equity-centered requires consideration of the curricula and course content (Cochran-Smith et al., 2016). This includes readings, practicum-related assignments, and online discussion activities. In this course, the readings were intentionally selected to cover a range of topics related to curriculum and policy that has led to patterns of inequality in the education of emergent bilingual students. Combined with discussions that engaged participants with course content through reflecting on their own lives and

considering the experiences of others, participants were invited to particularize these broad concepts for their local contexts.

Findings demonstrate that PSTs drew on membership categories of learner, language user, and teacher to discursively display their knowledge and orientation towards educating multilingual students. PSTs from the stance of higher education *learners* and as *language users* embraced a pluralist ideology with authority, although they equivocated to do so as fully from within the membership category of *teacher*. Displaying their understanding of the importance of linguistic pluralism and equity-enriched orientations, PSTs as learners referred to authoritative published researchers in the field of language education. PSTs as language users wrote about their personal experiences or experiences of others. PSTs as (future) teachers; however, complicated these asset-oriented knowledge displays with observations regarding the reality of high-stakes testing and other top-down mandates governing educational practices, which stand in direct conflict with the equity-oriented ideal of supporting linguistic pluralism in schools.

PSTs took up a variety of epistemic stances, which were visibly linked to equity-enriched orientations made available in the asynchronous online discussions. While this epistemic stance-taking was most visibly aligned with the adoption of the membership category of a learner and a language user, to a lesser degree it was also associable with descriptions of themselves as teachers. However, the evocation of the membership category of teacher inevitably led to the introduction of a conflict between their personal beliefs and the exigencies of classrooms and schools as they described them. Issues regarding curriculum and high stakes assessment may result in schooling that is primarily, if not exclusively monolingual English (Borden, 2014). Despite observed use of both Spanish and English in at least one PST's practicum experience, this political reality was made visible in participants' constructions of the conflict they felt as language teachers who recognized the value and importance of linguistic pluralism (Paris & Alim, 2017) on the one hand, but were concerned about the limiting imposing nature of school assessments on the other.

One interpretation of this dilemma may be that participants' discursive and conversational moves work to reassert the monolingual mindset tied to anti-immigrant ideologies (Blackledge, 2000; Borden, 2014). On the other hand, our analysis also points to the ways in which participants also *did* productively adopt epistemic stances alignable with a pluralistic ideology important to an equity-enriched orientation. Gorski (2016) explained that "knowledge about the nature of inequity and how it infests the educational and other experiences of marginalized communities" is essential to successfully address current educational inequity (p. 225). Discursive practices emphasizing dilemmas inherent in attempting to achieve linguistic parity within an education system built on monolingual aims may serve to rationalize and justify practices that are explicitly subtractive, but they may also serve to highlight

the distance between the ideal of bilingual education and the structural inequities that prevent our current educational systems to meet such aims.

Through the dialogic opportunities provided in the forum discussions, PSTs in this class came to emphasize equity-enriched orientations to teaching and learning, particularly regarding the relationship of language to culture and identity. PSTs also identified challenges inherent in adopting a pluralistic view of language within an educational environment that reflects a *de facto* monolingual stance through its emphasis on standardized testing and monolingual English-only curricula. In OLTE, providing PSTs intentional opportunities to negotiate their own epistemic stances by displaying understanding of (in)equity may be a first step in facilitating teacher learning regarding such topics, but instruction may be further informed by micro-analytic focus on language choice if opportunities to promote equitably-oriented practices are not to be missed.

To design equity-enriched OLTE, teacher educators must consider specific online program structures, e.g., overall sequencing of topics, selection of thought-provoking materials, and purposeful assignments. Careful design of discussion guidelines and prompts to spark conversation around topics of equity is particularly essential (Delahunty, 2018). As our findings indicate, initial prompts that engage students' stances and invite them to examine and discuss the content from various points are an important first step in encouraging productive discourse, such as Lefstein et al. (2020) described. Beyond identification of dilemmas, teacher education might guide PSTs to grapple with the socio-political structures that inhibit the uptake of equity-enriched stances through attention to language choice. Explicitly inviting students to attempt stance-taking from various viewpoints within their discussion through the design of prompts and guidelines promoting solution-oriented interactions could encourage PSTs to identify common patterns of construction aligned with more and/or less equitably oriented stances, potentially influencing uptake of equity-enriched orientations beyond the context of online learning.

Conclusion

Studying how participant stances are constructed within online discussions is important for improving OLTE. This investigation can inform teacher education regarding how to productively encourage dialogue aimed at developing teachers' knowledge and understanding of issues related to (in)equality and equity in the education of emergent bilingual learners. Given the importance of interaction for learning online, analytical focus on processes and products of group interaction is warranted. Study of both unique and multiple contexts at the micro-interactional

level can support online language teacher education, and language teacher education in general, in recognizing the work that must be done to create opportunities for fruitful discussion. Investigating groups of teachers, who, by whatever means, come together within a given social setting for the shared purpose of developing knowledge regarding a particular specialty has the potential to teach us much about epistemic processes relative to their adoption of particular political, pedagogical, social, and theoretical positions.

“Putting equity front and center demands variation and continuous change over time” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2016, p. 75). To support such flexible program design, research must develop a body of knowledge across contexts to understand how online discussion may encourage or inhibit teacher candidates’ understanding. Attending to how participants engage with topics of equity and justice is an important first step to build a foundation of knowledge and build theory related to OLTE programs and their quality in preparing effective, equity-oriented educators.

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“Sitting in the back of the class”

Positional identities in an online MA TESOL program

Angel N. Steadman

This study examines how teacher candidates' positions in a fully online MA TESOL program accumulate into more stable positional identities over the span of a 7.5-week course. Overreliance on asynchronous, text-based posts mired teacher candidates in static positions that hindered their learning. One participant, positioned as a *good teacher*, did not receive the constructive criticism he wanted, while the other participant, positioned as *inexperienced* and *deficient*, resorted to participatory patterns that isolated her from the group. These findings illustrate the effects that course design may have on identity construction in online settings in which outside peer-to-peer interaction may be limited.

Keywords: Online MA TESOL programs, positional identities, identity construction

As online education continues to grow (Seaman, Allen, & Seaman, 2018), so do the numbers of online language teacher education (OLTE) programs and their graduates (England, 2012; Murray, 2013), resulting in an unprecedented number of language teachers who have received their education partially or fully online. However, although teacher education programs have been shown to play a pivotal role in teachers' identity construction via the discursive space and affordances they provide (e.g., Alsup, 2008; Illieva, 2010), research examining the ways that language teachers' identities may be negotiated online is still quite limited. Teachers' identities have been shown to be tightly connected with the ways they understand and perform their jobs (Miller, 2009; Varghese, Motha, Park, Reeves, & Trent, 2016), meaning that identity development processes that take place during pre-service teacher education are central to shaping future TESOL professionals (Kanno & Stuart, 2011). Therefore, to effectively evaluate OLTE programs and inform future OLTE initiatives, it is important to examine how identity negotiations occur in online educational settings.

To date, the majority of studies in the area of OLTE that discuss identity focus on online coursework (Choi et al., 2016) or collaborations (Chen, 2012; Samburskiy, 2013) that are held within in-person programs. Such studies have begun to highlight

the complexities of online contexts. Although online classes may provide supportive spaces in which teacher candidates may enact and explore their identities within a community of practice (e.g., Cho, 2016), they may also be catalysts for feelings of alienation. For example, individuals in online classes may choose to disengage from discussion when their ideas are challenged (Piro & Anderson, 2018) or feel frustration and anxiety related to interacting with more experienced classmates or those with whom they perceive animosity (Çelik, 2013). In the asynchronous, virtual environment, these distinctions can be difficult to observe and recognize.

Regardless, very few teacher identity studies have been conducted in fully online settings (Delahunty, Verenikina, & Jones, 2014), which have fundamentally different forms of interaction and community development than what may be found in online courses held in otherwise in-person programs. In fully online degree programs, students may live anywhere in the world and may have few opportunities to interact with their classmates or instructor synchronously. As a result, the majority of OLTE programs use fully asynchronous configurations (Murray & Christison, 2017), which rely heavily on written contributions rather than spoken conversation. This creates a novel learning context that has important implications for the ways that teacher candidates discursively construct their identities as burgeoning professionals.

This study begins to fill this important gap in the literature by examining the positional identities that emerge in two teacher candidates enrolled in a fully online MA TESOL program. Using positioning theory (Harré, Moghaddam, Cairnie, Rothbart, & Sabat, 2009; Harré & van Langenhove, 1991, 1999) as a lens, this study seeks to answer the question: How do positional identities form within the discursive context of a fully online, asynchronous language teacher education program?

Theoretical framework

Positioning theory situates the enactment of identities in discursive practices in which individuals become “known characters in shared storylines” (Davies & Harré, 1990, p. 49). Individuals position themselves and others as a cast of characters with associated attributes that propel the “storyline” in which they are embedded (Harré & van Langenhove, 1991, 1999) and help to create a cohesive understanding of each participant’s role within it. As individuals continually reposition themselves and others, they may contest the positions that others take up, resulting in tension and the potential for conflict. In addition, people may *pre-position* themselves and others (Harré, 2012; Harré et al., 2009) by making certain traits, skills, or qualifications clear prior to the interaction as a means of establishing characters at the outset, although these positions may also be contested.

At the heart of positioning theory is the understanding that positions are linked not only to *who* a person may portray him or herself to be but also *how* that person is expected to act within a given storyline as a result. As positions shift, so do the expected behaviors attributed to individuals. Positioning theory also provides a scalar and temporal lens that can be refocused to include how positions may accumulate over time into more stable, prolonged positional identities in which an individual may become a *kind* of person (e.g., Anderson, 2009), or a "compound noun (e.g., silent student)" (Kayi-Aydar, 2019) within a specific context. As individuals interact repeatedly in the same or similar contexts, their positions within accepted storylines become more sedimented.

Anderson (2009) illustrated this process as it unfolded in a mathematics class in which a student's ongoing work gradually positioned him as a "problem" and "not competent" among both his classmates and his instructor, a position that eventually "stuck" (p. 308). Despite the student's increased contributions and participation, he continued to be positioned as a poor student based on previous interactions with others, thereby limiting and essentializing his participation in the class. A broad range of studies have applied positioning theory to language classes (e.g., Nguyen & Yang, 2015; Yoon, 2008) and language teacher identity research (e.g., Haneda & Nespor, 2013; Kayi-Aydar, 2018). However, despite the demonstrated usefulness of positioning theory in educational settings, its application to online educational contexts remains limited (Kayi-Aydar, 2019; but see Dennen, 2007, 2011).

Methods

Participants and context

The data presented in this chapter come from a larger study that examined positioning processes during multiple classes held over two 7.5-week sessions in a fully online MA TESOL degree program at a large Southwestern US university. To allow for a more fine-grained analysis of individuals' interactions over time, data obtained from two participants (referenced by pseudonyms Fernando and Kelly) and their interactions in a single class were isolated as a comparative case study. These participants were chosen from a larger pool of eight teacher candidates due to the distinctly different positional identities that emerged for each during a Methods of TESOL class.

Fernando, a multilingual Mexican-American who had several years of teaching English in the US and China as well as two years of teaching high school science, was teaching at a language college in the US at the time of this study. Kelly, a monolingual military veteran who had previously been stationed abroad and dedicated

her free time to traveling, did not have prior teaching experience but was concurrently pursuing a second bachelor's degree in Early Childhood Education.

The TESOL Methods class, a core requirement for the degree, provided an overview of teaching methodologies and hands-on lesson planning assignments. Teacher candidates were required to post responses to instructor prompts in a text-based, asynchronous discussion board at least once per week and respond to at least one of their classmates. They were allowed to view all of their peers' posts and comment on any post of their choosing. They were also assigned to small groups in which they were required to post two 10-minute teaching demonstration videos and provide feedback to all group members.

Data collection

I collected the data for this study in Spring 2018, and during this time, I immersed myself in the online courses as a silent observer, checking the course site regularly during the semester and maintaining careful field notes and reflective journals (Blommaert & Jie, 2010; Glesne, 2016) as a record of my observations. The TESOL Methods class included eight discussion board postings, two video-recorded teaching demonstrations, and associated peer and instructor feedback on each assignment. I compared course interactions with data from two semi-structured interviews held at the beginning and end of the class. Interviews were approximately one hour long and were held via Skype or Zoom.

Because positional identities develop within complex, multilayered processes that may not be evident or easily extricable without deep contextual knowledge (Depperman, 2015), all findings presented here are grounded within a larger, ethnographically informed understanding of the online program. These data are part of a larger corpus that includes a third interview; course documents, communications, and interviews; and a large collection of additional field notes and reflective journals. Although those data points are not directly discussed in this chapter, they were used to contextualize and triangulate my interpretations of the data.

Data analysis

I used positioning theory as both a theoretical framework and methodological tool in carrying out this study, focusing in particular on the self- and other-positioning that participants engaged in throughout their course interactions as well as their interviews with me. My interest in tracking the development of positional identities over time led me to adopt and adapt the multi-level framework outlined by Anderson (2009). In this analytical framework, the process of position

accumulation is divided into four scales of social practice: (a) *moment-to-moment practices*, or discrete back-and-forth interactions in any given communication event; (b) *characterizations of practice*, or metacommentary about the participation of oneself or others; (c) *patterns of participation*, or “the recognizable reoccurrence of specific kinds of saying and doing” and “what counts as legitimate kinds” (p. 298); and (d) *acts of positioning*, or eventual recognition of individuals as kinds and ensuing access and opportunity, which I here refer to as *positional identities* for the sake of clarity. At each scale, the scope expands from synchronic to diachronic, accounting for the accumulation of interactions over time and the consequences they hold for the positions individuals may take up.

In the class that was the focus of this study, a key form of interaction took place in self-introductory posts; because these posts were the only time teacher candidates were encouraged to speak about themselves directly, it served as an important preliminary form of positioning that may not be as salient in traditional, in-person classes. For that reason, I have added *pre-positioning* to the four-part sequence established previously by Anderson (2009), with pre-positioning taking place as an initial phase (Harré, 2012), creating a positioning cycle that incorporates the five scales and illustrates the recursive nature of positioning and identity construction, as shown in Figure 1.

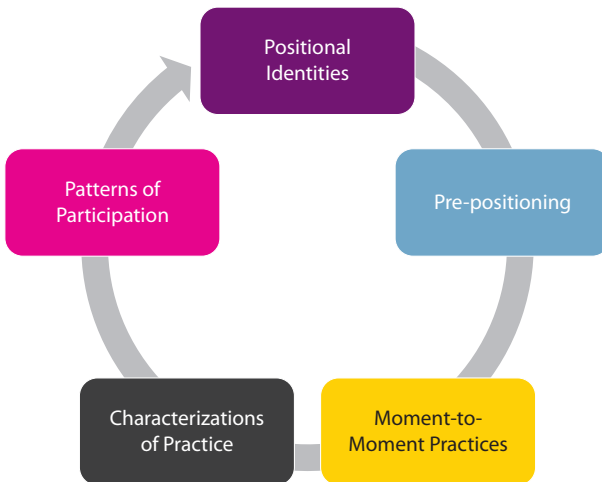


Figure 1. The positioning cycle

I used this five-part positioning cycle to guide my analysis as I traced Kelly and Fernando’s positioning over the course of the class. As I looked across multiple class interactions, I identified shifts and patterns in positioning that resituated their positional identities within the context and storyline of the class. I then compared

these observations with their responses and remarks in our first and second interviews to identify similar shifts and patterns in their interactions with me over the same span of time.

Findings

Pre-positioning

Pre-positioning entails putting forth aspects of the self (or others) as they are hoped to be seen. It is, in essence, providing an introduction to and justification for the particular cast of characters within the storyline at hand. In asynchronous online classes, discussion board posts in which students introduce themselves provide an ideal space for pre-positioning to occur, as this is an opportunity to make first impressions and highlight personal experiences and values assumed to be in alignment with others in the class.

Fernando. Fernando began his introductory post by stating that he was originally from Mexico and spoke Spanish and English, then added that he lived and worked in China for two years and “at the time had a relatively good handle on Mandarin.” After a brief overview of his varied professional background, he listed his relevant teaching experience, making a point to describe three classes he was teaching. He then positioned himself as someone who had a “calling” to the TESOL profession, saying, “I think my life has steered itself toward this job...I think I somehow attracted this job to myself.”

By immediately positioning himself as multilingual, experienced, enthusiastic, and almost mystically connected to the field, he listed a series of highly positive attributes that gave him an aura of expertise and emphasized his deep feeling of alignment with TESOL. His description of the classes he was teaching, along with the repeated usage of the word “job,” highlighted his status as a teacher. Conversely, he positioned himself as a student only once, near the end of the post, in stating, “I have taken two classes in the program and I hope to learn from all of our cohort’s experience, knowledge, and expertise.”

Kelly. As a monolingual who did not have previous formal teaching experience, Kelly opted to introduce herself as someone who was independent and a lover of education and travel:

I like to be my own person and do my own thing. I don’t like to follow the traditional “rules” of society... I absolutely love school and I love learning. I hope to inspire my future students to also love learning. I also love traveling which is what has led me to the TESOL degree. Something interesting about me would be that I am finishing up seeing all 50 states this year! I also will be going to about 13 different countries this summer!

However, she chose not to mention that, unlike many of her peers, she did not have any teaching experience. In doing so, she was able to use the relative anonymity and monologic format of the discussion board, as well as the freedom to speak directly about her experiences, to curate aspects of herself that aligned her with the perceived values of the group. She effectively pre-positioned herself as an *independent-minded lover of education and travel*, attributes that helped situate her within an online community in which many of her peers had also opted not to "follow the traditional 'rules'" and left home to teach abroad. In a similar study, Delahunty (2012) examined the development of "negative identities," (Delahunty, 2012) teacher candidates enrolled in an online course who did not have teaching experience refocused the negative aspect of *lack* to the more positive aspect of *hope* or *desire*, particularly travel. In much the same way, Kelly's post was overwhelmingly positive and enthusiastic, with future-oriented language, exclamation points, and use of emotionally loaded words such as *love*, *hope*, and *inspire*.

Moment-to-moment practices

Moment-to-moment practices are the immediate discursive elements that make up mundane interactions, or "the constant flow of everyday life in which we all take part" (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999, p. 4). In the context of this study, these practices encompass the daily minutiae of online interaction, including the majority of language used in discussion board posts and multimodal interactions.

Fernando. After having pre-positioned himself as an experienced, multilingual teacher, Fernando continued to center his reflexive positioning in these attributes throughout his class interactions. His responses to discussion questions made regular references to his personal experiences as a teacher, primarily using past and present verb tenses as he made connections between the concepts being discussed and reflections on his own professional life. His language was direct and positioned him as a reflective, confident teacher whose current and previous actions aligned with the concepts being presented. Active phrases such as "the paradigm of teaching I follow" kept his professional experience at the forefront.

Fernando's teaching experience also provided him with a base of knowledge from which he drew to be critical of several concepts in the class, both presented in the course materials and brought up by his peers. In responding to a fellow classmate, who had also positioned herself as an *experienced* and *reflective teacher*, he contrasted his personal experience with hers, thereby subtly challenging her positioning. After she posted that she had worked with strategies-based instruction and had found it to be very promising in her teaching context, Fernando responded:

I've done a little bit of one-on-one work and I think it can actually be harder than teaching a group in some respects...Identifying learner's own learning strategies and teaching strategies to learn never really worked for me personally and in my classroom it has only been futile. I've done some work with students to help them identify how to learn and work on teaching strategies for Reading Comprehension (sic), but I feel the information went in one ear and out the other...One-on-one I think it's doable, but in a classroom it's a lot harder.

In the excerpt above, taken from a post in the second week of the class, Fernando began by pre-positioning himself as someone who had taught in both class-based and one-on-one contexts before challenging his classmate's positive outlook by referring to his own experiences trying to teach strategies as "futile" and going "in one ear and out the other." He took care to maintain a polite demeanor by making clear that it had not worked for him "personally," but in doing so, he drew attention to his varied experiences as a teacher, including his reflection on methods he had used but not found effective. Because the classmate whose work he was responding to had previously established a position as one of the most experienced teachers in the class with a strong comprehension of the subject matter and an academic mindset, his challenge to her opinion interactively positioned him as her *professional/intellectual equal*. She accepted this position in her response, in which she thanked him for his insights and agreed that this method may be more appropriate in some contexts than others. Crucially, the nature of the online discussion forum, with its permanence on a screen, reinforced the positioning that took place through this interaction; not only was the exchange visible to all class participants during the remainder of the module, but the fact that the exchange occurred on an early post meant that it was prominently located at the top of the screen each time students opened the forum.

Kelly. In the fully online, asynchronous setting, which had few opportunities for informal, non-academic communication between peers, the positions that teacher candidates were able to enact after the self-introductory post were embedded almost entirely within responses to course assignments. The class emphasis on reflection on and connections with previous experiences in teaching or learning a language provided few opportunities for less experienced, monolingual teachers such as Kelly to draw upon the varied areas of expertise and congruence (Hughes, 2007) they had included in their initial posts. Although Kelly was initially able to avoid discussing her monolingualism and lack of teaching experience, subsequent discussion prompts that asked teacher candidates to directly reflect on their own language teaching and learning experiences forced her to confront this lack, thereby bringing her background as an inexperienced language teacher and learner to the surface:

One principle that I believe will be very effective for my future students' learning is 'transfer'... I have very limited knowledge of teaching or learning a second language, but I am trying to learn Spanish.... As I stated, I have very limited experience with teaching or learning a second language, but I do believe this principle/technique will be highly useful for me in the future, both as a teacher and as a learner.

In the excerpt above, written at the end of the second week of the class, Kelly struggled to reposition herself positively in relation to her experiences and instead relied upon future-oriented language as she envisioned herself as both a future teacher and language learner. Her repeated description of her knowledge as being "very limited" diminished the congruent identity (Hughes, 2007) she brought to the class as a frequent traveler and lover of education and instead positioned her as a novice with few experiences from which to draw as she worked to understand the course material.

In a class-wide asynchronous discussion forum such as the one in this class, students are able to select any of their classmates' posts for comment. With this freedom to choose, Kelly typically chose to respond to discussion posts written by classmates who had positioned themselves as having similarly low levels of formal teaching experience. She opted not to interact regularly with classmates whose positioning identified them as experienced and knowledgeable. Despite commenting almost exclusively on the posts of fellow inexperienced teachers, she continually positioned herself as someone who was *actively learning from her classmates* and *in admiration* of their contributions. In the below excerpt from the third week in the class, she effusively and uncritically praised the work of one of her classmates while again bringing her own lack of teaching experience to the forefront:

Very interesting post! I cannot wait until I get a job teaching English as a second language. I believe it will be so fulfilling to see students learn the new language. You offer such a great idea for teaching English to people that have varying degrees of knowledge of the language.

Here, Kelly maintained the sense of enthusiasm for teaching and future-oriented language found in her previous posts, but she positioned herself within the overall storyline not only as someone *inexperienced* but also as someone who "cannot wait" to have the experiences that many of her peers discussed. In doing so, Kelly positioned even her less experienced classmates as being more knowledgeable and having more valuable contributions.

Characterizations of practice

Characterizations of practice are quite prevalent in educational settings due to the important role that evaluation and constructive criticism plays. In this study, particularly evident characterizations of practice are provided by both the instructor

and peers as feedback response to two assigned teaching demonstration videos and self-reflections. These “micro-teaching” assignments were due by the end of the third and sixth week of the class. The demonstration videos, as well as instructor and peer feedback, were visible to all students for the remainder of the course. Unlike negative feedback in a traditional class, which may be ephemeral or a private exchange between the instructor and student, the permanence of this feedback within the course site provided a continual characterization of teacher candidates’ work, further reinforcing the positions that were accumulating.

Fernando. Fernando received high praise for both of his videos, and his classmates’ responses in the present tense showed that they accepted and bolstered his position as not only an experienced but also a good teacher:

“You have a lot of charisma, and your passion for what you are doing is evident... your students are lucky to have you.” (Video #1)

“You have good energy and a natural gift for teaching. This all shines through your lesson. I imagine your students love your class.” (Video #2)

“It was wonderful watching your lesson. I can imagine the amount of energy you must bring to your classes, and I find it infectious.” (Video #2)

Tellingly, none of his classmates offered constructive criticism or other guidance for how to improve his lesson; instead, all feedback was purely positive. The instructor’s comments on his lessons were also positive, and he positioned Fernando as a technology expert from whom he could learn as well, asking in response to the first video, “Did you develop the animation yourself, or is it something we can just download from a source?” Fernando’s position as a *good teacher*, one from whom even the class instructor could learn, began to sediment strongly.

In the midst of the effusive praise, Fernando attempted to reposition himself as someone who was struggling with teaching despite his success in this assignment, responding to his classmates’ feedback, “I always think my teaching is a constant work in progress. To be honest, sometimes I think I don’t know what I’m doing” and “all my planning is just a shot in the dark.” He expressed similar sentiment in his responses to peer work, regularly commenting on the ways that the posts written by more experienced teachers were enlightening and helped him grow as a professional. Nevertheless, when juxtaposed with the prominent praise of Fernando’s work as a permanent fixture within the course site, Fernando’s repeated contestations of the *good teacher* position via his attempts to reposition himself as a *work in progress* did little to change his accumulated position of a *good teacher* who did not need corrective feedback.

Kelly. Reactions to Kelly’s teaching videos were primarily negative. Her classmates pointed out in both videos that the level of language she was using was too high for language learners, while the instructor focused on her lack of a clear lesson

plan or learning objectives. In the second video, after providing an extensive list of suggestions for improvement, the instructor drew attention to her lack of teaching experience, stating, "I know you may not have the experience to come up with this information, but you would benefit from at least imagining it." Although both Kelly's classmates and instructor used kind and supportive language, they clearly positioned her as *inexperienced*, *unprepared*, and *lacking basic knowledge* that she needed in order to succeed. As was the case with the praise that Fernando received, the criticism of Kelly's work was visible to all students and remained in place during the remainder of the course.

In her written reflection on her teaching demonstration, Kelly positioned herself in relation to her mistakes, restating the criticisms she received and repeatedly using the phrase "could have" to discuss aspects of her teaching that the feedback recommended to be carried out differently. She again positioned herself in contrast to her peers due to her lack of teaching experience:

My greatest challenge...would be the lack of experience. I have no experience teaching students in the American school system, let alone being an ESL teacher.

Here, Kelly placed multiple barriers between herself and success as a language teacher: having any teaching experience at all and being able to translate this teaching experience to work with language learners. Her previous refocusing on her attributes of *independence* and *love of education and travel* were no longer evident in her reflexive positioning at this point in the class. Instead, she wrote her reflection from the position of someone who was an *inexperienced teacher*, but perhaps more importantly, as a *deficient student* in relation to her peers. She focused on the ways that her lack of teaching experience hindered her ability to connect with course materials and develop appropriate lesson plans on par with what she saw from her classmates. The class's emphasis on performance of teaching expertise, combined with the online setting's limited opportunities for Kelly to position herself as a dynamic and multifaceted individual with strengths outside of teaching experience, had shone a harsh light on her weaknesses and marginalized her contributions and lived experiences. Additionally, the strong public criticism she received from her instructor and peers served as lingering evidence of these weaknesses, an indelible mark that remained uncontested alongside her work.

Patterns of participation

As patterns emerge and positional identities begin to take shape, acts that reinforce accumulated positions begin to "count" more strongly (Anderson, 2009), as they uphold the emerging storyline of *who is who*. In other words, people begin to see one another through the lens of the positions they have come to hold, and

individuals are more closely aligned with associated expectations for behavior, access, legitimacy, and status.

Fernando. Despite Fernando's contestations of his position as a *good teacher*, his self-positioning as *experienced* in his discussion board postings and responses to peers counted strongly influenced how others interacted with him. In our first interview, he described himself as an "academic" and the "nerd in the class" who was "driven to show how much [he knew]." As a result, although he made little reference to his position as a student in his discussion posts, the content of Fernando's posts positioned him as someone who was conscientious, reflective, knowledgeable, and diligent in relation to his course work; in effect, they positioned him as a *good student*.

In addition, the timing of his posts presented another affordance to be positioned as a *good student*. He worked well ahead of the rest of the class, typically completing his discussion posts days before the due date. Although such advance work may be largely invisible in an in-person class, the design of the online course highlighted the work of those who completed their work earlier. As was the case with his interaction with a fellow experienced teacher, his posts were at the top of the forum. The combination of timing and visual salience resulted in each of his posts receiving multiple positive responses from classmates, embedding his work within a halo of praise. As a result, his efforts to be a *good student* further sedimented his position as a *good teacher*.

By the final discussion board post, which was due the sixth week of class, Fernando had fully accumulated the position of a *good teacher*. Responses to his postings extended their praise to Fernando's work as a teacher overall, as can be seen in his classmates' responses:

"You are such a great example of a passionate teacher and so detailed in everything you discuss...Really impressive. Thank you for all you've shared with us!"

"I really love your enthusiasm. You seem to have a love for teaching and a way of keeping your students guessing."

Although one student offered a mild critique of the lesson, it was immediately qualified with recognition of his professional experience in stating, "every teacher knows their class best."

Kelly. By the last discussion post, Kelly's accumulated position as *inexperienced teacher* and self-positioning as a *deficient student* had affected her strategies for completing coursework. Because she was able to see all of her classmates' discussion board posts, she increasingly began to look to them for guidance on how to successfully complete assignments. In doing so, she began posting to the discussion boards later so she could incorporate her classmates' ideas into her own work. In our second interview, I asked her about this pattern. She responded:

I just like, watch their videos and then you know, judge myself, reflect upon myself, whatever, based off their videos and also off the teacher's comments.

By waiting for her classmates to complete their work, Kelly was often one of the last to post her discussions and responses. In contrast to Fernando, Kelly's late postings appeared at the bottom of a long string of other posts, which led to her receiving less feedback from her classmates. As a result, she did not engage in any back-and-forth responses with classmates as Fernando frequently did. Whereas a pattern emerged in which Fernando became more visible as the class progressed, Kelly's pattern instead became one in which her delayed interaction made her increasingly *invisible* to her classmates.

Positional identities

The positioning processes discussed above accumulated into positional identities that both Fernando and Kelly recognized and aligned with during our second interview, which took place shortly after the end of the Methods of TESOL class.

Fernando. By the end of the class, Fernando's regular references to his language teaching and learning experiences, confident-sounding and academic contributions, and high visibility as an active student had positioned him clearly as both a *good student* and a *good teacher*. However, in our second interview, he disassociated the two positions and reiterated his resistance to the positional identity of a *good teacher*:

I feel like it's a false sense of approval. When you get these kind of comments, you know, very positive comments, I don't know if I'm actually that good...I would place myself as kind of like, on the beginning spectrum of teaching. And that goes back to the sense where everybody, you know, gives positive feedback. How? Like, what is the depth behind that positivity?

Fernando struggled to reconcile actions that he associated with being a *good student* with the lack of overall constructive criticism he received from others. He felt that he had much more to learn from many of them who were more experienced than he had been, but that their lack of criticality had limited his access to their knowledge and expertise. Whereas his self-positioning as an *experienced teacher* and *good student* gave him the legitimacy he needed to be able to critique the work of others and provide guidance, this positioning, strengthened by the permanence and visual salience of his posts and the positive feedback he received, appears to have limited others' perceived legitimacy to do the same for him.

Kelly. Kelly's posts throughout the class positioned her sequentially as *future-oriented lover of education and travel*, then *inexperienced yet enthusiastic teacher*,

then *inexperienced teacher* and *deficient student*, and finally as *nearly invisible* as her delayed posts were buried at the bottom of a long list of discussions. By the end of the class, she stated that, despite her initial enthusiasm, she had replicated the position she often took up in her in-person classes, where she was “always sitting in the back of the class” with limited interaction with her classmates. The discussion boards’ narrow focus on teaching methodology privileged those with more teaching experience, and by the same token, limited her ability to position herself as a multifaceted individual with valuable insights drawn from non-teaching experiences. Rather than providing opportunities for Kelly to gain access to the community of her more experienced peers, it emphasized what she viewed as deficiencies and alienated her from the group.

In our second interview, she admitted that she had felt confident prior to receiving feedback on her first teaching video, but that afterward, she felt as if she was “at a disadvantage” compared with her classmates.

I’m a student. I’ve never even [taught] in a classroom, and other people are teaching overseas already. Other people are teaching in the US, in second language classes...I feel like other people do have more knowledge of what they’re doing, you know, making the videos and stuff. They kind of know what’s more appropriate, whereas I don’t.

Kelly’s strong identification with the positions of the *deficient student* and *inexperienced teacher* became a lens through which she understood her place in the class – as needing to follow the lead of others – and this resulted in patterns that further isolated her from meaningful feedback on her work. In our second interview, when I asked her to reflect on the class as a whole, she found it difficult to pinpoint specific ways she had grown as a professional, saying instead, “I’m just happy I made it through.”

Discussion

The distinctions between the positions that emerged for Fernando and Kelly help to illuminate the very different experiences that teacher candidates may have during the course of a single class and the ways that these experiences may impact identity construction. Importantly however, their experiences within the specific context of an asynchronous discussion board provide insight into how positions may accumulate in different ways in this online format than what may be seen in traditional classrooms, as well as how these positions may be more difficult to contest. Fernando’s pre-positioning and subsequent moment-to-moment positioning solidified him as an *experienced* and *good teacher* and *good student* not in need

of criticism even though he repeatedly signaled that he wanted it, while Kelly's increased self-positioning as an *inexperienced teacher* and *deficient student* shook her confidence and led to patterns of participation that began isolating her from the group.

The experiences of Fernando and Kelly indicate an important implication for online teacher education programs. Fully online, asynchronous classes that limit opportunities for interaction and positioning beyond responding to assignments may lead to the accumulation of more static and one-dimensional positional identities, even when individuals attempt to contest those identities. In this case, a class that was designed primarily to develop and assess teaching ability disproportionately strengthened the social capital of those who accumulated positional identities as *experienced teachers* and disproportionately diminished that of *less experienced teachers*. This echoes Hughes's (2007) paradoxes of online education: In online classes, there is an inverse relationship between structure and the diversity of perspectives that are accepted, leading to a sharp divide between inclusion and exclusion. Those who have identities congruent with the class are included, while those who do not are held at the margins.

The strict structure of this class funneled nearly all interaction into asynchronous, evaluated assignments that emphasized teaching methodology. A clear focus on course content and assessment may be useful in traditional classroom settings, but in fully online contexts, this structure can be profoundly limiting. Unlike traditional classroom settings in which informal, non-evaluated interactions surround instruction, fully online settings often have limited opportunities for students to interact socially outside of class. Without additional opportunities for teacher candidates to reposition themselves as dynamic individuals with a range of valuable experiences, this created an imbalanced power dynamic that not only privileged the identities and perspectives of experienced teachers but also mired both experienced and less experienced teachers into static positions that they were then unable to contest successfully.

The positional identities of both experienced and less experienced teachers are rife with tension, which may have important implications for how teacher candidates construct their identities during their degree program and beyond. The positional identities that Fernando and Kelly accumulated shaped not only the ways they understood themselves in relation to their peers and the course content, but also the storyline within which they were embedded. Fernando's position as an *experienced* and *good teacher* elevated him beyond the perceived expertise of many of his classmates, but the ensuing lack of constructive criticism limited opportunities for professional growth. Conversely, Kelly's very public struggle to draw on her experiences outside of teaching accumulated into a positional identity as a *deficient student* in comparison with her classmates, eventually resulting in a participation

pattern that, due to the timing and location of her posts, made her contributions increasingly invisible. In a similar study of an online course by Çelik (2013), less experienced teachers reported feeling reluctance to post, as they believed that doing so would expose them to criticism from more experienced peers. This reluctance, seen in Kelly's delaying of her own work, may have succeeded in protecting her from criticism, but it also deprived her of the ability to receive adequate feedback and interact with her classmates as a member of the community. Her eventual contributions, and the lack of peer engagement they received, also illustrate a unique challenge created by the design of discussion forums: unlike traditional classroom discussions, students may actively contribute to the conversation and yet remain largely invisible.

Teacher candidates, regardless of class context, need the ability to interact with one another in ways that allow them to draw upon multiple areas of expertise as they position themselves within the class context. However, it is important to recognize that the nature of fully online classes gives rise to an increased potential for static positioning that may limit opportunities for growth and change. Offering a variety of modalities for interaction, including asynchronous and informal, non-evaluated options, may allow teacher candidates to position themselves in more dynamic ways than is possible in a uniform series of discussion posts or teaching videos developed in response to instructor-created prompts. Likewise, where asynchronous discussion posts are assigned, any potential to privilege certain identities over others should be kept in mind. Because the goal of a successful asynchronous discussion board is to provide a safe and supportive forum for critical reflection and debate (Verenikina, Jones, & Delahunty, 2017), all participants, regardless of prior experience, need to feel that their perspectives are valued and legitimate. The design of prompts for such assignments may, for example, directly encourage teacher candidates to incorporate the multitude of non-teaching experiences that they bring with them to the classroom, such as travel, advocacy work, parenthood, or those in which aspects of their identities such as race, gender, or sexual orientation have played a role.

The positional identities that each participant had by the end of the class represent two distinct patterns that developed over multiple interactions. As identity construction is an ongoing, diachronic process, research in this area should consider multiple interactions over time for a more nuanced depiction of positioning and identity development processes as a whole. Although positioning theory and the four-part positioning matrix put forth by Anderson (2009) informed the analysis for this study, additional research is needed to examine how positioning analyses may be effectively applied to multiple scales of time and context, particularly in online settings in which non-academic, non-evaluated opportunities for positioning oneself may be limited.

As a comparative case study involving only two participants engaged in work for a single course, the findings here are not meant to be generalizable but instead serve as an exploratory look at how identity construction may occur in fully online teacher education programs. As more classes and degree programs are offered online, more research in this area is essential to ensure that teacher candidates receiving their degrees online are afforded the same level of support and opportunity for growth those enrolled in traditional, in-person programs.

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Gameful teaching

Exploring language teacher identity and agency through video games

Gergana Vitanova, Emily Johnson, Sandra Sausa, Amy Giroux
and Don Merritt

The chapter investigates how the identity and agency of a language teacher are constructed through the use of a suite of videogames originally designed for vocabulary practice, called ELLE: the EndLess LEarner. A unique aspect is that the teacher had the rare opportunity to contribute to the game development and to be one of its first testers in its multiple versions. Using reflections, autobiographical interviews, and journal entries, the chapter illuminates how this teacher's perceptions and pedagogical values evolved in relation to the game. Her agency as an instructor, an expert in her discipline, and an emergent gamer were strongly intertwined. The findings also show that she employed the game as a technological tool to achieve socially situated goals.

Keywords: teacher identity, teacher agency, gameful teaching, game development

Scholars have emphasized that the construct of teacher identity entails more than how teachers perceive themselves (Kayı-Aydar, 2015; Pennington & Richards, 2016; Varghese et al., 2005). Rather, it is constructed and negotiated in response to specific contextual and institutional factors. In other words, teacher identity and agency are situational, relational, and interactional (Miller, 2009). The interactions may involve students, co-workers, and administrators, but because of advances in digital technology, online interaction may occur as well. Advances in digital technology have generated an interest in the use of games in second/foreign language learning (Reinhardt, 2017). Many studies have focused on language learners' interactions in commercial and massively multiplayer online role-play games (MMORPGs) (Thorne, 2008; Vosburg, 2017). However, the complex intersections between language teacher identity and the use of games in language classrooms remain unexplored, and research on teaching identity and gaming, in general, is just beginning to emerge (Blume, 2020; Shaw, 2011).

This chapter explores the identity and its related agentic experiences of a foreign language teacher, who is also one of the co-authors of this chapter. This paper reflects only one aspect of a larger, interdisciplinary project undertaken at a public university in Florida. The project originated when the authors of the chapter met to discuss the development, implementation, and research of a new educational video game *ELLE (the EndLessLEarner)*; hereafter *ELLE*). While the game could easily be adapted to the needs of any language, including English as a second language (L2), it was originally designed for learners of Portuguese.

This chapter focuses on how one teacher of Portuguese courses in a university setting constructs her teacher identity and agency through the use of the *ELLE* video game suite. A unique aspect of the project stems from the language teacher's rare opportunity to contribute to the game development and to be one of its first testers in multiple versions (computer-based, virtual reality (VR), and a mobile mode). In this sense, she became a teacher-researcher.

Through the use of teacher reflections, interviews, and journal entries, the chapter examines one teacher's perceptions and how these evolve as responses to her use of *ELLE* in her classroom. It also looks at the intersections of her teacher and disciplinary identities with her emergent gamer identity (Shaw, 2011). Chik (2012) argues that games can promote autonomous learning, and thus, may increase agency. By analyzing the narrative experiences of the language teacher, the chapter aims to illustrate the ways in which gameful teaching can facilitate teachers' agentic practices.

Language teacher identity and agency

While it is difficult to come up with a single definition for teacher identity, educators acknowledge that it is unique and autobiographical (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). At the same time, it is also a construct that is negotiated over time within specific institutional contexts and co-constructed with other agents. Pennington and Richards (2016) outline several foundational competences of language teacher identity: language-related identity, disciplinary identity, context-related identity, self-knowledge and awareness, and student-related identity. Language-related identity involves the linguistic competence a teacher may have. Disciplinary identity refers to both the disciplinary knowledge and the pedagogical content knowledge of the teacher, and student-related identity entails the ways a teacher interacts with students both as individuals and learner groups. Teachers' professional awareness also includes beliefs and values, which are informed by theories and personal experience. These all interact in dynamic ways and are mediated by teachers' social and discursive experiences.

Singh and Richards (2006) recognize the multiple factors that shape language teachers' worlds as they suggest that teacher identity is "woven through the ideologies, discourses, contents and approaches of the course, and the individual teacher's own desire to find meaning in becoming a teacher" (p. 152). Similarly, Kanno and Stuart (2011) analyze how novice language teachers begin to view themselves as professionals. They emphasize that teacher identities are discursively constructed and are better viewed as "enacted in practice" (p. 238). Although scholars have used various theoretical approaches to account for language teacher identity, as Varghese et al. (2005) summarize in their article, the most recent perspectives entail an understanding of identity as "multiple, shifting, and in conflict" as well as "crucially related to social, cultural, and political context" (p. 35).

The inveterate link between identity and agency is highlighted in all areas of social and cultural studies (Holland et al., 1998), and in recent years, the concept of agency has become significant to language teacher educators as well (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Kayi-Aydar et al., 2019). Not unlike identity, human agency is not individual, but inherently social. Although agency is elusive and resists definition, Priestley, Biesta, and Robinson (2015) offer a helpful summary:

The main distinctive factor is that agency involves intentionality, the capacity to formulate possibilities for action, active consideration of such possibilities and the exercise of choice. It also includes the causative properties of contextual factors – social and material structures and cultural forms that influence human behavior – which is why [...] a full understanding of agency must consider how individual capacity interplays with contextual factors. (p. 22)

Their statement details with Archer's (2000) understanding that agency requires the element of reflexivity. It also entails different contextual factors, "including social, spatial, material, cultural, temporal, relational, and structural" (Larsen-Freeman, 2019, p. 62).

Given the complexity of teacher agency, multiple interdisciplinary approaches have been employed in its analysis and ecological perspectives have become fairly dominant. Priestley, Biesta, and Robinson (2015) provide a framework that includes three major dimensions: *iterational*, *projective*, and *practical-evaluative*. The *iterational* dimension of teacher agency involves a range of skills and knowledge, personal and professional beliefs, and values. *Disciplinary* education may be only one aspect of teachers' lives; their interactions with colleagues or other agents at their schools are significant as well. The *projective* dimension of teacher agency refers to teachers' potential, future goals and aspirations, which could be both short and long term. The *practical-evaluative* dimension refers to their everyday working environment. It may involve day-to-day practical choices, but Priestley et al. acknowledge that emotions could also be part of teachers' decision-making processes. The

latter is important because emotions could be powerful in career-making choices or daily pedagogical practices in the classroom. The ecological perspectives on teacher agency accept that agency is not only emergent, but also dialogical and contextual.

Gameful learning and teaching

Games have been used as tools for learning throughout history (e.g., Vankúš, 2005). The ability of games to create hypothetical environments where consequences are minimal is referred to as a “psychosocial moratorium” (Erikson, 1968, p. 156). Similarly, scholars have labeled the specialized rules followed during any given game as the magic circle (Huizinga, 1955). In this magic circle, players agree to abide by different social norms and rules than they would in their normal, daily lives, affording otherwise socially inappropriate behavior and a make-believe world constructed around the idea of play. The term “game” is defined by game scholars Salen and Zimmerman (2004), who state that a game must include the *artificial* world of the magic circle, specified *rules*, *conflict* and *quantifiable outcomes* (achieving the game’s goal or not; winning against someone else; earning a score of some kind, etc.). Reinhardt (2019) investigates the definition of *game* from three different perspectives, “a collection of rules, a narrative, and ultimately, a form of media that is part of larger ecologies of culture” (p. 78).

Because of the motivational affordances of games, which some go so far as to claim are addictive (Bean et al. 2017), educators have sought to leverage games for educational purposes (Eichenbaum et al., 2014; Gee, 2003). The use of game mechanics such as reward systems in contexts outside of games is called *gamification* (e.g., Deterding et al., 2011). The term *gamification* can carry a stigma of applying game-like elements to activities retroactively, such as awarding prizes for classwork that would have been assigned anyway (Bogost, 2014). *Gameful* is defined by Deterding et al. (2011) as having experiential and behavioral qualities of a game – similar to the word *playful*. We use the descriptor *gameful* in this chapter to denote the playful nature of incorporating a videogame into a language learning classroom to compliment typical face-to-face instruction.

Although video games have become popular in the last couple of decades, research on how language teachers engage with them is still emerging. Most of the research and instruction involving gaming in L2 learning today have focused on commercial games, which Reinhardt (2017) explains as partially due to an initial lack of games specifically developed for language teaching in the early years of computer assisted language learning (CALL).

Many studies in this area have employed sociocultural approaches (Peterson, 2012; Peterson, 2016; Rama et al., 2012). Peterson (2016), for instance, conducted

a meta-analysis of studies that used MMORPGs and adopted cognitive and sociocultural perspectives. Peterson concludes that the research conducted from a sociocultural perspective “provide[s] evidence to suggest that regular participation in MMORPG-based gaming provides learners with access to highly engaging contexts for target language interaction involving collaboration, exposure to zones of proximal development and language socialization” (p. 1192). While Peterson confirms the relevance of both cognitive and sociocultural perspectives, he also states that the relevance of cognitive constructs still needs to be established and explored better in relation to MMORPGs.

In a specific example of a study that uses sociocultural theory to analyze the use of video games as tools that provide immersive environments for negotiation of meaning, Thorne (2008) examined the interaction between a Ukrainian gamer and a native speaker of English, and he emphasized the potential for videogames to encourage goal-oriented activities. Similarly, Peterson (2012) utilized a sociocultural perspective to examine English language learners’ language usage and attitudes toward gaming in an English-based MMORPG environment called *Wonderland*. The analysis examined features of politeness as well as means of maintaining intersubjectivity. The study demonstrated that the participants’ attitudes toward the game were positive although they found the learning curve of mastering the game somewhat difficult. Other studies (Connolly et al., 2011; Suh et al., 2010) explored the connection between video games and motivation. They argued that video games could help increase motivation and learner autonomy.

Despite the growing attention to the role of video games in language learning, there is little understanding of how gaming can impact the identities and agency of teachers. Moreover, according to Molin (2017), “teachers who are interested in game-based learning are often facing several challenges that make a meaningful and effective implementation of game-based learning in the classroom difficult” (p. 653). Some of the challenges identified by Molin’s review of the sparse literature are the limited time they have to play a game in their practices, the lack of knowledge about digital games, difficulties when choosing appropriate games, and the lack of support by the administration for their gameful activities. Molin argues that digital games can provide teachers with opportunities to empower their existing professional identities and increase their sense of agency: “Games should not only be seen as a tool to support teacher’s teaching but also empower teacher’s professional identity as active and self-creating subjects” (p. 658).

Chik (2012) drew on a qualitative project on digital games in foreign language learning teaching by investigating the in-service language teachers in Eastern Asia. While teachers in the study were aware of the popularity of digital gaming among their students, they were not convinced of its pedagogical values and potential benefits. Of the thirty-two teachers who participated, only two had played MMORPGs

on a regular basis and some even expressed the belief that games could be wasteful. Chik found that the non-gamer language teachers viewed games mostly as a source of linguistic input and as an activity that should be viewed as independent. For gamer-teachers, the gameplay itself was a powerful motivation to encourage students to practice their English skills. Ultimately, teachers' perceptions of the role of digital gaming depended on their own life histories and experience with various games. Chik discovered that gaming helped foster learner autonomy but also emphasized the caveat that gameplay in the humanities is still in its infancy.

Although games could be effective tools in increasing motivation and autonomy, Blume's (2020) study of the beliefs of pre-service English language teachers in a German university found that her participants may not necessarily be prepared to employ them. Blume surveyed 220 students who were enrolled in an English language teaching program. The participants were asked how often they used digital media in their own language learning practices as well as about their perceptions of digital games. Although the student-teachers were viewed as digital natives by the researcher, the findings indicated that the majority played digital games rarely or never when compared to the general population. Blume concluded that, even though the participants displayed general positive attitudes towards digital games, the exact nature of the interaction between teachers' perceptions of English learning strategies, self-efficiency, and games remains unclear and needs further research.

Shaffer et al. (2015) have discussed how technology and digital tools change teachers' professionalization practices and their more traditional roles in the classroom by helping them decentralize their positions. They argue that teachers face a new type of professionalization, in which they will need to learn how to evaluate digital tools effectively, foster a different type of relationship with students, and seek the appropriate support from schools and administrations. These studies on language teaching and video games, limited as they still are, point to important directions for language teacher identity and agency research as well.

Methods

Context and data

Teacher identity is introspective and reflective. "Reflection is recognized as a key means by which teachers can become more in tune with their sense of self and with a deep understanding of how this self fits into a larger context which involves others," write Beauchamp and Thomas (2009, p. 180). Scholars in language teacher education (Johnson & Golombek 2002; Kayi-Aydar 2015; Vitanova, 2016) have long

recognized that narratives are valuable in the analysis of teacher identity and agency practices. De Costa (2015) terms this the “narrative turn” in teacher identity work. Thus, narrative inquiry seemed especially appropriate for this paper, which focuses on the autobiographical experiences of a language teacher and a participant in this project. In this section, we describe the game *ELLE*, the participant-teacher, and the data collection for this particular aspect of the project.

ELLE description

The authors of the paper met in 2017 to discuss an interdisciplinary project which would involve the creation of a video game specifically designed for language learning purposes: *ELLE, the EndLess Learner*, was designed to be a modular game that was equally a language acquisition tool and research tool. *ELLE* is the result of interdisciplinary collaboration of faculty and staff from four different departments across the university and was developed by several groups of undergraduates in two different departments. The game platform is connected to a database that houses vocabulary terms in a variety of formats: image, English text, foreign text, and foreign audio. Terms are uploaded to the database through a user-friendly website where anyone with access can upload new terms in any of the formats listed above. The game pulls terms from the database and presents them to the player in the game in a randomized order. The game also records player gameplay data to the database, which can be accessed by researchers.

At the time of writing, this game had undergone several rounds of modifications since its first iteration and included ten individual games playable on three different platforms: virtual reality (VR), PC, and mobile devices – 2D, 3D, and augmented reality (AR). Isolated laboratory studies indicate that the early versions of the game were effective in teaching players vocabulary terms in isolation and that the players appreciated the variety of formats and randomized order of the terms (Johnson et al., in press).

Data collection and participant

Sandra, one of the co-authors of this chapter, currently teaches Portuguese language courses at a large public university. She holds a Ph.D. in Portuguese and Brazilian Studies and has published extensively in her field. Sandra identifies as a white female, who grew up in a small town approximately 50 minutes away from Lisbon, Portugal. She had taught language courses before she obtained her B.A. in Portuguese Language and Culture in her home country. Since then, she has taught language classes at several large universities in the United States. She describes

herself as someone who had never played video games before she was invited to participate in the interdisciplinary project to design the language game *ELLE* and to research its effects on language learning. She agreed to use her Portuguese courses to test the game and employ it as a digital tool for her students. The initial goal of the project was not to investigate Sandra's own teaching practices. However, over the two years of this project development, several issues of her teacher identity and agency emerged as the result of the game creation and its subsequent use by Sandra herself and her students.

Recent trends in language teaching research have demonstrated that narrative inquiry is a powerful qualitative method (Kayi-Aydar, 2015) and that interviews are valuable sources of narratives in investigating teacher identities and teacher agency (Vitanova, 2013). We have followed these trends when we considered Sandra's own constructions of identity and agency. Our data collection and analysis undoubtedly benefited from the longitudinal nature of the project, as it allowed Sandra to reflect on her experience from the inception of the game to its current development. The narrative excerpts that are used in this chapter come from the following sources: two interviews, a written autobiographical reflection, and several journal entries that followed Sandra's use of the video game.

One of us (Gergana) met with Sandra to conduct the interviews over the period of a year. The first interview lasted two hours, and the two follow-up interviews lasted an hour each. The interviews were recorded and later transcribed for the purposes of the analysis. We have to acknowledge that we, as Sandra's co-authors and colleagues, had the advantage of being able to ask clarifying questions not only during the interviews but also via email and in other professional interactions as well as share our observations about her role in the project with her.

Data analysis

Clandinin and Connelly (2000) explain that "an inquirer [...] looks for the patterns, narrative threads, tensions, and themes either within or across an individual's experience and in the social setting" (p. 132). Our narrative analysis probed these threads and tensions. The reflection, interviews, and journal entries underwent multiple stages of coding. They were first examined for Sandra's general beliefs about language teaching and the social environment that shaped them. After these emergent patterns were identified, our attention shifted more explicitly on the themes of her teacher agency. The longitudinal process of data collection was instrumental in allowing us to zero in on how teacher agency and identity were connected to the use of *ELLE* as she experienced the game in her own classes. For example, this is how the theme of the intersection of teacher identity and player agency emerged. Although there were multiple stages of analysis, the process was

not linear but remained recursive and fluid. Finally, the interpretation of the narrative excerpts was informed by our theoretical frameworks and the existing literature on video games in language learning and teaching.

Findings

The following section illustrates how Sandra's professional beliefs, identity, and a perception of agency have shifted over the years, and how these are mediated by past personal experiences and various interactions with others. We consider these important to articulate before we introduce more explicitly her use of the video game; Sandra's underlying social and pedagogical values intersect with her emergent gamer identity and the ways they informed her interaction with the video game as a language teacher.

“I used to be very traditional”: Looking back, moving forward

Beliefs are a core aspect of agentic teachers' practices (Kayi-Aydar, 2019). Sandra started her teaching journey in 1997 while she was still working on her B.A. degree in Portuguese Language and Culture in her native country, Portugal, where she taught Portuguese to foreign students. She recalls that she did not receive any specific instruction on pedagogy at that time. Rather, she was learning how to teach the language by observing and “imitating.” Sandra noted in her written reflection that these early classes she taught were “pretty much passive” and focused on grammar explanations. It was only after she started teaching as a graduate assistant at a university in the United States – and through interactions with her supervisor and colleagues – that she realized her classes were “centered on the role of the teacher, myself, instead of on the role of the students.” Sandra described some of her memories as a student herself and how they affected her shifting teacher beliefs in one of the narrative excerpts in her interview:

I remember when I was a student [...] looking at some of my professors and they would come with these notebooks, already yellow, and you could tell that were not innovating anything at all. And they would just teach you from the notes that they had for probably the past 20 years also. So they were not putting any effort and I remember thinking [...] How come they can always be doing the same thing? And just, come here in front of us and look at the notes and talk about whatever the subject was. And that, at that point, probably I still didn't even know that I was going to become a teacher, but that moved something inside me. I really don't know what I was thinking, but I remember, I still have this image of this notebook, and that made me uncomfortable. [...] And at that time I made a few promises. I always promised, “I don't want to become like this.”

These early lived experiences affirmed Sandra's belief of what kind of teacher identity she rejected. Although Sandra did not take any language teaching courses as part of her coursework as a graduate student, over the years and in different institutions, she participated in numerous teaching workshops. The acquisition of professional discourses is an aspect of teacher agency, and Sandra invested in developing her pedagogical skills actively and consciously. These teaching workshops, themed "How to be an effective instructor" and "The best methods of teaching" were helpful. At the same time, she admits that they left her puzzled:

In order to improve myself and my teaching skills, I have attended many lectures on how to teach [...] and I always leave a bit puzzled with the answers on offer, as if we are talking about what is the best product on the market or what is the best car. I am not dismissing of the idea that some approaches are actually better than others, but I take issue with the notion that we can find "the perfect one" and stick with it for the rest of our teaching lives. I think that one of the best principles is to reach those [students] you have in front of you and to meet them "where they are," realizing that students are human beings, all different from each other, with different backgrounds, expectations, and so on [...] If you are honest with your students, they will respond in kind.

In her reflections above, Sandra projects herself as the kind of teacher who was willing to seek new learning methodologies rather than relying on traditional pedagogies. Her perceptions enabled and encouraged her to experiment with game-based teaching. Although she was initially unsure how the game could contribute to learning, she described her evolving perspectives as she observed her students' interactions with *ELLE*:

So in the beginning I was a bit confused as to how this was going to actually happen. But with time I actually got more excited about it. And then when Emily came with Amy to do the implementing... to do a test in class, I saw the excitement with the students. And I think that there was one time they went [students went to the lab to play the game] and the students could score already, and they were comparing with each other. They felt excited about it! So I felt also excited about it, that it could be something good.

The shift from traditional ways of teaching to gameful teaching did not occur suddenly. In the following sections we further elaborate on this shift as we describe how Sandra exercised agency in the process.

Intersections between teacher and gamer identities

Although the examples above are not directly related to gaming, they are essential in situating Sandra's perceptions of using the video game. They help illustrate that even when using *ELLE*, she was not using it merely as a digital tool to supplement classroom pedagogy but its employment became an integral part of Sandra's social identity and agency.

"I could not understand": (non)Gamer identity. Shaw (2011) describes three categories of players: hardcore gamers, casual gamers, and anyone else who does not fall in the previous two. Her study found that the male participants were more likely to identify as gamers than women and that, overall, the industry targets young, male, and heterosexual white gamers. Shaw is careful to note that gamer identities can change over time. Moreover, being a gamer should only be viewed in relation to other social identities, as illustrated by one of her participants, Ephram, who was an Asian American male, identifying as a gaymar (a gay gamer) in the context of online gaming. In light of GamerGate (Mortensen, 2018), however, it is not surprising that women and other underrepresented groups are reluctant to label themselves as "gamers."

Similar to some of the participants in Blume's study (2020), Sandra did not identify as a gamer. Before her involvement in the *ELLE* project, she had never played a video game for personal or professional purposes. In an interview, she stated that before *ELLE*, she could not understand why anyone would play games and considered it a waste of time:

I don't know if the word is against video games, but I always had some kind of... biases. I never understood why people would spend hours immersed in a video game. And I had some students tell me, "Oh, I love games and video games." I was just like, "Why? Why do you want to spend your night doing that?" And I could not understand.

Although gender did not come up explicitly in the narrative excerpts, it could have influenced Sandra's initial perception of gaming, along with age and past educational experiences. After all, she had acquired her identity of a researcher of Portuguese and Brazilian literature in a social environment that highly valued the written language. It is not incidental that she preferred reading novels as a form of entertainment over any other modalities. Gradually, over the development of the game and through interactions with students, Sandra came to realize that getting immersed in a game is similar to reading fiction but in a different mode: "It's another way, another mode." Sandra did not become a hardcore or casual gamer while implementing *ELLE*, but her perceptions of gaming shifted significantly. Below, we show how this shift was strongly related to her teacher identity and agency.

As mentioned in a previous section, Sandra exercised agency through creativity in the classroom. To her, being an effective teacher entailed the ability to adapt quickly to novel situations and create activities that meet students' linguistic and social needs. She used the verb "create" often in the written reflection and the interviews. The learners in her Portuguese courses were engaged through multiple modalities, such as online discussion forums, digital stories, detective series for verb conjugations, and films on various cultural topics. Sandra's attitudes toward technology were complex. As a humanities professor, she acknowledged that she highly valued traditional reading practices and preferred reading physical rather than e-books. At the same time, she described feeling "anxious" to keep up with the advances in technology so she could accommodate her students' ever-changing preferences for other modalities. For instance, to supplement more traditional materials in the classroom, she introduced a Chilean documentary, *Nostalgia of the Light*, to connect the topics of culture, dictatorship, and gender to language learning. Even though Sandra was far from naïve about technology's increased presence in the language classroom, she was apprehensive about the implementation of a video game in her classes.

Gameful agency. Sandra admitted that although she had accepted the advantages of technology, she had not considered video games in her classes until she was invited to participate in the interdisciplinary project to create and use *ELLE*:

I have learned to use technology [in my classes] and see the benefits of technology, but one thing that had never occurred to me was the use of games in language learning. I was approached by two colleagues to join an interdisciplinary group whose aim was to create a video game to improve foreign language vocabulary learning. I accepted the challenge but remember the first meetings. I had never played a video game and couldn't understand how it was possible to even build one! Well, it is possible and after several semesters [...] *ELLE the EndLess Learner* is a reality.

Sandra was involved in the project at its very conception. She was able to exercise her teacher, disciplinary, and researcher agency in several ways. For instance, she drew on her disciplinary expertise to provide the vocabulary items for game in all of its modalities. She also provided the sequence of words for the game, so it matched the students' linguistic levels in her classes. In addition, she was instrumental in offering guidance on some of the design features of the game, for instance, pacing, by becoming a tester for its different modalities. In one narrative excerpt, she reflects on the intersections between her emergent gamer identity and her researcher-teacher identity while testing the VR version:

In Fall 2018, we had *ELLE* in virtual reality. *ELLE-VR* asks the player to respond to visual and auditory cues. Players need to wear the head-mounted VR display and hold controls in both hands. During the game, the player will be asked to respond to the visual and auditory cues by moving from side-to-side (maximum 2–3 steps each way) and by manipulating the controller. This was the weirdest experience. I was suddenly immersed in a world that made my heart pump, my legs shake, made me sweat and scream. This is definitely not for me, I thought and still think, but I can understand that students nowadays are so used to “other realities” that their brains learn easily this way.

Player agency is defined as “the satisfying power to take meaningful action and see the results of our decisions and choices” (Murray, 2016, p.126). This was Sandra’s first VR experience. The excerpt reveals the ecological nature of gaming as Sandra had to use both temporal and spatial cues. She had to move her body – arms and legs – and had to execute a specific sequence of physical motions in the virtual space. Sandra’s player-embodied agency seems limited in the excerpt above. However, as a participant-teacher-researcher, Sandra was able to exercise agency by influencing the development of the game. As a direct result of her player experience, she provided feedback on pace for the VR version, and she could observe the effect of her feedback on subsequent versions of the game, which clearly indicates the practical-evaluative dimension of her agency (Priestly et al., 2015).

Shah (2018) argues that video games can boost teachers’ creativity by helping them identify teachable moments. The previous sections already showed that creativity and social responsibility were interwoven in Sandra’s classroom practices. They also showed that her agency was dialogically and ecologically constructed through relationships with students. Her use of *ELLE* reflected these values.

Although Sandra still did not see herself as a gamer, she embraced the pedagogical affordances of *ELLE*, which she viewed primarily as a tool. She preferred using the phone modality over the PC or VR versions because of students’ easy access to the game. At the same time, the video game was not merely a technological tool. It supplemented not only classroom activities, but informed her changing perception of teacher agency as well:

So, see it’s a whole new way of thinking about agency. I thought in the past the students were actually learning from me, so I felt threatened [that] those games are taking my place. They have me to teach them! It’s kind of feeling uncomfortable. But with all this – think about it – I actually changed because now I don’t want to have this [type of] of agency and I am not jealous of these games.

Ultimately, Sandra viewed the game as a tool that afforded her more opportunities for curriculum “freedom” in the classroom. If students practiced vocabulary outside of class while playing the game, in class she could focus on role-playing activities,

conversations, and debates on topics that mattered to them, such as the topic of sugar daddies or gender inequality in Chile. As part of her projected teacher agency (Priestley et. al, 2015) and orientations to the future, Sandra intends to use *ELLE* and other games to achieve socially relevant pedagogical goals:

It would be interesting to have one more class per week, so students and we do different activities around it. But I don't have all the time. Maybe, well, I want to keep on using [the game] and hopefully we can spread the word / maybe even forming a Portuguese club playing the game where students can meet for an hour a week and they can play the game but also to connect with other students from other colleges other courses... and get together to socialize. Because they have this mutual interest in the language and in gaming.

In the excerpt above, it is clear that Sandra stressed the role of games in enhancing communication among language learners. She pointed out that she would use the game not only for the practice of vocabulary and other linguistic forms, but what is more significant to her, to create more collaborative opportunities in and outside of the classroom.

Sandra's identity and agency evolved as a result of participating in this collaborative project. The practical-evaluative dimension of her agency is captured in the following reflective comment:

A few years ago, I would look at games as something that would be just a waste of time and now, I can see their importance and, if well used, their impact of learning. [...] I still don't see myself as an expert, but I have a hard time with the word "expert" anyways, especially in the times that we are living where information is so accelerated that no one can catch up any longer. As a teacher and as a human being, I think we always need to be evolving and adapting to the different types of students, and to the advancements of technology and the progression of life and knowledge itself.

Toom, Pyhalto, and Rust (2015) assert that "agentive teachers perceive themselves as pedagogical experts who have the capability of intentional and responsible management of new learning at both individual and community levels" (p. 615). Sandra's agency as a teacher, an expert in her discipline, an emergent gamer, and a human being were interwoven. As part of her projected agency, she intended to be also more of a learner in acquiring a new type of knowledge she could share with her student community. This is not to say that Sandra did not experience any constraints. For instance, one of the constraints she encountered was the lack of an Android version for the mobile application of *ELLE*, which limited the number of students who were able to play in and outside the classroom. However, as part of her agency as a collaborator, she was able to provide feedback to the game designers and recommend the development of such a version for future uses.

Concluding remarks

Most of the existing research on gaming in second-language learning has used commercially developed MMORPGs to explore learners' interactions in the L2. This chapter, instead, focuses on the interactions of one foreign language teacher with a game that was specifically developed for second-language learning purposes. Sandra was uniquely positioned to reflect on her evolving teacher identity and agency by participating in the interdisciplinary project *ELLE* from its very beginning. The findings show that her teacher identity intersected with her emergent gamer identity, disciplinary identity, and a researcher-participant identity. These identities, as well as her ability to exercise agency, were socially situated and relationally constructed through negotiations with students and co-workers. Sandra employed the game as a technological tool to achieve socially situated goals.

Shaffer et al. (2015) write about teachers' changing role in technology-rich environments and point out that digital tools decentralize teachers' positions in the classrooms: "Instead, they become the coordinators, orchestrators, and interpreters of feedback coming to students through a variety of learning resources" (p. 18). The researchers argue that this will also require a new type of professionalization, in which teachers form more personalized relationships with students. Sandra acknowledged that one of the challenges she faced as a language teacher and a humanities professor was the competing number of resources in other modalities. There are films, documentaries, and games that could be utilized by language learners in or outside of class. The narrative excerpts show how Sandra's identity changed from a teacher who felt intimidated by these non-traditional modalities to a teacher who could use them creatively to support her own pedagogical goals. Very much in line with Shaffer et al.'s statement, she saw her teacher agency shift from a traditional position of authority to the decentralized position of a guide and facilitator. Particularly interesting is the finding that Sandra viewed the use of the game not merely as a technological tool which could supplement her day-to-day linguistic practices; rather, *ELLE* afforded her the opportunity to develop more socioculturally relevant activities, such as the debates described above about gender, and, in turn, increased her students' social awareness.

Research on the intersections between gaming and language teacher identities is still in its infancy. However, the implications for language teacher educators are complex and numerous. One of the important considerations would be thinking through the ways to prepare language teachers to evaluate and implement the ever-increasing number of digital tools in classrooms. Reinhardt (2019) cautions that a game should be played meaningfully: "Just because something is fun does not necessarily make it a game, and just because it is fun but educational doesn't mean it's not a game" (p. 77). Thus, teachers should be able to evaluate whether a

particular game provides learners with the needed linguistic content as well as the appropriateness of its technological features.

Finally, the chapter suggests that language teachers' perceptions of video games and their use in the classroom are inherently related to their own life histories as learners and gamers as well as their unique professional and social values. Sandra, who described herself as a non-gamer and viewed gaming negatively initially, significantly changed her views of gameful teaching through the interaction with her own students and through practices that allowed her agency in the development of the digital game itself. Current studies have shown that video games can increase learner autonomy and can have overall positive effect on language learning. However, more empirical research is needed in exploring the interactions between language teacher identity, agency, and digital media.

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‘We will have to remember this as teachers’

A micro-analytical approach to student-teacher online interaction and teacher identity

Melinda Dooly

Applying interaction analysis to transcriptions of online meetings held weekly over a ten-week period between two groups of student-teachers, this chapter considers how telecollaboration (also known as Virtual Exchange) in teacher education can support the development of teachers’ digital competences and teacher identity through peer-supported online collaboration. The analysis shows how sustained use of online collaborative learning allows for moments of alignment and misalignment (dissonance) that afford learning opportunities for the participants as they become increasingly participative and cohesive in their online professional community.

Keywords: telecollaboration, digital competence, teacher identity, online collaborative learning

The importance of innovation and research into teacher education is hardly a new topic in academic circles. There have been frequent debates regarding how educators can and should meet society’s demands in the globalized, interconnected geopolitical situations of today and include oft-voiced concerns about learners (as future ‘global’, ‘digitalized’ citizens) and the complicated role that teachers play in the educational processes of youth.

In parallel, the use of telecollaboration to create ‘digital spaces’ of collaborative learning has become an increasingly popular means of engaging pre-service and in-service teachers in cross-cultural peer reflection and dialogic learning (Dooly & O’Dowd, 2018; Fuchs, 2019; Guichon, 2009). This practice (also known commonly as Virtual Exchange; see definition below), while still not mainstream, is becoming more visible not only in teacher education courses around the globe but in secondary and even primary schools, in particular in the teaching of foreign languages (Evaluate, 2019). As these experiences proliferate, the need for in-depth research into not only the results of teacher education that involve these practices but also the interactions themselves has become more patent.

A third area of interest – and which plays a key role in this case study – is the development of teacher identity. As Beijaard (2019) points out,

It is increasingly acknowledged that teacher learning and development includes more than learning subject matter, pedagogical content knowledge, theories of teaching and learning, and skills to turn that all into practical action. Learning to teach is an identity making process (...). (p. 1)

As recent worldwide events have demonstrated (in particular, the COVID-19 pandemic which has ‘provoked’ massive immigration to online teaching across the globe), an era of digitally-distanced educational practices is upon us. This inevitably has an impact on teaching, teachers and teacher education, including the development of Virtual Exchange (VE) teaching skills and teacher identity. This chapter will highlight the way in which VE in teacher education can help shape ‘digital’ teacher identity through peer-supported online collaboration.

We first discuss how the development of teacher identity is understood in this analysis and then briefly define and describe Virtual Exchange as used in this chapter. Next the pedagogical design of the course that provides the data set for this case study is outlined. The chapter then examines how identities – in particular ‘teacher’ identities, understood here as complex and dynamic (cf. Kayi-Aydar, 2017) were co-constructed between the interlocutors in their digital interaction and the way in which this ‘shared’ identity of ‘teacher’ in the virtual community allowed the participants to form a cohesive, collaborative team and afforded them learning opportunities for future technology-enhanced language teaching.

Development of VE teacher identities

A study carried out by Schaefer and Clandinin (2019), looking at teacher attrition in early career stages, found that teacher development is a far more complex process than merely ensuring pedagogical preparation; novice teachers may face additional demands as they construct, negotiate, and shift between several – and sometimes opposing – personal and professional narratives while working towards becoming professional teachers. Beijaard (2019) and Leeferink et al. (2019) argue that the link between personal and professional identities has an essential – but often overlooked – role in professional teacher development.

The number of studies in teacher identity is voluminous, covering decades of research (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Cheung et al., 2015), but it is only in the past decade or so that research has begun to examine the development of teacher identity in distance-teaching (Baxter, 2012; Luehmann & Tinelli, 2008; Johnson et al., 2014; Richardson & Alsup, 2015; Thanaraj, 2016). Likewise, far less work has

been carried out regarding how VE can play a role in the process of teacher identity development (cf. Ensor et al., 2017; Kurek & Müller-Hartmann, 2019).

Adopting Luehmann's (2007) framework, the development of teacher identity in this study is seen as:

- a. (...) socially constituted, that is, one is recognized by self and others as a kind of person because of the interactions one has with others;
- b. (...) constantly being formed and reformed, though the change process for one's core identities is long-term and labor intensive;
- c. (...) multifarious – that is, consisting of a number of interrelated ways one is recognized as a certain kind of person, participating in social communities;
- d. (...) constituted in interpretations and narrations of experiences. (p. 827)

For Luehmann, while participation in social communities is important (e.g., online professional platforms, classrooms), it is not enough. Recognition of *being* an accepted member or participant is also essential. This involves both self-recognition and acknowledgement by others. This process of recognizing self and others as 'teacher' can be traced through a micro-analysis lens that looks closely at selected interactional moments during a teacher education course.

At the same time, identity work (and teacher professional development) cannot be viewed as a smooth, linear process. According to Luehmann (2007), repair work may be necessary when doubts or confusion regarding previous beliefs emerge, resulting in identity repair work. McLaren (2003) proposes that teaching approaches should "provoke teachers to question the value assumptions that underlie their technocratic cultural terrain and throw open to scrutiny the classroom practices" (p. 239). This underscores one of the biggest challenges for today's teachers: opening up the classroom to views that may differ from their own; perhaps pushing them to moments of 'cognitive dissonance' or what Delaney (2015) calls "borderlands of practice" (p. 374). Baxter (2012), looking at online instructors in particular, refers to "resistance discourses" as fundamental for the development of "feelings of self-salience, personal efficacy and confidence" (p. 9) which can be key features of "well-motivated conceptions of professional self" in teachers (Richardson & Alsup, 2015, p. 143).

Teaching in digital spaces, educators may experience multiple and perhaps opposing concepts of 'best practices' that conflict with their "professional knowledge and decision-making," even "undermin[ing] their professional identities" (Delaney, 2015, p. 374). This may be especially true for student-teachers in under-explored contexts, such as online or blended (bi-modality of face-to-face and online) learning. Delaney (2015) argues:

[I]f we leave teachers unsupported as they work to make sense in borderlands of practice, it is unlikely that these moments of dissonance will resolve into agency. (...) teacher educators have to look for opportunities to identify dissonance and support teacher identity and agency. (p. 386)

Given the need for confident ‘digital teacher’ identities, one way forward is to engage student-teachers in distributed learning environments that promote collaboration and reflective thinking (Dooly, 2013). These environments must allow for ‘safe’ moments of “active participation in teaching contexts” that help promote development of “identities that support their professional agency and pedagogical decision-making” (Delaney, 2015, p. 377).

Identity negotiation explored through interaction analysis

Based on the conceptualization of the participants in the digital exchanges as interactional social beings who are constantly “accomplishing meaning” (Garfinkel & Sacks, 1970; Schegloff, 2006; Ten Have, 2002), the analysis looks at the different ways in which as the student-teachers orient to and enact activities that embody ‘situated identities’ of knowledgeable members (Evans & Fitzgerald, 2017) of the teaching community. Within this framework, knowledge is not conceptualized as a separate, individual state, but as embedded in meaningful and negotiated interaction with others – both locally (e.g., their classmates) and globally (e.g., online peers).

Interaction analysis is precisely what the name implies: An approach to ‘naturally-occurring’ data (typically gathered through video-recordings) in order to investigate the interactions of human beings with each other as well as with the objects in their environments. In their review of the foundations of interaction analysis, Jordan and Henderson (1995) explain the role of analytic foci, underscoring that these foci are not analytical categories, rather they are ‘ways of looking’ that have, over time, become validated entry points into micro-analysis of qualitative data (such as those presented here of videotaped multi-party, videoconference interactions). Jordan and Henderson identify key foci at micro-levels of interaction: structure, segmentation, transition, temporality and turn-taking. They also point out the relevance of participation frames (and non-participation), such as task orientation, focus of attention, engagement (or lack of), achievement of coordination and collaboration in the interaction.

In short, interaction analysis aims to delve deeply into how people ‘make sense’ of their worlds, together with others, by noticing patterns and interactional phenomena in the ‘everyday organization’ of human events (cf. Goodwin, 2000).

This analytical lens combined with other data (student output resulting from the VE) is used to 'tease out' these student-teachers' continuous negotiation and co-construction of their professional identities in the VE online environment.

Context

Telecollaboration/virtual exchange

Telecollaboration, also commonly referred to as Virtual Exchange (VE), is an umbrella term commonly applied to different approaches that aim to engage students in technology-mediated learning projects with peers from diverse cultural contexts and under the guidance of partner teachers (Dooly & O'Dowd, 2018). It is a student-centered pedagogical approach based on collaborative, dialogic learning where knowledge and understanding are constructed through interaction and negotiation with learners from geographically dispersed (usually international) contexts. This approach has been employed in university education for over 20 years (Dooly & O'Dowd, 2018) and has been used widely in subject areas such as foreign language education, business studies, and initial teacher education (EVALUATE Group, 2019).

Class description and study participants

The student-participants in the current study were enrolled in separate classes: one group was studying in a master's program at a university in the United States, and the other in an undergraduate teacher education program in Spain. The two groups were taking part in a shared course for foreign language teacher education. The course programme, designed collaboratively between the two partner teacher educators (one of whom is author of this chapter), shared activities and materials carried out through telecollaborative components and 'flipped class' activities so that 75% of the overall work took place between distanced peers online. (For a more detailed discussion of this VE course, see Dooly & Sadler, 2020).

Student-teachers were expected to complete weekly activities during their online meetings with their virtual exchange partners. For each week, there were different instructions for activities to be carried out. In the prior meetings, the participants decided who would take on the rotating roles of discussion leader, scribe, and discussants. The groups were formed at the beginning of the course, based on availability for the online meetings, all of which were held outside of regular face-to-face class periods (there was a 7-hour difference in time zones). Apart

from learning about the underlying pedagogy of project-based language learning, the student-teachers were asked to design telecollaborative projects for primary and secondary schools as part of their final mark for both courses; some of which were subsequently implemented by the Spanish student-teachers during teaching internship in the following semester.

The composition of the groups was 2 to 4 Spanish students and 1 to 2 students from the American University. The students at the Spanish university were plurilingual: they spoke Spanish, Catalan and English at varying proficiency levels. There were 3 students from abroad taking part in exchange programmes enrolled in the course in Spain. These students were trilingual: their L1, Spanish and/or Catalan and English. At the American university, the students were from different countries around the world, enrolled in an MA TESOL course; all of these students were minimally bilingual: L1 and English for students from abroad; English as L1 or L2 and minimally 1 FL for the students from the USA.

The groups were required to document their online work through a number of video-recordings, screen-captures and individual and group reflection. At the beginning of the course, all the students were asked to choose whether they were willing for their output, including recordings and images, to be used for research and teaching by the instructors. The course programme, data collection and informed consent documents were approved by the research ethics committee of each university. For this case study, transcriptions of self-recorded videos of the meetings and student reflection logs were used as data.

In their first meeting, the student-teachers had to choose a name that captured the unique personality of their group. The group chosen for this case study called themselves 'The Time Travellers' in reference to their mutual passion for travel and because they were 'collaborating across time zones.' This group was chosen for the case study because they were the most conscientious about recording and sharing of their online meetings, sharing more than the minimal number of recordings to the instructors, and because all of the group members had consented to the use of their images and recordings. This group was also a bit of an anomaly in its larger size. The group was made up of six students from Spain: Ana, Gemma, Guillen, Justina, Elena, and Laia. There were two female participants from the USA: Anita and Jiang. All names are pseudonyms.

Data analysis through a multimodal interactional approach

As mentioned above, this paper adopts a microanalytical approach to the qualitative data, which provides insight in the social work carried out by the individuals who are present in a technology-infused online learning environment such as the one presented here.

The approach can help us answer key questions such as how the participants make their engagement (or lack thereof) visible to each other; what strategies they use to deploy turns, to take the floor, to sustain their participation, and how the technology supports or constrains particular participation structures. These are key competences expected of online digital participants – in particular, they are key online teacher competences. We can also ask how the participants orient to and invoke (Evans & Fitzgerald, 2017) 'situated identities' of knowledgeable members of the teaching community during their online interactions.

Ongoing development of VE teacher competences and identity

The main source for the analysis comes from excerpts taken from video-recorded online exchanges that took place at different times during the course. These are complemented by the juxtaposition of output produced by the same group members. The excerpts are discussed in sequential order to try to discern any professional growth and identity development over the course.

Analysis 1: Meeting 1

We begin by looking at the group's first online meeting, which can be seen as a 'starting point' for the participants' trajectory towards some acquisition of professional knowledge of online pedagogical strategies, virtual community participation and professional identity as teachers. The first meeting was marked by difficulties by different members coming online, sorting out technological issues with the audio, and dealing with the recording of the meeting. These difficulties resulted in participant frustration, as extracts from the members' ongoing reflection indicate (Excerpt 1 below). Despite the numerous challenges mentioned by the members, they still managed to complete the assigned tasks of carrying out an 'ice-breaker activity' and negotiating and deciding upon a group name (The Time Travellers). At this point there is little evidence of a collective (professional) group identity, and they are mostly oriented towards their situated identity of 'frustrated' and 'confused' learners who have been introduced to an unfamiliar environment and modality of teaching and learning.

Reflecting on her group's first meeting, Elena wrote:

Excerpt 1. *Elena's reflection*

My first impressions could be summarised with these words or sentences:

NERVES, STRESS, TECHNOPHOBE, OVERWHELMED, NEW WAY OF WORKING, DIFFERENT SCHEDULE, CHAOS, LACK OF INFORMATION ABOUT VIDEOCONFERENCING, TAKING PART IN ONLINE MEETINGS IN ENGLISH, SCARY, CONFUSION, FEAR...

Elena's words are echoed by Guillen, who wrote in his reflection that:

Excerpt 2. Guillen's reflection

[...] the meeting was a bit frustrating because we could not get ourselves organized. Each person was coming in, then disappearing, then coming in again. We could not get the recorder to work either (...). I felt shy and worried that my English would not be good enough and also I was nervous about working with Master students. I think they must know much more than me!

This lack of coordination and ability to self-organize the interaction was evidenced in the transcription by multiple overlapping and hesitations, as well as aspirated speech.

Excerpt 3. Meeting 1 (first minutes)

- 1 Anita: [can you] see me?
 2 Guillen: [there] i see another person (.) hello:
 3 Elena: [hello\ (.) is anyone there?
 4 Jiang: [hello]
 (3)
 5 Elena: [hee hee]
 6 Guillen: [hee hee]
 7 Ana: [yes\ (.) well\] ((small laughter)) i'm not sure what
 we should do-
 8 Anita: [are you recording/]
 9 Gemma: yes (.) i'm trying but it does not seem to work very well
 10 Elena: °oh°
 11 Ana: oops\ (.) guillen i don't see you now!
 12 Guillen: xxxx ((image on screen has gone blank))
 [...] ((Indistinguishable, very low audio; approximately
 15 seconds))
 13 Ana: so we are supposed to do an ice-breaker activity that
 we might use with our language learners (.) can you see
 what i am holding up ((holds a sign up to the camera))



- 14 Ana: yes:: but i can't see it so good (.) i'm not sure
 what it reads-
- 15 Elena: maybe move it to your right- ((laughter))
- 16 Gemma: so this seems quite difficult\ (.) uff ((laughter)) i
 don't see how we can use this in primary\
- 17 Guillen: yeah\ (.) imagine\

Laughter and 'interpolated particles of aspiration' (IPAs) are significant in this excerpt. Several of the participants use IPAs (extended laughter that are articulated to words, which, as Jefferson has indicated, often denote trouble in the talk-in-interaction and may be used to "orient the co-participant to the presence of a trouble" (Jefferson, 1988, p. 422). The transcript of the first meeting provides evidence of the discomfiture and uncertainty that the participants themselves make reference to in their reflections. At the same time, we also see that the participants are already making one of their potential identities relevant – future primary education teachers (turn 16) along with embodying and enacting what might be considered the predominant identity role in this exchange – learners of technology-enhanced project-based language learning (turn 16, Excerpt 3): so this seems quite difficult\ (.) uff ((laughter)) i don't see how we can use this in primary.

Interestingly, the participants demonstrate the necessary competences to not only use technology to communicate orally, they show they are able to mediate through and with the technology to enact non-verbal communication (in turn 13, Ana's semiotic use of a sign for a less than satisfactory result; in turn 15 Elena provides recommendations for improving this multimodal semiotic resource 'move it to your right'). Significantly, however, this recommendation is also offered through an IPA; perhaps an indication of Gemma's own uncertain footing regarding her status as a student in Initial Teacher Training in contrast to Ana's (native English speaker) graduate education student teacher identity.

In this first meeting, the learners are also exposed to and make use of what has been called the 'situatedness principle' of interaction. As Helm (2018) has pointed out, the online meeting space is "the situated context for the interactions" (p. 88) in which technology provides visual and auditory access to both participants and their immediate surroundings. This visual access foregrounds Jiang's participation framework. After a brief greeting in turn 4, she appears to be almost entirely disengaged from the online interaction and does not offer another utterance until minute 15 when she is asked a direct question by another participant. Jiang performs several actions which could be considered an unwillingness to participate if seen through Goffman's lens of "participation frameworks" (1963, 1981). Spatial and orientational positioning serve as devices by which expectations and intentions regarding other interactants can be conveyed. The co-presence of others, whether face-to-face or online, is managed by socially recognized (though often unstated) expectations regarding occupancy of space, interaction with others, use of objects and resources, display of physical presence, and voice.

Jiang's orientation towards the general activity of the online meeting, if understood as a social, public demonstration of her interest, is manifested through displays of inattentiveness to the unfolding interaction, to the turn-taking and with little speakership establishment. Her disengagement is characterized by bodily alignment to the webcam: Jiang touches her hair quite often and yawns several times directly into the camera (Figure 1). She appears to be doing a different activity on her computer rather than paying attention to the ongoing discussion, as indicated by her eye gaze, hand movements (and accompanying typing sounds) and, in general, displays very little direct interaction or indication of interest in the rest of the interaction (Figure 1).

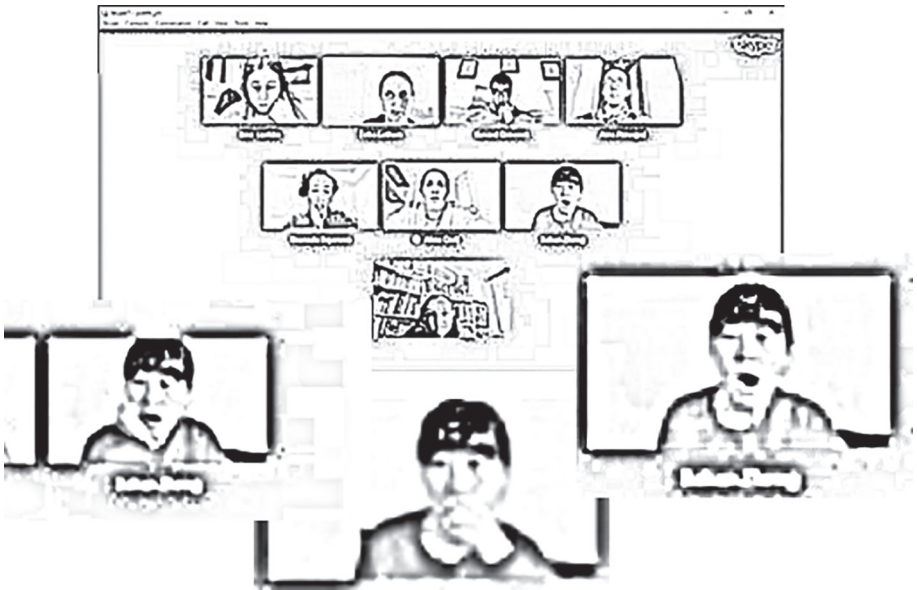


Figure 1. Jiang's participation frames

Interestingly, while there is little attempt by the other participants to produce repairs of what can be interpreted as infractions on behalf of Jiang, it was brought up in the individual reflections (see Guillen's reflection below). As the next excerpt shows, this member indexes first their 'situated' identities of peer, and co-learner: "I was a little bit surprised by one of our XXX's [reference to the partner university] peers' lack of participation during our first meeting. I thought that they would know a lot more than us and would talk a lot more because they are MA students and as you told us, already teaching. So I thought they'd be talking a lot a lot." He also manifests a preliminary exploration of a professional identity of telecollaborative teacher (which we have seen indexed in the first meeting transcript as well): "I can

see how hard it might be to get all of your students to take part in a telecollaborative project equally”.

Other reflections echoed Guillen’s concerns (not included for sake of brevity). It seems that from their very first meeting, ‘Time Travellers’ begin to orient to ‘situated identities’ of knowledgeable members of their respective teaching communities (Evans & Fitzgerald, 2017). Their identities seem somewhat fragmented in regard to teacher status, as revealed by their expressed insecurities regarding the use of technology – for both task completion as learners as well as lack of pedagogical knowledge to transfer a telecollaborative approach into their own teaching. Arguably, these teacher-students find themselves in the ‘borderlands’ of digital pedagogy (Delaney, 2015).

Moreover, these student-teachers’ sense of professional membership showed varied types of engagement; there was a general willingness to collaboratively tackle the learning tasks assigned to them, but with a widely varied distribution of interaction between the participants wherein lesser experienced teachers took on more predominant roles in the organization of the interaction than older, more experienced teachers. It seems that as far a digital teacher identity goes, the “interpretations and narrations of experiences” (Luehmann, 2007, p. 827) in this first meeting tilt towards the more tech-savvy younger members of the online group.

Analysis 2: Meeting 4

Midway through the course, the development of personal and professional collaborative skills, in particular in the participants’ ‘managerial competences’ of online interactions and mutual recognition (Luehmann, 2007) of their epistemic status as teachers (Heritage, 2012) became more visible. Meeting 4, presented below, shows that the group members had a chance to get to know each other better and became more familiar with the technology and the meeting protocols and roles that they were assigned (leader, scribe, discussants). In this meeting, the principal task was to clarify ideas after having received individualized, written peer feedback on telecollaborative project drafts (set up in pairs and trios prior to this meeting; submitted as an online rubric).

Excerpt 5. Meeting 4

- 81 Guillen: yeah\ (.) like the words and the pieces of a puzzle
or something similar\
82 Anita: YUP\ hee hee\ i’ll definitely put that in\ (1) but i
feel bad for talking about my project for so long now
(.) i’ve got so many useful ideas from all of you/
83 Guillen: that’s the reason we’re meeting\
84 Ana: it’s fine\ it is helpful to talk about our
projects\ i learn by talking about stuff\ hee hee
[...]

- 209 Elena: great idea guys\
 210 Guillen: YES
 211 Elena: [this has been really helpful\] (.) i have to say i
 was skeptical but this was really great\
 212 Guillen: [really really helpful]
 213 Laia: me too\
 214 Jiang: yes i had been skeptical too but i enjoyed the
 online peer review\
 215 Guillen: so:: jiang (.) imagine if your students could
 receive feedback from the others as we've just
 done:: °hee hee°
 216 Jiang: we will have to remember this as teachers (.)
 forcing students to work in groups is good for
 them\ hee hee
 217 Guillen: [((laughter))]
 218 Elena: [((laughter))]
 219 Ana: [((laughter))]
 220 Gemma: [((laughter))]
 221 Elena: there is a lesson here/ hee hee
 222 Guillen: forcing students=
 223 Elena: =encouraging students\ hee hee

In turn 81, Guillen is finishing up a summary of the suggestions he has made for Anita's project and Anita, in turn 82, readily aligns herself to these recommendations and then apologizes for monopolizing the focus of the meeting on her project. Both Guillen and then Laia, building on Guillen's comment, reassure Anita that is fine, (turns 83 and 84) and that this is in fact, beneficial to everyone "it is helpful to talk about our projects." The participants position themselves as equal in status (peers and co-learners engaged in a mutual purpose), which is a shift in positioning from the first meeting where the Spanish students had oriented themselves towards 'inferior' epistemic status in comparison to their online mates. At this point in the process of their collective teacher identity development, the group members appear to recognize themselves and others as members of one community through their interactions (Luehmann, 2007).

Along these lines, Heritage (2012) proposes that all interactions involve some form of knowledge display – that is the individual's "epistemic status" (p. 4). All epistemic stances are relational (Heritage, 2012) and made visible by the interactants as they work to construct shared meaning; carried out through intersubjective negotiation and navigation of other's epistemic stance. Difference in knowledge stance among interactants can be considered along an epistemic gradient (Heritage & Raymond, 2012; Heritage, 2012) "more knowledgeable [k+] or less knowledgeable [k -]" (Heritage, 2012, p. 4).

In the conversation in Excerpt 5, in turn 209, Elena responds positively to the feedback that has been offered thus far. In turn 211, echoing Ana's previous comment that the collaborative work carried out has been helpful, she then identifies

herself as a former skeptic now more convinced that this type of telecollaborative, dialogic learning is an effective approach. This sentiment is confirmed by Guillen and Laia in turns 212 and 213 and then re-confirmed by Jiang, largely non-participative in meeting 1, who says in turn 214, "yes i had been skeptical too but i enjoyed the online peer review." Interestingly, in turn 215, taking advantage of the 'transient relevance place' (where the turn can legitimately pass to another participant), Guillen explicitly references Jiang and, shifting his position to having epistemic status (k+) as a future teacher, suggests she consider the impact this approach could have on her students: "so:: jiang (.) imagine if your students could receive feedback from the others as we've just done:: "hee hee"." He then hedges his comment, which could be interpreted as a criticism, by soft laughter (Guillen had been critical to his teacher of Jiang's lack of participation in his reflection journal). It seems that this implicit criticism is accepted by Jiang. She states: "we will have to remember this as teachers (.) forcing students to work in groups is good for them\ hee hee." Jiang now positions herself as a knowledgeable member of the teaching community, and the rest of the participants orient favorably to this alignment as they join her in laughter (turns 217–220). This leads to a final adjacency pair where Elena, shifting the roles once more to 'learner' (but one with k+) states that "there is a lesson here," which Guillen extends by repeating Jiang's previous comment of "forcing students to," which is then corrected by Elena with "encouraging students" (criticism hedged once more with laughter).

This excerpt shows how 'cognitive dissonance' can help enhance teacher learning (Delaney, 2015) by prodding the student-teacher into moments and space of discomfort or borderlands. As outlined in the theoretical framework, some theorists have proposed that teachers in development should be 'provoked' to challenge their teacher beliefs and identities in order to be better able to comprehend and efficiently engage with the complexities and ambiguities they will encounter in their teaching practice (Baxter, 2012; McLaren, 2003; Smagorinsky et al., 2004). Some discontinuity, "alongside feelings of continuity, leads teachers to become a teacher as a new and challenging process" (Clandinin & Husu, 2017, p. 182). In telecollaboration, these anxieties can be used to 'problematize' potential miscommunication and misalignments in order to promote more critical awareness of the potential and limitations of telecollaboration in education (Fuchs, 2019).

The participants in this excerpt indicate that they had some reservations regarding the potential of the approach they had been introduced to (the use of telecollaboration) but had not only resolved these issues, they now contemplated this possible method in their own teaching practice. Moreover, they became aware that, as part of their teacher identity, they cannot force their students to learn, they must encourage and motivate them.

Analysis 3: Meeting 7

As the meetings progressed, the participants continued to co-construct both their teacher knowledge and professional identities. Later in the semester, the student-teachers demonstrated heightened competence at navigating the complexity of completing online group work, while co-constructing rotating roles of responsibility. In the seventh meeting the student-teachers are asked to complete a 'collaborative exam' but before doing so, the participants begin their meeting with a discussion of how to finalize a group wiki on teaching methods they were responsible for completing before the end of the course. In this meeting (Excerpt 6), Ana aligns herself as the task leader in turn 97 as she positions the other participants as having equal epistemic status (and responsibility) of task preparation: "the aim of this meeting you know\ is the exam." The pedagogical work of scaffolding displayed by Ana throughout this sequence is similar to what might occur in a face-to-face student-centered classroom as she deftly provides the interactional space for her peers to contribute suggestions on how to complete a previous task (a wiki) and ends the sequence with a statement that she has heard repeated many times, as a typical closure to lessons by her own teacher educator at university, "so what else do you have any more doubts/ (.) or something you'd like to comment/" (turn 122).

Excerpt 6. Meeting 7

- 97 Ana: ok\ (.) ehm:: well (.) the aim of this meeting you know\ is the exam/ (.) but before the exam I would like to talk about the: x and the wiki/ (0,5) uh: I don't know if any of you have worked in wiki or anything this afternoon/
- 98 Justina: yes
- 99 Anita: [yes i did]
- 100 Several: [no] ((several participants shake their heads to indicate no))
- 101 Justina: i just put the introduction on the wiki
- 102 Ana: what/
- 103 Justina: because in the wiki there was no introduction and I just copied laia's introduction and i copied and pasted in the wiki
- 104 Ana: ah yeah
- 105 Laia: but Justina i'm on wiki now and my- it doesn't appear my introduction i can't see my introduction- but but you you need to refresh you if you refresh you have the whole introduction\
- 106 Elena: yes i have it
- 107 Ana: yes i have it
- 108 Gemma: i have it there now
- 109 Justina: i have it done
- 110 Laia: thank you Justina
- 111 Justina: you're welcome
(0.5)

- 112 Ana: ok perfect\ (.) as i asked you to do in my mail just
try to upload all your parts in the wiki and don't
worry about the format for now because first you
have to see have to see all the parts that you know
have to convey and later we see that all the titles
are the same and for now i think the format is not
the most important (.)
- 113 ?? ok
- 114 Ana: you agree/ so just: upload your parts and yeah-
- 115 Laia: uh huhm
- 116 Justina: i think [that]
- 117 Guillen: [it's really nice the wiki i'm there now and it's like-
- 118 Justina: yeah
- 119 Guillen: a lot of new things and now
- 120 Gemma: i checked it before the meeting and i think we
really did it more visual now\
- 121 ??? yeah
- 122 Ana: yeah laia also did it with more pictures with some
kind of program so: so it would be a long process
for me thank you (.) so what else do you have any
more doubts/ (.) or something you'd like to comment/

Ana, as the leader of this meeting, is able to adopt 'teacher talk' in the co-construction of this interaction. Lines 112–119 demonstrate “the [long-term and labor-intensive] change process” of the student-teachers’ “core identities” (Luehmann, 2007, p. 827) as it is enacted and discursively co-constructed through the interaction of the members of the learning-to-become digital teachers community. Ana continues her k+ orientation as the teacher in charge, referencing back to her instructions sent out as discussion leader and organizer of the event prior to the meeting and adding supportive comments about the workload: “don't worry about the format for now.” Her alignment to this teacher identity is co-opted by the others in the immediate turns with encouraging conversation tokens such as “uh huhm” and “yeah” as well as positive comments about the general collaborative effort and output of the group: “it's really nice the wiki”.

As the semester draws to a close, we can see how the student-teachers’ development includes the assimilation of more “pedagogical content knowledge” or “theories of teaching and learning” (Beijaard, 2019, p. 1) as seen by their k+ positioning. At the same time, the participants are beginning to turn their declarative knowledge into “practical action” as part of “identity making process” (Ibid.). Their participation in the online professional community also seems to reinforce self and other recognition of being an accepted member of that community (Luehmann, 2007), as the co-organize and share the responsibilities of teacher and online community membership; witnessed by their ‘adoption’ of professional jargon as they collaborate to create teaching materials.

Analysis 4: Meeting 9

This final online meeting further demonstrates the evolving epistemic trajectories and teacher identities of the participants. There is a clear progression from meeting 1 to this meeting (9). Initially, there were technological difficulties and unequally distributed participation of the different members. Over time, however, a collaborative, technologically-savvy professional community of teachers, with a certain level of familiarity with each other that allows for jokes and celebration was formed. Celebration can be used to shift the focus towards the cohesion of the group and be a robust indicator of community (Hauck, Galley, & Warnecke, 2016). The participants engage in much more phatic communication, aligning to mutually established sociable rituals. Consider, for instance, the configuration of the groups physically – two pairs from each side shared their webcam space. In the first two minutes, the pair from Spain indicate that they have brought beers to ‘toast’ their colleagues at the beginning of the final meeting, prompting their mates to respond with similar toasts with what they have at hand (Figure 2).

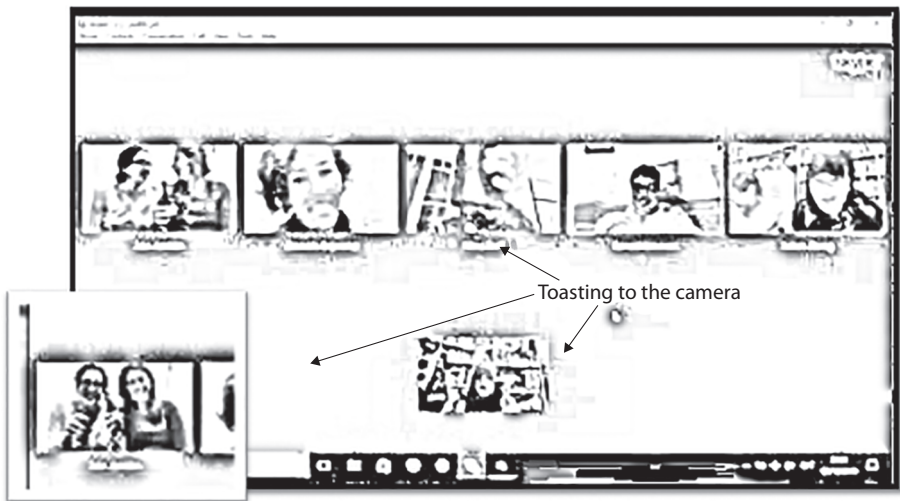


Figure 2. Toasting their online peers

As Helm (2018, p. 107) remarks, “affective indicators such as emotion and humour, interactive features such as greetings and salutations, vocatives, and cohesive indicators such as acknowledgement, approval, and invitation to participate [...] are markers of social presence or community indicators and can be seen to index participants’ orientation to an online group identity (Kehrwald, 2010, p. 47).”

The celebratory nature of the interaction for the final meeting can also be seen as a symbolic recognition that each member belongs to this community of digital teachers (Luehmann, 2007), especially considering that following these first jovial minutes, the group members then turn to the final tasks at hand. Only after having worked through their last tasks to be completed and in the final ten minutes of the meeting (which has already gone on twenty minutes longer than the allotted time), the students once more adopt a more relaxed tone. They discuss possible plans to meet each other in person in the future, finishing with a reflection on how they feel about the way in which, through the evolution of the meetings, they have created a feeling of belonging to a well-prepared team of teachers who feel comfortable with each other: "it's like so easy to go through whatever whichever topic (...) we don't care about what the other thinks you know" (turn 803). They affirm their identity as friends, colleagues and competent professional through 'playful language' (Lantz-Andersson, 2018); "we are the best group because we have worked harder than everyone" (turn 811).

Excerpt 7. Meeting 9

786 Justina: well\ should we call it a day/
 787 Elena: yes\ i had to go a half hour ago ((laughs)) i have
 a lot of work still to do\
 788 Justina: yeah\ me too\
 789 Gemma: it was the best meeting\
 790 Justina: yeah: (.) i agree\
 791 Guillen: [i agree]
 792 Justina: [yeah]
 793 Jiang: [yeah]
 794 Justina: [-best meeting]
 795 ??? [-yeah]
 796 Justina: because we know each other a little bit and-
 797 Elena: we should have done it the first meeting maybe\
 798 Gemma: [yeah]
 799 Guillen: [yeah]
 800 Anita: but trying to come up with question topics in the
 first meeting would have been harder (.) i mean we
 did a little bit then right/
 801 Justina: yeah but we were like maybe shy:
 802 Gemma: Yeah
 803 Justina: because it was our first one\ (.) NOW: it's like so
 easy to go through whatever whichever topic ((makes
 circling motion with hands)) (.) we don't care about
 what the other thinks you know/ ((giggles))
 804 Others: ((laugh, smile, nod))
 805 Jiang: yeah\ well our first meeting i was pretty embarrassed
 because i was out- outside in a coffee shop
 806 Justina: oh yeah\ wow\ (.) yeah\
 807 Others: ((laugh))

808 Jiang: it was great working with you guys\ this has been
really nice\
809 Gemma: we worked really well and so hard\
810 ??? Xxxxx
811 Guillen: we are the best group because we have worked harder
than everyone\ ((Elena makes 'triumph dance'
to camera. Gemma and Guillen imitate her with
gestures))
812 Gemma: come on\
813 Laia: Justina now we have to toast
814 Guillen: Xxxxx
815 Justina: yeah\ i think we have get (sic) on very well\
[...]
1007 Laia: ok\ we have to: ((imitates sleeping by placing hands
next to face and closing eyes))
1008 Justina: >yeah yeah< we have to\
1009 ??? xxxxx
1010 ??? yeah
1011 Justina: i love you guys
1012 Gemma: we could xxxx facebook xxx
1013 Everyone: YEAH:
1014 Justina: ok\ enjoy your holidays girls\
1015 Gemma: [enjoy your holidays
1016 Jiang: [thank you:::
1017 Everyone: BYE ((all wave at camera))
1018 Justina: bye everybody\ ((blows kisses with both hands at
camera))
1019 Justina: everybody everybody pose for the screenshot (.) like
this

In the last few minutes, it seems that no one wants to say good-bye, and Justina emotionally claims “I love you guys” (turn 1011). Finally, the peers synchronize a final ‘group screenshot’ before performing a concerted hang-up.

Discussion

Looking at four online meetings between a group of eight students, two enrolled in a university in the United States (at a Master level) and six in Spain (undergraduate student-teachers), this chapter demonstrates how the participants gained telecollaborative, technology-mediated competences as they became more familiar with the VE context and peers. After the first meeting, some of the student-teachers expressed concerns and even fear about the telecollaborative work; some even demonstrating a lack of technological competence for carrying out virtual exchange. There was also unequal distribution of participation – a point that was problematic enough to be reported in individual reports. The initial VE experience was marked by moments of dissonance and conflicting experiences that potentially threatened to undermine these participants’ development of professional teacher identity (Delaney,

2015; Schaefer & Clandinin, 2019). Novice teachers' personal knowledge, combined with positive or negative experiences during their teacher development can lead to either teacher dropout or effective teaching practices. The data indicate that the VE experience in this study helped the participants build a sense of community (exemplified in utterances such as "we are the best group" and "I love you guys"). The VE experience appeared to contribute to collaborative knowledge-building, which helped create positive "professional knowledge landscapes" (Schaefer & Clandinin, 2019, p. 54), and provided a space for the participants to discursively negotiate fluid identity positions as co-teachers (Ibrahim, 2016; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004).

From the very first meeting, the participants made their situated identity of 'future' teacher visible to the others, although at the beginning of the course they did so by voicing their doubts about how they might potentially use VE in their own teaching. Such resistance discourses (Baxter, 2012) can play a key role in the development of teacher identities as the student-teachers must work their way through the 'borderlands' of potentially conflicting beliefs and experiences to eventually develop "teacher identity and agency" (Delaney, 2015, p. 386). The mutual support that is created through VE environments can help student-teachers overcome their hesitance about taking on complex pedagogical approaches and help them construct confident teacher identities. As Hamel and Ryken (2010) argued, student-teachers need time and space to rehearse and claim a professional identity. VE environments are not merely locations to "acquire skills and knowledge; they are sites where they negotiate who they are and might become as teachers" (Hamel & Ryken, 2010, p. 347).

By the fourth meeting, the participants positioned themselves as equal in epistemic status – peers and co-learners engaged in a mutual purpose of becoming professional teachers. As the participants worked through moments of dissonance (Delaney, 2015) that emerge in their online interaction, they also increasingly aligned themselves to the situated identity of 'knowing' teachers. By their final meeting, the online peers demonstrated increased alignment towards epistemic status related to teacher identity. Becoming and identifying as a teacher is a constant evolution that occurs as teachers gain experience, consolidate professional knowledge, and contribute to building a sense of belonging in the teaching community (Luehmann, 2007; Tsui, 2003); the participants in this study did so through their engagement in the digital environments. The interactants were able to easily overcome technological difficulties over time, and the overall participation was much more equally distributed and collaborative, with a high level of online social cohesion, as demonstrated by the increased use of phatic communication (Hauck et al., 2016).

Technology-oriented pedagogical designs can help future teachers discover the 'distributive' characteristic of knowledge as it is commonly constructed in increasingly common online and digital environments while they also collaboratively

accomplish teacher identities. This corroborates the findings in a report by the US Department of Education (2017) that states that “technology offers the opportunity for teachers to become more collaborative and extend learning beyond the classroom (...) and create learning communities” with students and “other educators” (p. 28). Micro-analytical studies of digital interaction such as this one can help teacher educators more fully understand how these types of learning environments can be optimized and enhanced (see also Antoniadou, 2011; Balaman & Sert, 2017; Dooly & Tudini, 2016; Satar & Özdener, 2008). As Reinhardt and Chen (2013) argued, there has been considerable research on learner investment in (non-digital) communities of practice, but far fewer studies on “envisioned identities and memberships and participatory patterns” (p.14–15) in virtual communities of practice that involve teachers.

The data analysis has shown how technology-enhanced pedagogical content can help language teachers relate the global and the local through the ‘distributive’ characteristic of knowledge as it is commonly constructed in e-learning and ‘e-functioning’ with both in-class partners and colleagues from abroad. It was through the empirical practice of being interconnected that they gained the pedagogical confidence as ‘like-minded’ and mutually respectful members of the professional community: “it’s like so easy to go through whatever whichever topic (...) we don’t care about what the other thinks you know” [because together they] “worked really well and so hard” as collective (Justina and Gemma, Excerpt 7). The VE environment offered a space for the participants to recognize themselves and others as part of this community through the socially constituted interaction that took place in the digital environment specifically established for their professional development (Luehmann, 2007).

The digital context provided an opportunity for dialogic learning that may not necessarily take place in face-to-face situations, in particular if the class members come from similar backgrounds or ages. In this study, the groups were far more heterogeneous; some of the students were undergraduate, and they hailed from different continents and were studying to become teachers of students of different ages, levels, and languages. Through the tools, they were able to explore theory directly related to technological resources and subsequent approaches (e.g., of technology-enhanced project-based language learning) while contrasting their experiences with others working and living in very different contexts. Perhaps more significant than any innovative thinking that may have occurred regarding teaching and learning processes, the digital environment provided an important impulse for the development of a sense of community of professionals in which the participants were able to manifest doubts, opinions, and emotional connections in “safe but challenging spaces” (Patton & Parker, 2017, p. 356).

Conclusion

Research is necessary to ensure teaching excellence in increasingly complex digital environments. VE can promote essential teaching skills for these types of learning contexts. Moreover, VE can be used to promote positive teacher identity. As Beijaard (2019) states, “learning to teach is an identity making process” (p. 1) and is part and parcel of the complex evolution towards professional teacher development. An interaction analysis can help identify key moments of both dissonance and consonance during the process of acquisition of key teaching competences and positive teacher identity construct, including teaching and learning in VE environments. As the teaching in digital spaces becomes increasingly more commonplace, educators often struggle with new practices that do not necessarily coincide with their prior teaching experience, knowledge, or sense of professional identity. It is essential that teacher development courses (both for initial teacher education and for continued teacher education) draw from research that provides insight into the type of support needed during teacher education for constructing positive teacher identities. It is hoped that this study provides an example of how this might be done with other micro-analytical approaches in different teaching and learning digital contexts.

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Transcription key

??	Unable to distinguish speaker
/	rising intonation
\	dropping intonation
[text]	overlapping turns
text::	elongated sound
text	soft
TEXT	loud
>text<	rapid
(.)	short pause
(1)	approximately 1 second pause
xx	indistinguishable words
?	obvious question
text-	truncated sound
text=	latched words

Discursive construction of collective identity in a global online community of practice of English language teachers

Derya Kulavuz-Onal

In this chapter, I explore how members of *Webheads in Action*, an online community of practice of English language teachers, construct a collective identity of “webhead-ness” discursively, how certain community values are realized at the linguistic level in their email communication, and how the community’s collective identity and values shape their professional development. Through a corpus-driven discourse-analytic approach of the email communication and content analysis of in-depth interviews with two long-term active members, I observed that members frequently draw on specific discursive resources that seem to have evolved as idiosyncratic linguistic practices in this community’s culture. Such practices that reinforce a collective identity are critical for cultivating and sustaining long-standing online communities of practice that foster teacher participation and professional development.

Keywords: online community of practice, collective identity, professional identity construction, online participation, membership

Contemporary paradigms of learning emphasize the social and situated nature of learning that occurs in real world contexts through authentic and meaningful activities, rather than as isolated, solitary activities. To this end, contemporary views of teacher learning highlight the significance of collaboration and participation in learning communities for teacher professional development (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 1998; DuFour, 2004). Such communities are not always physically bound; with emerging technologies and social media pervading lives, language teachers increasingly build and participate in online communities. However, creating and maintaining online communities is often difficult, perhaps because of the absence of a shared physical space, and research shows that many online communities disband after a short time (e.g., Baran, 2007; Karagiorgi & Lymbouridou, 2009) before they can establish the shared history, shared repertoire

of resources, and sense of community, all of which typify a true community of practice (CoP) (Wenger, 1998).

A group of English language teachers first gathered in 2002 in an online workshop, initiated by TESOL International Association's CALL Interest section, focused on learning to integrate instructional technologies into English language teaching practice. The group, who called themselves *Webheads in Action* (WiA or *Webheads*) did not disband but has continued to interact and collaborate through computer-mediated communication (CMC) technologies. WiA is now a cross-cultural, global online community of practice focused on collaboratively exploring applications of web-based and CMC technologies in language teaching. Registered on its main email communication platform are more than 1000 members located in different parts of the world, representing all seven continents. Since the first online workshop in 2002, Webheads have been developing their collective practice by interacting over multiple sites and platforms, such as social media, blogs, wikis, forums, web-conferencing platforms, etc., and by collaboratively creating an array of resources and archive of activities that are publicly available on the Internet (Kulavuz-Onal, 2013).

Interested in gaining a deeper understanding of the culture of learning and collaboration within this online community, I conducted a netnography of this community (Kulavuz-Onal, 2013; Kulavuz-Onal & Vasquez, 2013). Netnography (Kozinets, 2010) is an ethnographic approach to study the culture of online communities, using ethnographic data collection methods, such as participant observation, interviews, fieldnotes, and documents, all conducted online using CMC technologies. In a span of a year, I engaged in systematic participant observation of several central activities of the community, archiving emails and screenshots, taking fieldnotes of interactions, recording my observations and reflections, and interviewing a purposefully selected group of members with differing levels of participation and engagement within the community. Informed by the findings of this larger netnography, in this chapter I provide a closer examination and an in-depth analysis of emails exchanged within this community in order to answer the following research questions:

1. How do Webheads construct a collective identity of Webheads and Webheadness discursively?
2. What linguistic practices do Webheads employ in their emails that reflect and reproduce their community values and collective identity?
3. How do the Webheads community and its collective identity shape teachers' professional development as experienced by its members?

Theoretical framework

Communities of practice

Developed by Wenger (1998) and rooted in situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991), the community of practice (CoP) framework is used to describe “groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn to do it better as they interact regularly” (Wenger, n.d., p. 1). The central defining characteristic of a CoP is the shared *practice* around an area of interest (the *domain*) collectively developed by the community members who “interact, learn together, build relationships, and in the process develop a sense of belonging and mutual commitment” (Wenger, 1998, p. 34) as they engage in joint activities to collaboratively construct knowledge and artifacts. In a CoP, practice also “embodies a certain way of behaving, a perspective on problems and ideas, a thinking style, and even in many cases an ethical stance [...] a sort of mini-culture that binds the community together” (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 39). A community does not automatically yield to a community of practice without a shared practice, and not all practices build a community; therefore, both *community* and *practice* are crucial for CoPs, which differentiates them from other communities, networks, or groups (Wenger, et al., 2002). Through mutual engagement, interaction, participation, and co-construction of shared repertoire of resources and artifacts, practitioners in a CoP also collaboratively build shared histories of learning and ways of doing things; a form of culture, of which language is a part.

From a communities-of-practice perspective, learning is essentially an identity transformation, a transition from a legitimate peripheral participation to full participation in a CoP. However, certain conditions are necessary for new members to move towards full participation in a CoP (Lave & Wenger, 1991). New members should have full access to community’s resources, have opportunities for meaningful participation and contribution to the community’s collective practice, and be apprenticed and valued by the long-term members. Additionally, becoming a full participant in a CoP necessitates the learning of its discourse. New members need to learn how to speak like a full participant, and how to talk about the practice. In orienting new members to the community’s practice, reciprocal interactions in the forms of story-telling, sharing ideas, brainstorming, and problem-solving among new members and long-term members of the community also play important roles in a CoP and lead to collaborative apprenticeships (Glazer & Hannafin, 2006).

Online communities of practice

Although online communities of practice (OCoPs) share the central characteristics of co-located CoPs, they differ in some important aspects. The shared spaces for interaction and community-building primarily or exclusively take place in online platforms, sometimes enabling the community to spread over multiple locations online, using a variety of CMC technologies and social networking sites (Malinen, 2015). As such, to participate in an OCoP's activities, members need to be literate with at least some if not all of the technologies and platforms used by the community and have access to sufficient technological support. The internet-mediated nature of OCoPs also leads to diversified and distributed expertise among members, (Gunawardena et al., 2009; Kulavuz-Onal, 2013). Additionally, participation and engagement in OCoPs is complex, dynamic, and diverse, going beyond an active-passive dichotomy and taking many different forms, from simply following the interactions among other community members, visiting the links and resources shared, to collaborating on the construction of the knowledge base, taking initiatives in organizing community learning experiences, and mentoring new members (Kulavuz-Onal, 2013; Lim, 2017; Macia & Garcia, 2016; Malinen 2015; Wesely, 2013). Moreover, social presence is critical for sustaining OCoPs. In the absence of a shared physical space, members in an OCoP need to intentionally make themselves visible to other members, by not only engaging in practice, but also socializing with other members (Kulavuz-Onal, 2013). Finally, as they evolve over time, OCoPs develop discourses that shape (and are shaped by) collective practice, the shared culture and identity of the community, and participants' engagement patterns (Gunawardena, et al., 2009; Lim, 2017; Xing & Gao, 2018).

In recent years, online communities have become popular sources and spaces of professional development for teachers. In their review of studies on formally-organized and informally-developed online teacher communities, Lantz-Andersson et al. (2018) conclude that online communities support different forms of professional practice where teachers share and exchange information, build relationships, and engage in reflective practice. Moreover, teachers perceive these communities as sources of informal learning, collegial support, and emotional support. Key qualities of successful communities include a climate of openness, productive group dynamics, and supportive and shared leadership. Similarly, Macia and Garcia (2016) emphasize the common practice of peripheral participation in online teacher communities as a step to build a sense of expertise prior to visible and active participation. Oftentimes these communities bring both novice and experienced teachers together to engage in conversations and information-sharing that foster professional development for both groups.

Webheads in Action (WiA), the online community of English language teachers explored in this chapter, exhibits several characteristics of OCoPs (Bostancioglu, 2018; Costa, 2007; d'Eca & Gonzalez, 2006; Hanson-Smith, 2013; Kulavuz-Onal, 2013; Stevens, 2018) that have gradually emerged since the group's establishment in 2002 and have contributed to its long-standing history. First, WiA follows the principles of *open access*, meaning both synchronous and asynchronous events organized by the community are held using open source technologies and are offered free of charge, and all the artifacts, archives, resources, and recordings developed by/for the community are publicly available on the Internet for free. This naturally enables newcomers to have full access to the community's repertoire of resources and shared history, allowing for their successful orientation and engagement. Additionally, the community has been sustained on a philosophy of *volunteerism*; members' involvement, participation, and contribution to the community's practice are solely based on their voluntary efforts. Following a situated learning approach (Lave & Wenger, 1991), activities of the community are based on hands-on tasks that enable participants to collaboratively experiment with CMC technologies and explore their pedagogical uses for English language teaching, while also communicating and interacting with fellow members through these same technologies. This way, newcomers are oriented towards not only the community's practice but also the community's communication and interaction tools, which makes full participation possible early on. Moreover, in WiA, learning is perceived to be a social activity, where people build relationships and learn together while developing their individual and collective practice. The principle of social learning is primarily facilitated by shared or distributed expertise as members recognize that each other's individual expertise can benefit the community's collective practice. The notion of distributed expertise also manifests itself in complex and dynamic participation patterns among WiA members. As the community holds a variety of activities over an array of platforms on the Internet, a webhead could be a novice or a peripheral participant in one activity, but a mentor or a full participant in another. As such, membership roles are loosely defined, enabling members with different levels of history in the community to continue to contribute to the community's practice using different forms of participation. *Collaboration* is also a defining characteristic of this community, occurring at a distance through CMC technologies in a variety of forms such as collaborating for conference presentations and workshops, organizing collaborative activities and events online, and/or managing cross-cultural inter-classroom exchanges among their students (Kulavuz-Onal & Vasquez, 2015). Finally, *interculturality* and *diversity* contribute to the sustainment of this community, not only in terms of expertise but also in terms of diverse language backgrounds, nationalities, races, and countries of residence; all

seven continents are represented in the community's membership. Such diversity, in turn, leads to mutual understanding, respect, and appreciation (Stevens, 2018), as members complement one another and find additional opportunities to learn from each other in the presence of such diversity.

Positioning, identity, and collective identity

The concept of identity has been extensively researched in applied linguistics and language teacher education research (e.g., Kayi-Aydar, 2019a; Norton, 2000; Pavlenko, 2003; Varghese et al., 2005). Research has led to new understandings of identity as dynamic, shifting, and multiple, as opposed to being fixed and unitary; one's identity is shaped by the contextual factors as "people actively construct and negotiate 'who they are' and present themselves in different ways depending on the contextual circumstances in which they are interacting" (Tagg, 2015, p. 221). Emphasizing the emergent nature of identity, Bucholtz and Hall (2005) also argue that it is the "product of linguistic and other semiotic practices and therefore is fundamentally a social and cultural phenomenon" (p. 588). In other words, identity emerges through linguistic and discursive interactions, influenced by the social, contextual, and cultural factors in which they occur.

As people enact identities through language, they also "portray other people and their identities in certain ways that compare or contrast with the identity we want to enact" (Gee, 2011, p. 109). As Tagg (2015) also concurs, "individuals actively (if subconsciously) work to (re)position themselves and others in the course of unfolding interactions, drawing on linguistic features to index particular social identities" (p. 229). Termed *positioning* (Davies & Harré, 1990, 1999), this process is the means by which people's utterances position themselves and others in relation to discourses and each other's positions. As Van Langenhove and Harré (1999; as cited in Kayi-Aydar, 2019b) have described, positioning can be both interactive (what one says positions others) and reflexive (what one says positions oneself). Moreover, positions, or the accumulation of positions a person takes up over time, or that other people assign them over time, shape and form individuals' *positional identities* (Kayi-Aydar, 2019b). Positioning may also occur at the interpersonal level "when an individual positions her/himself as part of a team, group, or community" and when "individuals engage in intergroup positioning when they position their team, group, or community in relation to others" (Kayi-Aydar, 2019b, p. 5). In that sense, what one says about themselves as part of a community, or about their community, positions the community and the fellow members in certain ways.

In studying the concept of identity within a community, or a community's identity, the idea of *collective identity* is a useful framework. Mostly defined and used within social movement theory, collective identity refers to "the shared definition

of a group that derives from its members' common interests, experiences, and solidarities" (Whooley, 2013, p. 586). As in individual identities, collective identity also emerges and is co-constructed within the day-to-day actions, interactions, struggles, and activities of a community. As such, "shared meaning making, interactive activation of relationships, and making emotional investments are critical components of the process of collective identity construction" (Khazraee & Novak, 2018, p. 4). Concepts and meanings used to describe a community's collective identity may also draw upon shared perceptions of imagined as well as concrete communities. In other words, collective identity "is a perception of a shared status or relation, which may be imagined rather than experienced directly, and it is distinct from personal identities, although it may form part of a personal identity" (Polletta & Jasper, 2001, p. 298). Therefore, collective identity of a community is "never simply an aggregate of individuals' identities" (Polletta & Jasper, 2001, p. 298).

Language, interactions, and discursive practices are important parts of what constitutes a community and its culture. This is no different in an OCoP. In the absence of shared physical space, interactions (oral or written) play a particular importance when forming and identifying online communities and when understanding, communicating, and co-constructing its collective identity. As Lam (2008) puts it, "...language practices are instrumental in creating the norms of behavior of particular online groups and how these norms function to provide sociability, support, information, and a sense of collective identity" (p. 303).

Although Webheads have been studied by others in relation to its characteristics that have contributed to its long-standing history as a successful OCoP, there has been no attention specifically on the idiosyncratic discursive and linguistic practices contributing to the co-construction of its collective identity and how these practices shape teacher participation and their professional development. By illustrating these practices, this chapter focuses on closing this gap in the literature on online communities of practice.

The study

Context and background

When Webheads were first established as one of the workshops of the Electronic Village Online Annual Workshops of TESOL CALL Interest Section in 2002, they created a Yahoo Groups email list (evonline2002_webheads) as their main communication platform among the participants. After the workshop ended, members agreed to continue the conversation and interaction over this email list, which gradually became the main text-based communication platform of the community.

New members still join the community via this main communication platform, which is open to everyone. Participants from the annual workshops (previously BaW – Becoming a Webhead – now ICT4ELT) are invited to join this group list if they want to become a member. Because of the changes to the Yahoo Group platform, the group email list is now housed in Groups.io. As of June 2020, 12,130 email subjects have been created, and more than 33,000 emails have been exchanged over the 18 years of the community’s existence. While Webhead practices have become spread over multiple sites and platforms since 2002, the email group list remains the main text-based communication platform among members, serving as the primary means by which the idiosyncratic language and discourse of the community is co-constructed and passed on to new members. Therefore, the main data for this study are primarily based on the email interactions in this platform.

Data sources and analysis

The data for this study consist of a sample of 1886 emails extracted from the archived email communication of the Webheads community in two different iterations: emails from January 2011 to October 2011, and from January 2019 to May 2020. These emails reflect the community’s earlier and recent conversations, archiving its shared history. In my analysis of this corpus of 1886 emails, I draw on a combination of principles informed by discourse analysis (Gee, 2011), corpus-driven approaches for discourse analysis (Biber, 2012), and positioning theory (Davies & Harré, 1990, 1999; Kayi-Aydar, 2019b), in order to make sense of how members use language to express certain meanings about themselves as a Webhead, and Webheads as a community. I used AntConc (Anthony, 2004) corpus analysis software as an analytical tool for this study, which provides concordance lines and enables an examination of keywords, collocations, and frequencies in a corpus, among other functions. In addition to a corpus-driven analysis, I also engaged in an inductive analysis of the dataset, through multiple readings and manual coding of the selected features in the dataset, by categorizing the emerging themes based on my guiding questions for analysis (Duff, 2008; Saldana, 2009; Thomas, 2006). Additionally, I complement this analysis with in-depth interviews with two long-term members of Webheads, to illustrate how they perceive the contribution of their long-time participation in the community and its collective identity to their professional development. Finally, my interpretations of the data are also informed by the larger netnography that I conducted with this community (Kulavuz-Onal, 2013).

Findings

RQ1: How do Webheads construct a collective identity of Webheads and Webhead-ness discursively?

To answer the first research question, I began with a key-word-in-context (KWIC) analysis on AntConc of the most frequently used content words in this dataset that consist of 209,846 words appearing in 1886 emails. There were a total of 337 words that appeared 100 times or more in this dataset. Excluding the function words (e.g., prepositions, pronouns, determiners, etc.) and names of people, I focused my analysis on 161 content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) that appeared in this subset of 337 most frequent words. Among these 161 content words, which appeared a total of 31,570 times in the entire dataset, 62 words (39%) were related to the Webheads community and/or its practice as the Table 1 below shows.

Table 1. Frequency of the words and phrases in reference to webheads community and its practice

Category	Words	Frequency
Community	Webhead/Webheads	1105
	community	121
	group	253
	teacher/teachers	657
	Technology	185
Practice	tools/links/link	509
	Online/internet/web	890
	Teaching/education	485
	student/students	796
	Learning/learn	1029
	Professional	102
	English/language/TESOL/CALL	946
	share/sharing	248
	Class/classroom/course	620
	Generic technology*	2068
	Specific Technology**	1708
Community activities***	1509	
TOTAL		13,231

* Under this category, I grouped the following words: video, blog, message, messages, wiki, email, html, recording, session, sessions, media, post, program, site

** Under this category, I grouped the following words: Blogspot, Google, Grouply, Ning, Wordpress, Moodle, Skype, Facebook, Elluminate, Pbworks

*** Under this category, I grouped the following words: conference, presentation, discussion, information, project, research, reading, events, event

As seen in Table 1, these 62 words appeared 13,231 times within the subset of content words, accounting for 42% of frequency. Words that referred to the community and their profession, such as Webhead, Webheads, teacher/teachers, group and community were among the keywords used in this dataset and appeared a total of 2136 times. The keywords in reference to their practice, such as students, education, technology, tool/tools, online, teaching, sharing and learning, etc. appeared quite frequently for a total of 11,095 times, accounting for 35% frequency in the subset of 161 key content words in the dataset. Leaving *Webheads* aside, the two most frequent words in each category (*group* and *teachers*; and *learning* and *online*) can be interpreted as a discursively constructed statement of identity for the entire community, an OCoP of English language teachers teaching and learning with technology, a *group of teachers learning online*.

Table 2 below shows examples of relational expressions that appeared in the dataset as collocations for the words *Webhead* and/or *Webheads*

Table 2. Relational expressions as collocations of ‘Webhead’ and/or ‘Webheads’

Word	Examples
family	‘..Webheads, you are a beautiful family.’ “..in this wonderful family of Webheads” “I consider you a part of my family...” “..Webheads are beloved family..”
Friend(s)	“ Dear Webhead friends..” “Join the Webheads and make friends for life!” “..fabulous to be back with so many friends..”
Colleague (s)	Webhead colleague “Dear colleagues..”
community	Webheads community “..such a great online community as the Webheads..”
brothers and sisters	‘to all Webhead brothers and sisters’
father	“a good Webhead father..”
fellow	“To all my fellow Webheads..”

The examples in Table 2 show that members discursively construct this community as composed of close relationships one can see among friends and members of a family. Use of such relational expressions openly in text-based interaction not only fosters close relationships among members but also passes these values on to the new members.

To examine the situated meanings members ascribed to themselves and the community, I ran a collocational analysis of the lexical bundles ‘*Webheads are*’ and ‘*We are*.’ Table 3 below provides the results for the lexical categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs that were the collocations of these bundles in this dataset. The *italicized* were repeated collocations for both bundles.

Table 3. Collocates of the lexical bundles ‘Webheads are.’ and ‘We are.’

	Collocates of “Webheads are.”	Collocates of “We are.”
Nouns	Leaders, group, <i>teacher</i> , action, institutions, globe, image, hope, participation, mindshift, home, future, friends, <i>family</i> , people	Webheads, book, workshops, team, <i>teachers</i> , <i>teacher</i> , product, show, play, life, games, technology, task, system(s), spirit, Twitter, Wikispaces, volunteers, events, culture, conference, community, parents, resources, <i>family</i> , movement, globe, class, classroom, webheads, session, services, initiative, Zoom, Skype
Verbs	<i>Trying</i> , presenting, participating, <i>doing</i> , <i>working</i> , <i>watching</i> , <i>teaching</i> , indicating, welcome, agree, admire, continue, <i>following</i> , flourishing, joining	Going, <i>teaching</i> , seeing, looking, learning, <i>doing</i> , <i>trying</i> , processing, posting, <i>following</i> , experiencing, <i>working</i> , <i>watching</i> , using, updating, thinking, testing, tagging, talking, enjoying, developing, planning, seeking, initiating, help, meeting, broadcast
Adjectives	Active, great, ahead, unique, true, remarked, patient, prevalent, invaluable, <i>happy</i> , global, concerned, <i>aware</i> , amazing, beloved, interested	Pleased, <i>happy</i> , immersed, glad, willing, virtual, tuned, thankful, understanding, ready, <i>aware</i> , royal, present, dedicated, international, online
Adverbs	Everywhere, closely, <i>always</i>	Online, forward, together, tomorrow, <i>always</i>

The collocations presented here could be interpreted in several ways. First, the collocates common to both bundles were *teacher(s)*, *family*, *teaching*, *trying*, *following*, *doing*, *working*, *watching*, *happy* and *always*. In line with the findings shown in Table 1, *teacher*, *teachers*, and *teaching* recurred as collocations for Webheads in this dataset again, supporting the collective identity of Webheads as teachers. The verbs that commonly occurred in both columns are those indicating an action. Additionally, the recurrence of *happy* in both columns among other adjectives portrays Webheads’ general positive attitude towards their practice, and towards each other. One can interpret the combination of the recurring words for both columns as Webheads being positioned by members as ‘always happy and active teachers.’

The nouns referring to persons, such as, *leaders*, *group*, *friends*, *family*, *team*, *parents*, and *volunteers*, all connote collaboration, support, togetherness, socializing, helping, and willingness, concepts that may be attributed by members to Webheads. Additionally, some of the other nouns in the dataset connotating Webheads’ collective practice broadly focus on education and technology: *book*, *workshops*, *participation*, *institutions*, *task*, *technology*, *system*, *games*, *Twitter*, *Wikispaces*, *Skype*, *Zoom events*, *conference*, *product*, *session*, *services*, and *broadcast*.

In addition to the recurrent verbs, most of the other verbs that collocated with these lexical bundles also denote action and activeness, and included *presenting*, *participating*, *looking*, *going*, *seeing*, *learning*, *processing*, *posting*, *using*, *testing*,

thinking, updating, experiencing, tagging, developing, and initiating. While some of these verbs could collectively be interpreted as traits of educators (e.g., *presenting, learning, thinking, participating*), others refer to technology (e.g., *processing, posting, updating, tagging*), aligning with the community's collective focus on education and technology.

The adjectives for the collocations of 'Webheads are..' and 'We are..' can be categorized into two groups: adjectives that communicate emotions and opinions, such as *happy, amazing, pleased, glad, thankful, willing, great, unique, beloved, and invaluable*, and adjectives that communicate traits of a person or a group, such as *understanding, patient, aware and active.* A common theme among these adjectives is 'positivity'. The traits *global* and *virtual* also reflect the nature of the community being online and spanning the globe.

Finally, the adverbs collocated with Webheads have connotations of 'inclusiveness' (e.g., *everywhere, always, together, closely*) and 'future-oriented-ness' (e.g., *forward, tomorrow*). While inclusiveness can be associated with the trait *global*, the theme of future-oriented-ness aligns with the theme of activeness and innovativeness within this context. In further support of how such language use reflects how participants perceive the Webhead community and "Webheadness", one particular email from a member is worthy of discussion here.

"Webheads in Action is a school for everybody. Those who have a lot of expertise in the tech area *help and collaborate* with others who are just starting. They are so *generous* [...] New members also contribute with their interesting questions and participation, which is invaluable. Webheads are *leaders* wherever they are. We are *not afraid of exploring, learning, constructing and deconstructing knowledge, or making mistakes.* We encourage our colleagues to join our *adventures*, and do our best to carry out *teaching and learning* processes full of *enthusiasm*, with good practices and *innovative* projects. Being a Webhead gives us the opportunity to *learn and build knowledge together*, no matter how much you know, there are always opportunities for everybody to learn and grow professionally [...] And, the most important to me, it is the *sense of belonging*, the feeling of *being a part of a family*, the *unique sharing spirit*. We see ourselves as a *team*, not as competitors. Being a Webhead is magic!"

In sum, it can be interpreted from the email dataset that members position the Webheads community as a team of teachers and educators who are positive-thinking, active, inclusive, and innovative, and who value the collaborative learning of all things related to education and technology, all while cultivating collaborative, familial, and friendly relationships in a global, online context. This collective identity has not only evolved over the years but also is reproduced discursively as represented in their email communication.

RQ2: What linguistic practices do Webheads employ in their emails that reflect and reproduce their community values and collective identity?

To answer the second research question, I draw on manual coding and categorizing of expressions and statements in the emails to the end of showing how they illustrate idiosyncratic linguistic practices that have emerged within this community, and how they reproduce community values and the collective Webhead identity.

Although the word ‘webhead’ is a noun in linguistic terms, members have expanded its use to other lexical functions such as pre-nominal modifiers or new adverbs in order to communicate unique aspects of Webheadness.

- (1) a. “It would be great to organize a webhead dinner”
- b. “Congratulations, webhead ladies!”
- c. “..a good Webhead father..”
- (2) a. “...webhead-like chaotic learning..”
- b. “...We spent an hour chatting away, webhead-way...”

In 1a-1c, the word *webhead* is used in one of its main meanings to denote membership to the community. The phrase *webhead dinner* in 1a refers to a dinner organized offline among the members who are simultaneously present in the same geographical location. Similarly, in 1b, members’ identity and belonging to the community are emphasized by using the word *webhead* as a modifier before *ladies*, while in 1c, the community founder was labeled as the father of all Webheads. Examples in 2a and 2b, on the other hand, is not as easily conveyed as 1a, 1b, and 1c, because they rely on shared understandings and shared meanings of the community to its members. In other words, when something is *webhead-like* and/or done in a *webhead-way*, the meaning can only be understood to the insiders of the community and thus it is situated within this context. Such derivations of the word into an adverbial form emerge from the shared history and shared experiences of the members, and also reflect a collective identity with shared meanings available only to members. Moreover, these neologisms position the community as unique and different from other communities, as they are used to refer to the *unique ways of doing* within the community.

This uniqueness attributed to Webheads and Webheadness by its members is discursively constructed and reconstructed in additional examples as follows:

- (3) a. “..the webhead experience”
- b. “...by using your webhead technology”
- c. “...trying my very best to transmit the Webheads’ spirit to my students...”
- d. “...we have been enjoying this fantastic Webhead world!”
- e. “...the Webhead spirit from a Webhead factory...”

As seen from these examples, members communicate that whatever Webheads do stands out as unique, be it the technology they use and their technology-based expertise, or the spirit cultivated and spread through the acts, activities, and relationships within the community. All of these practices distinguish them from other communities and signify the value it places on membership and connectedness. Once again, these uses emerge through common linguistic practices among members. The range of meanings that are communicated through these phrases can only be interpreted by members in light of shared experiences, practices, and histories that have been co-constructed over time, as is typical in a community of practice.

As previously mentioned, a characteristic of this community is their acceptance, appreciation, and support for diversity of levels of expertise, participation, and membership status (Kulavuz-Onal, 2013), as reflected in the following email excerpts:

- (4) a. "...there is a very smart webhead."
- b. "I am still a new webhead myself..."
- c. "I am a newbie webhead."
- d. "Great chat tonight with super webhead [...]"
- e. "I'm also a an occasional webhead..."
- f. "Once a Webhead, always a Webhead!"
- g. "...always great to hear from an original webhead."
- h. "...good to hear from all these long-time webheads!"
- i. "...anonymous webheads."

As illustrated in these examples, Webheadness is understood as a continuum within this community. Members position themselves and others in terms of the recency of their membership (e.g., *new webhead* in 4b, *original webhead* in 4g, and *long-time webheads* in 4h), the degree of technology expertise (e.g., *very smart webhead* in 4a, *newbie webhead* in 4c, and *super webhead* in 4d), and levels of participation and involvement (e.g., *occasional webhead* in 4e, *anonymous webhead* in 4i). However, pairing all these constructions with the word *webhead* means that all participation patterns, expertise levels, and membership statuses are welcome and expected, and the differences do not exclude one from being considered a Webhead. This community value is further facilitated through the expression in 4f, "Once a Webhead, always a Webhead". A member's webhead status is legitimate regardless of the member's involvement, expertise, and membership status, as long as they once joined the community.

Translingual practices, navigating between more than one language in complex, dynamic ways (Androutsopoulos, 2011; Barton & Lee, 2013; Canagarajah, 2013; Tagg, 2015) also commonly occur in this community. As shown in the examples

below, members draw on different languages spoken by others, although they themselves do not necessarily speak those languages.

- (5) a. “Dear Teresinha”
- b. “Dear Clarinha”
- c. “Shokran”
- d. “Cheers, Besos” (in closing email messages)
- e. “Um abraço” (in closing email messages)
- f. “Ahlanwasahlan! Welcome!”

The diminutive suffix *-inha* in Portuguese was used frequently in the communication between members to express intimacy, as exemplified in 5a and 5b. Its expanded use by non-Portuguese speakers is an indication of its spread as a community practice embraced by its members. Another linguistic practice adopted by the members and used in some email closing was ‘Hugs’ (as shown in examples 6e through 6h), and its similar form in Portuguese in 5e. Members also drew on translingual practices to express conventional speech acts, such as thanking (*Shokran* in 5c) and welcoming (*Ahlanwasahlan* in 5f). Adoption and spread of such translingual practices in an online community further reinforces the collective identity of Webheads as a multicultural, global community, while also strengthening bonds among members.

Although Webheads primarily exist as an OCoP and interact through CMC technologies and platforms, there are several linguistic practices that they employ to merge their online and offline identities, as illustrated in the examples below.

- (6) a. “Another little webhead is born.”
- b. “I’m happy to inform you that 10 Webhead babies have been born in Venezuela”
- c. “I’m a proud Sudanese Webhead”
- d. “I’m worried about our Japanese webheads”
- e. “Hugs from Argentina”
- f. “Hugs from Morocco”
- g. “Hugs all, [member name] (in a very warm and comfortable hotel room while outside it’s -37 C)”
- h. “Hugs, [member name], (in Atlanta till Monday)”
- j. “Dear Argentinian Webheads,..”

For example, members’ nationality, as in the examples of 6c, 6d, and 6j, and their geographical location, as in the examples through 6e and 6h, are expressed to connect their offline presence and identity to their online identity and community. This, in addition, contributes to the sense of globality, diversity, and multiculturality

of the community further. Specifically, the examples of 6f and 6g above communicate vivid descriptions of the member's present offline moment and location in a way that further contributes to the construction of close and friendly relationships. Similarly, one is only likely to express such personal detail about the present moment, as in the example in 6g, when s/he feels the presence of such close relationships within a community. Finally, 6a and 6b are typical examples of how members' offline familial relationships are acknowledged as part of the extensions of community. In other words, Webheads membership is extended to Webheads families in their offline life, as they automatically become *honorary* members to the community, and perhaps constitute the extended Webhead family.

RQ3: How do the Webheads community and its collective identity shape teachers' professional development as experienced by members?

To understand how the Webheads' community and its collective identity shape teachers' professional development as perceived and experienced by members, I draw on in-depth interviews with two long-term members on their histories of participation and learning with the community: Amal (pseudonym) from Egypt, and Hessa (pseudonym) from Sudan.

Both Hessa and Amal were introduced to the Webheads community through their participation in BaW online workshop, in 2005 and in 2011, respectively. Customarily, they both *graduated* as a Webhead at the end of the workshop and joined the email list to continue their interaction with the larger Webheads community. At the time, they both were EFL teachers in their respective countries, and they describe their technology use before joining Webheads as limited to passive receipt of information. Before she joined Webheads in 2005, Hessa described herself as a "consumer of the internet" surfing the net for downloading materials for her students, and her skills were limited to "secretarial skills or techniques like using word documents, MS Office in general." When Amal joined in 2011, her experience and expertise with technology level was similar to Hessa, with a self-described lack of self-confidence:

Using the technology was just using the Internet to get some information, to do a kind of small research. And then I discovered downloading worksheets [...] This was the only thing that I used to do with technology [...] I used to think the easiest way, because I was poor, I didn't have resources, I didn't know a lot about all these web tools. So I would just use the easiest one and the simplest one I had. I wouldn't exert that much effort, because I didn't have self-confidence.

After they joined the Webheads, there was a significant shift in their experiences. For Hessa, learning was everywhere, as she felt that she was “learning on a daily basis; learning from the posts, learning from the hyperlinks, learning from the interaction, the collaboration, learning from so many things about the use of technology in English language teaching and for my own professional development.” Even when not visibly interacting, Hessa still felt she was learning from others’ interaction and information-sharing. Likewise, three months after joining the Webheads, Amal collaborated with another Webhead on a telecollaborative classroom exchange project and gave a webinar about this to the broader Webheads community. This improved her self-confidence, as she states, “I felt like ‘wow! I’m a star!’ Being online, having my own presentation [...] I used to attend webinars but have not presented one myself before. [the people who attended] had wonderful feedback. [...] it was very inspiring [...] I felt very proud of myself.”

Following their active participation during BaW workshops, both Hessa and Amal were invited to be a BaW moderator in the upcoming years. Hessa was a weekly moderator from 2006–2010, and Amal from 2012–2013. Since 2014 Amal has been the lead coordinator of ICT4ELT (the successor of BaW). Their active participation and involvement with the community has evolved into mentorship and leadership roles, which is still done voluntarily in order to return the favor, as Hessa expresses, “I’m just giving back very tiny of what these people gave me. I think this is the feeling in all of us. This is what I learned from them; you should give back what you have learned.”

Both Amal and Hessa describe a Webhead as more than an educator who has expert knowledge about technology, but also somebody who cares about sharing this knowledge as collective practice:

A Webhead is other than being an expert using technology in teaching. A webhead gives more than takes, shares for the benefit of others, gives a hand no matter how far she is. A webhead never underestimates any newbies or inexperienced participants. A webhead makes a change in others’ life. (Amal)

[A Webhead] is first definitely an educator, [...] intellectual, he loves challenges, inspiring in everything he does. Sharing, he knows that sharing is caring. A fantastic scholar, extraordinary educator, and an amazing human being; it’s about making the world better, and he doesn’t wait or think to extend a helping hand. [...] He loves technology, integrates technology. He also knows the meaning of participation in a community of practice. [...] When webheads need help, they just don’t hesitate [...] jumps into the community and ask for help, believing that help will be extended and found 24/7. (Hessa)

Both Amal's and Hessa's statements indicate that they position the community as a team of educators and human beings that emphasize learning and support in order to make a difference in their lives. This sense of support apparently facilitates newcomers' feelings of welcome in the community and encourages different levels of participation without judgment. As Amal also puts it, it is difficult to keep up with the fast-growing advances in technology, and when one has a community of professionals ready to offer support, one feels secure and confident giving these tools a try.

With Webheads, you feel like you always have support, you will always have somebody to help you whenever you get lost, whenever you feel you're lost, you will find help. Whenever you feel you are not sure about something, you will find somebody to tell you about it. It's like you are all the time protected [...] So you're now more brave to take the decision to use something. [...] I will never fall behind, I'll never fail, they give me security and support.

Moreover, the support comes in terms of not only learning how to integrate technology in teaching effectively, but also supporting other members emotionally in their offline lives. For instance, during Amal's first participation in BaW2011, Egypt was going through a revolution, during which Webheads sent her several messages of support and well wishes that planted the first seeds of Amal's sense of family from the community.

"I felt 'oh wow!' I haven't had all this kind or all this flow of messages even from relatives and friends here, so how come I have them from those people who just knew me for two weeks. So they were really really friendly and welcoming. They were like more than a family"

Since joining Webheads, both Hessa and Amal have had significant developments in their careers shifting from English language teachers who had limited relationship with technology into educational technology experts who train English language teachers. Hessa has held several positions as a CALL specialist in the schools where she has worked and is now an assistant professor at a university in Bahrain, teaching courses in applied linguistics and educational technology. Similarly, Amal is a senior teacher trainer and ICT coordinator at a British Council in Egypt. Since their first introduction to Webheads, they have collaborated on several online and offline presentations, workshops, seminars, professional development events, and telecollaborative classroom exchanges with fellow Webheads. They continue to contribute to community practice by mentoring others, sharing expertise, and giving back to the community in any way they can, which in turn contributes to their own learning. They attribute their professional expertise and current career path largely to the Webheads community, as Amal acknowledges that joining Webheads

“has changed my life completely. They were like not a family, more than a family.” Likewise, Hessa mentions the opportunity of lifelong learning that this *family* has provided her:

[...] when you just think about this community, you find like you wish if the whole world was a Webhead. I'm very grateful to Webheads, as I always say, I'm a proud Sudanese Webhead, which gives me the opportunity to always learn without having certificates, to build knowledge together, to learn with them [...] This sense of belonging, the feeling of being part of this family, the unique sharing spirit and it's a team. It's magic!

It can be interpreted from both Hessa's and Amal's lived experiences of participation and membership in this community that they felt a strong sense of family and support provided to not only the new members but also others. The continued and unconditional support that one normally finds in a family, which is discursively co-constructed and reproduced in community activity and interactions – could possibly explain the transformative and sometimes lifelong power of the OCoP in members' lives and careers.

Discussion and conclusion

The findings of this study contribute to the literature on online teacher CoPs in several ways. The values and characteristics of the Webheads community were discursively reproduced in their interactions and were typified by distributed expertise, loosely defined membership, complex and dynamic participation patterns, valued peripheral participation, and social and emotional support. These are in line with previous literature on this community (Bostancioglu, 2018; Hanson-Smith, 2013; Stevens, 2018), and on online teacher communities of practice (e.g. Booth, 2012; Gunawardena, et. al., 2009; Laintz-Andersson et al. 2018; Macia & Garcia, 2016; Malinen, 2015). This study, additionally, emphasizes other characteristics, such as collective identity building and collaborative apprenticeship as critical in sustaining the teacher professional development potential of long-standing OCoPs like Webheads. These characteristics are realized through co-construction and reproduction of idiosyncratic, identity-laden discourse, shaping a collective identity that fosters the building of close relationships, reciprocal participation, and sustained professional development. As members' experiences illustrate, the Webheads community sustains itself on a collaborative apprenticeship model (Glazer & Hannafin, 2006) by valuing and investing in new members' existing knowledge and expertise, supporting their confidence, facilitating their learning and interaction, and providing them opportunities for mentorship and leadership roles in the community's activities.

The findings indicate that the Webheads community is not just realized as a space for teachers to get together strictly for professional purposes, as many such communities are (Laintz-Andersson et. al., 2018). Rather, Webheads are positioned as a team, circle of friends, and even an extended family with offline and online extended members. This perception of Webheads is not only co-constructed discursively in their email interaction, but also is acknowledged by members as revealed in their professional learning histories with Webheads. Moreover, members acknowledge and discursively position Webheads as valuing interculturality, peripheral participation, and distributed expertise; and as a leading community for teaching, experimenting, learning, leading, and innovating with educational technology. These positional identities for Webheads further facilitate individual members' self-confidence with technology, trust in the community's collective expertise, continued professional learning even behind the scenes, voluntary participation, and willingness to give back to the community. Positioning the community as family and friends where members receive unconditional support, and as a team of teachers learning together with open and innovative minds, facilitates members' sense of belonging, strengthens their community ties, and encourages their active, visible, and voluntary participation, openness to collaboration, and ongoing contribution to the community's practice that goes beyond sharing information. In turn, all this leads to shared histories of professional learning that sustain the community for a long time and facilitate meaningful, transformative professional development, as experienced by some of the members of Webheads in this study.

The culture and practices of the Webheads community afford the creation of meaningful opportunities and sufficient time for community members to interact and cultivate strong relationships, thus leading to idiosyncratic discursive practices that contribute to long-standing OCoPs for teacher professional development. Effective professional development through online communities goes beyond just a focus on novices' learning, but invests in inclusivity, diversity, continuity, and positivity by supporting investment in both professional and personal relationships.

The concept of 'webheadness' is used by the Webhead community to describe and refer to a variety of *unique ways of doing things* that involve and go beyond technology use and integration in English language teaching. Members frequently draw on specific discursive resources that seem to have evolved as linguistic practices in this community's culture, which contributes to the co-construction and reinforcement of collective identity and shared practice. As a community of practice, the Webheads in Action not only built shared histories and interest over the years, but also developed shared linguistic practices. Such discursive practices reinforce collective identity and may be important for the success and maintenance of online communities. What helps a community to endure is not only shared interest, but

also a unique community identity reproduced through shared linguistic practices involving idiosyncratic discourse.

This study utilizes mostly qualitative research methods to give an in-depth analysis of one specific case of an online community. Furthermore, it draws on the interviews with two long-term members as the purpose was to gain a more in-depth understanding of their participation in and learning with the community. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized, nor is this intended. Moreover, as with other qualitative studies of this nature, other researchers with different backgrounds and analytical approaches are likely to offer different perspectives, analyses, and interpretations of the same data. Using similar qualitative methods, future studies may examine the experiences of participants in similar online communities, and by comparing experiences across individuals and online communities, we can see similarities and differences and gain a nuanced understanding of how online communities contribute to professional development of the practitioners participating in such communities.

This particular study is based on a sample of emails exchanged in a community over the years. Future studies on OCoPs of teachers could consider analyzing all the emails exchanged since the beginning of a community in order to capture the emergence of the discursive practices. Another possibility could also include a comparison of discursive practices in a variety of interactional platforms (e.g., social media) that belong to a community in order to understand how the same discourse carries over (or not) to the multiple platforms used by an OCoP. Finally, more studies with long-standing OCoPs created by/for teachers that interact over multiple platforms and organize a variety of activities and events should be conducted and compared, in order to better understand the emergent cultures and practices that sustain these communities.

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Sharing stories around the digital campfire

In-service teachers, cognition/emotion dissonance, and the asynchronous online classroom

Curtis Green-Eneix and Peter De Costa

As the educational landscape evolves to address emerging international demands (De Costa, Green-Eneix & Li, 2020), teacher educators and researchers have begun to reevaluate what it means to be a 'good' teacher within digital classrooms. An area that has not been fully explored is how language teacher cognition (LTC) and language teacher emotions (LTE) dialectically occur through the stories and conversations in asynchronous online language teaching classrooms. This semester-long netnographic case study (Kozinets, 2010) sets out to understand how a fully asynchronous class helps novice in-service language teachers better understand their LTC and LTE concerning their respective teaching contexts. We found a digital space for in-service teachers to develop professionally both in the classroom and their respective contexts.

Keywords: emotions, in-service teachers, teacher cognition, online classrooms, short stories

In recent years, the educational landscape has evolved to increasingly account for growing neoliberal and global demands (De Costa et al., 2020), which have translated into a greater emphasis on implementing learning management systems and expanding the menu of online classrooms. This shift in education has concomitantly prompted scholars and teachers to re-evaluate what it means to be a 'good' teacher within digital contexts (De Costa & Norton, 2017). While second language teacher education research has focused on the importance of identity and emotion within and outside of language teaching programs (De Costa et al., 2019), how language teacher cognition (LTC) and language teacher emotion (LTE) develop dialectically (e.g., Johnson & Worden, 2014) within these asynchronous online language teaching programs have been underexplored. Moreover, there has been little investigation of in-service language teachers enrolled in these online programs during their novice (i.e., first three) teaching years.

In light of the above research gap, we explore how a fully asynchronous distance language teaching education course facilitates novice in-service language teachers' professional development as they negotiate cognitive/emotional dissonance. Cognitive/emotional dissonance in this case means the disharmony between pedagogical actions and the feelings teachers have regarding these implemented actions. Our semester-long netnographic case study (Kozinets, 2010) illustrates how our focal participants transformed the discussion forums in the teacher education asynchronous classroom to create an asynchronous space that allowed them to (1) openly share their lived experiences, and thus (2) co-create understanding of their profession in a collaborative digital space. Our short story analysis (Barkhuizen, 2016) of discussion board posts, course assignments, classroom observations, and semi-structured interviews with the teacher educator further revealed that both the teacher-learners and the teacher educator engaged in guided joint reflection to address the cognitive/emotional dissonance they experienced while trying to learn how to use technology within their language classroom. Our study was guided by developments in narrative-oriented language teacher cognition and language teacher emotion research, to which we turn next.

Linking language teacher cognition (LTC) with language teacher emotion (LTE)

Language teacher cognition (LTC) has typically been rooted in a cognitivist paradigm, relying primarily on Borg's (2006) conceptualization of this construct as encapsulating what teachers know, think, and believe concerning their classroom context and practices. Moreover, LTC within this paradigm is considered a valuable but discrete and laden resource in need of extraction by the researcher for refined scholarly understanding (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; see also Ustuk & De Costa, 2020). As productive as the cognitivist paradigm has been in yielding essential professional insights, LTC-based research has begun to consider the broader social qualities affiliated with LTC. This reorientation of LTC still utilizes Borg's (2006) initial definition as its foundation; however, LTC is being 'redrawn' and expanded to include the social, multidimensional and relational qualities (Benesch, 2017; Golombek, 2015) associated with becoming and being a teacher (e.g., De Costa et al., 2019). Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) have notably called for a shift in LTC to consider and "embrace the complexity of teachers' inner lives in the context of their activity" (p. 436).

A way to embrace such complexity would be to take a socially oriented epistemological stance towards LTC that assumes an emergent and constructivist quality (Feryok, 2018). In other words, LTC should not be considered as a static construct

that is relatively fixed and unchanging. Instead, LTC is dynamic and dialectically related to teachers' emotions, which constitute a way to make sense of a variety of pedagogical situations. Going back to Borg's (2006) view of LTC, emotions would be tied to how teachers think or perceive a particular experience in a specific context. This is because emotions are discursively constructed and built upon people's cultural and communal practices (Benesch, 2017; Zembylas, 2011).

As scholars consider how LTC is a complex and dynamic construct, Vygotskian sociocultural theory (SCT) brings forth the idea that language teacher emotions (LTE) are interwoven with both teacher cognition and pedagogical practices (Golombek, 2015). Vygotsky's (1994) notion of *perezhivanie* considers cognition and emotions as dialectic units that shape and influence each other to provide the individual with their subjective perspective within a specific social situation or environment. This is more commonly referenced as someone's "emotional experience" or "lived experience" (Veresov & Mok, 2018, p. 89). *Perezhivanie*, as Vygotsky (1994) elaborates, provides us with a means to study "the role and influence of the environment on the psychological development of children" (p. 343). The environment, however, is not deterministic. Rather, as Lantolf and Swain (2020) explain:

[T]he environment shapes the individual, but at the same time that individual brings particular features of his or her own psychology to the environment that in turn shapes the social environment and influences how it will be refracted [or, subjectively perceived] by the person. (p. 85)

As language teachers' context shapes them through means such as implementing feeling rules – or explicit rules that regulate the emotions workers are expected to display while working (Benesch, 2017), teachers, in turn, deploy their cognition to shape how they interact with their students and colleagues as they engage in the act of emotion labor (Hochschild, 1979). In a related study, Gkonou and Miller (2021) illustrates the effects of emotion labor on university English language teachers' pedagogy. Although teachers did undertake emotion labor to uphold what it means to be a professional, the authors found the act of reflection allowed teachers to reassess other aspects of their cognition such as their practices and beliefs.

Applying *perezhivanie* to language teachers, LTC needs to consider more than what teachers think, know, and believe but also what they experience and feel within their teaching context. As cognition and emotion are inextricably bound together in the form of *perezhivanie*, teachers' prior emotional experiences subjectively inform future situations, thus becoming future psychological tools for their pedagogical practices (see Golombek & Doran, 2014; Jonson & Worden, 2014). SCT considers these psychological tools and signs, such as language, as the primary means of mediation and interaction (Miller, 2011), thereby transforming their internal thinking into external forms of interaction within social situations

(Vygotsky, 1978), including the language classroom. One of these psychological and mediating tools that have gained traction within the field of second language teacher education literature is the use of narratives (e.g., Johnson & Golombek, 2011), which we utilize in our study.

Perezhivanie and narrative knowledging

In considering how LTC and LTE dialectically work together to process one's experience and become a source that informs and shapes teachers' mediated social interaction, narratives are considered one way to understand one's *perezhivanie*. Narratives are a mediational tool that teachers use to "interpret and reinterpret their experiences and to articulate the complexities of teaching" (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 487). Moreover, narratives are constructed through varying forms of stories that allow us to better understand teachers' *perezhivanie*. Stories can differ in terms of their context, Barkhuizen (2016) adds, since the context of a story is scalar in nature, resulting in three levels of stories:

- Level 1: *story* – embodies the teacher's "thoughts, emotions, ideas, and theories" and is constructed for the immediate social interaction and context
- Level 2: *Story* – exceeds the teacher and the immediate context to consider the institutional space and actors focusing primarily on the 'consequences of one's actions, attitudes, expectations, and prescriptions' they reside in
- Level 3: *STORY* – encapsulates the societal context to consider the sociopolitical constraints tied around their profession. (p. 663)

The various stories individual teachers utilize give us insight into how their context, social interactions, situations, and current knowledge and emotions shape their professional practice (Barkhuizen, 2011; Johnson & Golombek, 2011).

As noted, the use and analysis of narratives have been informative in understanding how cognition and emotion work together and take shape in teaching. For example, in their analyses of two teacher-authored narratives, Johnson and Golombek (2011) found that narratives enable teachers to (re)construct and mediate their knowledge about the course material. Relatedly, Barkhuizen (2011) argued that *narrative* knowledging allows teachers to actively engage in the act of "meaning making, learning, or knowledge construction" (p. 395). The act of narrative knowledging relies on using narratives as a psychological tool to shape one's understanding of their cognition and experience in order to assist the audience to understand what they mean, know, believe, and feel. In intentionally shaping narrative to connect with one's audience, the audience can then (re)interpret and expand upon one's

understanding and add onto it by incorporating their own narrative understanding (Barkhuizen, 2011). Narratives, as enacted through the aforementioned levels of stories, give us a window into teacher educators' and teacher-learners' perezhvanie. It is their perezhvanie that we set out to investigate within an asynchronous classroom that sought to provide in-service language teachers (henceforth referred to as teacher-learners) with the necessary conceptual knowledge to use technology within the collaborative teaching context designed by a teacher educator.

Present study

Our research study explores how a fully asynchronous online language teaching education program facilitated the professional development of in-service language teachers. Particular attention was accorded to the teachers' cognitive/emotional dissonance in relation to their respective educational contexts. Our study was guided by the following questions:

1. How does an asynchronous online language teaching classroom assist teacher-learners in bridging newly acquired conceptual knowledge with their practice-based tacit knowledge?
2. How does cognition and emotions dialectically develop within this virtual classroom?

To address these questions, we conducted a semester-long netnographic case study (Kozinets, 2010) that focused on a fully online master's program in language teaching course (FDT 511, a pseudonym) during the Fall 2018 academic semester.¹ Offered at a U.S. Midwestern state research institution, FDT 511 was a fully online asynchronous graduate course that provided teacher-learners with a theoretical and practical understanding of how to implement technology resources in a K-16 language classroom. The course was housed in the Desire 2 Learn (D2L, <<https://www.d2l.com/>>) platform with the macro structure consisting of weekly modules that were designed to provide the necessary scaffolding to facilitate LTC development. These modules often focused on a typical theme, such as the use of technology in education or language learning. Each module generally included a PowerPoint presentation that provided students with (1) a general layout of that week's module, and (2) an explanation of the assigned readings along with any supplemental information needed for the topic being covered that week.

To create an asynchronous course in both content delivery and interaction, Dr. Williams (the teacher educator and instructor of the course and one of our focal participants) used dedicated discussion sections to provide his teacher-learners a space to engage with the content being covered for that week. Dr. Williams also

labeled these discussion sections as student-led discussions with respect to their corresponding module (e.g., Student-Led Discussion #1 for Module 2). There was never more than one discussion forum a week, outside of the optional questions discussion forum. The instructions for each student-led discussion forum thus provided a space where the teacher-learners could lead the discussion and focus on areas that they perceived to be important within that module. However, each student did not need to make their own forum thread. Instead, Dr. Williams structured the student-led discussion where only “two or three students [would] be responsible for posting a question, thought or comment” (Student Led Discussion #1 for Module 2 instructions), while the rest of the class had to respond to at least “one thread per module to receive credit” (Syllabus). This decision, as Dr. Williams described in the first interview, was to let students “explore their own interests and needs” (Interview #1) by affording guided agency to the teacher-learners.

Participants

We recruited Dr. Williams, a White, male teacher educator who was in his mid-40's. He taught the observed asynchronous online course for six years at the time of this study. Dr. Williams had complete autonomy over the course due to his senior status at the university. Along with Dr. Williams, there were four student participants: Amelia, Merena, Peyton, and Xiao. Due to space limitations and the unique and interesting interactions that occurred between them and Dr. Williams, this study focuses only on Amelia and Merena. Amelia is a native Israeli who had moved to the United States eight years earlier with her husband and children. Before coming to the United States, she was a lawyer in Tel Aviv and Atlanta; she then switched careers to teach English in Israel and later Hebrew in the United States. At the time of the study, Amelia taught in a private Jewish school as a full-time instructor. Merena, on the other hand, is a native English speaker and was originally born and raised in the Midwest of the United States. Before entering the master's program, she studied abroad in Mexico and Spain and was able to achieve a high Spanish proficiency level allowing her to later teach Spanish in a Midwestern tertiary institution. Both Amelia and Merena were in their second and final year in the master's language teaching program, and they were enrolled in Dr. Williams's course, which was mandatory for their graduate program.

Data collection

In keeping with Kozinets's (2010) netnographic framework, the first author (Curtis) collected data over one academic semester. Netnography, or internet-based ethnographic research, follows the traditions of ethnography that is based on someone's experiences and observations of a classroom and the teaching and learning practices tied to classroom. These ethnographic traditions entailed attaining thick description through the collection of various data sources such as field notes and interviews. Netnography differs from ethnographic traditions, however, with respect to the multidimensional digital space in which such an ethnography is situated. The affordances of being an unobtrusive observer in a netnography, along with its archival ability, raises ethical concerns related to informed consent and confidentiality (British Association of Applied Linguistics, 2016). To mitigate this ethical predicament of collecting data within an asynchronous computer-mediated classroom that is in line with the micro-ethical practices espoused by De Costa et al. (2020), we sought and obtained (1) IRB approval and permission from Dr. Williams to observe his class, and (2) permission to post an electronic announcement on the course's D2L site that invited students in the class to participate in this study. Consent was obtained through an external link to a Google Form that clearly and accessibly stipulated the students' required level of participation in the study.

After receiving consent from both the instructor and the students, we established a thick description (Geertz, 1973) of our participants' behaviors and practices by collecting multiple data sources that included: netnographic observations with fieldnotes accompanied by select screenshots of the online classroom, semi-structured interviews with the teacher educator, teaching materials (e.g., class announcements, assignments, and discussion prompts), and discussion posts. Following the weekly schedule where students had to complete all required tasks and asynchronous discussion board requirements, Curtis observed the online class once a week. During these observations, Curtis composed reflexive fieldnotes which allowed him to engage with his "own subjective impressions and expectations about the all-important why questions as they arise" (Kozinets, 2010, p. 115) when observing the social interactions of the course. Curtis was not an active participant in the course in order to not disrupt the flow of the class.

Two face-to-face semi-structured interviews with Dr. Williams were also conducted. The first interview took place near the beginning of the semester and primarily set out to secure necessary background information as well as the rationale for teaching the class. The second interview was conducted near the end of the semester and used the online course and the responses from the first interview as the base on which to construct semi-structured stimulated response questions; these questions sought to understand the various interactions and assignments

that occurred throughout the course. During these hour-long interviews, Curtis assumed a colleague and learner role while positioning Dr. Williams as a colleague and expert teacher.

In addition to the interviews, Curtis also collected and archived assignments, announcements, and discussion prompts and posts at the end of the semester. To preserve our participants' anonymity, we (1) used pseudonyms when referring to our participants along with removing any identifiable information within the interview transcripts and forum posts, and (2) blurred out names and individuals' likeness within pictures along with altering excerpts so that our participants could not be easily identified through an internet search (Tao et al., 2017). That said, all modifications to participants excerpts were compliant to the American Psychological Association's (2020) guidelines to not misrepresent the original meaning or context of the displayed data.

Short story analysis

We adopted Barkhuizen's (2016) short story analysis framework to focus on Amelia and Merena's narrative experiences that were shared over D2L posts. As noted by Barkhuizen (2016), short stories are scalar oriented (i.e., occurring the story, Story, STORY level) and situated in "the past or the imagined future and include reflective or evaluative commentary on those experiences" (p. 660). Using MAXQDA – a paid software program that provides qualitative and mixed-method data analysis tools (VERBI GmbH, 2019), we used this scalar orientation of narrative context and content for the initial phase of our data analysis. This practice allowed us to identify and label narratives based on the brevity and context that occurred within the interviews and the D2L forum posts.

Once the narratives were identified and initially coded using Barkhuizen's (2016) analytical approach together, we separately carried out a content analysis to trace how Dr. Williams, Amelia, and Merena engaged in *narrative knowledging* to better understand *how* and *why* they engaged in the activity of teaching (Johnson & Golombek, 2011). During this second coding phase, we focused on the expression of cognitive/emotional dissonance within the narratives. This entailed identifying the use of positively- (e.g., *love*) and negatively- (e.g., *anxious* and *frustrating*) inflected emotion words, verbs, or gerunds (Saldaña, 2015) to refer to their teaching experience(s) and expectations (e.g., *failing with technology*). We separately coded different discussion forum threads in which Dr. Williams, Amelia, and Merena participated within.

Upon completing the content analysis separately for representative pieces of data, we compared our codes. Our codes were subsequently refined and (re)grouped

based on our discussions; this iterative process was repeated. During this coding session, we used our initial codes while still being open to any emergent ones. After the second round of discussions and refinement of codes, we coded the rest of the data (i.e., remaining discussion board threads, semi-structured interviews with Dr. Williams, field notes, and course materials) and developed meaningful themes that addressed the two above-mentioned research questions. Two primary themes that emerged were: (1) constructing a collaborative digital learning space, and (2) growing professionally as a result of cognition/emotional dissonance.

Constructing a collaborative digital learning space

The first research question concerns how an asynchronous classroom assists teacher-learners in understanding their newly acquired conceptual knowledge with their practice-based tacit knowledge. Our first theme responds to this question by highlighting how the online learning space was constructed by its participants. In particular, we elaborate on this primary theme by discussing the two sub-themes that compose it: (1) *Igniting the digital campfire* and (2) *Sharing narratives around the digital campfire to understand their perezhivanie*.

Igniting the digital campfire

The student-led discussion forums were the site in which the teacher-learners and teacher educator frequently used narratives to ignite the space into what we are terming as a *digital campfire*. A digital campfire is where individuals collectively transform the immediate online context to co-construct an understanding of their collective world using narratives. The use of narratives within these digital campfires allows individuals to mediate their cognitive and emotional experiences with their interlocutors as a way to understand, in this case, the meso and macro dimensions of teaching in relation to their professional experiences. Within the observational notes, we noticed that these digital campfires created a warm and safe atmosphere that allowed everyone to “perform their teaching and student identity to the teacher as well as to their peers [in order to] relate their past or current experiences as a teacher” to what they were currently learning (Observation field note by Curtis 11/02/2018).

A notable example of a digital campfire being ignited to allow everyone in the course to engage with their tacit and newly attained conceptual knowledge can be found within the initial weeks of the course. Within the first discussion forum in module two, one teacher-learner created a thread to ask the class about

what they thought about using or being told to use technology, and how their cognition had evolved in regard to using technology. Additionally, their reading of Blake (2013) – a stipulated course reading assigned by Dr. Williams – encouraged the teacher-learner to understand why the author attempted to convince teachers to use technology in their classroom. This allowed students to engage with the beliefs and myths surrounding digital technologies, such as how using such technology might replace teachers (Blake, 2013). Dr. Williams responded to the teacher-learners by telling a short narrative about his colleagues’ fear of using technology in their teaching:

Excerpt 1. Facing resistance

I encounter so many professors here at [Midwestern University] that have no interest whatsoever in technology and they fight tooth-and-nail against using [technology] even the most routine tools. I co-wrote a piece with a [graduate student] and a colleague for the [University] newsletter last semester ([link to newsletter]) and it was written with that particular professor in mind.

(Dr. Williams, Student Led Discussion #1 for Module 2)

Dr. Williams’s short STORY (Level 3; encapsulates the societal context to consider the sociopolitical constraints tied around their profession) attempts to provide more contextual information from his own experience as a way to understand how certain beliefs keep teachers from trying technology. This was also further illustrated in the newsletter piece he shared with the class. One teacher-learner built on Dr. Williams’ post to explicitly ask why use technology when language learning within the traditional classroom is in person. The teacher-learner also mentioned that the use of technology does not necessarily result in engagement, which made using or finding useful online tools difficult for them. This response prompted Amelia to agree with the teacher-learner that technology should not be used “for the sake of using it”; however, Amelia added that online resources should be used meaningfully to achieve classroom objectives which is contingent on whether the resources are implemented successfully. Lastly, she noted, “I see tech support/training essential for a successful implementation of any technology. Finding time to familiarize yourself with a tech tool [on your own] is a long shot” (Amelia, Comment 4, Reply #2).

While Amelia explained why technology should be implemented meaningfully and successfully, other teacher-learners were divided on Amelia’s point. Merena followed up the conversation with a stand-alone comment that focused on a Story concerning her teaching experience and the content being discussed that week:

Excerpt 2. Implement technology at your own speed

I *think* that Hinkelman (2018) makes a good point by arguing that using technologies just for the sake of it is not effective: teachers need to take into consideration the uniqueness of their learners and academic environments. What has really helped me is relying on my colleagues for tools they use [along with] their experiences with them. One of my colleagues uses Padlet for her unit discussions in ESL classes. I *loved* Padlet but didn't want to use it in that way, so eventually I decided to use it for infographics for final presentations in my intermediate Spanish classes. My Spanish 1 and 2 students don't use Padlet. (Merena, Student Led Discussion # 1 for Module 2)

In the above excerpt, Merena begins her response in the form of dialogue, which allows her to start with a mutual understanding by referencing Hinkelman (2018), one of their course readings. Merena shifts from dialogue to mediation, or what is familiar to the unfamiliar (Miller, 2011), to build on Amelia's point of finding support in implementing technology successfully. This shift is done by telling a short Story that allowed her to illustrate her point that is connected to her *perezhivanie*, or her cognitive *and* emotional experience as a language teacher concerning her teaching context (Lantolf & Swain, 2020). This underscores her point that technical support can be acquired from one's colleagues and creates an opportunity for the rest of the class to engage in their own Stories to take on some of the beliefs they have concerning technology use in the classroom.

The above example highlights how this online discussion forum within the initial weeks of the course was ignited into a digital campfire. Dr. Williams, in this case, primed the space through the use of instructions to make it malleable in a way to let his teacher-learners (a teacher learner, Amelia, and Merena, in this instance) to shape the discussion towards concerns they may have within their context but also structured enough to connect to the content being taught within the course. Just as any fire needs a match to start, Dr. Williams ignited the digital campfire by a short STORY that he experienced in his personal context. This urged his teacher learners to utilize their narratives to understand their beliefs and potential concerns about using technology within the classroom – the focus of that module, in relation to their respective pedagogical experiences. This in turn facilitated the co-construction of knowledge and elucidate their understanding through their narratives. Therefore, a digital campfire allows individuals to engage in the act of narrative knowledging (Barkhuizen, 2011; Johnson, 2015) and the co-construction of knowledge by engaging in a mutually supportive and dynamic process over an extended amount of time by mobilizing the online resources available to them.

Sharing narratives around the digital campfire to understand *perezhivanie*

The second sub-theme also responds to the first question by illustrating how digital campfires create affordances for teacher-learners and teacher educators to engage with their own and others' conceptual and tacit knowledge. The participants in this study could do so through narrating their emotional experiences concerning using technology in their classroom. This engagement can be seen in the third module discussion forum. The third module of the class focused on having teacher-learners "make connections with [their] own practice and some of the possibilities for including technology" (Dr. Williams, Distance Classrooms: Tools, concepts & ideas [PowerPoint]). Amelia was one of the students who led one of the discussions for that week by first referencing the readings and then asking her classmates how teachers used and transformed the use of technology. Dr. Williams was the first to respond to Amelia in order to initiate thoughtful discussion:

Excerpt 3. Lack of limitation

Let me say that I recently had the chance to sit down with my high school English teacher. I hadn't seen him in over twenty years, and I was struck by his description of the classes he taught back then (with me in one of them). He described [himself] more of a facilitator or a guided mentor than a traditional teacher, and I find I inadvertently adopted a lot of his teaching style into my own. The piece he struggled with was the limitation with technology that I no longer really have and it's something I am starting to more fully understand. (Dr. Williams, Student-Led Discussion #2 for Module 3)

Dr. Williams' short story (Level 1; embodies the teacher's "thoughts, emotions, ideas, and theories" and is constructed for the immediate social interaction and context) raises multiple realities he was experiencing within the discussion. First, his story answers Amelia's question by describing how, over 20 years, his professional role as a teacher has shifted. Second, he shares with students some of the emotional struggles he dealt with in his own professional context. In sharing with his students the emotional struggles he dealt with in the course of his changing role as a teacher, he exemplifies Kubanyiova and Feryok's (2015) observation that teachers' inner lives are situated in not only their environment (i.e., their classrooms) but also within the collective of their profession (i.e., teaching).

Dr. Williams' story also provides a small glimpse into his *perezhivanie* given that he recounts his emotional struggle in negotiating his shifting role as a teacher. This struggle is evidenced by his surprise and confliction in not being able to fully relate with his high school English teacher mentor and friend. Unlike his mentor and friend, Dr. Williams did not encounter any sort of technological limitations. Dr. Williams's storying of his emotional struggle is probably done with a purpose, in keeping with Kubanyiova and Feryok's (2015) observation that, "What and how

[teachers] tell is shaped by the context of the telling which influences what can, should, or even must be told about their selves, their students, and their teaching worlds” (p. 439). In the case of Dr. Williams’s story, he probably sought to highlight to students that his role in their online class as a teacher educator was to support students in finding ways to use technology to fit their broader instructional goals rather than merely introducing tools to them. In other words, one could argue that Dr. Williams’ story ignited the digital campfire for Amelia’s discussion thread in order for students to engage with their cognition through their narratives.

While narratives are tied to the cognition and emotions of being a teacher (Johnson & Worden, 2014) as well as the emotion labor they are subjected to (Benesch, 2017; Hochschild, 1979), expressing such beliefs and emotions is not always easy. This difficulty was demonstrated in Amelia’s discussion thread when Merena commented that she was wondering about the same as Amelia. In the following excerpt, Merena attempted to connect Dr. Williams’s comment with the constraints she encountered in her teaching:

Excerpt 4. technology isn’t an isolated tool

I think that mentally, I separate “technology”, “textbook”, and “language learning” into separate categories instead of linking them all together. For example, this semester my Spanish 1 hybrid students are using [technology tool] for weekly video posts on different topics. But there have been a couple of weeks where I treat the videos as separate assignments from what we are doing in class. Yesterday, I tried to connect the videos with an interpersonal conversation task. I think it went better this time by starting out asking students what kinds of questions they posed in their videos and if those would work in this situation. I need to keep the idea of connecting the tech with our in-class practice at the forefront of my lesson plans. In that way, [technology] isn’t just an isolated tool but an integrated part of our course.

(Merena, Student-Led Discussion #2 for Module 3)

In creating a space to engage with both their *perezhvanie*, the digital campfire thus provided a space for Merena to process her tacit knowledge she has developed thus far through the story she shared with the rest of the class. This finding extends Johnson’s (2015) assertion that cognition is not only dialogically constructed between teacher educators and novice teachers but also develops through the intentional construction of narratives that allows both parties to collaboratively reflect and extend their cognition. This extension, as evidenced in Amelia’s discussion thread, can occur through learning about other’s *perezhvanie* while trying to process one’s own cognition as demonstrated in Merena’s comment.

In sum, as seen in Excerpts 2 and 3, Dr. Williams’s forum discussion structure, while seemingly lean, provided essential scaffolding opportunities for Amelia and Merena to engage with not only their own beliefs (cognition) about using

technology in the classroom but also with that of their fellow peers. This enabled them to become aware of their pedagogical practice and appreciate the conceptual knowledge they already had to enhance their pedagogy.

Growing professionally as a result of cognition/emotional dissonance

In understanding how spaces can become digital campfires that create opportunities to let Dr. Williams, Amelia, Merena, and the rest of the FDT 511 class engage with their own and others' LTC development, we move on to address the second research question: How does cognition and emotions dialectically develop as novice teachers learn-to-teach within this virtual classroom? We address this question below by discussing two sub-themes (1) *Negotiating the emotion labor of the profession around the campfire* and (2) *Sharing stories to support and grow professionally*.

Negotiating the emotion labor of the profession around the campfire

While digital campfires provide a space in which the teacher educator and his teacher learners can share their stories to mediate their LTC with and through technology, the narratives the teacher educator and his teacher-learners shared allowed them to negotiate the ideological feeling rules (Benesch, 2017) and expectations surrounding technology. This negotiation becomes evident when analyzing Dr. Williams, Amelia, and Merena's stories around their lived experience, that is, their *perezhivanie* as they experience moments of dissonance (Vygotsky, 1994) over the course of the semester. Amelia, Merena and Dr. Williams, along with the rest of the FDT 511 class, addressed several different cognitive/emotional dissonance points around teaching a foreign/second language. One point in particular was found within the second discussion forum of the semester. In a different student-led discussion thread, one discussion post focused on Blake's (2013) point concerning the varying roles – practitioner, developer, researcher, and trainer – that teachers have to take up in regard to using technology tools in the classroom. This caused the student who led the discussion and her classmates to reflect on their experience with computer-assisted language learning resources available to them at their respective schools (Golombek, 2015). The stark contrast in access to resources (the learner-teachers in FDT 511 worked at a wide range of schools that correspondingly had different levels of access to technology) prompted the teacher-learner to ask her peers about ways to overcome their fear of technology use in the classrooms, lest their instruction be compromised. Dr. Williams was the first to address this question by attempting to address the teacher-learners' covert cognitive and emotional

dissonance (Johnson & Worden, 2014) with respect to a compelling need to have a flawless lesson plan that uses technology perfectly:

Excerpt 5. Failure is a keyword here

I think failure is a keyword here. As educators, we all have lessons, activities, classes, or materials that fail in some ways, but I find many educators have a very low threshold for tech failure even though it's a bit more complicated to figure out the cause. I think many educators also immediately blame themselves when technology fails.

(Student-Led Discussion #2 for Module 3)

The above excerpt is not a narrative of any kind; however, this dialogue provides useful insight into how the teacher-learners reflected on, engaged with, and resisted existing social and ideological feeling rules and expectations placed upon them (Benesch, 2017; Gkonou & Miller, 2020; Zembylas, 2011).

In attempting to assist the novice teachers with managing their technological anxiety, Dr. Williams shifted, within the same post, to a story of how he managed his feelings of uncertainty when implementing something new into his classroom. He shared that he (1) writes a brief lesson plan that is not elaborate or “like the ones you find in teacher education programs,” (2) mentally runs through the lesson plan from start to finish, and (3) implements familiar tools and resources as well as “tried-and-true procedures.” This story spurred what Hochschild (1979) considered emotion labor where Dr. Williams (in Excerpt 5) and Amelia (in Excerpt 6 next) are both aware of the teacher-learners’ experience with dissonance. Such dissonance is manifested in knowing that they need to use technology in the classroom while feeling that it will fail them. Dr. Williams and Amelia, therefore, attempt to mitigate the feeling of anxiety.

Excerpt 6. Fear Therapy

It does seem that some teachers fear technology more than non-tech initiatives we are willing to entertain in our classrooms. Maybe it's because it's likely that our students know more about technology than we do? I like [Dr. Williams]'s idea of running the lesson in your head before – a kind of ‘fear therapy’ :) When I bring something new, I usually make sure to have a familiar alternative, just in case. I also like to talk with my administrator about new things I plan to do in my class, and so we discuss pros and cons which makes me feel safe if my lesson turns out to be unsuccessful (I can always blame the cons! :)

(Amelia, Student-Led Discussion #2 for Module 3)

As illustrated, Amelia engages with the emotion labor (Benesch, 2017; Gkonou & Miller, 2020) of dealing with new aspects with her teaching both on an interpersonal (story, Barkhuizen, 2016) and an institutional (Story, Barkhuizen, 2016) level. Amelia’s story builds on Dr. Williams’ dialogue concerning the idea of failure and collaboratively transforms this negative feeling of anxiety to an effective cognitive

strategy, thus showing the positive qualities of emotion labor (see Gokonou & Miller, 2020). Lastly, Amelia attempts to express her emotions of positivity (and thus assuage her technology-induced anxiety) through the use of a smiley emoticon along with central aspects of her advice. From an SCT perspective, Excerpts 5 and 6 highlight how cognitive and emotional dissonance provides a means by which a teacher educator (Dr. Williams) and his teacher-learners (e.g., Amelia) used narrative knowledging (Barkhuizen, 2011; Johnson, 2015) to co-construct knowledge, thereby laying the groundwork to enhance their LTC and LTE growth. This can be seen in how Amelia individually interprets and understands this knowledge in her own context, thereby underscoring how cognitive/emotional dissonance can serve as growth points in learning to teach (Johnson & Worden, 2014).

Sharing stories to support and growing professionally

As narrative knowledging can assist teacher-learners to critically engage with their lived experience when trying to deal with large societal issues, the narratives shared online allowed everyone to support one another through the use of mediated resources and professionally grow. In Excerpt 7, Merena, for example, responded to a fellow teacher-learners' discussion on how to use portfolios to promote active language learning among their students during an online summer course that required her to make "compromises" to her "dream portfolio scenario":

Excerpt 7. Confronting the digital divide

I think that as Hinkelman (2018) mentions, everyone's educational context is different. Nearly a third of my students are Pell Grant recipients. Many do not have computers and use their phones in free-wifi areas to do their homework. Asking them to buy a software program for a humanities general elective course is just not realistic.... I think the idea of implementing a portfolio across all levels can be daunting. I'm still pondering when and how to introduce the portfolio tool. Fall 2019 might work well. I'm a slow preparer, so I'd like to have the summer to map out my plans.

(Merena, Student-Led Discussion # 1 for Module 2)

Unlike Amelia who was able to build upon a classmate's narrative to co-construct an emotional/cognitive tool to overcome the societal expectation of implementing more technology use, Merena engaged with a larger STORY (Level 3) that had no clear or easy solution. The larger STORY (Level 3: encapsulates the societal context to consider the sociopolitical constraints tied around their profession) of the digital divide that exists in broader society entails more than just providing simple access to the digital technology, as evidenced in Merena's post. Rather, this digital divide is also tied to students' socioeconomic status, their level of digital literacy, and the

geopolitical location that also informs this digital divide (see Hockly & Dudeney, 2018). Although Merena mentions within the same post she was able to make a Google site to address the needs some of her students had, she acknowledges the intimidation or the ‘daunting’ task of implementing technology into her teaching when the constraints apparent are those her students have before logging into the course. Therefore, Merena’s lived or emotional experience (Veresov & Mok, 2018) within the classroom is connected through the lived or emotional experiences of her students. Hence, what it means to be a ‘good’ teacher (De Costa & Norton, 2017) in this shifting educational landscape also includes confronting the new and old problems technology makes apparent.

Returning to our second question concerning how cognition and emotion develop dialectically within the asynchronous online language teaching classroom, we posit that the emotional and cognitive dissonance experienced by our focal learner-teachers provide covert growing moments where Dr. Williams and their fellow online classmates were allowed to support each other and thus jointly develop through the use of mediated resources (Johnson & Worden, 2014). The stories shared in relation to the course content allowed teacher-learners like Amelia to recognize and successfully negotiate existing feeling rules in ways that shaped their teaching practice (Gkonou & Miller, 2020). Crucially, rather than viewing anxiety as an inappropriate or curtailing emotion, we argue that anxiety can be harnessed by converting such a negative emotion into a cognitive strategy in ways that can potentially contribute to the LTC and LTE growth of novice teachers.

Conclusion

We set out to understand how a fully asynchronous language teaching education course assisted in-service language teachers’ understanding of their pedagogical decisions, beliefs, and actions (Feryok, 2018) in relation to their emotions. We found that online discussion forums acted as digital campfires that provided both the teacher educator and his teacher-learners opportunities to use various narratives (Barkhuizen, 2016) within our focal asynchronous classroom. The narratives Dr. Williams, Amelia, Merena, and the rest of the FDT 511 class allowed everyone to engage in constructive dialogue concerning the content being covered in class. These short stories allowed both parties to co-construct their understanding and knowledge as they (re)positioned themselves within the larger and shifting educational landscape (De Costa & Norton, 2017), while also engaging with their own understanding, knowledge, and beliefs about the use of technology within their pedagogical practices.

A key takeaway from this study pertains to the use of a (digital) campfire for teacher training and/or development. A campfire (face-to-face or asynchronous) is a beneficial way to grant more space and time to teacher-learners (and teacher educators) to engage with both their own and other's professional cognition and emotional experiences as they learn new conceptual or even experiential knowledge. This space can be treated as a means of taking a step back from one's professional context and the various experiences, knowledges, and affordances tied to their context while not feeling pressured or constrained to a particular time as traditional classroom interaction. Digital campfires would be beneficial to transform a mini lecture on best practices into a constructive dialogic learning experience that is co-constructed and partially led by the participants. Specifically, teacher professional development sessions can provide novice teachers with the necessary guidance to collaboratively explore their interests and needs in relation to course content. Teacher educators and workshop facilitators may pre-construct the space and should be willing to light the fire first, just as Dr. Williams did, or they can encourage their students to do the same and promote autonomy. In terms of research, online synchronous and asynchronous classroom spaces need to be further explored regarding how teachers across the entire career lifespan (pre-service, novice, and in-service) engage with cognitive/emotional dissonance when it occurs. In sum, as classrooms embrace more components of online teaching, teacher education programs need to consider ways to help teachers better manage their cognitive and emotional development. One way may simply be sharing stories around the digital campfire.

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Fostering (critical) digital teaching competence through virtual exchange

Andreas Müller-Hartmann and Mirjam Hauck

This chapter reports on findings in relation to one of the sub-questions that the Evaluating and Upscaling Telecollaborative Teacher Education (EVALUATE) project, an Erasmus+ funded European Policy Experimentation (EPE), set out to address. We explore how online (language) teacher trainees are best supported in developing critical digital literacy as framed by Darvin (2017) and Morris (2017) as well as critical digital teaching competence, which remains underexplored in Virtual Exchange (VE)-based teacher education. The insights gained from a close examination of one EVALUATE exchange highlight how crucial systematic reflective evaluation of the processes the trainees are involved in is for competence development in VE contexts.

Keywords: critical digital literacy, teaching competence, Virtual Exchange (telecollaboration), reflective evaluation, task design

Over the past 15 years Virtual Exchange (VE), formerly known as Telecollaboration or Telecollaboration 2.0 (Guth & Helm, 2010), has been enjoying increasing popularity in language teacher education (Müller-Hartmann, 2006; O’Dowd, 2018). In online collaborations with others from diverse cultural and educational backgrounds, “teacher trainees can first discover, then experience, and finally reflect on the multilayered aspects of their own techno-pedagogy (Desjardins & Peter, 2007) in authentic linguistic and intercultural contexts” (Hauck & Kurek, 2017, p. 277).

One strand of investigations has been concerned with the fact that educators engaged in VE need to be knowledgeable about technological advancements and the ways they transform online communication, collaboration, and teaching. Between 2017 and 2019, the Evaluating and Upscaling Telecollaborative Teacher Education (EVALUATE) project – an Erasmus+ funded European Policy Experimentation (EPE) – collected and analyzed data from VEs across the curriculum involving over 1000 student teachers at 34 Initial Teacher Training institutions in Europe and beyond, using qualitative and quantitative research methodologies.

It was the first large-scale study designed to demonstrate the learning gains of a substantial student body engaged in different exchanges but following a bespoke model of VE. The overarching research question of the EPE was concerned with the interrelationship between student teachers' participation in VEs and the development of competences needed to teach, collaborate, and innovate effectively in an increasingly connected and digitalized world. One of the questions the EVALUATE project aimed to answer was related to the impact of participation in a VE on student teachers' digital-pedagogical competence development. This chapter builds on and contributes to the findings in the current literature by focusing on the interrelationship between social presence, participation literacy and emerging *critical digital literacy*.

Drawing on Darvin (2017) and Morris (2017), we conceptualize critical digital literacy as the ability to recognize and understand how power operates in digital spaces, how we find our voice online, and how we can help others develop their own voice. We see participation literacy, which is the ability to create and share knowledge and content collectively through the use of online tools and the completion of collaborative tasks in online environments (Giger, 2006) as a core element of critical digital literacy. We further argue that participation and online agency presuppose online social presence. Informed by Kehrwald (2008), we understand social presence as the means by which online participants inhabit virtual spaces and indicate not only their presence but also their availability and willingness to engage in the communicative exchanges that constitute learning activity in these environments.

Critical digital literacy and its constituent elements

In the rest of the chapter, we first describe the link between VE-based teacher education and digital competence development based on the findings from the EVALUATE project. We hope to show the importance of critical digital literacy skills in teacher education and explain how VE provides an ideal setting to promote such skills. Next, we present a methodology that is built on the approach used in EVALUATE to take account of ways in which the aforementioned critical dimension of digital competence manifested itself. To illustrate this, we present and discuss data from a German-Polish EVALUATE VE. In the final section we make the case for a more systematic integration of critical digital literacy skills development in VE-based teacher education and offer implications for future research.

VE, teacher education and (critical) digital competence development

Hauck and Kurek (2017) argue that digital literacies development should be an integral part of pre- and in-service training programs for language teachers, and that VE provides an optimal setting to this effect (Hauck & Kurek, 2017). Earlier, Fuchs et al. (2012) had explored multiliteracies training including training in digital literacies – understood as a component literacy of multiliteracies – in a VE context. Drawing on the data from a four-way exchange between teacher trainees and language learners, they illustrated why and how VE provided the ideal set-up for fostering multiliteracies and digital literacies skills development: VE is by definition based on the use of networked technologies and thus facilitates “on-the-job” training in digital literacy skills (Helm, 2014). This is a view shared by Guikema and Menke (2014) who assert that “[t]eachers who have experienced collaborative digital communities are less likely to use technology as an instructional tool and instead view it as an object of instruction” (p. 267). Helm (2014) also mentions the different modes of Web 2.0 tools in which learners can communicate, exchange, compare, and contrast information, and ultimately co-construct knowledge in the form of new cultural practices or artifacts. According to Helm, “these are complex contexts, in which learners have to learn to operate, and require the development of digital literacies both on the part of learners and educators” (2014, p. 46) – a challenge also experienced by teacher trainees.

In addition, Hauck and Kurek (2017) point to the interdependence between intercultural communicative competence (ICC) development (Byram, 1997) and digital literacy skills in VE, and argue for VE task design in teacher preparation that raises awareness of this interrelationship. Yet, beyond these investigations, a systematic, large scale study drawing on both qualitative and quantitative methods that provides evidence for the added value of VE in teacher education in terms of digital pedagogical skills development had been missing until recently. This was a gap the Evaluating and Upscaling Telecollaborative Teacher Education EVALUATE project set out to address.

The project was funded by ERASMUS Plus between 2017 and 2019. The project consortium trained teacher trainers and organized virtual exchanges which involved over 1,000 student teachers at 34 initial teacher education institutions in Europe and around the globe. The guiding research question for the project was: Will participation in virtual exchange contribute to the development of competences that student-teachers need in order to teach, collaborate, and innovate effectively in a digitalized and cosmopolitan world?

In terms of ICC development, we were able to show that VE best enhanced students’ intercultural competence when the participants were confronted with a range of collaborative hurdles and challenges, which required them to find creative

ways to collaborate and communicate successfully with their international partners. The impact of VE seemed particularly significant on the student-teachers coming from homogeneous backgrounds and unaccustomed to interacting and collaborating with members from other cultures.¹

The study of digital-pedagogical competence in EVALUATE reflected the value of VE in encouraging participants to experiment with new tools and applications and then reflect critically on how these can best be used in educational contexts. Moreover, exploring technology and developing digital competence while using and also depending on technology to be in touch with learning partners made it possible for the participating teacher educators to frame technology as both the means and the end of a VE, providing the student-teachers with opportunities for the aforementioned “on-the-job” training.

A closer look at the EVALUATE VE, which showed particularly promising results in terms of the trainee teachers’ development of technological and pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) as defined by Mishra and Koehler (2006), revealed the importance of the group processes underpinning digital competence development among participants (Hauck et al., 2020). It also confirmed that beyond contextual factors, such as the tools and applications used in a VE, different educational contexts are likely to have an impact on student-teachers’ technological-pedagogical competence development (Rosenberg & Koehler, 2015). In EVALUATE, the latter was measured by looking at the teacher trainees’ ability to design technology-based tasks for their future classrooms informed by task-based language learning (TBLL) parameters, which we discuss below.

However, the opportunity offered by VEs for critical reflection upon topics beyond that of differences in institutional settings and education systems remained unaddressed. Criticality as expressed in the data was limited to pedagogically informed tool use. How critical digital literacy, as framed above, and critical digital teaching competence can be fostered through VE was not considered. Yet, for the same reasons mentioned above, VE furnishes an ideal setting for developing not only digital-pedagogical competences but also critical digital literacy. Thus, the research questions we seek to address here are as follows:

1. How do instructors facilitate students’ social presence and the development of their participation literacy in VE?
2. How does the establishment of social presence and participation literacy support the emergence of critical digital literacy in VE?

1. For a summary of findings see The EVALUATE GROUP (2019b).

Methodological approach

The German-Polish exchange: Participants

The VE brought together 11 student teachers from a course in a master's program in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) at a Polish university, and eight students enrolled in a similar master's program in TESOL at a German university; altogether 16 female and three male student-teachers aged between 20 and 24 years participated in the study. All had pedagogical experience, either in the form of teaching practices as part of their studies (German students) or through teaching parallel to their studies (Polish students). Exchange teams of three or four students (respectively one or two German and one or two Polish teacher trainees) were set up by the two instructors, both of whom with ample experience in VE practice and research (e.g., Kurek & Müller-Hartmann, 2017; Kurek & Müller-Hartmann, 2019). The teams used English as a lingua franca and worked for 13 weeks in the winter term of the academic year 2017–2018. Weekly 1.5-hour meetings in local classrooms were scaffolded as follows: (1) Exchange teams spent 45 minutes online working on tasks provided by the instructors in Moodle, and (2) local team members reflected separately for an additional 45 minutes on the ongoing exchange and their learning experience.

The main aim of the VE was to support the development of future teachers' pedagogical, intercultural, digital and foreign language competencies as they jointly designed and evaluated technology-based intercultural tasks for their future classrooms. This was done by following Allwright's (2003) "exploratory practice" approach also recommended by Hauck and Warnecke (2012) where the teacher trainees continuously reflect on the processes that they are involved in. Here we focus on the digital dimension of their competence development.

Learning context and task sequence

Despite the many advantages of VEs, they remain complex endeavors. Hence, the pedagogical approach chosen for VE-based learning is crucial. TBLL has been proposed as a helpful framework for understanding the processes that are conducive to competence development, both linguistic and digital in VE (e.g., Hauck, 2010; Kurek & Müller-Hartmann, 2017; Müller-Hartmann, 2007).

Devlieger and Goossens (2007) defined variables that promote rich task-based interaction and create a "powerful learning environment for language learning" (p. 97) at three levels represented by three circles. Their model is also applicable to (language) learning and competence development in VE contexts.

The outer circle represents the non-threatening and safe classroom atmosphere, which is core to both face-to-face and online learning. Such safety is also crucial for a “more participatory, collaborative, and distributed literacy development” (Knobel & Lankshear, 2014, p. 98) in VEs. The challenges encountered by VE participants may affect their ability to create and share knowledge and content collectively and work collaboratively on tasks (e.g., their participation literacy) (Giger, 2006). They also influence participants’ willingness to engage in intercultural communicative exchanges and thus their social presence (Kehrwald, 2008), particularly when the use of a foreign language is involved. Insights from the EVALUATE project speak to this effect (Hauck et al., 2020; The EVALUATE Group, 2019a).

The second circle enclosed in the first circle is concerned with the design and implementation of meaningful and motivating tasks for a rich interactive learning experience. Task design has also been proven to be central to VE (Hauck, 2010; Kurek & Müller-Hartmann, 2017). Task design in the EVALUATE project followed the traditional progressive exchange model (O’Dowd & Ware, 2009), which consists of the three phases of (1) information exchange, (e.g., getting to know each other) (see Table 1; TAs 1–3), (2) comparing and analyzing cultural practices (TA 4), and (3) working on collaborative products (TAs 5–7, 9 and 12). Here, the task sequence (see Table 1), one of three possible pre-designed sequences offered in the EVALUATE project (see Müller-Hartmann & O’Dowd, 2017), focused on task design for technology-mediated learning and teaching. The first phase served to create the aforementioned safe learning environment, allowing learners to establish their social presence in their exchange teams (Kurek & Müller-Hartmann,

Table 1. Task sequence in German-Polish VE

Tasks (TA)	Task description
Task 1	Personal intros (Padlet) and videoconferencing (Zoom)
Task 2	Group identity: finding a group name
Task 3	Five rules of online conduct (Padlet)
Task 4	Intercultural picture (students’ local cultural practices)
Task 5	Analyzing and improving a poor example of a technology-based ICC task
Task 6	Designing an ICC task
Task 7	Evaluation of another group’s ICC task
Task 8	<i>What bothers me most</i> reflection (Padlet)
Task 9	Designing a sequence of ICC online tasks (presented as a Weebly site)
Task 10	Exchanging views on Christmas (Zoom)
Task 11	Christmas wishes posted (Padlet)
Task 12	Evaluation of the ICC task sequence created by another group
Task 13	<i>Magnifying Glass</i> reflection
Task 14	Farewell messages (Padlet)

2019). In phase two, (TAs 5–7) the teams designed an intercultural task which was subsequently evaluated by a peer team. This process was then repeated (TA9 and TA12) resulting in the design and evaluation of a more complex intercultural task sequence published in the form of a website (Weebly).

Finally, the inner circle or micro-level of classroom interaction represents the instructor, here represented by the teacher trainers in EVALUATE that monitor the processes triggered by the task sequences and model the competences students need in order to implement VE in their own classrooms in the future; an approach captured by Hoven's (2006) concept of "experiential modeling." As the participants engaged in group formation processes and interacted with their exchange partners, the relevance of critical digital literacy skills came to the fore in the inner circle. It is here that learners deal with the constraints and affordances of digital communication. Hence, the importance of systematic reflection on how the communication modes available to the participants affect how they perceive and interact with their exchange partners from different cultural and educational backgrounds. This approach fosters conscious engagement with social presence and participation literacy, which are the constituent elements of critical digital literacy.

Research methodology

EVALUATE adopted a mixed methods approach. The quantitative data collection and analysis was informed by the TPACK work of Koehler and Mishra (2005) and Schmidt et al. (2009) and was implemented as a pre- and post-test design in line with the recommendations by Torgerson and Torgerson (2008) and Rogaten et al. (2018).

The approach was complemented by qualitative content analysis (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009) and critical incident analysis in VE (Ware & Kramsch, 2005) carried out by the researchers belonging to the project consortium (see The EVALUATE Group, 2019a). The researchers drew on various sets of data collected from teacher trainers and trainees:

- Pre- and post-exchange online or on-site interviews with volunteer focus groups (trainees and their instructors)
- Online learner diaries with prompts focusing on the VE experience and its impact on intercultural and digital-pedagogical competence development
- Evidence of instructors' and students' online activity in asynchronous (forum contributions) near-synchronous (contributions to Padlet walls and Google docs) and synchronous mode (Zoom meetings)
- End of course reflections (portfolios or essays) as well as visual interpretations of students' chosen critical incidents using the "magnifying glass" technique (Kurek & Müller-Hartmann, 2019).

While applying this technique, the teacher trainees individually evaluated their learning experience considering intercultural, digital-pedagogical and foreign language issues, before choosing one critical incident to analyze and evaluate in detail. They drew a visual representation of the issue without using language (see Figure 2). The finished drawings were displayed in the local classrooms, and students then chose a drawing and interpreted its meaning. This led to extensive (local) reflections and comparisons of experiences allowing participants to identify recurring issues.

Given our specific interest in how social presence is developed and participation literacy facilitates the emergence of critical digital literacy, we focused on the qualitative data of VE 1 to better understand the interrelationship between these different competences. In VE 1, the face-to-face reflections in the local classroom were videotaped (one camera per classroom), which provided an additional set of data. We have expanded the content analysis of VE 1 by including the transcripts of the videotaped reflection sessions (Table 1, TAs 8 and 13). This enabled us to demonstrate how critical digital literacy skills can be recognized and why they are relevant and should therefore be more systematically fostered in VE-based teacher education programs. The coding of critical digital literacy data was done deductively at first, following the three-level structure of Devlieger and Goossens' (2007, p. 97) "powerful learning environment" and identifying the codes pertaining to safe atmosphere, task design, and interactional support. The first round of coding generated additional themes pointing at critical incidents at the interface of digital-pedagogical competence and critical digital literacy (section 4.3). We agreed on codes and applied them to the data accordingly. Validity was achieved by triangulating the different data sets, with the reflections in the local classrooms (see above) proving to be particularly relevant. The reflections brought to the fore the challenges teacher trainees had encountered during different phases of the project, such as group formation or task negotiation. Table 2 gives an overview of the data sources used for the analysis presented here.

Table 2. Data sources

Data format

Reflection Phase in the German Classroom
 Reflection Phase in the Polish Classroom
 Oral (VC using Zoom) and text-based (Google doc) chat of VE team
 Instructor text-based chat (Google doc)
 Magnifying Glass reflection

In the following section, we present the data, along with an analysis and discussion, from one group who took part in VE 1.

Findings and discussion

Overall, the qualitative data showed that the participants became increasingly aware of the challenges associated with online environments, tools and applications, and valued the opportunity, through the VEs they were engaged in, to learn how to tackle these. Small significant differences in TPACK in the quantitative data also suggested that participants developed some understanding of the complexities of teaching online. The mixed methods approach afforded the contextualization of the data and, as a result, provided a broader picture of the benefits of VE-based digital pedagogical competence development (for more details see The EVALUATE Group, 2019a). It also put somewhat into question TPACK's focus on digital knowledge, criticized by some as technocentrism (Hauck et al., 2020; Kimmons, 2015).

Quantitative data analysis of VE 1 (see Figure 1, Polish students = purple, German students = blue) showed that the Polish participants had considerably higher (self-reported) digital competences at the end of VE 1 than the Germans, while qualitative data analysis highlighted that, in general, all participants made progress with their TPACK competences (see also Hauck et al., 2020).

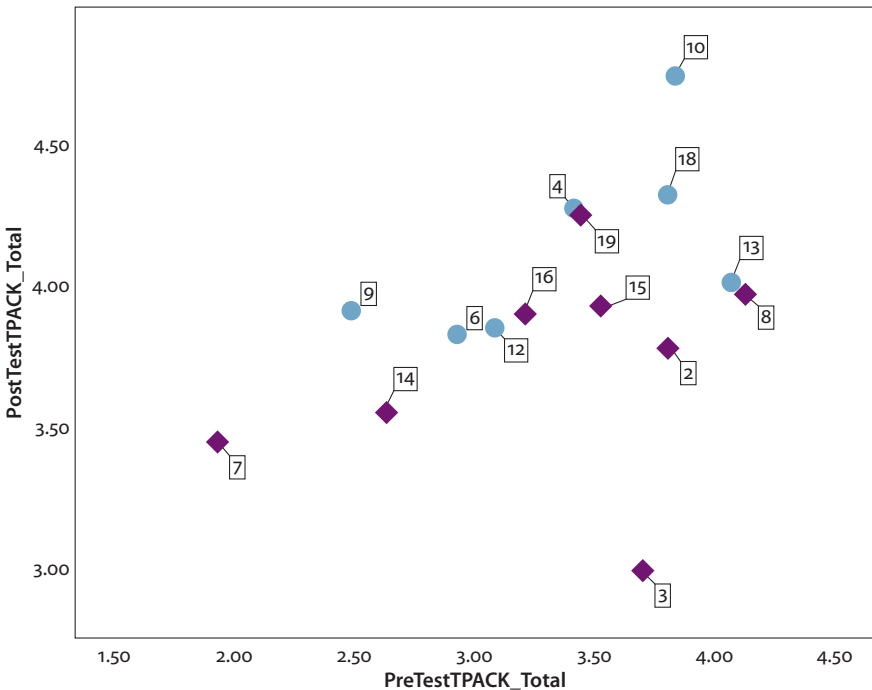


Figure 1. Growth in TPACK in VE 1 (pre-post-test)

At the same time the triangulation of qualitative data from VE1 showed that both groups brought important competencies to the task design negotiations. Yet, as mentioned by Chai et al. (2010), the competence of pedagogically informed tool choice and integration proved to be crucial – an aspect which would not have come to the fore, had we only considered quantitative data. This highlights the limitations of self-report data, such as the survey results from the EVALUATE TPACK study, in trying to understand the development of competence clusters, such as social presence, participation literacy and critical digital literacy, and their interdependence.

The chosen VE team of Anna and Clara (Germany) and Silvia and Lena (Poland) is of particular interest since both the Polish (purple) student Silvia (6) and especially the German (blue) student Anna (3) belonged to the lowest achievers in their respective home groups in terms of quantitative post-test results.

While Clara (16) did quite well in the German group, Lena in the Polish group, even though her quantitative TPACK growth data were not recorded, showed high competences as to technology-based task design in the qualitative data. When looking at the qualitative data (see below), this picture is partly confirmed – as far as Silvia is concerned – but also shows quite different results in terms of Anna's critical digital literacy skills development.

Since the students in this study were supposed to develop future teaching competences in technology-based task design, the pedagogical and methodological model of “the powerful learning environment” model (Devlieger & Goossens 2007, 97) is used as a basic frame. By looking at the processes the VE participants were involved in, through the lens of the model, we show how the instructors' guidance and support facilitated students' development of social presence, participation literacy, and critical digital literacy, while at the same time made them aware of such competence development during the reflections built into the task sequence (see Table 1). Below we illustrate this development for each level and note that there is overlap among the three levels.

Safe learning environment

In the first phase of the VE (TAs 1–4) instructors focus on creating a safe learning environment by modeling (a) availability and willingness to engage in communicative exchanges (social presence) and (b) creation and sharing of knowledge and collaborative approaches (participation literacy). The participants demonstrate participation literacy in the way they connect with their partners in the exchange teams, helping each other to signal their social presence by, for example, offering support in dealing with the anxieties their peers bring to the exchange. In TA3 the local members of the exchange team list the online rules (“netiquette”) they consider important in digital communication and collaboration on a Padlet wall. Anna

and Clara display their social presence in a rather self-confident and direct way, establishing a reliable and responsible partnership where one can make linguistic mistakes (“It’s okay to make mistakes (language wise!)”), but where politeness (“Be polite, friendly – and funny :)”), transparency and honesty (“Honesty is policy! : D”) are paramount. Their Polish partners Silvia and Elena on the other hand, seem less secure in their social presence at this stage. To be able to participate on an equal footing in the VE, they wish for a positive atmosphere (“Nice atmosphere is very significant”) where they feel accepted by their learning partners (“Our colleagues should treat us seriously”), mentioning the importance of treating each other with respect and warmth (“Being kind to each other”). As to the upcoming intercultural negotiation, they hope for an exchange that always takes all perspectives into consideration (“Sharing and exchanging different ideas so that everyone can learn something from each other”; “Expressing our thoughts clearly, avoiding ambiguities”; “Taking into account both our and partners’ suggestions”).

In their first encounter Silvia expresses anxiety when commenting on her typing mistakes (it* sorry for mistakes I’m sloppy :D. Student chat 16/10/17). Clara tries to reassure her – showing consideration for her exchange partner’s fears and thus supporting her social presence – by pointing to her own typos (Tell me about it : D I often make a lot of mistakes, too. In case you don’t understand what I’m saying feel free to tell me. Student chat 16/10/17). Clara also establishes an important ground rule for group communication, namely trust in the partners’ decisions, an important component of participation literacy. When Lena excuses herself for not having participated that much in the first chat because she is busy preparing lessons for school (Sorry for today, Student chat 16/10/17), Clara reassures her (No need to say sorry :) ... no matter what or who it is: if one of us can’t make it and has her stuff to do, she cannot make it, that’s okay. Student chat 16/10/17). When Silvia becomes nervous because of Lena’s lack of participation, it is again Clara who defends Lena (She seems to be busy with her lessons, that is understandable. Student chat 16/10/17).

Clara is also the one who shows empathy when being critical of the Moodle forum for communication (Clara: Moodle is quite bitchy sometimes. Student chat 16/10/17). The German students suggest moving to a different tool: WhatsApp (Maybe we could also exchange our email address or phone number (whatsapp). Student chat 16/10/17). While their Polish partners do not know this application yet, they readily comply with the request (Silvia: I don’t have whatsapp but I’ll create account :)). Anna explains the role of this tool in their exchange to avoid misunderstandings (Then we could contact us without moodle. Not to chat but if someone can’t make it to the appointment or so. Student chat 16/10/17), and Clara makes it also clear that they do not want to force this tool on her, leaving the final decision to the exchange partners (Thanks for creating it, Angelika! I hope you’ll

enjoy whatsapp. If it bothers you though you dont have to create it. ... we dont want to force everyone to create an account though : D. Student chat 16/10/17). While all partners show willingness in trying out new tools to be able to communicate and collaborate during the VE and thus demonstrate participation literacy, the German students are also aware of a potential abuse of power due to their superior technical knowledge. This testifies to their critical digital literacy skills, such as the ability to notice how power operates in digital spaces, finding our voice online, and helping others have a voice online. They consciously address their partners' agency by leaving the final tool decision to them.

This first oral chat encounter of the VE team sets the tone for their interactions: friendly, open and empathetic, being aware of issues of anxiety and trying to alleviate them; a reflection of social presence, participation literacy, and also critical digital literacy. Both groups experience this phase as positive; the Polish students are particularly satisfied with the new communication tool (Reflection phase – Polish classroom 7/11/17) as the exchange below with their teacher during the reflection phase in the local classroom illustrates:

Lena: We've decided on What's App. It's a much more versatile way of communication.

Polish instructor: Ok – so you did communicate.

Silvia: Yes, we did. We communicate all the time.

Polish instructor: (Surprised) You do?

Silvia: Yes, they are very nice and friendly, so we talked about various things.

And on the German side:

Clara: ... we exchanged our phone numbers, and actually talk to each other regularly on WhatsApp, for example. So, we actually found out a lot about each other.

(Reflection Phase – German Classroom 23/10/17)

WhatsApp thus becomes the main tool for establishing and maintaining social presence in this exchange, helping group members find their voice and motivating them to engage with each other while also contributing to creating of a safe environment. To return to our first research question, this example shows how experiential modeling during the initial phase of the VE in particular, allowed both instructors to facilitate students' social presence and with that the development of their participation literacy. It also exemplifies how the establishment of social presence and participation literacy support the emergence of critical digital literacy in VE participants (RQ2).

Task design

Task design was found to be crucial for facilitating critical digital literacy skills development in this exchange team. A distinction needs to be made though, between tasks focusing on content and those focusing on process. Content tasks comprise those in Phase I where students were getting to know each other by presenting themselves (TA 1), finding a group identity (TA 2) – VE 1 finally settling for ‘The Detective Eyes’, since they all shared a passion for Britain and Sherlock Holmes – and introducing their exchange partners to local cultural practices (TA 4). In Phases 2 and 3 the spotlight was on the process, (e.g., the tasks designed for intercultural learning by the teacher trainees themselves including the task evaluations they carried out (TAs 5–7, TAs 9 and 12)). In addition, there were three tasks in the VE that specifically focused on communication and engagement, such as agreeing on online interaction rules (TA 3), the “What bothers me most” reflection phase (TA 8), and the final evaluation of the VE based on the magnifying glass technique (TA 13). These three tasks, also process orientated and distributed across all three phases, were instrumental in developing the critical dimension of digital literacy among participants as reflected in their developing agency. Indicators for learner agency transpired in the power shift from instructors to learners. For example, learners set their own ground rules for communication (netiquette, in TA 3), expressed their concerns, and set clear parameters with regard to communication and interaction (e.g., punctuality, politeness, honesty; see 4.1).

Intense negotiations of task design in Phase 2 required the teacher trainees to find common ground despite coming from different educational and cultural backgrounds. In line with a decision taken in a previous VE, where the instructors had witnessed participants grappling with difficulties at this stage in the exchange (Kurek & Müller-Hartmann, 2019), the “What bothers me most task” (TA 8) was inserted into the task sequence. All participants were invited to anonymously ask questions and describe problems they had encountered in their exchange teams on a Padlet wall, allowing them to express challenges faced in the group negotiation process. They were also encouraged to make suggestions as to how the issues raised by members from other exchange teams could be resolved and to answer questions posted by others. A representative example to this effect reads as follows:

Several comments or ideas are ignored. Sometimes you have (good) ideas but the group simply never ends up talking about them. How can you get the chance to appreciate all ideas?

Anna and Clara react to this comment by proposing the following approach:

The group maybe needs to find a different way to communicate. They should find a platform where everyone can hear or read everything. (If there is a problem in communication.)

The group could also create some sort of rule. They could write all suggestions in a list and every member of the list should answer the questions with at least one sentence. Thereby it is clear what everyone thinks about each idea.

Their advice is based on their experience with their Polish partners at TA 6 stage (see 4.1). In Phase 3, then, while negotiating the topic for the second intercultural task sequence (TA 9), they take their own advice to heart when Anna writes to the VE team:

I would like to do it slightly different this time. I would say everyone decides on one topic and gives reasons why she would like to choose this topic. Then we can decide together. (ICH 4/12/17)

This is how the team arrived at an agreement regarding the topic for the task sequence they eventually posted on Weebly (TA 9).

More solutions of this kind were found and shared on Padlet in TA 8. As a result, information about which communication channels were being used for which purposes, as well as observations about the various impacts of synchronous versus asynchronous interactions on group dynamics and task execution, were now accessible to all participants. This approach paved the way for enhanced participant agency with trainees by providing mutual support and potential solutions to the challenges they had faced, an important step in the process of further developing their participation and thus critical digital literacy. At the same time, the participants began to develop a core VE teaching competence, which is facilitating group processes and trouble-shooting communicative and other problems (O'Dowd, 2015; see also 4.3 for further examples).

The approach of the “What bothers me most task” followed the principle of “experiential modeling” (Hoven, 2006) and proved yet again vital in promoting learner agency. At the same time, by encouraging students to consolidate their social presence and by fostering their participation literacy through task design and execution, the instructors gave students the opportunity to further develop their critical digital literacy (RQ1 and RQ2).

Interactional support

The interactions between TAs 6–12 were characterized by protracted negotiations also commented on by the instructors in their backchannel chat. The latter accompanied each synchronous online session while the exchange teams negotiated their tasks (Polish instructor: Students are fighting with their topics. :-) ICH 4/12/17; German instructor: Lots of discussions about target task and task outcomes in the groups. ICH 11/12/17). In their local group reflections students also observed that the exchange was not going as smoothly at that point as it had during TAs 1–4, and offered advice:

Lena: I think that some of our ideas are ignored so sometimes it's very hard to listen to each other and to reach a compromise. So I think that we should listen to ourselves very carefully.

Polish instructor: (interrupting) Listen to ourselves or to one another?

Lena: To one another, yes, to one another. Very carefully.

Katrina: (to Lena) I think we can make lists of ideas in a written forms so that ...

Lena: (interrupting) Yes, yes, so that everyone can read it, each idea separately, and then give feedback whether they like it or not and why.

Polish instructor: (carefully) I think the source of the problem might be ... the feeling, a very subjective feeling of being ignored so if we pay attention to people's feelings the problem can be at least partly solved.

(Reflection phase – Polish classroom 4/12/17)

While the Polish instructor's contribution focuses on social presence again and foregrounds the role of empathy in VE, Lena makes solution-orientated suggestions and, with the help of her local classmate Katrina, comes back to the idea generated in TA 8 by Anna as to how everybody's ideas can be acknowledged during task negotiations (see 4.2).

In this third Phase of the VE, work on the tasks is continuously challenged by all members of the exchange team primarily due to language issues but also as a result of the teacher trainees' different educational contexts. It is during this phase that participant reflections regarding social presence and evolving participation literacy become especially important to the facilitation of group negotiation and critical digital literacy skills development. The German students, for example, realize that intensity of the work and language difficulties led to a reduction of social presence (indicator: missing personal exchange), and had a negative impact on the exchange team:

Clara: I think that we actually started off quite well with ours. For me personally, it seems like that the relationship is suffering a little bit right now. (...) Because we sometimes just have a very hard time, like today. When we are just frustrated and we cannot decide on anything.

Anna: Yeah but I think with the increase of work, the personal relationship suffered. And to be honest, we haven't been in contact the whole week.

Clara: That was different before, too! The other thing is just that one of the girls easily accepts everything.

Anna: But I think this is because of her [Silvia] language problems. (...) It's also always really hard to understand what she means. (...) ... and this is why the personal level is just gone.

Even though students had developed some solutions for emerging critical incidents in exchange team-work in TA 8 (see 4.2), reflection in their local groups and additional information about their partners' educational background were needed to draw their attention to pedagogical options as to how to support their partner (Silvia) in finding her voice and exercising agency, and with that critical digital literacy. The German instructor appeals to students' teaching experience and asks them to consider the partners' educational context (Reflection phase – German classroom 4/12/17):

German instructor: There is the language issue, at least for one student. Which can be an issue because you have weak learners in that sense, I mean you have them in school as well [...] and how do I involve them? I've had this a number of times in these collaborative projects that the weak learners, wherever they are, they need a lot of support from the group. Otherwise they feel overwhelmed all the time. So, you need to involve her in some way. [...]

Clara: Yeah, right. [...] We also asked her [Silvia] What do you think about this step and here and there, you can criticize us, whatever you want to do. We want to be criticized, too. [...] But this is just missing then and we are begging for it, like tell us something which you really think and then she is like, it's good.

German instructor: She [Silvia] doesn't feel competent in her language and giving you critical feedback and this goes hand in hand. And this is not easy. And I've had cases where this changed over time [...] when the weak student realized that he or she also had a competence that the other students didn't have. Often this had to do with technology. Because some of those students had more technology knowledge than you had. And when it got to the Weebly, which needs a little bit more working with technology, then they sort of had the better starting point to take off. And then it changed quite a bit. [...]. If she finds her role, a different role where she can show her competence it might change. But I think that's the most important thing that

the others can show competences in some way. (...) Try getting it back on track. I know this is difficult [...].

Clara: Exactly, this is not a nice way to work with each other especially if you knew that it was different before. (Reflection phase – German classroom 4/12/17)

Finally, in TA 9, Silvia can exercise agency due to her advanced technical knowledge. Weebly, the tool used for the website design, was new for the German students, whereas some of the Polish students – including Silvia – had experience with Weebly from an earlier course. When talking about her drawing in the final reflection (Figure 2), it transpired that Clara felt particularly out of her depth at TA 9.



Figure 2. Clara’s critical incident under the magnifying glass

Clara: [...] I can think of one particular situation that was creating the weebly website. And I had a lot of problems with that, because my laptop wouldn’t support it, then I had to change the laptop, from one laptop to the other, then I had to go the computer and I remember that one of our Polish partners, she was there, she was online, and she really led me through everything. I could really ask her: “What do I have to do ... here. How can I do that, how can I create a new part of this website and she was really patient with me, really, really patient, I asked the same questions all the time, because it wouldn’t work, it wouldn’t work. At the end of like... I was really dumb, but she was really competent with that. In the end actually we did it together. The Polish girls they knew a lot about that. So we created the website together and after explaining everything, it was pretty easy, to create a website. This is where... like I first really learned how to create a weebly website, that was nice. I really think that they knew a lot more about technology.

(Reflection phase – German classroom 29/1/18)

Thanks to her technological expertise which she is keen to impart to Clara, Silvia makes a leap forward in terms of her participation literacy by guiding the process of designing the Weebly page for the exchange teams' task sequence. Up to this point she had primarily been anxious to meet instructor expectations (Our lecturer said that we have to make presentation about this name so I think it should be good one :D, ICH 16/10/17), and had relied on her local partner Lena in task design negotiations.

Clara, in turn, remembered the instructor's suggestions from the reflection phase (see above) and praised Silvia extensively for her work.

Silvia: I am sorry girls that I didnt write but I want to create our page weebly :) I did it :)

Clara: That is okay, to be honest I am glad that you did : D thank you :) (...)

Clara: Just mentioning: have a fast look at the 'about us' part on weebly.. it is really nice! :) well done! (Student chat 11/12/17)

This is also echoed in Franziska's reflections:

Yeah, it was pretty good in our group this time. I think they realized that we were a bit frustrated the last task. So, they participated and the girl with the language problems, she did nearly everything in the Weebly. So, it was her time to shine, I guess. It was really good this time. I'm really happy with it.

(Reflection phase – German classroom 18/12/17)

Due to the intensive reflection phases, the German students, while developing pedagogical expertise (e.g., providing positive and supportive feedback, and becoming aware of their partner's existing technical expertise), are finally able to step back from their negative appraisal of Silvia's participation in the project. They welcome and encourage her agency in collaborative task design. All participants had already received support from their peers in TA 8 as to how to deal with challenges encountered in group negotiation (see 4.2). Yet, the instructors' guidance during reflection phases of the VE was central in making students aware of issues in terms of social presence (e.g., showing empathy) and participation literacy (e.g., making space for partners' contributions), thus supporting them in developing critical digital literacy as a team (RQ1 and RQ2).

Concluding remarks

We started from the premise that critical digital literacy and critical digital teacher competence remain underexplored in the literature on VE-based teacher development. Critical digital literacy is about noticing power relations in digital spaces and experiencing the processes involved in finding one's voice online and in helping others find their voice (Darvin, 2017; Morris, 2017). We further conceptualized participation literacy as understood by Giger (2006) and social presence as defined by Kehrwald (2008) as constituent elements of critical digital literacy.

While our data analysis is limited to one exchange team, it confirms that the best way to establish online social presence and develop participation literacy is by actually participating online (Pegrum, 2010). Hence, it is through online participation and collaboration that the ability to signal one's presence, availability, and willingness to engage in communicative exchanges (social presence) on the one hand, and the ability to create and share knowledge and content collectively and to complete tasks collaboratively (participation literacy) on the other, are being acquired. It is safe to claim that VE allows educators to put this process into practice as it is, by default, mediated by technology.

The VE chosen for this contribution, a German-Polish exchange (VE1) revealed significant results in terms of the trainee teachers' development of technological and pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) in the context of the EVALUATE project. In addition, a close examination in Hauck et al. (2020) had already allowed us to foreground the importance of the processes the exchange team was involved in with regard to digital competence development among team members.

The data reported in this chapter illustrate how awareness of patterns of participation (see Clara's assessment of Silvia's perceived absence, in particular), reflective evaluations with peers, and the guidance of instructors enabled the teacher trainees to develop not only digital-pedagogical competence, but also critical digital literacy and thus critical digital teaching competence. An example is the trainees' observations with regard to the interrelation between intensive work on tasks and the loss of personal relations in the online context, and the impact on group cohesion.

While quantitative data showed all four students as being on the lower side of the digital pedagogical competence spectrum with Silvia and Anna being at the bottom of their respective groups (Poland and Germany), the fine-grained triangulation of qualitative data brought the complex processes they were involved in to the fore: the misunderstandings caused by their perceived expertise and assumptions, but also the compromises they reached and the way they learned from each other by listening to each other, by encouraging each other and by acknowledging the

shifting power relations within the group. Regular reflections to this effect proved crucial for critical digital teaching competence development. We therefore recommend that such competence development is not left to serendipity but that a systematic, task-based approach accompanied by equally systematic reflective evaluations as part of the VE task sequence trainees engage in, becomes an integral part of VE-based teacher education in both practice and research.

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Customizing Web 2.0 tools to writing pedagogy

TPACK-based professional development of L2 writing teachers

Mohammad Nabi Karimi and Fatemeh Asadnia

In this study, we explored L2 writing teachers' professional development in terms of Web 2.0-mediated writing pedagogy within the technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) framework. Using reflective journals and in-depth interviews, we found that in an online L2 writing teacher education course, the writing teachers learned that, for their instruction to be effective, they need to purposefully design Web 2.0-mediated writing tasks, guide learners' use of Web 2.0 tools, and develop collaborative writing procedures for Web 2.0-based task completion. The participants further highlighted the importance of adaptive L2 writing instruction/assessment, learner-oriented writing instruction, their mediatory roles as writing facilitators, selection of Web 2.0 tools for writing pedagogy, and digital tools as writing e-portfolios.

Keywords: L2 writing teachers, online writing course, Web 2.0 tools, technological pedagogical content knowledge

Teacher professional development (PD) constitutes a critical dimension of language teacher education (TE) research (Guo et al., 2019). The concept takes on further importance in technology-supported language education as the emergence of new digital technologies requires competent technology-literate teachers. PD equips teachers with the knowledge and experience necessary for effective technology-enhanced instruction (Bustamante, 2019; Son, 2018). As with all dimensions of language education, L2 writing instruction has also been affected by the increasing popularity of technology-mediated communication (Godwin-Jones, 2018). This changing context inevitably requires L2 teachers to learn how to use digital tools to facilitate L2 writing. In Li, Dursun, and Hegelheimer's words, "language teachers should be open to the development of new technologies that have

the potential to assist L2 writing” (2017, p. 89). To meet the current needs of learners and enhance the teachers’ pedagogical practices through technology-mediated resources in their PD process, the integration of pedagogy, technology, and content becomes necessary (El Shaban & Egbert, 2018). Accordingly, language teachers need to update their knowledge by learning how and when to integrate the emerging digital sources into their classrooms (Cirocki & Farrell, 2019). For good reason, then, researchers have been increasingly interested in highlighting language teachers’ preparation for using technology in classrooms (Kessler & Hubbard, 2017). L2 writing teacher preparation for implementing Web 2.0 tools for pedagogical purposes has also gained momentum though research in this area is still scarce.

This study aimed to address the development of L2 writing teachers’ technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge of using Web 2.0 tools for writing instruction purposes and their changing roles as online L2 writing teachers. Accordingly, in this study, we sought to investigate the following questions:

1. In what ways does an online L2 writing teacher education initiative in the Iranian EFL context promote teachers’ technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge?
2. How do teachers perceive their PD at the end of an online L2 writing teacher education program?

Review of the literature

CALL teacher PD

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) teachers are expected to be open to the integration of emerging technologies into their classroom-based pedagogy (Son, 2018). CALL teacher education (CALL TE), which should be an integral dimension of teachers’ PD (Kessler, 2012), equips teachers with the knowledge of how to employ the available technological options for pedagogical purposes (Torsani, 2016). However, “teachers are often overwhelmed by the technology that is available to them and feel unprepared to make informed decisions about the selection, creation, and use of a particular technology-based tool” (Kessler, 2012, p. 1). Therefore, there is a need for teachers to collaboratively create web-based products, collectively share knowledge and experience, and get immersed in technology while reflecting on its efficient use from pedagogical perspectives (Bustamane, 2019). As Gönen (2019) posits, CALL TE should address the frustrating do-it-by-yourself syndrome that leaves teachers to their own devices. Kessler and Hubbard (2017) believe that teachers need to “evaluate technology for language

learning, integrate tutors and tools, recognize relevant emerging technologies and align integration with pedagogical goals” (p. 278). Schmid and Hegelheimer (2014) also underscore the role of field experiences and systematic guided reflections in CALL teachers’ PD, where teachers’ engagement in technology-enhanced contexts and experiential learning can deepen their understanding of technologically mediated practices.

For PD in technology-enhanced pedagogy, teachers need to practically use digital tools for teaching purposes. Effective PD should be supportive, focused, collaborative, continuous, relevant, and authentic (Hunzicker, 2011). Powell and Bodur (2019) also assert that job-embedded PD moves beyond transitory courses and workshops to highlight the role of “follow-up, on-going reflection, collaboration, and support for teachers” (p. 20). Although a plethora of recent research studies have focused on CALL teachers’ PD, there is still a need for investigating how L2 writing teachers experience professional growth in a program devoted to teachers’ implementation and evaluation of Web 2.0 tools for teaching L2 writing.

Teachers’ TPACK

Teachers need to mindfully select different technological sources for pedagogical purposes. According to Koehler and Mishra (2009), technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) is important for teachers’ informed decisions about technology use for instruction purposes. Based on TPACK, teachers and teacher educators avoid treating technology as an add-on and instead focus on the ecological side of classroom-based integration of technology and pedagogy. Therefore, technology becomes a fundamental part of the larger pedagogical system, technology and pedagogy dynamically and mutually interact to inform the teachers’ daily classroom practices, and teachers’ selection and use of technology for pedagogical purposes are context-situated (see Figure 1). This model enables teachers to meaningfully apply technology to pedagogy (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

Researchers have recently addressed different dimensions of TPACK in CALL TE, such as teachers’ TPACK and technology integration decisions (Graham et al., 2012), interaction between teachers’ TPACK and pedagogical beliefs (Chai et al., 2013), teachers’ TPACK and self-efficacy (Saudelli & Ciampa, 2016), and the impact of education on teachers’ TPACK (Baran et al., 2019). In this study, we employed TPACK as a theoretical framework to investigate how L2 writing teachers’ purposeful use of Web 2.0 tools (technology) could inform their pedagogical practices. More specifically, we explored how L2 writing teachers could experientially and collaboratively adapt the affordances and constraints of Web 2.0 tools to their pedagogical practices in the technology-enhanced L2 writing instruction process.

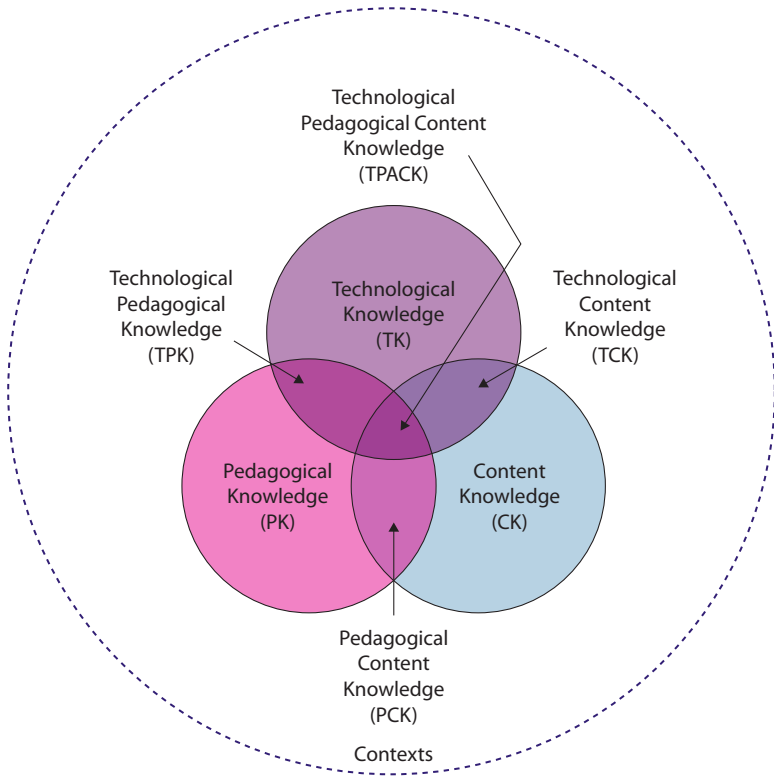


Figure 1. The TPACK framework (Mishra & Koehler, 2006, p. 63)

L2 writing TE and technology

Writing teacher preparation has increasingly turned into a burgeoning area in L2 writing research due to the current focus on academic writing standards and the need for bridging theory-practice gaps in writing instruction (Lee, 2018). As Lee (2013) argues, there is “insufficient understanding of how L2 teachers teach and learn to teach writing, why they teach in the ways they do, how they grapple with the problems and challenges they face, and how they develop expertise as teachers of writing” (p. 330). The literature of L2 writing has scarcely addressed writing teachers’ PD (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007) which is why Martin and Dismuke (2015) believe that learning how to teach writing should be at the forefront of TE. Given the importance of academic writing, it is imperative to gain insights into L2 writing teachers’ beliefs and practices as well as their ongoing critical reflections (Yang & Gao, 2013).

Although researchers have addressed different dimensions of L2 writing teacher education, such as the role of teacher education programs in writing teachers' learning (Martin & Dismuke, 2015), beliefs and cognition (Yang & Gao, 2013), identity development (Lee, 2013), and genre-informed pedagogical content knowledge (Worden, 2019), there is still a need for exploring how L2 writing teachers use technology for pedagogical purposes. More specifically, according to Li et al. (2017), although using L2 writing technologies for pedagogical purposes is promising, L2 writing practitioners may face the challenges of tailoring the available technologies to the learners' specific needs. There is a call for future studies to investigate how the teachers can use digital tools to facilitate writing instruction, meet writing curriculum goals, and involve students in the writing process more effectively (Williams & Beam, 2019).

L2 writing researchers have recently concentrated on using Web 2.0 resources and digital tools for writing practices. According to Li et al. (2017), among the most common Web 2.0 technologies used in L2 writing are those that allow for multiple authorships. As Godwin-Jones (2018) observes, online collaborative writing is a popular dimension of L2 writing instruction. Recent years have witnessed an increasing interest in using Web 2.0 resources such as weblogs, wikis, Google Docs (GDs), digital storytelling (DST), and Webquests (e.g., Hsu, 2019; Nguyen et al., 2020). Furthermore, the implementation of different technological resources such as web-based collaborative writing (Cho, 2017), game-based environment for writing practices (Chang et al., 2019), and online flipped writing instruction (Wu et al., 2019) are making inroads into technology-enhanced L2 writing. Although the number of recent studies on using technology for L2 writing pedagogy and assessment is growing, research on L2 writing teacher education programs is lagging far behind. To address this gap, in this study we worked with a group of teachers to experiment with Web 2.0 tools for writing instruction purposes and evaluated their development of technological pedagogical knowledge for teaching writing in the process.

Methods

Participants

In this study, eleven female in-service L2 writing teachers with an age range of 28–45 participated in a CALL L2 writing teacher education course in Iran. At the time of the project, four teachers were teaching general English courses at public universities and others were teaching EFL courses at private institutes. We purposefully selected participants who met two criteria: (a) an average of two years of

experience teaching L2 writing, and (b) interest in integrating technology into their L2 writing classrooms. The teachers' oral self-reports prior to the study showed that they had an average eight-year experience of teaching L2 writing at different levels. They also stated that weblog was the most common Web 2.0 tool they used for pedagogical purposes. Participation in the course did not require the teachers to have any prior technological expertise. Table 1 summarizes the participants' demographic information, academic background, and L2 writing teaching experiences. All names are pseudonyms.

The course syllabus was developed in five sessions. The syllabus objectives were to provide the writing teachers with the resources to experience Web 2.0 platforms for L2 writing instruction, critically reflect on the affordances and constraints of Web 2.0 tools for L2 writing instruction purposes, and develop their TPACK knowledge required for technology-mediated L2 writing pedagogy. In this study, the second author was the course instructor. During the five-session course, she was available for clarifying key points, mentoring the writing teachers, sharing comments, and assisting the teachers in using the five Web 2.0 tools for teaching L2 writing.

Table 1. Teachers' demographic information

Teachers	L2 writing teaching experience	Academic degree
Sonia	10	PhD graduate
Pantea	15	PhD candidate
Anita	3	PhD candidate
Farnaz	8	PhD candidate
Samin	7	PhD candidate
Mehrnoosh	5	PhD candidate
Negar	15	MA graduate
Mahsa	7	MA graduate
Elnaz	2	MA graduate
Tina	15	MA graduate
Yasaman	5	MA student

Instruments

Semi-structured interviews. In this study, two semi-structured interviews were conducted with each participant. Before the course, we interviewed the teachers to explore their experiences of L2 writing instruction, pedagogical practices, and familiarity with and attitudes towards using technology for teaching L2 writing. In the second interviews conducted after the completion of the course, we investigated

the teachers' experience of and attitudes towards using Web 2.0 tools for L2 writing instruction purposes and their perceptions of themselves as teachers knowing how to teach L2 writing through Web 2.0-mediated sources. Each of the first interviews lasted for 30 minutes, while each of the second interviews lasted for about 80 minutes on average.

Reflective journals. By reading about different features of the five tools, extensively exploring them, watching the instructor's sample screencasts, using Web 2.0 tools for L2 writing lesson study, and critically evaluating the teachers' Web 2.0-based writing instruction, the participants reflected on the strengths and weaknesses of Web 2.0 tools for their pedagogical purposes and highlighted the ways they can employ them for writing instruction in different contexts.

Procedures

This study was part of a CALL L2 writing teachers' PD program that aimed to teach the writing teachers how to develop collaborative Web 2.0-mediated L2 writing lesson studies. In each session, first, the teachers read one introductory paper or book chapter about each Web 2.0 tool and two recent empirical research papers on the use of such tools in L2 writing instruction (These sources were selected by the researchers). Second, the teachers independently explored different tutorials/online sources to gain a holistic understanding of how to practically use the given digital tool for teaching writing. Third, we created a weblog for the five-session course (see Figure 1). For each session, we prepared and shared our sample Web 2.0-mediated writing lesson study videos (weblog-mediated comparison-contrast paragraph, wiki-based cause-effect paragraph, GDs-based (synchronous/asynchronous collaborative writing spaces) argumentative paragraph, DST-oriented (multimodal resources for individual/joint story writing) narrative paragraph, and webquest-based (web-based inquiry-oriented reading and writing platforms) expository paragraph writing), useful tutorials, resources, and links, and the writing teachers' screencasts on the weblog. The teachers watched sample tutorials that mainly focused on using Web 2.0 tools for teaching L2 writing. Additionally, we introduced different weblog, wiki, DST, and webquest platforms. However, to ensure flexibility, the teachers were asked to explore the five Web 2.0 tools and decide which one they were interested in for teaching L2 writing. Each teacher reported her favorite digital tool and was paired with another teacher with the same preference (since there were eleven teachers, in one team, three teachers were grouped together). In this stage, based on their shared needs and interests, the teachers formed teams and were paired up on WhatsApp. Then, the teachers volunteered to use their selected tool as the Web 2.0 platform for designing and implementing L2 writing lesson study. We shared their



Figure 1. Screenshots of the course weblog

screencasts on the weblog so that other teachers could access them. To integrate the key principles of TPACK into this online L2 writing teacher education course, the teachers employed the Web 2.0 tools to design and implement their collaborative L2 writing lesson study by tailoring their writing pedagogy to the affordances and constraints of the target digital tools. For each session, two teachers used their selected Web 2.0 tool (e.g., weblog) to design their Web 2.0-mediated lesson study, create the Web 2.0 platform, incorporate their pedagogy into that platform, and produce a screencast elaborating on different stages of their lesson planning. Other teachers watched their screencasts, shared comments, and explored the created digital spaces (e.g., weblogs) from the perspective of a teacher-learner to highlight their potentials and restrictions in L2 writing classrooms. Next, the teachers reflected on

the strengths, weaknesses, and potentials of the tools for their L2 writing classrooms as well as the adaptation of Web 2.0 tools to L2 writing pedagogy in their journals. Finally, in the post-course phase, the teachers were interviewed about their perceptions of technology-assisted L2 writing instruction and their TPACK development.

For data analysis, the constant comparative method (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) was used. We read the interview transcripts and journals recursively to identify the codes communicating specific content. Then, based on TPACK model, we categorized the codes for delineating the overall patterns by repeatedly comparing and contrasting them. We also highlighted the related sub-categories. More specifically, we used TPACK as a holistic unit and a guiding framework to address the teachers' technological knowledge for L2 writing instruction purposes. We read the journals and interview transcripts three times to highlight the sections related to the writing teachers' technological knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technological pedagogical knowledge for teaching L2 writing. Then, we linked the overall categories to the writing teachers' purposeful use of Web 2.0 platforms for L2 writing instruction, task design, and assessment.

Results

This study aimed to understand the ways an online L2 writing teacher education initiative promoted L2 writing teachers' technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge as well as teachers' perceptions regarding their PD at the end of the program.

Teachers' TPACK-based PD

In response to the first research question, we found that in this PD program, the teachers appeared to improve their technological pedagogical knowledge for teaching L2 writing (content) in three areas related to task design as well as adaptive writing instruction and assessment: (a) developing purposeful Web 2.0-mediated writing tasks, (b) guiding learners' use of Web 2.0 tools for writing practices, and (c) developing collaborative writing procedures for Web 2.0-based task completion (See Figure 2).

Developing purposeful Web 2.0-mediated writing tasks. During the course, through the experience of and reflection on the use of Web 2.0 tools for teaching writing, the teachers learned how to choose digital tools appropriately. The teachers believed that they should not overemphasize using digital tools in writing classes at the expense of marginalizing writing instruction and task completion. In

post-course interview, Mahsa acknowledged that some teachers focus so much on using Web 2.0 tools that they neglect the process of teaching writing:

I do not like to engage the students in learning how to use the tool than learning how to write. I do not want the students to give 50 percent of their attention to using tool and the other 50 to learning writing.

Additionally, Mehrnoosh pointed out that introducing multiple tools in writing classes would confuse, overwhelm, and distract students. The teachers further stated that, while using Web 2.0 tools for teaching writing, they learned how to sync writing pedagogy with virtual resources and tailor writing task types to the target digital platforms instead of directly transferring classroom writing tasks to the digital contexts. They highlighted the need for learning how to design writing tasks compatible with the affordances and constraints of the Web 2.0 platform and students' writing needs. For instance, regarding blog-based writing tasks, in her reflection, Mehrnoosh believed that if the students have their own weblogs and do their writing tasks there to receive feedback, they would be more motivated because "having a webpage of your own to write and then publish it to the world can be a wonderful experience and give learners a sense of ownership and confidence."

Furthermore, as Sonia stated in the interview, "simply sharing paragraphs in classroom wikis for the students to revise and comment on is not equal to efficiently using wikis for writing instruction." Instead, she believed that in wikis, teachers should design the task types that trigger learners' well-defined collaborative writing practices, interactive discussions, commenting, and peer revisions under the supervision of the writing mentor. As another example, since GDs function as writing assistants, in her reflective journal, Farnaz pointed out that she could use their color-coding, commenting, and add-on features to design a variety of tasks that concentrate on both linguistic structure (lexical and grammatical features) and writing organization (genre-based structure), where "add-on features assist the learners in writing and revising drafts and teachers in giving feedback and regulating the writing process."

In her reflection, Pantea found webquests challenging for doing collaborative writing tasks and peer revisions because teachers could only share sources. However, to actively engage the student in individual writing tasks, create a shared space for joint drafting and peer revision in a small writing community, and track students' writing progress through e-portfolio, teachers need to use another virtual learning platform.

As the teachers asserted, to design effective writing tasks, they need to avoid directly copying conventional coursebook tasks. Instead, they should adapt writing tasks to the salient technological-pedagogical feature of Web 2.0 platforms.

Guiding learners' use of Web 2.0 tools for writing practices. Participants believed that the use of Web 2.0 tools would help create learner-centered classrooms and guide the students in how to use those tools for L2 writing practices. In the interview, Mahsa thought that in weblog-based writing pedagogy, the teachers are not immediately available to provide students with prompt feedback. Instead, students learn to inductively explore different writing samples to identify basic writing rules.

Weblog is innovative for the students trying a new version of learning. Although some Iranian students wait for teachers' explicit instruction and feedback on their drafts, the digitally literate students may discover writing rules, autonomously take responsibility, and count on teachers as facilitators.

In the interview, Farnaz believed that the possibility of multiple revisions in wiki-based writing tasks may be distracting to students who find the content constantly unstable. From teachers' perspective, the student's exposure to erroneous peer feedback may induce fossilized writing errors. Therefore, some participants thought that they need to regularly monitor the students' peer corrections and refine the drafts.

In her journal, Samin acknowledged that by using webquests for task-based team writing projects, the students take responsibility for their own learning:

Webquest, if designed thoughtfully, can encourage discovery learning and make learners motivated and autonomous. Learners have the privilege to consult selective web-based resources and interact with authentic writing materials.

In her reflection, Mehrnoosh asserted that teachers must consider which tool is practical enough instead of intuitively using tools to meet students' writing needs, address their writing proficiency level, age, interest, and personal background, and fulfill writing instruction goals:

We should consider the students' age, purpose, and level while picking up a digital tool for teaching writing. For example, GDs are appropriate for university students at the intermediate writing level. You can use different colors to revise different parts on GDs, give the editor role to students, and classify the comments.

Furthermore, in the interview, Mehrnoosh thought that in DST-based writing, the teachers may not easily find out who made what changes to the joint digital stories to track students' writing progress:

Since teammates can all revise the content and the changes cannot be detected easily, the quality of final product may get threatened if some students' writing skill suffers from serious deficiencies.

While the participants believed that learners play a key role in selecting and using technology in writing classes, they emphasized that expecting students to learn how

to use different digital tools, on their own, for completing writing tasks would be confusing, burdensome, and demotivating. Before using the tools in writing classes, the teachers agreed that they should experiment with the new tool or platform, identify its affordances and drawbacks, and tailor the platforms to the students' expectations and interests. In the interview, Sonia highlighted the supplementary role of technology in writing classes:

Web 2.0 tools leave you free time in real classes. I see where my student needs me and I only spend time on that in my class. I shift additional tasks to the virtual world so that they do tasks there whenever they like.

In digital collaborative writing, teachers work with an online community of learner-writers, regularly scaffold them through other-regulation (peers) and self-regulation resources (Lantolf, Thorne, & Poehner, 2015), and consistently assess them. In the interview, Pantea pointed out that the teachers should consistently monitor the learners' writing practices, continuously interact with them, provide feedback, and check their contributions because "if learners are left without supervision, they may get distracted. It should not be like teachers giving the weblog address to the students to do the writing assignments."

In the reflection, as Negar similarly stated, "since students have different zones of proximal development (ZPD), they may develop their understanding of the task quite differently." Therefore, teachers function as mediators in GDs by providing clear guidelines for producing and refining drafts.

In the interview, Farnaz further asserted that if students are left without teachers' guidance and support, they may feel demotivated and prefer to get back to their traditional writing classes in which the focus is more on writing than the virtual platforms.

If I do not know how to use tools myself, I may frustrate my students. I must take time to work with them and understand their challenges. As a teacher, I must turn on the light in a dark room so that they could see the context.

To guide students, the teachers believed that they had to learn about the new platforms well enough to assist their students in properly using them. Providing clear guidance for students is important because the students need to focus on the writing process rather than the tool. In Web 2.0 contexts, the writing teachers' role is transformed from an instructor to a guiding mentor.

Developing collaborative writing procedures for Web 2.0-based task completion. The results displayed the development of the writing teachers' TPACK knowledge of how to provide clear guidelines for doing collaborative writing tasks on Web 2.0 platforms. More specifically, in this program, the teachers learned to specify the nature and function of different joint writing, peer revision, and mutual commenting practices in Web 2.0-based writing instruction. In collaborative writing practices,

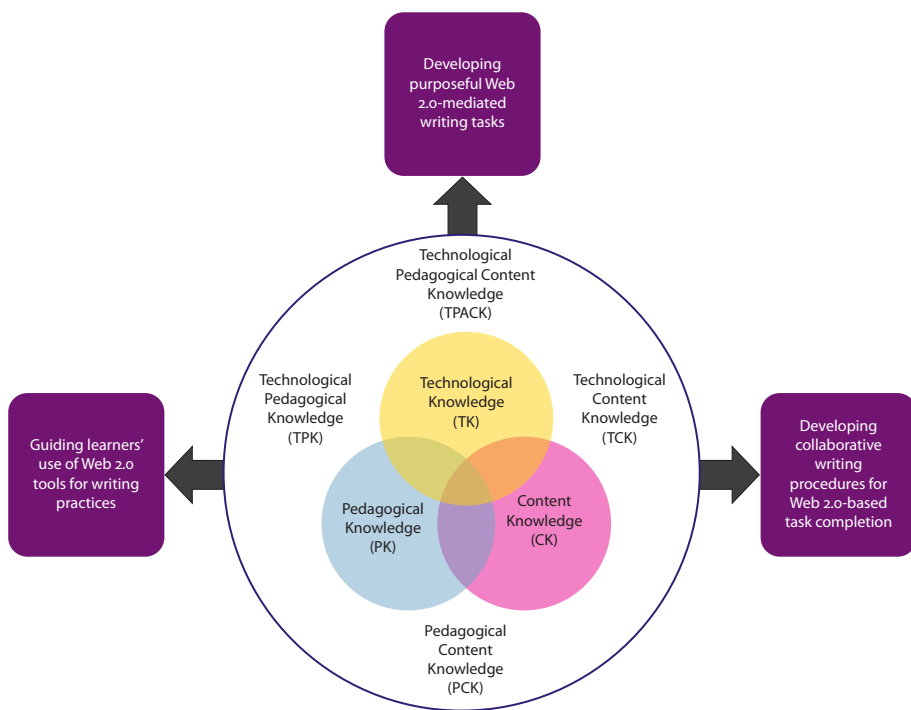


Figure 2. L2 writing teachers' TPACK

Note: Technological Knowledge (TK): Web 2.0 tools, Pedagogical Knowledge (PK): L2 writing pedagogy, Content Knowledge (CK): L2 writing

the teachers learned to develop collaboration rubric and feedback criteria to guide their learners' writing practices. For instance, in the journal, Mehrnoosh explained how wikis would help increase students' confidence:

The way wikis provide opportunities for learners to think about language choices, express their doubts, offer suggestions and explanations, and exchange feedback makes it quite a useful tool for learning L2 writing.

Teachers' occasional comments may also guide students' peer feedback and writing development because as Mehrnoosh commented in her journal, "learners should be guided based on the criteria used for evaluating their peers' writing. Therefore, teachers can sometimes give comments to direct the learners back on the right path."

The teachers found GDs particularly useful because they allowed them to categorize different feedback types using color-coding, highlighting, and commenting functions. As Elnaz pointed out in the journal, using GDs is easier because they allow for the categorization of errors, which helps teachers to track students' writing performance:

The possibility to comment on global and local errors is a distinguishing feature of GDs. We can easily specify structure or word choice errors, cross them out or revise them; a possibility hardly found in other writing tools.

Similarly, teachers such as Sonia addressed the need to systematically put learners in different writing teams, categorize comments on drafts, and define peer interaction standards. According to her interview-based perspective, if salient features of interactions are not defined, students may find the process confusing:

To leave students uninstructed in a tech milieu (such as DST) does not necessarily end up in starting collaboration. Teachers should be aware of the precise mechanisms of such collaborations and teach learners how to recruit that tool to maximize collaboration.

For the participants, it was important to be more specific and detailed in explaining to their students how to use the collaboration functions of the tools. Asking the students to collaboratively write and revise without clearly determining the procedures is not efficient.

Teachers' perceptions

In response to the second research question about the writing teachers' perceptions of their PD at the end of CALL L2 teacher education program, the teachers' responses led to two key themes: empowered confident writing teachers and writing "teacherpreneurs" (coined by Davis, 2006) (see Figure 3).

Empowered confident writing teachers. After completing the course, the teachers felt empowered to use different virtual platforms and digital tools for teaching writing, designing digital L2 writing tasks, and monitoring their students' online writing performance and progress. Before the course, the teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with traditional writing instruction methods as well as their desire to make writing practices more engaging for the new digital generation, which is evident in a comment by Mahsa:

For the generation of iPaders and YouTubers, the outdated methods like writing drafts on a piece of paper or taking notes from the board are no longer fruitful. We need to use technology to make writing more engaging.

Farnaz similarly pointed out that writing teachers should "update themselves technologically and make the most recent digital tools accessible to the new generation." Prior to the course, the teachers stated they use social networking services such as WhatsApp for sharing writing samples. However, Mehrnoosh underscored the restrictions of social networking sites in terms of giving comments on students'

drafts and assisting them in revising them because “using social networks for giving feedback on students’ drafts is difficult as we cannot simply underline the sentences, circle the words, or use different colors. Instead, we must rely on alternatives to do prompt revisions.”

As Tina acknowledged, “using technology accelerates the writing process. It is not like students write the drafts in one week, hand it in next week, and receive the revised drafts the following week, and correct their problems then. This itself takes a month.” The teachers felt empowered by using the available digital tool kits:

A teacher has a tool kit. The more, the better. I think for now, it is less likely to have feelings like “oh, we got to teach this paragraph type. How should I teach it?” My world of teaching is no longer limited to the board and marker.

Tina similarly stated that “I came to see that how the tools empower me as a teacher to step beyond books and CDs.”

Before the course, a number of teachers acknowledged that they did not feel confident about using digital technologies in their teaching. Farnaz, for example, said:

If I do not know how to use technology in my writing classes, I feel distressed. I am technophobic. My confidence in using technology is low. I like to conquer my fears by participating in this course.

After the course, since the teachers were involved in implementing Web 2.0-assisted writing pedagogy, they became more confident to take risk for using technology in their real writing classes. Farnaz who “used to be technophobic,” “could manage this stress because [she] had enough time to go through trial and error to see which one [she] can confidently use in [her] writing classes.” Similarly, Mehrnoosh stated that by using digital tools in writing instruction, the teachers have many options to fulfill the purposes of writing classes:

When you master using something, you are confident. You see how you can positively affect the learning of others. Now I can teach writing from different perspectives. My teaching options were limited. Now, there are different tools and I use the one that best serves my goals.

Web 2.0 tools that equip ordinary writing teachers with a wide variety of options for instruction, task design, and assessment empower them to address writing pedagogy and confidently meet the learners’ writing needs. The availability of authentic multimodal sources enriches L2 writing practices.

Writing “teacherpreneurs”. In initial interviews, the teachers raised their concerns regarding the institutional constraints that compel them to pursue the traditional pen-and-pencil writing practices. For instance, Farnaz stated, “when I used a weblog for one of my classes, the supervisor of the institute did not welcome the

idea though the students were interested.” Tina further observed that institutes do not provide technological resources for the teachers to integrate digital tools into their writing classrooms.

After the course, writing teachers still believed that in institutes and universities, the basic infrastructures for implementing technology are lacking. This encourages teachers to start their own business as online writing tutors and materials developers. By doing so, they can use digital spaces to teach L2 writing online and prepare L2 writing digital materials to be integrated into their websites or LMS. For instance, Sonia said “I am not an independent teacher. I work in a university and the limitations define my technological choices.” Elnaz reiterated this by stating that “the institute supervisors do not provide the context for using technology. The writing teachers using digital tools must be financially supported, get promoted, and feel the distinction.” Therefore, as Tina recommended, the knowledge gained in this course appeared to encourage teachers to start using Web 2.0 tools in their private writing tutoring sessions and go digital as “teacherpreneurs” to have their own brands as e-teachers of writing because “the institutes do not provide the facilities for the teachers to use such tools. The teachers themselves should start using these tools in their private writing classes.”

Virtual platforms encourage the writing teachers to start their own online writing classes and become teacherpreneurs uninhibited by institutes.

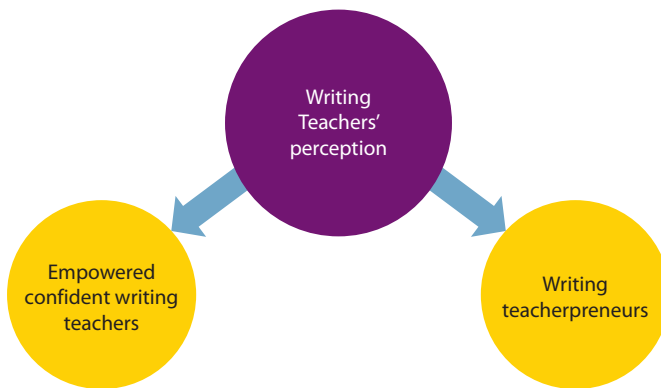


Figure 3. L2 writing teachers’ perceptions of Web 2.0-mediated writing PD

Discussion

In this study, we investigated how L2 writing teachers' PD within the framework of TPACK is shaped in a CALL TE program that involved them in learning how to use various Web 2.0 tools in their writing classes. In the course we investigated, the writing teachers experienced collaborative writing materials development (Bustamane, 2019), systematic reflections, and experiential learning (Schmid & Hegelheimer, 2014) to effectively integrate technology in L2 writing instruction. Teachers updated their knowledge by learning how to systematically incorporate technology into their classrooms (Cirocki & Farrell, 2019). Accordingly, the findings demonstrated that writing teachers' TPACK in this program was effectively developed in different specific areas.

Upon completing the course, the teachers reported that they learned how to (a) purposefully design writing tasks by adapting task types to various potentials of the target Web 2.0 platforms instead of directly transmitting traditional writing tasks to the digital contexts, (b) properly using digital resources to address task variety that establishes the balance between micro linguistic and macro genre-based structure of writing, (c) paying attention to task sequence on the basis of students' prior writing performance, and (d) developing detailed writing task instructions so that the students learn how to appropriately complete individual and collaborative writing tasks. The findings further showed that in order to effectively design Web 2.0-assisted writing tasks, it is advisable that writing teachers collaborate. Therefore, to properly guide the learners' writing performance, the teachers need to go beyond their comfort zones by comprehensively exploring Web 2.0 platforms to seek alternative pedagogical options and reflecting on how to effectively use these digital tools in classrooms.

Furthermore, we demonstrated that to design Web 2.0-mediated writing tasks, the teachers need to (a) adapt the affordances of Web 2.0 tools to students' writing needs, (b) guide the students' use of digital tools for completing writing tasks, (c) intelligibly elaborate on the specific details of peer drafting, editing, and commenting process, (d) provide learners with clear-cut feedback rubrics and consistently monitor their peer comments, and (e) play the role of writing assistants and mentors. Though online collaborative writing is a popular dimension of L2 writing instruction (Godwin-Jones, 2018), the teachers learned to precisely define the rubrics to properly facilitate peer writing and interactive feedback, establish an online community of learners, and define the students' roles (editors) based on their previous performance in the revision process.

The teachers believed that in Web 2.0-mediated writing instruction, they need to adhere to situated student-centered writing pedagogy by considering the students' purposes, writing level, and interest in collaborative writing practices. Li et al.

(2017) similarly acknowledged that L2 writing practitioners are likely to face the challenge of tailoring the available technologies to learners' specific needs. For instance, the Web 2.0 tools the teachers may use in research article writing courses for post-graduate students differ from the ones they use in their IELTS writing courses. Indeed, the "one-size-fits-all" approach leads to inconclusive and unproductive outcomes (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). TPACK-based PD probably allows teachers to learn how to adapt digital L2 writing instruction to the students' learning styles. TPACK-based PD offers an opportunity to learn how to adapt emerging technologies to L2 writing instruction purposes (Kessler & Hubbard, 2017).

In this course, the teachers used Web 2.0 tools to produce writing e-content that could be asynchronously shared with students in online writing classes. They learned how to use digital resources to facilitate writing pedagogy and engage the students in the writing process (Williams & Beam, 2019). Additionally, the teachers commented that their joint projects and interactive discussions assisted them in solving technological glitches, thinking of different pedagogical options, and boosting their confidence in using Web 2.0 platforms. However, the teachers acknowledged that they should receive more specific guidance in how to integrate Web 2.0 tools into different real synchronous, flipped, or blended writing classes through persistent one-on-one mentorship, ongoing professional development, and real-time experience.

Finally, through reading academic papers and using the digital tools to teach writing, the teachers gained the required knowledge and experience for more effective technology-enhanced instruction (Bustamante, 2019). The teachers further underscored the role of cooperation among the participants that fosters peer scaffolding and online networking. Therefore, the teachers' engagement in interactive discussions and joint Web 2.0-enhanced writing instruction triggers their guided reflections and promotes their PD experience (Schmid & Hegelheimer, 2014). Institutes must provide teachers with the most recent technology-enhanced resources. However, the participants explained that as institutes are not interested in supporting the use of technology in teaching writing, they are likely to use technology to independently run online writing tutoring sessions. Teacherpreneurs could share their digital materials in different virtual platforms to start teaching businesses (Shelton & Archaumbault, 2018). In this study, the participants highlighted the role of writing teacherpreneurs who purposefully and efficiently use technological resources to start their online writing classes, curate/develop digital writing instruction contents/materials (screencasts, animated videos, online writing platforms, etc.), and produce online writing lesson plans.

Conclusion

In this study, we addressed the experience of a group of writing teachers with Web 2.0-mediated writing pedagogy in a 2-month TPACK-based program. The study provides implications for how writing teachers can tailor technology to writing instruction, task design, and assessment, where moving from traditional to virtual writing classes is dynamic and non-linear. Teacher educators are expected to foster writing teachers' PD through collaboration, mentorship, and peer observation in Web 2.0-oriented writing pedagogy. Additionally, there is a call for the formation of an international community of CALL L2 writing teachers and researchers to share their most recent research findings and pedagogical experiences. Furthermore, using technology encourages writing teachers to perceive their PD through the lens of a growth mindset, in which they regularly update their technology-based writing pedagogy. Additionally, a team of CALL writing teachers may jointly design lesson plans, digital platforms, tasks, and assessment rubrics in language institutes. Future studies may investigate how institute supervisors and teacher trainers support teachers to incorporate technology into writing classes. Future researchers could explore how writing teachers use digital tools to develop personalized writing instruction. Furthermore, there is a need to address how technology-based writing instruction could be integrated into different digital contexts, such as flipped writing instruction and LMS-based courses. Furthermore, the researchers may address how different digital resources and edutainment tools like gamification might enhance students' motivation and writing performance. Additionally, prospective studies may explore how L2 writing teachers could be educated and empowered as writing teacherpreneurs by purposefully employing digital resources conducive to gradually building their own start-ups in online writing pedagogy. Finally, further research is needed to explore the identities of writing teachers as digital writing materials developers.

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Appendix

Pre-course interview questions

1. How long have you been teaching L2 writing?
2. At what levels have you taught L2 writing?
3. What pedagogical approaches do you follow to teach L2 writing?
4. Have you ever used any kind of digital tool for teaching L2 writing to students? If yes, what kind of technology?
5. How much are you interested in using technology for L2 writing instruction?
6. How confident are you in teaching L2 writing by using technology?
7. What are the benefits of using technology for teaching L2 writing?
8. What are the constraints of using technology for teaching L2 writing?
9. How much are you familiar with Web 2.0 tools like weblog for teaching L2 writing?
10. For what purposes are you joining this course?

Post-course interview questions

1. How did you find the experience of taking part in the course?
2. In your opinion, what is the role of the course in your professional development as a L2 writing teacher?
3. Did the course help you develop your L2 writing pedagogy (teaching)? If yes, how?
4. If you compare your current level of technological knowledge with what you knew about technological tools at the beginning of the course, how your knowledge/proficiency has changed?
5. Has the course contributed to your knowledge of the mindful selection of technologies for writing instruction? If yes how? If no, why?
6. How do you perceive yourself as a L2 writing teacher who knows how to use Web 2.0 tools for L2 writing instruction?
7. What is the effect of using Web 2.0 tools on L2 writing instruction?
8. Which Web 2.0 tool did you find more practical for L2 writing purposes?
9. How are you going to use these tools in your classes?
10. How confident are you in teaching L2 writing by using technology?

Developing online language teacher identities

Interdisciplinary insights

Jonathon Reinhardt

Informed by the other studies of the volume, this chapter argues that online language teacher education (OLTE) should make five considerations in reconceptualizing curricula and provides examples of learning activities that address each. First it should acknowledge that online digital language use differs considerably from in-person language equivalents, and second, that technology knowledge includes not only how to teach online but what digital language use is. Third, it should recognize that learners and teachers have modern techno-identities developed not only in their academic but their everyday lives as well. Fourth, it should leverage the power of the Internet to develop translanguacultural awareness and fifth, recognize that social presence is key to socio-collaborative learning, both in-person and online.

Keywords: online language teacher education, digital language use, techno-identities, languaculture, transcultural awareness, social presence

A new imperative

The practice of online language teacher education (OLTE; Murray & Christison, 2018, Kiddle & Prince, 2019), from preparing pre- and in-service teacher-learners for online teaching to preparing them to teach both online and in-person via online means, has been built on the idea that LTE does not *have* to be online, and that in-person teaching is the default, even as online learning has grown in popularity. OLTE may consider how online teacher learning or online teaching differs from in-person equivalents, but online practices themselves are usually assumed to be the exceptions to the norm of in-person learning. Similarly, in most LTE programs, whether online or in-person, discussions of how online discourse and digital language use differ from non-digital uses are usually premised on the notion that the non-technology-mediated, in-person form is the norm, as it has been for thousands of years.

If digital language use is discussed in traditional LTE programs, it will most likely be in a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) course or module, which in most LTE programs – from full graduate degrees to workshops – is often a separate course or module. Usually integrating scholarship from fields like computer-mediated communication (CMC) and socio-cultural digital literacies studies (Pettes-Guikema & Williams, 2014), CALL has traditionally included focus on language use in technology-mediated language learning contexts, including online or distance language learning (Goertler & Winke, 2008). Like traditional LTE, CALL has traditionally operated from the assumption that technology-mediated language use and learning is additional to non-technology-mediated forms, and theorists have discussed whether, when, and how technology will become integrated (Warschauer & Healey, 1998) or normalized (Bax, 2011) into language teaching in general, so that the mediation might be invisible. Even the term CALL and its alternative TELL (technology-enhanced language learning) are premised on the idea that language learning should be understood separately from technology, which then assists or enhances it.

CALL scholars have also concerned themselves with teacher development (Hubbard & Levy, 2006; Schmid, 2017), but in spite of the growth of socially-informed and post-structural perspectives on LTE that emphasize teacher cognition, identity, and agency (Johnson, 2016), not all CALL-informed LTE, whether online or in-person, has embraced it, perhaps because of its focus on the many additional, functional computer literacies needed to teach with or through digital technology. The ‘computer skills checklist’ syllabus is commensurable with technological deterministic beliefs that computers will eventually replace human teachers, and so teachers need to learn new skills in order to ‘keep up’, resulting in some syllabi that resemble a parade of bandwagons, each dedicated to a new technology, without much reflection on the bandwagon experience. Identity-impacting teaching experiences with technologies, perhaps because no one really had them until the 21st century, have not been considered as worthy of as much attention as staying abreast of new inventions.

Starting in spring 2020, as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, millions of teachers around the globe found themselves going online to teach language for the first time, and not all voluntarily, as had been the situation mostly until then. Many were grateful that teaching and learning could continue under the new conditions thanks to the widespread reach of the Internet, as course management systems had become standard in every school and university privileged enough to afford them. Many teachers, however, also found new challenges emerge as they faced the constraints of digital mediation – new technologies to learn, unreliable connections, unequal access, and limited understandings of what teaching and learning online entailed. They soon learned that online teaching was not simply a matter of

transferring in-person practices to digital equivalents; because online contexts were qualitatively different, teaching needed to be reconceptualized in unexpected ways.

The assumption that online learning and digital language use are the exception to the rule has been turned on its head by the pandemic, forcing reconceptualization of OLTE and CALL content and reconsideration of their place and purpose in the LTE mission. While skills training and keeping up with new developments may still be necessary, there is new impetus to take a broader perspective and try to understand the place and role of teachers in a new world that may sometimes be online only. To this end, a socially-informed approach to OLTE and CALL professional development should prove useful because it employs the theoretical and methodological tools needed to apprehend the development of teacher cognition, identity, and agency in any context, while also considering how contextual variables – which in this case is technology-mediated – may influence that development.

Reconceptualizing OLTE

The scholarship in this volume lays the groundwork for a reconceptualization of OLTE by demonstrating a socially-informed approach to online language teacher development, by employing potential theoretical and methodological frameworks to show not only what we might find, but how we might find and interpret it. The studies also illustrate commensurable pedagogical and evaluative frameworks, implicating what might comprise refreshed OLTE syllabi. Informed by these studies and by the frameworks in CALL and LTE to which they refer, this chapter will argue that OLTE should:

1. acknowledge that online digital language use, that is, computer-mediated communication and interaction, differs considerably from in-person language equivalents,
2. acknowledge that technology knowledge includes not only how to teach online but what digital language use is,
3. recognize and leverage that learners and teachers have modern techno-identities developed not only in their academic and workaday lives but their personal, domestic, everyday lives as well,
4. leverage the power of the Internet to develop translanguacultural awareness in teachers, and
5. recognize that social presence is key to developing and sustaining community and the conditions for socio-collaborative learning, both in-person and online.

Technology-mediated language use

OLTE should develop awareness of technology-mediated language use and interaction, in that it differs considerably from in-person equivalents, especially when users and interlocutors are at a distance, that is, not physically co-present. The study of computer-mediated communication (CMC) has origins in the fields of communications, information science, and psychology (Kiesler, Siegel, & McGuire, 1984). Its scholars were among the first to recognize that the unique, systematic features of online discourse impacted interpersonal relationships (Walther, 1996), that online communities were a unique object of study (Baym, 1998), that online identities could be discursively constructed (Yates, 1996), and that online discourse could and should be empirically investigated (Herring, 2004). Synchronous CMC (SCMC, i.e., chat or text) is like a spoken conversation with altered turn-taking patterns due to time lag and reduced channels; most recently, studies are focusing on how users incorporate emoticons, gifs, or video clips to enhance meaning – not just replacing in-person paralinguistic cues but offering new affordances unavailable in physically co-present contexts.

Most of the studies in the current volume (e.g., Chapters 1 & 2) analyzed asynchronous CMC (ACMC, i.e., discussion boards, emails, and blogs), which has become a core practice of online learning. In contrast to SCMC, ACMC can function not only like a synchronous conversation but also like a short-length written, epistolary genre, with varying amounts of interaction expected (for example, compare a typical social media post with a blog post). In online course design, ACMC can afford a variety of learner outputs and contribution types depending on parameters like the sort of questions posed, required post length, and whether responses are required or encouraged. Of interest to discourse analysts is that ACMC on archived discussion boards can also serve as a record of unfolding development, over the course of a semester, making it easier to capture it than in SCMC.

Because the participants in all of the studies in the current volume, it is presumed, had situated experience participating in ACMC outside of online learning contexts – perhaps in social media, for example – it can be assumed that ACMC use is part of their *habitus*, our dispositional “taken-for-granted” understanding of the social world (Bourdieu, 1991). The apparent perspectives, stances, and positioning of the various teacher-learner participants were thus situated in *habitus*, evidence of a certain level of digital discourse competence or CMC literacy. A feature of such literacy is recognizing how the cues-reduced medium of ACMC provides users agency in allowing when and how to present or refer to identity cues, which might be less possible in an in-person context. In other words, many teacher-learners may know how to use ACMC strategically to this end, but they may not be able to identify it explicitly. OLTE should provide the ontological means,

that is, the vocabulary and conceptual frameworks, to understand what CMC is. In short, raising awareness of CMC entails developing computer-mediated discourse analytical skills.

OLTE learning activities that raise awareness of the unique features, positive affordances, and constraints of CMC might have learners analyze transcripts of different CMC genres and identify and discuss how they differ among one another. Examples from familiar, everyday genres like social media or gaming, especially if the teacher-learners themselves participate in them, may be useful for raising situated awareness, and exercises comparing examples of teacher-learner or learner-learner interaction in different media – online and in-person – can be helpful for recognizing how feedback and negotiation for meaning, respectively, might differ.

A learning activity that develops discourse-level awareness of CMC might have teacher-learners find a text or transcript of technology-mediated language use from an online source, for example, a social media post or game-based interaction and analyze it for what makes it unique. On a discussion board, they might answer and discuss questions such as:

- What are the genre features of the technology-mediated example, and how does it differ from an equivalent non-mediated example? How would the same content be presented in a different, non-digital genre?
- How is digital language use and interaction similar to, and different from, non-digital language use and interaction?
- How does a synchronous digital interaction (e.g., a text or chat) compare to an in-person one (e.g., a conversation)? How does an asynchronous interaction (e.g., a discussion board post) differ from an in-person one (e.g., a class discussion)?

Technological knowledge

How to teach language online is perhaps the most obvious goal of OLTE, but why and how digital language use is unique, that is, what exactly the ‘language’ is that teachers will be teaching, is a key component of the knowledge that OLTE taps into and develops. Developed both analytically and experientially, this knowledge involves several components – content, technological, and pedagogical. Proposed first by Shulman (1987), the concept of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) has been expanded and operationalized for research on teacher cognition. It represents the unique procedural and declarative knowledge developed by a teacher of what a concept is in terms of how it can be learned and taught. It develops through pedagogical experience and application and can be recognized as distinct from both

explicit and implicit knowledge; for example, just because an individual knows a grammar rule in the abstract as well as how to apply and use the rule, it should not be inferred they know how to teach it, especially to different learners in various contexts. The concept implies that pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge may be separate and that PCK is where they overlap, although in practice they are difficult to separate. The processes involved in developing PCK are also dynamic, and may involve reflective narrativizing (Johnson & Golombek, 2011; see also Chapter 6 of this volume).

Introduced by Kohler and Mishra (2009), the concept of technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK; see Chapter 8) infers that knowledge of technology – again, both procedural and declarative – can be separate from knowledge of both content and of pedagogy, and that it can overlap with either separately or together. Knowing what technology is and how it is used for teaching (techno-pedagogical knowledge, or TPK) is in theory separate from knowing what it is and how it impacts the content of what is being taught (techno-content knowledge, or TCK). The TPK for how to teach online and the TCK of the nature of digital language use and interaction are thus both involved in the TPACK of teaching digital language use online. Since autonomy involves not only agency but also awareness, competence, and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995) – that is, knowledge what something is, knowledge how to apply it, and confidence that one knows what it is and how to apply it – autonomous teacher identities cannot develop without these extended types of knowledge.

To develop TPACK that integrates identity investment, an OLTE syllabus might include a project that has teacher-learners interview the teacher of an online language course to consider what it is like to teach online; if they are in-service and already do so themselves, they might use the project to decenter and broaden their own perspectives. They might observe the course if possible, perhaps by joining as a guest, and composing an observation report including answers to questions such as:

- How does planning and teaching an online course differ from an in-person or hybrid one?
- How does one learn how to teach online, and how do in-person techniques transfer to online contexts?
- What are the challenges and rewards of online teaching?

Modern techno-identities

Because of its focus on identity development, a socially-informed LTE curriculum should recognize and leverage the impact that digital technologies have on not only the academic and workaday lives of both learners and teachers, pre- and

in-service, but also their everyday lives. Although the digital divide persists, digital technologies have permeated the quotidian existences of many individuals around the world (Reinhardt, in press), by becoming more portable, affordable, networked, and powerful than ever. Devices increasingly allow the mediatization of everyday, domestic life by structuring, regulating, and enhancing day-to-day activities like shopping, eating, studying, exercising, relaxing, playing, and interacting with others. Through these means, awareness of and attitudes towards their uses have become dispositional and sub-conscious, i.e., *habitus*.

When Cuban (2001) first argued that educational technology was in many ways being foisted upon underprepared teachers, most teachers had no digital identity to speak of, and digital technology – desktop computers running on local networks that could be connected to the Internet only when needed – was exceptional and unique to schools (computer labs) and workplaces. Over the past few decades, however digital technology has become domesticated and now highly personalized, and as digital natives (Prensky, 2001) have matured and the last generations of teachers who are neither digital native nor immigrant retire, it is rare to find a teacher who is *tabula rasa* when it comes to technology. While digital literacies and competences in all cannot be assumed today because of lingering digital divide and access issues, they have developed *ad hoc* in many through experiential learning means, although it should be noted that many digital literacies – computer, information, and media literacies – have themselves also evolved to become more participatory, multifarious, and everyday (Reinhardt & Thorne, 2019). Moreover, the experience that many pre- and in-service teachers have had via learning and teaching online should not be overlooked, because it may function as a sort of “online apprenticeship of online observation”, to adapt Lortie’s (1975) concept, that may influence practice, and so might be drawn upon through reflection and critically situated through explicit discussion.

It is important to recognize that the relationship between a society’s technologies and its educational practices – including theories of learning and methods of teaching – mutually shape (Boczkowski, 1999) one another, and that they develop in complex, dialectical ways that are not one-way or deterministic. This aligns with Thorne’s cultures-of-use argument (2003) that the norms and understandings a group of users has about a particular technology, including language learners and teachers, emerge out of the interplay among the uses that group adopts for the tool, the affordances of the tool’s design, and techno-cultural history. Our attitudes and dispositions towards technology and online life have become imbricated with our identities as modern humans, and thus impact how we receive and make use of technologies for teaching and learning. Understanding these dispositions requires recognition of the role digital mediation plays in how meaning is made – linguistic, multimodal, and symbolic – in modern everyday, workaday, and academic life. Our

identities as modern teachers and learners also develop in and through these new digital contexts, integrated with the development of our multiplex identities related to teaching, learning, and language more broadly.

To access and develop teacher situated and identity-integrated dispositions and understandings of personal and educational technologies, traditional identity-oriented LTE activities like developing a teaching philosophy or reflecting on past teaching and learning experiences can be fruitful. For example, teacher-learners can record and reflect on their own uses of technology as teachers, learners, friends, hobbyists, fans, citizens, consumers, workers, travelers, etc. – basically their many modern roles and identities. Focusing on teaching and learning language, they might compose a techno-auto-biography, with versions written for different audiences like prospective employers, students, and colleagues, that consider questions such as:

- What is your experience using technology to learn and teach languages?
- How do you use language through technology? What are your ‘techno-literacies’?
- How do you use technology in everyday, personal ways? For work and play?
- In what ways do you think online teaching and learning differ from in-person equivalents? How is it better, worse, or just different?

Social presence and community

OLTE should recognize that social presence is key to developing and sustaining community and the conditions for socio-collaborative learning, both in-person and online, enabling investment in and development of techno-identities. Also originating in communications, the concept of social presence (Short et al., 1976), or the sense of being co-present with other people, has been widely taken up in theorizing about online teaching as a necessary condition for an affiliative bond or sense of community to emerge, whether on or off-line. In reduced-cues environments like online spaces, social presence must usually be signaled intentionally, and may be enabled or discouraged by particular interface designs. Because it must be felt or perceived, it is difficult to learn consciously how to benefit from awareness of it, but it can be observed and hypothesized to exist by socio-interactional behavior, especially in socially networked contexts (Lomicka & Lord, 2011).

CMC scholars Garrison et al. (2000) expanded the notion of social presence specifically for computer-mediated contexts into a model of Community of Inquiry, comprised of cognitive presence, social presence, and teaching presence. Cognitive presence is “the extent to which the participants in any particular configuration of a community of inquiry are able to construct meaning through sustained

communication” (p. 89), social presence as “the ability of participants to project their personal characteristics into the community,” (ibid.) thereby seeming real, and teaching presence, the purpose of which is “to support and enhance social and cognitive presence for the purpose of realizing educational outcomes” (p. 90) through design and facilitation. Knowing how to recognize, establish, and encourage social presence might be considered a component of techno-pedagogical knowledge (TPK, although a content element might be present as well). It’s a key element to what Hauck and Müller-Hartmann (see Chapter 7) call digital-pedagogical competence, which can develop through critical reflection on collaborative, digitally-mediated experiences involving teaching, and would be a core aspect of one’s techno-identity as an online teacher.

Other social constructivist models of community have been adapted or developed to assess and interpret online affiliative behavior, for example, community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; see also Chapter 5), which proposes that a community is comprised of individuals participating in related practices and that becoming a member involves being apprenticed by experts who recognize peripheral participation as legitimate. Because control of online communities is not necessarily centrally controlled and access is not dependent on location, some have argued that they be seen as affinity groups rather than communities (Gee, 2004), since expertise in many online spaces is not necessarily ascribed to core members and participation can fluctuate considerably; in affinity spaces, the agency to participate and one’s identity as participant are interwoven and co-constitutive. Insofar as social affiliative practices involve the use of language, the concept of literacy as multifarious social practices (i.e., multiliteracies; New London Group, 1996) aligns well with social constructivist notions of community.

Commensurate with a social constructivist notion of the nature of language learning, understanding the role of social collaboration and interaction is an element of all the aforementioned concepts – CMC discourse awareness, TPACK, and one’s techno-identity as an online teacher and learner. To further develop recognition of the key role of online community and affiliative behavior, teacher-learners might conduct a project where they participate in online communities of their choice, taking on identities as teachers with an online community of language teachers, for example the ‘webheads’ described in Chapter 5, and as learners, participating in both communities of learners of the language they teach and other languages they are genuinely learning. These communities might be vernacular, for example, a fan group of a particular celebrity, or educational, for example, a group of learners following a YouTube-based language teacher. They might participate over a month or the course of an entire semester and write a short ‘netnography’ (Kozinets, 1998; see also Chapter 6) of the group, answering questions such as:

- What is the main focus of the community, and what are the typical features of a community post or interaction?
- Who are the participants and why are they participating? What roles do they play? How do they signal that they belong in the group? How do they learn what the community norms are, both directly and indirectly?
- How do the participants establish social presence with one another? What features contribute to or distract from this establishment?
- What was your role in the group, and how did it develop over time? How did your participation evolve over time, and why?

Translanguacultural awareness

Culture emerges through social collaboration and affiliative group behavior over time, and awareness of oneself as a cultural being, or rather a transcultural being in the case of additional language learners, is a core element of language proficiency alongside linguistic awareness, or rather translingual awareness in the case of developing proficiencies in multiple linguistic varieties. Raising transcultural awareness and translingual awareness in both learners and teachers of language, combined into a portmanteau using Agar's (1994) concept of languaculture into 'translanguacultural' (TLC) awareness, should be a goal of all LTE. TLC awareness can develop through critical reflection on relative differences among attitudes and understandings of the purpose, value, and means of language education in one's own languaculture and the languaculture(s) of study. When these conversations and moments take place in OLTE spaces functioning as a third space (Kramsch, 2002), as uncomfortable as they might sometimes be as they can be decentering, they can have transformative impact on developing teacher techno-identities.

The formal practice of virtual exchange or telecollaboration, where students in different countries learning each others' languages interact and collaborate on various project, has been used for not just language learning but teacher education (see Chapters 4 & 7) by leveraging the capacity of the Internet to serve as a third space where TLC awareness can develop. Some of the earliest virtual exchange studies involved language teacher trainees and learners of the trainees' language, and virtual exchange is now a core subject in CALL and OLTE.

Even when virtual exchange is not available, LTE should leverage the power of the Internet as windows, mirrors, doorways, and playgrounds (Reinhardt, 2020) to simulate it, seeking to decenter and expose unexamined assumptions about culture, language, learning, and teaching and develop TLC awareness. The Internet, for example social media or any online globally networked activity like digital gaming, can serve as a window onto the social, transcultural, and linguistic practices of

others, just as it can act as a mirror onto one's own practices, affording the development of awareness. It can serve as a doorway into participation in those practices, as well as a playground for simulated, gameful, and low stakes practice (Reinhardt, 2019; see also Chapter 3 of this volume). OLTE should recognize the potential of the Internet not simply as value-added but for the unique affordances it offers to enhance, rather than replace or replicate, in-person practices.

To the end of integrating TLC awareness with online teacher techno-identities, pre- and in-service teachers might explore, review, and share what they identify as possible language learning resources on the Internet, that is, the actual resources that the communities they might explore in the social presence-focused project use, including websites, apps, videos, social media, or games. As with that project, they might explore both vernacular and educational resources, that is, those both not meant for language learners and those designed expressly for them. In their reviews, they might address questions such as:

- How might learners participate in the resource or activity and learn language? What might they need in addition in order to do so?
- What online translation or reference tools might be utilized in order to use the resource, and how would learners learn to use such tools critically and effectively? Or should they not use them, and if so, why not?
- for educational resources: What theories of language, language learning, and language teaching are reflected in the design?
- for vernacular resources: How does the resource portray culture and/or the particular culture of study? How would participating in or through it involve culture learning?

Conclusion

The practices of teaching online and using digital language have now become as central to language teaching and learning practice in general as in-person, off-line practices, especially as Web 2.0 has brought an online, digitally mediated face to most all language use, from writing to interacting to listening and watching. This aligns with a reality dawning on us even before the pandemic, that in the future, additional language users around the globe are more likely to use their new language in technology-mediated contexts than in in-person ones.

Online language teaching requires skills that offline teaching may not; for example, to know how to use CMS interfaces, to be able to find web-based resources, and to use videoconferencing tools. However, since the pandemic has brought certain realities of the world into focus and instigated a reconsideration of the mission

of LTE, especially OLTE, it has become clearer than ever that online teaching is not dissimilar to in-person teaching because it involves those additional skills, but similar to it because it involves the practice of agency and investment in new techno-identities. In short, we must address identity development in OLTE.

Since the applied mission of LTE has always been interdisciplinary, it should continue to seek out new theoretical and methodological insights from technology-related fields, in particular from CMC and CALL, especially for OLTE. Issues and concepts concerning technology-mediated interactions, literacies, registers, and genres; technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge; social presence and community; and TLC are all important when considering teacher cognition, agency, and identity. Without this important cross-disciplinary fertilization and curricular integration, OLTE may fall into an educational technology trap where humanistic and phenomenological considerations and the relational nature of teaching and learning are reduced to data-based algorithms, and “teacher-proof online content delivery” may continue to be seen uncritically as a panacea for the neo-liberal woes of modern education. The scholarship in this volume illustrates why it must not, because teacher techno-identities play crucial roles in online language teaching and learning practice and contribute to its success.

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This volume demonstrates how various methodologies and tools have been used to analyze the multidimensional, dynamic, and complex nature of identities and professional development of language teachers in digital contexts that have not been adequately examined before. It therefore offers new understandings and conceptualizations of language teacher development and learning in varied digital environments. The collection of pieces illustrates a field that is recognizing that digital environments are the contexts of teacher learning, not simply the object of it, and that issues of identity and agency are central to that learning. As an excellent resource on digital technologies, CALL, gaming, or language teacher identity and agency, the book can be used as a textbook in various applied linguistics courses and graduate seminars.

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