Practice Teaching During Study Abroad in Second Language Teacher Education: A Longitudinal, Multi-Case Study of Preservice Teachers' Cognition Development and Task Implementation

Practice Teaching During Study Abroad in Second Language Teacher Education: A Longitudinal, Multi-Case Study of Preservice Teachers' Cognition Development and Task Implementation

by

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ABSTRACT

Short-term study abroad (SA) programs are popular components of second language (L2) teacher education programs (Wernicke, 2010), which are an ideal time to introduce innovative teaching approaches such as task-based language teaching (TBLT; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). However, little research examines the effect of such programs on preservice L2 teachers' cognition development related to teaching approaches. The SA setting can provide opportunities for teaching experience and critical reflection (Trent, 2011), yet few studies have investigated the impact of short-term programs on participants' future teaching trajectories. The current dissertation investigated preservice L2 teachers' cognition development about teaching approaches, tasks, and the role of the teacher over eight months—prior to, during, and following a teaching-English-as-a-foreign-language (TEFL) course with a short-term SA component featuring daily teaching practice. It also examined participants' implementation of tasks on SA and the impact of SA on the teachers regarding perceived benefits, SA elements that facilitated their learning, and its influence on their future trajectories.

The dissertation was a longitudinal, multi-case study with three focal participants—two U.S. undergraduates and one master's student with a range of academic experience—enrolled in a TEFL course that included a two-month predeparture period and two weeks of daily teaching practice in Mexico. Data were collected through semi-structured individual interviews, focus group interviews, teacher observations, and documents, including teachers' predeparture assignments, lesson plans, reflections, and portfolios. Videos of teaching on SA were analyzed using an analytic rubric developed around key task criteria. Interview and written data were analyzed qualitatively and triangulated with the analysis of a pedagogical beliefs questionnaire. The findings revealed that two teachers implemented TBLT, adapting their tasks to the local EFL

context, while one took an eclectic approach. The cognitions of the teachers with stronger academic backgrounds became more nuanced over time, while the most novice teacher's cognitions showed less change. Finally, the SA experience was seen as beneficial even by participants for whom TEFL was not a career goal. The findings are discussed considering the benefits and challenges of short-term SA and practice teaching in SLTE and the effectiveness of TBLT as an approach for preservice teachers.

INDEX WORDS: Teacher cognition, Second language teacher education, Study abroad, Preservice teachers, Task-based language teaching, Practice teaching

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Ron and Elisabeth, for instilling in me a love of learning and supporting me throughout my education and to my husband, Luigi, for encouraging me to pursue my doctorate.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT	Communicative language teaching
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
FL	Foreign language
L1	First language
L2	Second language
PPP	Presentation, practice, production
SA	Study abroad
SLA	Second language acquisition
SLTE	Second language teacher education
SR	Stimulated recall
TBLT	Task-based language teaching
TSLT	Task-supported language teaching
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language
TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
TL	Target language

1 INTRODUCTION

The current dissertation examines the developing cognitions of preservice second language (L2) teachers over the span of eight months, during which time they completed a teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) course that included a short-term study abroad (SA) program with daily teaching practice. During the predeparture period, the teachers became familiar with teaching approaches, such as task-based language teaching (TBLT), which they then had the option of implementing during their teaching practice abroad. As shown in Figure 1.1, the conceptual framework for this dissertation is situated at the intersection of four interrelated areas of research—practice teaching, short-term SA, teachers' cognitions, and TBLT—as they pertain to second language teacher education (SLTE) for preservice L2 teachers, as viewed from a sociocultural perspective.

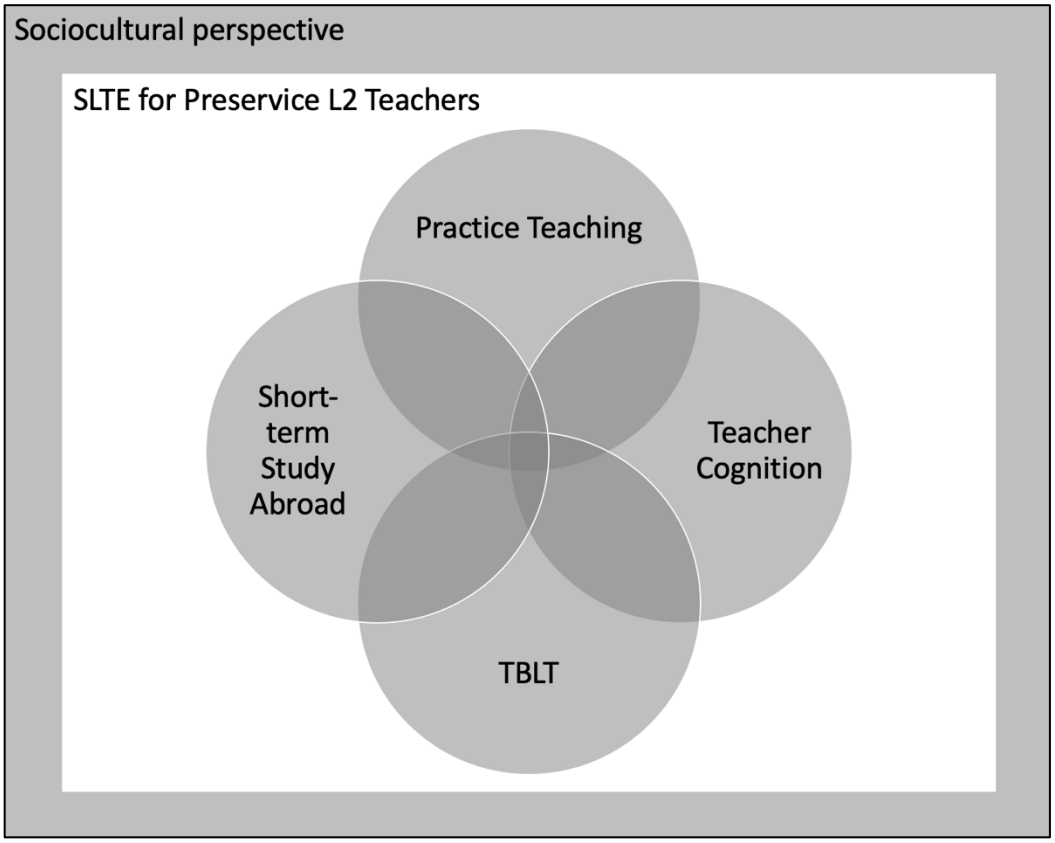

Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework of the Dissertation

Sociocultural theory is a compelling interpretation of human learning that views cognitive development as inseparable from cultural and social activity (Vygotsky, 1978). The sociocultural theory was originally developed by Lev Vygotsky in the 1920s and 1930s and over time has been extended to different fields, including second language acquisition (SLA) and SLTE. Sociocultural theory provides a useful framework from which SLTE can be examined without divorcing it from the social context in which it occurs. From this perspective, teachers develop knowledge through a socioculturally situated process of becoming an L2 teacher (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Knowledge about L2 teaching cannot be separated from the teachers or from the context in which the teachers are learning and teaching (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). This relationship between people (teachers), social context (such as a classroom), and things is formed and sustained through practical activity (Packer & Goicoechea, 2000). Teacher educators must create opportunities to support individuals as they are becoming teachers by providing opportunities to engage in pedagogical practice and to reflect on that practice through narrative activity that allows the teachers to verbalize their experiences (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). Both of these key processes—pedagogical practice and reflection—are possible through semester- or year-long practicums or shorter, intensive teaching opportunities, such as those incorporated in short-term SA programs. Though not identical to sociocultural perspectives, constructivist approaches to SLTE share an emphasis on participation in community as key to learning (Packer & Goicoechea, 2000) while also emphasizing the individual's role in not simply receiving the transmission of knowledge but playing an active part in the creation of new knowledge through critical reflection (Xu & Shi, 2018). Both of these perspectives will be discussed in relation to the TEFL course that was the focus of the dissertation research.

Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, short-term SA programs were increasing in popularity both for U.S. undergraduate students (Institute for International Education, 2017) and as a component of SLTE programs for preservice teachers (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Wernicke, 2010). Previous research has documented the benefits of short-term SA programs for L2 teachers in terms of learning about a foreign culture, expanding their understandings of school systems and approaches to teaching, observing or working with experienced teachers, and in some cases gaining firsthand teaching experience. A SA program can incorporate both practical experience in the classroom and opportunities for critical reflection, elements which teacher education researchers working in a sociocultural framework emphasize are critical for teachers' development (e.g., Johnson & Golombek, 2016). Despite the potential that teaching experience on SA holds for preservice teachers, the focus of short-term SLTE SA programs is often on teachers' language proficiency and intercultural competence, rather than on their pedagogical beliefs or professional development (Gleeson & Tait, 2012). In addition, many short-term SLTE SA programs do not include firsthand teaching in the classroom; thus, the impact of such an experience on participants and their future trajectories as teachers remains understudied.

During SLTE programs, preservice teachers experience significant professional growth and development (Johnson & Golombek, 2016), and they have the opportunity to reflect on and experiment with new approaches and methods (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). Thus, preservice teachers' developing cognitions about second language (L2) teaching and learning are of great interest to teacher cognition and SLTE researchers. In addition, given the connection between understanding cognitions and comprehending humans' actions (Borg, 2003), understanding preservice teachers' cognitions is key to understanding their choices and actions in the classroom (Bryfonski, 2019). However, research on preservice teachers' cognitions is limited compared to

that for in-service teachers; accordingly, there have been calls for more research on preservice L2 teachers' cognitions from a greater variety of contexts in order to strengthen the knowledge base (Borg, 2006).

SLTE programs are an ideal time to introduce innovative teaching approaches, as participants benefit from having time to critique and assess an approach, discuss its merits and shortcomings with peers and mentors, and possibly utilize the approach in the classroom without the constraints of an institution-imposed curriculum (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). Task-based language teaching, which has gained in popularity in L2 teaching contexts over the past few decades, is one such pedagogical innovation. Though TBLT emphasizes students' use of an L2 as the means by which they learn a language, the teacher is a pivotal figure due to their responsibility for providing appropriate materials, motivating students, and guiding students' focus on language-related issues as they come up during L2 use (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019; Willis & Willis, 2007). Despite the teacher's important contributions to students' successful L2 learning, the role of the teacher in TBLT is understudied (Han, 2018; Van den Branden, 2016b). Moreover, the type(s) of training needed to prepare preservice teachers and support in-service teachers' ability to teach effectively using a task-based approach is an area of research in the field of TBLT that is lacking (Ellis, 2017a; Han, 2018; Long, 2016).

Thus, the dissertation focuses on SLTE that incorporates a short-term SA program as a site for teaching practice and critical reflection, both of which are key components of L2 teacher development, as viewed from a sociocultural perspective. The investigation of preservice L2 teachers' cognitions related to teaching approaches aligns with the need for more research on teacher education for TBLT. In order to address the under-studied areas of inquiry described above, the dissertation investigated the experiences of a cohort of preservice L2 teachers prior to,

during, and after a short-term study abroad program in Mexico that incorporated daily teaching practice. Utilizing a largely qualitative, multi-case study approach, it examined the teachers' use of tasks and overall approach(es) in the classroom over the two-week period in Mexico from a microgenetic point of view. In addition, it evaluated their developing cognitions related to teaching approaches, tasks, and their role as a teacher throughout the predeparture period, while abroad, and during the subsequent semester. The study also investigated the impact of the two-week SA program in terms of the benefits they perceived, the components that they felt contributed to their learning, and its impact on their future trajectories as L2 teachers. Findings are reported for three focal cases. Prior to describing the methods and findings of the study, I will now review the relevant areas of literature that underpin the dissertation: sociocultural perspectives of and constructivist approaches to SLTE programs; practice teaching in SLTE; short-term SA programs for preservice teachers; preservice L2 teacher cognition development; and TBLT and teacher education.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides an overview of the theoretical concepts and previous research that frame the current dissertation. The chapter is divided into six sections: first, background on sociocultural perspectives of and constructivist approaches to SLTE are provided. Second, the role of practice teaching in SLTE is described. The third section outlines previous research on short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers. Next, teacher cognition literature related to L2 learning and TBLT are reviewed, with an emphasis on findings for preservice teachers. The fifth section presents an overview of TBLT, including task-based approaches, definitions of 'task,' and the role of the teacher, followed by a review of the literature detailing the implementation of TBLT worldwide and the role of teacher education for TBLT. The chapter concludes with the research questions addressed by the dissertation.

2.1 Sociocultural Perspectives of and Constructivist Approaches to SLTE

According to the sociocultural theory (SCT; Vygotsky, 1978), human development takes place through participation in cultural settings, such as peer interaction, and institutional contexts, such as schools and workplaces (Lantolf et al., 2015). While human neurobiology is a necessary part of human reasoning, SCT maintains that the most important processes of human cognitive development occur through social interaction (Engeström, 1987). Human cognition develops through the participation in external forms of interaction, which become psychological tools for thinking through a process called *internalization* (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). This is due in part to the assistance that experts can provide, enabling novice learners to achieve higher levels of growth than they would be able to on their own (Loewen, 2015). The metaphorical space of potentiality in which individuals can achieve more than they would have alone thanks to

the assistance of expert others is known as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD; Vygotsky, 1986).

Sociocultural research is rooted in the genetic method, which approaches the study of behavior by moving from description to explanation, beginning with the microgenetic domain (immediate events), followed by the ontogenetic domain (an individual's lifespan), and ultimately leading to the cultural-historical domain (the social activity of humans; Marginson & Dang, 2017; Vygotsky & Luriâ, 1993). This act of analyzing development from a narrow perspective to a wider lens is a useful framework for identifying the changes in teachers' cognitions at varying levels, as well as any interaction among the domains. SCT emphasizes not only research and the understanding of processes regarding human development, however, but also praxis-based research, which calls for intervention and creating the conditions necessary for development (Lantolf et al., 2015). Sociocultural theory proposes that humans establish a relationship between their mental representations and the world through mediation—whether with tools, psychological tools, or other humans (Guerrero Nieto, 2007). SLTE programs, during which students transition to being teachers, are periods of time in which human mediation "is absolutely critical in cultivating teachers' professional development" (Johnson & Golombek, 2016, p. 25). Teacher educators can play a critical role by enacting mediation which targets a teacher's potentiality in the ZPD; for instance, while teaching a lesson can give preservice teachers valuable experience, human mediation from an expert-other during the process is key as it provides opportunities for meaningful learning (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). Thus, human mediation makes teacher education programs an ideal context for learning L2 teaching (Johnson & Golombek, 2016).

During preservice education programs, periods of substantial growth and development, teachers may be more amenable to innovation as compared to later in their careers, when their practical knowledge has stabilized (Beijaard & Verloop, 1996). At the same time, numerous studies have shown that new teachers are greatly influenced by the hours of experience they spent as language learners—a period known as the 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975)—thus, they have prior beliefs that may be deeply held (Bailey et al., 1996; Busch, 2010; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). Often, preservice teachers' initial teaching experiences are largely based on the way they were taught, rather than on the way they were taught to teach (i.e., in courses on an SLTE program; Johnson, 1994). Therefore, scholars have noted the importance of addressing preservice teachers' previously held beliefs early on in teacher education in order for instruction to have the greatest impact possible (Bailey et al., 1996; Borg, 2003; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Lo, 2005; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010).

One type of approach to teacher education that addresses preservice teachers' previously held beliefs are those of a constructivist nature. Though not synonymous with sociocultural perspectives on teacher education, both viewpoints assume active individual construction on the part of the developing teacher along with participation in social practices (Cobb, 1994). Constructivist approaches to teacher education call for starting from students' prior knowledge and experiences, promoting explicit analysis of personal practical knowledge and critical analysis of theoretical knowledge (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). Rather than following a traditional transmission model of teaching and learning, constructivist approaches place the learner in a critical and active role in constructing new knowledge (Xu & Shi, 2018). Elements of professional development that are self-directed, collaborative, and inquiry-based and are directly relevant to teachers' experience in the classroom, such as teacher study groups and giving peer

feedback, help teachers and teacher educators address new knowledge that teachers are developing regarding content, pedagogy, and educational context (Johnson & Golombek, 2016).

From a sociocultural perspective on SLTE, learning to teach is not merely a process of enculturation into existing practices, but rather a dynamic process of constructing new knowledge in which human agency is central (Johnson, 2009). This requires the use of mediational tools that allow teachers to externalize their understandings of concepts and reconceptualize them, through practices such as reflective teaching (Johnson, 2009). Language educator researchers recognize the need to include reflective components in SLTE (Grosbois, 2014), as critical reflection is fundamental to helping create new understandings (East, 2020). One form of reflection takes place through narrative activity, which helps teachers express their understandings and feelings and fosters "introspection, explanation, and sense-making" (Johnson & Golombek, 2016, p. 14). In addition, reflection makes teachers solidify their understandings of new concepts and provides teacher educators with a basis from which they can help support teachers' development (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). Reflective writing has been shown to trigger insights about teaching and thus serves as a discovery process for teachers to externalize ideas and learn about teaching as they gain practical experience (Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

A Vygotskian sociocultural stance views the human mind as transformative: Vygotsky argued that individuals "transform what is appropriated for their own purposes and in/for particular contexts of use" (Johnson & Golombek, 2016, p. 4). Thus, learning is not an apprenticeship or a reproduction of behaviors; rather, the teacher is an actor, "both shaped by and shaping the social situations of cognitive development" (Johnson & Golombek, 2016, p. 4). In line with current research on teacher cognition, which argues that teachers' participation in specific contexts impacts how they learn to teach (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015), teacher

educators argue that "L2 teacher education programs must create multiple and varied opportunities for teachers to engage in theoretically and pedagogically sound instructional practices within the sociocultural contexts in which they are currently teaching or will eventually teach" (Johnson & Golombek, 2016, p. 10). Indeed, practical components of SLTE programs have been widely identified as a necessary means of promoting teacher learning (e.g., Freeman, 2016). These will be discussed in the next section.

2.2 Practice Teaching in SLTE

During the past three decades, scholars in the field of SLTE have progressively come to agree that while key elements of SLTE programs, such as applied linguistics and SLA studies, contribute to the knowledge base for language teaching, they are not synonymous with the activity of teaching itself (Legutke & Schocker-v. Ditfurth, 2009). Therefore, school-based experience is seen as a critical component of L2 teacher development. This can take place in the form of indirect classroom-based learning, such as analyzing teaching videos and experienced teachers' lesson plans and materials, observing experienced teachers, and microteaching (Legutke & Schocker-v. Ditfurth, 2009). Although microteaching allows preservice teachers an opportunity to practice getting up in front of other people and teaching, it does not reflect the realities of an L2 classroom (Richards & Farrell, 2011). Thus, direct classroom-based experience, which can be gained through action research or a practicum (Legutke & Schocker-v. Ditfurth, 2009), is often preferred as it provides experience in an authentic classroom environment (Barahona & Davin, 2021; Deocampo, 2020).

The importance of a practical teaching component is reflected in its frequent inclusion in SLTE programs: Most master's programs in applied linguistics, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and related fields require a teaching practicum (Gebhard, 2009), and

while less common, undergraduate courses that include practical teaching experience for future teachers of English as a foreign or second language can be highly beneficial. Similarly, practice teaching hours for individuals completing a TEFL certificate are critical to their preparation as L2 teachers (Freeman, 2016). It is widely recognized that teaching practice provides invaluable learning experience in SLTE programs, and practice teaching, or practicums, are often viewed as a key, if not *the* key, component of L2 teachers' professional development (e.g., Comoglu & Dikilitas, 2020; Deocampo, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2021). These practical experiences are known by a variety of names, such as *practice teaching, field experience, internship, teaching practice,* and *practicum*[1], but despite the variation in terminology, the goals of such experiences are generally quite similar (Gebhard, 2009). Some of the primary goals of a practicum include gaining teaching experience, applying theories from coursework, improving lesson-planning skills, and learning to select, modify, and develop course materials (Gebhard, 2009).

While practicums were once tied to a teacher training philosophy, requiring teachers to practice behaviors (e.g., teacher talk) in hopes of mastering them, there has been a gradual shift in SLTE programs to viewing the practicum as a part of teacher development (Gebhard, 2009). This updated perspective is tied to the idea that effective teaching cannot be taught directly (Chinokul, 2021) and has resulted in a shift from 'teaching of teaching' to 'learning of teaching' (Richards, 1998). Whereas SLTE coursework focuses on teaching-related theory and research findings, practice teaching is "above all an opportunity to learn more about the *process* of language teaching" (Richards & Farrell, 2011, p. 10). Teaching practice allows preservice teachers the opportunity to connect theoretical knowledge gained from their coursework with

[1] In the dissertation, these terms are used interchangeably to refer to a professionally guided period of practical classroom teaching experience incorporated in a SLTE program.

actual teaching practices in a classroom setting (Comoglu & Dikilitas, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2021; Richards & Farrell, 2011), which is key to their development. L2 teachers need to experience pedagogical approaches, such as the use of tasks, firsthand in order to 'buy in' to or believe in using them, and in order to change ideas formed during their apprenticeship of observation (Müller-Hartmann & Schocker, 2017). Furthermore, practice teaching provides an opportunity not only for the *application of theory* but also for the *theorizing of practice*, or making connections between one's practical classroom experience and the theoretical understandings of teaching (Richards & Farrell, 2011). This theorizing can lead to generating explanations and generalizations, developing principles that inform teachers' later actions, and developing a personal teaching philosophy (Richards & Farrell, 2011).

Previous studies have reported a variety of benefits of practice teaching for preservice L2 teachers. Some of these are tied to the opportunities that teachers have to experiment with ways of doing things that are new for them as novice members of the teaching profession. These include trying out different teaching approaches or methods (Chinokul, 2021; Richards & Farrell, 2011) and experimenting with different strategies to manage their classes (e.g., Deocampo, 2020). Teachers have also reported appreciating getting a taste of "teaching proper" and feeling better prepared to take on 'real teaching' after a practicum (Richards & Farrell, 2011, p. 3). A study with 32 preservice teachers enrolled in an undergraduate SLTE program at a private university in Turkey found that the teachers' feelings of self-efficacy were significantly greater following a 12-week practicum (Eginli & Solhi, 2021). The findings indicated that the practicum had had a positive impact on the preservice teachers' abilities to engage their students, apply instructional strategies, and manage their classes.

Scholars note that it is not merely the classroom experience gained during practice teaching that aids teacher development. Instead, teachers must reflect on their teaching and its implications for students' learning in order to effect personal and professional growth (Barahona & Davin, 2021; Deocampo, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2021; Senior, 2006). Combining reflection with practice "links active theorizing and action in ways that other teacher-learning processes do not" (Burton, 2009, p. 299). By incorporating an element of critical reflection (East, 2014) and practical application of theories (Debreli, 2016; Johnson, 2015), preservice SLTE programs provide an opportune platform for strengthening the connection between SLTE course content and L2 teaching (Beijaard & Verloop, 1996; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010)—allowing teachers to link everyday concepts and academic concepts and reach a deeper understanding of "what it means to be a teacher, how to teach, and how to support student learning" (Johnson & Golombek, 2016, p. 5). Thus, reflective practices must be incorporated in practicums so that teachers can increase their awareness of classroom happenings and develop their teaching strategies (Mann & Walsh, 2017). One such practice is reflective writing, which can promote teachers' critical reflective skills and foster greater understandings of teaching and learning (Eginli & Solhi, 2021).

In addition to individual reflective practices, such as writing a diary, reflection can take place in dialogue with peers or supervisors. These social interactions and dialogic speech are considered a mediating tool to restructure thoughts; through dialogue, teachers can co-construct knowledge with their peers (Comoglu & Dikilitas, 2020). Through discussion with other teachers and expert-others, such as supervisors, preservice teachers can evaluate the effectiveness of their lessons and develop confidence and skills as a teacher (Richards & Farrell, 2011). What is more, in cases where organizational support for preservice teachers in a practicum is lacking, peers can offer each other support through dialogic reflection, allowing them to appreciate different

perspectives of teaching and learning and increase their motivation for planning and implementing lessons (Comoglu & Dikilitas, 2020).

To summarize, the practicum, or practice teaching experience, has been widely recognized as a key element of SLTE programs, due to the opportunities it provides preservice teachers for connecting theory with practice and experiencing classroom teaching firsthand. In addition, reflection has been highlighted as a fundamental component in order for teachers to make theory-practice links and derive meaningful learning from their practice teaching. Reflection can take place through individual practice, such as writing diaries, or in dialogue with fellow preservice teachers or expert-others, which provides opportunities for mediation. Because previous research has highlighted the importance of practice teaching, reflective work, and mediation in SLTE, these three elements were intentionally incorporated into the TEFL course that was the context of the current study in multiple ways, both prior to departure and on the short-term SA component of the course. The next section will review short-term SA programs.

2.3 Short-term SA Programs

2.3.1 Short-term SA Programs for Preservice L2 Teachers

Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, short-term SA programs (defined as lasting eight weeks or less; Grey, Cox, Serafini, & Sanz, 2015) were becoming increasingly popular for US undergraduates (IIE, 2017), and short-term programs for preservice teachers were increasingly being incorporated in teacher education programs (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Wernicke, 2010). Although international experiences for preservice teachers vary greatly in terms of content, duration, and other factors, most programs have one of two goals—the preparation of L2 teachers or the preparation of non-L2 teachers for teaching in multi-cultural environments (Tang & Choi, 2004). Most of these programs contain one or more of the following components:

coursework, such as language classes; homestays; cultural immersion activities; and teaching practice (Barkhuizen and Feryok, 2006; Tang & Choi, 2004). A similar assessment of key components of SLTE SA programs includes reflection and collaboration in addition to cultural immersion experiences, teaching opportunities, and language learning (He, Lundgren, & Pynes, 2017). Though the literature on cross-cultural experiences is extensive (Tang & Choi, 2004), studies on experiences abroad for preservice L2 teachers is limited (see Table 2.1 for an overview).

Table 2.1 Short-term SA Programs for Preservice L2 Teachers

Study	Setting	Length	Focus of program	Participants	Teaching component?	Other components	Main findings
Barkhuizen & Feryok (2006)	Auckland, New Zealand	6 weeks	Improve L2 proficiency; develop pedagogical knowledge; engage with an unfamiliar international sociocultural environment	15 pre-service English L2 teachers (teaching experience varied) enrolled in a postgraduate diploma program in teaching at a Hong Kong university	No	Academic program, social events, school visits	Teachers' expectations and experiences interrelate in complex, sometimes unexpected, ways. Teachers need to be prepared for SA. Program should be transparent and responsive.
Bodycott & Crew (2000)	Australia, Canada, England	6 weeks	Language and cultural immersion	Preservice English as a second language (ESL) teachers (undergraduates enrolled in an ESL certificate program) from Hong Kong	No	Language and cultural studies, school visits, homestay, educational and cultural outings, social activities	Participants demonstrated enhanced personal skills (e.g., confidence using L2 English), attitudes, and professional knowledge.
Harbon (2007)	Seoul, South Korea	3 weeks	International teaching, and cross-cultural experience	12 Australian pre-service language teachers, all in final year of teaching degree program	Yes (teachers conducted a conversational English camp)	Homestay	Language awareness was heightened through systematic reflection on teaching and learning.

Study	Setting	Length	Focus of program	Participants	Teaching component?	Other components	Main findings
Harbon & Atmazaki (2002)	Australia, Indonesia	5 weeks	Promote mutual understanding between teacher education learners in Indonesia and Australia in rural communities	11 Indonesian preservice language teachers, 11 Australian preservice language teachers	No	School experience, rural homestay	Teachers found SA experience valuable personally and professionally; SA can help face ethnocentricity and raise intercultural awareness.
Hepple (2012)	Brisbane, Australia	8 weeks (school-based experience lasted 2 weeks)	Transnational school-based experience	16 preservice ESL teachers from Hong Kong	Yes (taught one cultural task with a partner)	Class observation and tutoring, participation in school functions, mentoring and reflection workshops, leadership training, social activities	Dialogic reflection helped participants better understand pedagogy and themselves as teachers. Both peer and lecturer feedback were important for reflection. More longitudinal research on transnational school-based experiences is needed.
Kabilan (2013)	Maldives	6 weeks	International teaching practicum experience	6 preservice TESOL teachers	Yes (160 minutes of English teaching per week; regular observations with feedback)	Official school duties, daily meetings with mentors	Students experienced beneficial professional and personal development, including broadened global views of education and culture, increased adaptability, improved teaching skills, and confidence speaking English. Teachers

Study	Setting	Length	Focus of program	Participants	Teaching component?	Other components	Main findings
							benefitted from relationships with expert teachers.
Karaman & Tochon (2007)	Cuenca, Ecuador	8 weeks	Increase L2 proficiency, cultural learning, professional development	2 preservice teachers of Spanish	Yes (student teaching)		Global teacherhood is a mindset that teachers can develop. Preparing teachers for intercultural communication in field experiences is key.
Lee (2009, 2011)	Auckland, New Zealand	6 weeks	Enhance L2 proficiency, cultural understanding, and understanding of teaching and learning ESL	15 Hong Kong Postgraduate Diploma English-language student teachers (teaching experience varied)	No	Academic studies, field experience, homestay, community and socio-cultural activities	Teachers benefitted from the experience in numerous ways, e.g., improvement in L2 English, cultural awareness, understandings of pedagogy, and personal development.
Marx & Pray (2011)	Cuernavaca, Mexico	3 weeks	Academic goals; help students develop empathy for the challenges faced by ELLs in the US	10 preservice ESL teachers from the US	No	Coursework (ESL Methods, Spanish for Teachers), homestay	Students struggled with the cultural, linguistic, and racial dimensions of the SA experience; most developed a degree of empathetic understanding for the challenges facing ELLs in the US.
Nero (2018)	Dominican Republic	3 weeks	Deepen teachers' understanding of their students'	17 TESOL and/or foreign language (FL) preservice teachers	No	Coursework (Intercultural Perspectives in Multicultural Education,	Participants developed more critical understandings of the Dominican language, culture, and education

Study	Setting	Length	Focus of program	Participants	Teaching component?	Other components	Main findings
			cultures, develop empathy toward language learning, and promote culturally responsive pedagogy			Spanish), homestay, educational tours, cultural activities	system, which they could harness to practice culturally responsive pedagogy.
Pfingstho rn & Czura (2017)	Germany	2 weeks	Develop teachers' understanding of the Learning Through the Arts approach so they could adapt it to FL teaching in their home country	68 preservice FL teachers from Lithuania, Poland, and Turkey	No	Comparison of home country curricular; discussions; multinational group activities; observations in German schools	Irrespective of nationality, participants were highly motivated to participate in the short-term program. The combination of the program's practical, interdisciplinary, and intensive traits was deemed successful.
Tang & Choi (2004)	Australia, Canada, China	6 weeks or 2 months	Language and cultural immersion program	4 preservice language teachers enrolled in a Postgraduate Diploma program in Hong Kong	Yes (observation s, lesson planning, individual or team teaching)	Language classes, communication practice with NS, cultural activities, in-school field experience	Teachers developed personal and intercultural competence. Their professional competence developed in the action context, socio-professional context, and supervisory context of the cross-cultural school settings and through reflection.

Study	Setting	Length	Focus of program	Participants	Teaching component?	Other components	Main findings
Trent (2011)	Australia	6 weeks	Enhance L2 proficiency and cultural awareness, enhance understanding of ESL learning and teaching	8 preservice ESL teachers from Hong Kong	Yes (2-week teaching placement in a secondary school)	Coursework (English, teaching approaches), homestay, cultural activities, tasks documenting language learning, TESOL materials review	Identity conflicts impacted how the student teachers experienced the program.
Woodgate-Jones (2006)	France (possibly other European countries; unclear from article)	4 weeks	Develop linguistic abilities and intercultural understanding; teaching experience	230 preservice modern FL teachers (data aggregated from multiple SA programs)	Yes (teaching full-time in a primary school)	Other components varied by site (details not provided)	Teachers gained confidence in L2 abilities and intercultural understandings.
Yang (2011)	Hong Kong	8 weeks	International field experience	7 Canadian preservice English teachers (undergraduate TESOL students)	Yes (in an elementary or secondary school; teaching assessed by experienced teachers)		Participants were very positive about field experience; they could better understand Chinese ESL students.

As shown in Table 2.1, over the past two decades, sixteen studies have reported on fifteen short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers. These short-term SA programs offered as part of L2 teacher development span a wide range of locations, from the Americas to Europe, and from Asia to Oceania. Though previously some researchers and practitioners had doubted the effectiveness of short-term SA programs for expanding pedagogical knowledge (MacLennan & Tse, 1995) or for L2 development (Drake, 1997; MacLennan & Tse, 1995), other researchers have noted that the benefits of short-term SA programs may not be measurable only through quantifiable measures, such as language proficiency gains, which do not account for gains in confidence using the L2, motivation for further ESL study, or a new appreciation for language learning and teaching (Bodycott & Crew, 2000). Since the publication of those earlier articles casting doubt on the effectiveness of short-term SA programs, numerous studies have found benefits for preservice L2 teachers in L2 development, as well as developing pedagogical knowledge, not to mention life skills and personal development.

The benefits of short-term SA programs reported in the literature can be grouped into four broad categories related to L2 teachers' L2 proficiency, personal changes, cultural or world views, and pedagogical awareness or capabilities. In terms of developing L2 proficiency, several studies have reported benefits for L2 teachers' general L2 development (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Bodycott & Crew, 2000; Trent, 2011; Woodgate-Jones, 2006). More specifically, SA has been reported to be beneficial for improving L2 teachers' communicative awareness (Hepple, 2012; Karaman & Tochon, 2007) and for learning a local dialect and intonation (Lee, 2011). Studies have also reported personal benefits other than L2 proficiency, such as increased confidence or feeling prepared to be a teacher (e.g., Yang, 2011). Authors have reported growth in L2 teachers' cognitive development and adaptability to a foreign culture (Lee, 2009), as well

as in interpersonal awareness (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Lee, 2009). In addition, SA has been shown to impact L2 teachers' identity construction (Lee, 2009; Trent, 2011).

In addition to the influence on L2 teachers' personal growth, research has found that short-term SA programs can expand participants' world views. For example, a three-week SA program in the Dominican Republic helped preservice L2 teachers develop critical understandings of the Dominican culture, language, and education system, laying the foundation to practice culturally responsive pedagogy (Nero, 2018). Short-term SA programs have been found to enhance L2 teachers' global perspectives (Kabilan, 2013) and contribute to their increased cultural knowledge or understanding (Hepple, 2012; Trent, 2011) and cross-cultural awareness (Karaman & Tochon, 2007; Lee, 2011; Woodgate-Jones, 2006; Yang, 2011). In particular, some studies have noted participants' increased empathy towards English-language learners (Marx & Pray, 2011).

Finally, short-term SA research has reported benefits for L2 teachers related to L2 pedagogy. These include enhanced understandings of pedagogy and teaching methods (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Hepple, 2012; Kabilan, 2013) and of teacher and student roles and relationships (Harbon, 2007). In addition, researchers report L2 teachers becoming aware of the importance of context in teaching (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006). Studies have also reported improved teaching skills and strategies (Harbon, 2007; Kabilan, 2013; Lee, 2011; Trent, 2011; Woodgate-Jones, 2006), in particular for lesson planning and classroom management (Yang, 2011). Additionally, SA allows preservice L2 teachers the opportunity to try out new ways of teaching (Tang & Choi, 2004), and it has been shown to help practicing L2 teachers become more innovative and resourceful (He, Lundgren, & Pynes, 2017). Finally, short-term SA

programs can broaden participants' understandings of pedagogy by making them familiar with new approaches to FL teaching.

In reviewing the previously described studies, two gaps in the research on short-term SA for preservice L2 teachers emerge. First, although two of the studies reviewed (Karaman & Tochon, 2007; Woodgate-Jones, 2006) had an extended data collection period, none of the studies on short-term SA for preservice L2 teachers investigated the longitudinal effect of the SA program on the preservice teachers. Second, the length of the short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers described above varies; however, the majority (62.5%) of studies on short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers involve programs that last six or eight weeks. Including studies on programs that are four or five weeks in duration brings this proportion to 75 percent, with just a quarter of studies investigating programs that last less than one month. Only one of the published studies examined programs that were less than three weeks long, leaving a large gap in the literature for findings about very short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers lasting one or two weeks. Because studies on very short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers are scarce if not nonexistent, we can look to the literature on non-L2 preservice teachers' experiences abroad, which includes some studies on very short-term programs.

2.3.2 Short-term SA Programs for Non-L2 Preservice Teachers

Short-term SA programs for non-L2 preservice teachers described in the literature have been offered in a variety of locations and for varied durations, just like those for preservice L2 teachers. The focus of these programs include goals such as developing the preservice teachers' intercultural awareness, promoting teachers' understandings of diversity and pedagogy, and improving teachers' L2 abilities. Just as positive outcomes have been found for preservice L2

teachers in short-term SA programs ranging from three to eight weeks in length, benefits for preservice teachers in related fields, such as education, have been reported in both personal and professional capacities (see Table 2.2 for an overview). For instance, following short-term SA programs, non-L2 preservice teachers have been found to demonstrate raised intercultural awareness (Dooly & Villanueva, 2006; Kambutu & Nganga, 2008; Pence & Macgillivray, 2008; Willard-Holt, 2001) and cultural competence (Dunn et al., 2014), increased confidence or self-awareness (Colwell et al., 2019; Pence & Macgillivray, 2008), and increased empathy towards English-language learners (Colwell et al., 2019; Kasun & Saavedra, 2016; Willard-Holt, 2001). They have exhibited a greater awareness of the need for communicative skills for teaching (Dooly & Villanueva, 2006) and an awareness of the importance of feedback and reflection for professional development (Pence & Macgillivray, 2008). Short-term SA has been shown to impact preservice teachers' identities (Kasun & Saavedra, 2016). In addition, short-term SA programs for non-L2 preservice teachers have been found to improve teaching characteristics (Willard-Holt, 2001), as well as teaching skills and strategies (Colwell et al., 2019).

Table 2.2 Short-term SA Programs for Preservice Non-L2 Teachers

Study	Setting	Length	Focus of program	Participants	Teaching component?	Other components	Main findings
Colwell et al. (2019)	Northern Italy	4 weeks	Observe foreign classrooms; experience being a language learner	21 preservice teachers, most undergraduate education majors (teaching experience varied)	Yes (English teaching practice in an Italian school)	Homestay	Short-term SA experiences can impact preservice teachers personally and professionally. If reflection is incorporated, this impact can result in significant growth.
Dooly & Villanueva (2006)	6 European countries	8 weeks	Promote intercultural awareness of future teachers	160 undergraduates from 8 European countries, the majority of whom were teacher trainees	Yes (100 hours in a primary school)	Coursework, workshops on managing projects, cultural course about host country	Exposure to multicultural ideologies and intercultural studies raises awareness of the need for intercultural awareness and communication skills for teaching.
Dunn et al. (2014)	Australia, France	4 months (Australia) or 3 weeks (France)	Develop preservice teachers' understandings of diversity and pedagogy in a global context	Preservice teachers—2 undergraduates in Australia; 1 undergraduate and 5 graduate students from the US in France; teaching experience varied	Yes in Australia; no in France	Intensive course on global diversity and multicultural pedagogy, classroom visits	SA programs should include relevant and interactive assignments, hands-on experiences, and support for personal (in additional to professional) growth.

Study	Setting	Length	Focus of program	Participants	Teaching component?	Other components	Main findings
Kambutu & Nganga (2008)	Kenya	17 days or 3 weeks	Enable educators to develop cultural awareness, appreciation, and understanding in the process of challenging ethnocentrism	12 pre- or in-service educators from the US	No	Lectures, seminars, expositions, discussions, daily field experiences	Participants were found to have gained broader awareness, understanding, and appreciation of the host cultures, and this was sustained over time.
Kasun & Saavedra (2016)	Mexico	4 weeks	Expose preservice teachers' identities to indigenous, critical L2 teaching experiences	8 preservice English teachers from the US	No	Documentary screenings, guest speakers, Spanish classes, cultural outings	Teachers had three shifts in identity: becoming socially aware, empaths, and creators of loving classrooms
Pence & Macgillivray (2008)	Rome, Italy	4 weeks	An active, field-based experience in another culture, including self-reflection, to challenge participants to think about and improve their professional practice	15 teacher education students from the US	Yes (co-taught with or assisted a cooperating teacher 4 days/week for 4 weeks at a private international primary through secondary (K-12) school)	Cultural trips and sightseeing, observations and feedback on teaching	Benefits included professional and personal changes (e.g., increased confidence, appreciation and respect for differences of others/other cultures, and an awareness of the importance that feedback and reflection play in

Study	Setting	Length	Focus of program	Participants	Teaching component?	Other components	Main findings
							professional and personal growth).
Willard-Holt (2001)	Pachuca, Hidalgo, Mexico	1 week	An international, cross-cultural experience for preservice teachers; learn about Mexican schools	22 preservice elementary teachers	Yes (taught in a bilingual school)	Visits to schools, tours of cultural and historical sites	The SA experience had lasting effects on both the participants' teaching and their personal lives.

Given the dearth of very short-term SA programs in the SLTE literature for preservice teachers, studies regarding non-L2 preservice teachers lasting two weeks or less are of particular interest to the current study. A study with preservice elementary teachers who spent one week in Mexico (Willard-Holt, 2001) found that the SA experience—which included teaching in a bilingual school and touring cultural and historical sites—had lasting effects on both the participants' teaching and their personal lives. For those teachers, SA was found to improve their intercultural awareness and a variety of teaching characteristics, such as patience, reflectivity, flexibility, professionalism, and the ability to think on one's feet—changes that still held true one year after the SA program (Willard-Holt, 2001). Another study on short-term SA for non-L2 preservice teachers (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008) examined the experience of pre- and in-service American educators in Kenya, some of whom stayed 17 days (others stayed three weeks). After completing lectures, seminars, expositions, discussions, and daily field experiences abroad, the participants were found to have gained a broader awareness and appreciation of the host cultures, which was sustained over time. The fact that positive and lasting findings have been found for programs as short as one week or 17 days for preservice teachers in the closely related field of education suggests that similarly short programs may also be impactful for preservice L2 teachers; however, more investigation is needed to determine whether this is true.

2.3.3 Short-term SA Characteristics that Promote Teacher Development

In addition to reporting on participants' experiences on SA, including challenges the preservice teachers faced and benefits they perceived, many studies on short-term SA have highlighted the means by which participants made reported gains. Nearly all of the aforementioned studies that included teaching practice emphasized this component of SA as a key contributor to teachers' increased pedagogical knowledge and skills and/or personal growth.

Besides teaching practice, reflection is cited frequently as an activity that contributes to teachers' growth on SA (e.g., Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Harbon, 2007; Hepple, 2012; Lee, 2009, 2011). Some programs incorporate written self-reflection, such as through blogging (Colwell et al., 2019), while others emphasize the importance of the dialogic nature of reflection (Hepple, 2012) and the ways teachers learn through the social interaction that takes place in group reflection (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006). Still others note the importance of the recursive nature of reflection on SA (Hepple, 2012) and the benefits that teachers gain from the "intensive, continuous, and cyclical process of theorizing and practicing" (Trent, 2011, p. 182). In addition to reflection, teachers also benefit from observing experienced teachers (Yang, 2011) and from the relationships they develop with other teachers (Kabilan, 2013; Willard-Holt, 2001). Finally, input from supervisors is valuable for teachers' development, such as through feedback in post-observation discussions (Yang, 2011).

2.3.4 Current State of Research on Short-term SA for SLTE

Despite potential limitations of short-term SA programs' effectiveness due to their restricted length, the numerous benefits described above and the fact that short-term international experiences are already a part of some SLTE programs indicate that investigating these programs' impact on L2 teachers is a worthwhile endeavor. Scholars have previously noted that much of the literature on SA programs for teachers focuses on language proficiency and intercultural competence with comparatively little research focusing on teachers' pedagogical beliefs and professional development (Gleeson & Tait, 2012). The majority of the SA programs for preservice L2 teachers in the studies reviewed above (12 out of 15) included a focus on teachers' intercultural competence, while 11, or 60 percent, also had a focus on pedagogy, confirming in part the observations of the limitations in the SA literature. Of particular interest to

the dissertation, none of the SA programs reviewed in this section focused on TBLT. Additionally, while nearly all the short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers reviewed above included pedagogical elements, such as methodology courses and school visits, only slightly more than half of the programs incorporated firsthand teaching experience. What is more, scholars have highlighted a shortage of research about teachers within the area of SA research (Pfingsthorn & Czura, 2017; Wernicke, 2010). None of the short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers reviewed in this section were framed from a teacher cognition perspective, yet Borg (2006) notes that short, intensive courses create a "unique context for the study of how teacher education shapes teachers' beliefs and knowledge" (p. 65). Thus, examining teachers' development and changes in their beliefs about teaching on short-term SA programs, particularly from a teacher cognition standpoint, is a topic that merits further investigation.

In sum, short-term SA programs have been found to have numerous benefits for preservice L2 teachers. As Willard-Holt (2001, p. 505) succinctly states, "there is little controversy surrounding the value of cross-cultural experiences for teachers." However, there is potentially more controversy, or questioning, as to whether very short SA programs, lasting one-two weeks, can offer preservice L2 teachers not only benefits in intercultural awareness but also for their teaching abilities and pedagogical knowledge, particularly in relation to TBLT. In addition, there is a need for more research on SA programs incorporating teaching practice; for research on teachers participating in SA programs; and for studies investigating the long-term effects of SA on preservice L2 teachers. Finally, the lack of studies examining short-term SA programs for preservice L2 teachers from a teacher cognition perspective leaves a large gap to be filled.

2.4 Developing Cognitions of Preservice L2 Teachers

Teacher cognition studies investigate what teachers think, know, and believe[2] about various aspects of L2 teaching, their classroom practices concerning the same, and the relationships between the two (Borg, 2006). Preservice teachers' cognitions are of particular interest due to the growth and development that occurs during SLTE programs (Borg, 2003). However, the degree to which SLTE programs influence preservice teachers' beliefs, especially when those teachers are exposed to pedagogical innovations such as TBLT, remains unclear (Bryfonski, 2019). As previously noted, preservice teachers bring with them to SLTE beliefs previously developed during their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). As a result, they potentially come to SLTE programs with preconceived notions about the 'best' ways to learn a language, and consequently, the 'best' ways to teach a FL. Thus, preservice teachers' cognitions about SLA are pertinent to understanding their cognitions about TEFL approaches and methods—an under-researched area of study which merits further empirical investigation.

2.4.1 Preservice Teachers' Cognitions About SLA

Much of the literature on preservice L2 teachers' cognitions about SLA assesses whether cognitions change after a period of teacher education or training. Many researchers have employed a pre-/post-study design using a questionnaire composed of belief statements about SLA. Using such a questionnaire designed by Lightbown and Spada (1993), MacDonald, Badger, and White (2001) found that after a one-semester SLA course, 55 university students' cognitions moved away from behaviorist views. The authors attribute the lack of greater change to the short duration of the course. Nordlund (2017) used the questionnaire (Lightbown & Spada,

[2] Since "knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined" (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001, p. 446), in the current study, the terms *cognitions, beliefs, understanding*, and *knowledge* are used interchangeably.

2006) with 65 novice and qualified teachers. At the conclusion of the teachers' first English methodology course, Nordlund found that some of their beliefs were moving toward research-supported ideas; she notes that changing beliefs requires time.

The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) questionnaire (Horwitz, 1987) has also been used to investigate change in preservice teachers' cognitions after a teacher education program. Using the BALLI, Harrington and Hertel (2000) found that after a one-semester undergraduate teaching methodology course, some prospective L2 teachers' beliefs changed, but others remained constant. Peacock (2001) observed no significant changes in prospective ESL teachers' beliefs over the course of a three-year SLTE program at the City University of Hong Kong. Mattheoudakis (2007) reported gradual development during a three-year teacher education program in Greece. Finally, Altan (2012) found a departure from beliefs in the Grammar-Translation method and movement towards views in line with a communicative approach for 217 undergraduates enrolled in seven Turkish SLTE programs.

A few additional studies have examined change in preservice teachers' SLA cognitions using other approaches. In addition to implementing the BALLI, Busch (2010) gave an end-of-course writing assignment about change in beliefs to 381 preservice teachers enrolled in an SLA course and found that the teachers' beliefs moved away from behaviorism as a result of the course, their own language learning experiences, and experience tutoring. Angelova (2005) gave mini-lessons in Bulgarian designed to raise teacher trainees' awareness of SLA topics in a semester-long master's-level SLA course. Using the Lightbown and Spada (1999) questionnaire together with data from class discussions, reflective journals, and coursework, she found that the mini-lessons were useful in raising teachers' awareness of some SLA topics but not all. In a one-year study, Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) qualitatively analyzed interview data and developed

categories of belief development processes for twenty students in a year-long SLTE program at the University of Reading. all but one of their participants' beliefs showed development. Another longitudinal interview and diary study by Debreli (2012) highlighted changes in three undergraduate preservice teachers' beliefs over the course of a nine-month training program in Northern Cyprus. The findings revealed changes in the teachers' beliefs about aptitude and corrective feedback, which Debreli attributed to the teachers' practice teaching hours in the second half of the program.

To sum up, while some studies on preservice teachers' cognitions about SLA have shown that teacher beliefs are resistant (e.g., Peacock, 2001) or slow to change (MacDonald et al., 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007), other studies have shown that preservice teachers' cognitions about SLA can change due to training (Angelova, 2005; Busch, 2010; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Harrington & Hertel, 2000). Authors note that a practical element and reflective work have the potential to improve the effectiveness of teacher education and increase the potential for change in beliefs (Busch, 2010; Debreli, 2012, 2016; Johnson, 2015).

2.4.2 Teachers' Cognitions About TBLT

Of particular interest to the current dissertation are teachers' cognitions about tasks and task-based teaching. TBLT is an approach motivated by SLA theories that proposes that learners can develop communicative competence through meaning-focused tasks, which also provide opportunities to focus on form (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). To date, there has been limited research on teacher cognitions about TBLT (Han, 2018), especially for preservice teachers (see Table 2.3 for an overview).

Table 2.3 Studies of Teachers' Cognitions about TBLT

Study	Setting	Description of participants and context	Main findings
East (2014, 2020)	New Zealand	20 beginning teachers enrolled in a year-long teacher education program that included teaching practice	Positive beliefs about TBLT increased while doubts diminished. Concerns remained about feasibility of implementing TBLT in the future.
Ellis (2015)	New Zealand	4 masters students enrolled in a TBLT-focused course that involved task implementation and critique	Teachers' understandings of tasks increased; teachers made theory-practice connections.
Erlam (2015)	New Zealand	48 foreign-language state-school teachers (beginning and experienced) who had completed a year-long professional development program on task-supported language teaching (TSLT)	Most teachers reported positive influence of task-based course and implementing tasks; they also had concerns about resources and implementing tasks.
Erlam & Ellis (2018a, 2018b)	New Zealand	1 in-service L2 French teacher implementing input-based tasks with beginner-level learners	The teacher observed benefits of TBLT and desired to continue using tasks; however, she highlighted challenges she would face implementing TBLT.
Han (2018)	USA	3 participants in a year-long Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages Certificate Program that included a two-semester practicum	Teachers demonstrated measurable gains in their understanding of TBLT.
Ogilvie & Dun (2010)	Canada	12 preservice L2 teachers (education minors) enrolled in a semester-long L2 curriculum course	Post-course, teachers were less skeptical of and more positive about TBLT; however, few implemented TBLT in subsequent practicum.
Zhang & Luo (2018)	China	35 in-service L2 Chinese teachers at a Beijing university	Teachers' beliefs favored TBLT over a traditional approach; however, many had doubts about the practicability of implementing TBLT.
Zheng & Borg (2014)	China	3 in-service secondary-school teachers of English implementing TBLT	Teachers found benefits in TBLT, though mostly for communicative practice; teachers also expressed concerns about implementing TBLT.

As illustrated in Table 2.3, in just over the past decade, ten studies have examined teachers' cognitions about TBLT. All ten studies took place in either China, New Zealand, or North America. In half of those studies, participants were enrolled in semester- or year-long SLTE programs or courses. One of these focused specifically on TBLT (Ellis, 2015). The other four (East, 2014, 2020; Han, 2018; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010) were related to L2 curriculum and L2 teacher education in general but had a focus on TBLT. Each of the programs in these five studies incorporated a practical element, such as microteaching (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010), implementing and critiquing a task (Ellis, 2015), or practicums (East, 2014, 2020; Han, 2018). The remaining five studies were conducted with in-service teachers, though Erlam's (2015) participants had recently completed a year-long professional development course on TSLT, and some were relatively new to teaching.

All ten of the studies reported positive findings. For instance, for those participants who were enrolled in an SLTE program, following the program of the study, teachers' opinions became more favorable of TBLT (East, 2014, 2020; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010) and their understandings of TBLT increased (Ellis, 2015; Han, 2018). For practicing teachers, studies reported teachers having positive opinions of TBLT (Zheng & Borg, 2014) or beliefs aligned with TBLT principles (Zhang & Luo, 2018). Other practicing teachers reported experiencing positive impacts of implementing tasks (Erlam & Ellis, 2018a, 2018b), such as increased L2 production and more learner-centered classes (Erlam, 2015).

Most of the studies' participants also expressed concerns about the practicability of implementing TBLT. They shared concerns related to a lack of resources and the time-consuming nature of creating one's own materials (Erlam, 2015; Erlam & Ellis, 2018a, 2018b; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010; Zhang & Luo, 2018; Zheng & Borg, 2014). In addition, the need to

integrate TBLT with high stakes assessments was seen as an issue for many (East 2014, 2020; Erlam, 2015; Zhang & Luo, 2018; Zheng & Borg, 2014). Lastly, teachers had doubts about their own abilities to implement tasks (Erlam, 2015), especially considering large class sizes (Zhang & Luo, 2018; Zheng & Borg, 2014) and students' mixed abilities (Zheng & Borg, 2014). These concerns led East's (2010) participants to conclude that an eclectic approach might be preferable to TBLT.

In sum, both the preservice and the in-service teachers expressed concerns about implementing TBLT. The studies with in-service teachers evidenced positive opinions of TBLT, in some cases after an intervention or training (e.g., Erlam, 2015; Erlam & Ellis, 2018a, 2018b). The five studies with preservice L2 teachers also showed developing cognitions in a direction that became more favorable of TBLT principles or reflected deeper understandings of the approach following a SLTE program. The small sample size of studies (i.e., five) that focused on preservice L2 teachers indicates that more research is needed to fully understand preservice L2 teachers' cognition development related to TBLT. Another area of interest is what impact the L2 teachers' cognitions about TBLT have on their practices in the classroom; this topic will be covered in the next section.

2.4.3 Relationship Between Teacher Cognitions and Practice

A number of the aforementioned studies, along with others, have examined the relationships between teacher cognitions and practice. In some cases, teachers' expressed beliefs aligned with their teaching practice. For example, Hu's (2013) investigation into 30 in-service teachers' response to the TBLT innovation in China revealed that teachers' opinions about TBLT largely aligned with their implementation of the approach: 17% of the teachers held negative beliefs about TBLT and refused to implement it; 33% of the teachers held passive beliefs (i.e.,

didn't think too much about it) but applied it because they were required to; and 50% of the teachers held positive attitudes about TBLT and eagerly implemented it in their classrooms. Similarly, five months after the end of their professional development program on TSLT, all but two of Erlam's (2015) 48 participants—who largely held positive views of tasks—reported using tasks in their classes. For one of the two remaining teachers, there was no clear connection between beliefs and lack of implementation, and Erlam hypothesizes that this could have been due to the teacher's limited proficiency level; the other teacher, as he self-reported, lacked a desire to change his practices after years of teaching with a different approach. Of Zheng and Borg's (2014) three focal participants, one persisted in implementing TBLT due to her belief in the value of its principles despite the fact that it created classroom management problems for her.

In other cases, discrepancies existed between teachers' stated beliefs and their practice. For instance, Ogilvie and Dunn's (2010) participants expressed favorable opinions of TBLT following their curriculum course but did not implement TBLT in their subsequent teaching practicum. The authors found that this was due to a number of reasons, including a lack of resources and support from mentors, as well as differences in cultural norms. East's (2014, 2020) participants, whose opinions of TBLT were generally more favorable after a year-long teacher education program, noted that their ability to implement the innovation would depend to some extent on the local teaching context of the school where they would be working.

In Zheng and Borg's (2014) study, there were tensions between teachers' beliefs, or differences between their beliefs and practices, for two of the three focal participants. For example, discrepancies between Mr. Yang's beliefs, namely, his theoretical approval of TBLT activities for promoting communication and the importance he gave to grammar instruction and exam preparation, meant that although he expressed positive dispositions toward TBLT, he did

not implement the approach to a large extent. Despite believing in the potential of tasks for teaching multiple language skills, Ms. Ma's concerns about class sizes and mixed levels led her not to embrace the new TBLT curriculum. Additionally, her strong belief in the need for explicit, preemptive grammar work meant that her teaching approach did not resemble TBLT.

For Zhang and Luo's (2018) participants, there were strong dissonances between their expressed beliefs and teaching practices. The authors believe that the teachers' practical beliefs (i.e., about what would work in the classroom) exerted a stronger influence than their technical beliefs on their instructional decisions (Ellis, 1997). Phipps and Borg (2009) had similar findings in their study on teachers' stated beliefs and practices regarding grammar teaching in Turkey. Although overall teachers' stated beliefs aligned with their instructional decisions, tensions arose when that was not the case. For instance, sometimes teachers' beliefs about SLA (e.g., the idea that using language as a tool for communication is the best approach) were suppressed by what teachers believed was better for motivating their students or for classroom management. Phipps and Borg suggest that where tensions in beliefs arose, those more grounded in practical experience prevailed, while those beliefs that had not been experienced firsthand were not acted upon.

To sum up, some teacher cognition studies have found alignment between teachers' beliefs about TBLT and their teaching practices, whether this reflects negative opinions and thus rejection of TBLT, or positive attitudes and its implementation. In other studies, researchers have found dissonances between beliefs and practice, often characterized by a lack of full adoption of TBLT practices, despite stated agreement with its principles. These discrepancies may reflect teachers' concerns about the practicality of implementing a task-based approach, despite positive experiences in SLTE programs focusing on TBLT. Considering that only two of the recent

studies reviewed about teachers' cognitions and TBLT were focused on preservice L2 teachers, the area of inquiry of teacher cognition as it pertains to preservice teachers and the impact of SLTE programs incorporating TBLT warrants further investigation.

2.5 Tasks, TBLT, and Teacher Education

TBLT is one teaching approach that was considered potentially a good fit for students of the summer camp that was the focus of the SA program researched in this dissertation. In a 2018 pilot study conducted with preservice teachers on the same SA TEFL course that is the context of this dissertation, three topics related to instructed SLA were selected for their potential utility for preservice teachers and covered during predeparture coursework: tasks and TBLT, corrective feedback, and focus on form (D'Arienzo & Kim, 2019). Participants in the pilot study asserted that the predeparture sessions on tasks were by far the most interesting and most applicable to their teaching practice in Mexico. Considering this and the fact that teacher education is an aspect of TBLT for which leading scholars in the field have called for further investigation, TBLT and tasks were chosen as the key area of inquiry for further research from a teacher cognition perspective. Because tasks and TBLT were the focus of much of the predeparture instruction and were subsequently a frequent topic of participants' reflections and interviews, the following section first provides background information on tasks and TBLT. It next reports on the implementation of TBLT to date. The section then addresses the challenges in teacher education for TBLT and previous findings related to this topic.

2.5.1 What are tasks?

Tasks—the construct at the heart of task-based language teaching—have been variously defined by a number of scholars. As evident in Table 2.4, those definitions encompass a range from the more general sense of task (i.e., something that people do; Long, 1985) to a more

narrowly defined concept describing an activity that takes place in a classroom (e.g., Nunan, 2004). Tasks can be viewed as a plan for an event that will occur (Ellis, 2003) or as a description of the activity itself that takes place (e.g., Bygate, 2016; Skehan, 1998).

Table 2.4 Definitions of Task

Reference	Definition
Long (1985, p. 89)	A task is a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Tasks are things people do in everyday life—painting a fence, dressing a child, or borrowing a library book.
Skehan (1998, p. 95)	A task is an activity in which meaning is primary; there is some communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome.
Bygate, Skehan, & Swain (2001, p. 11)	A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with an emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective.
Ellis (2003, p. 16)	A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources (…). A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. …
Nunan (2004, p. 9)	A task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning. The intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form.
Samuda & Bygate (2008, p. 69)	A task is a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistics outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or product or both.
Bygate (2016, p. 381)	Tasks are classroom activities in which learners use language 'pragmatically', that is, 'to do things', with the overriding aim of learning language.

Despite the variety in the definitions, as discussed with the participants of this dissertation study in predeparture workshops, there are a number of features that the definitions have in common, such as tasks' primary focus on meaning, their relationship to real-world

language use, their pragmatic, non-linguistic outcome, and their aim at promoting language learning. While not a definition, Willis and Willis (2007) provide a checklist (see Figure 2.1) that can help teachers and researchers consider how task-like a given activity is. They note, "The more confidently we can answer *yes* to each of the questions the more task-like the activity" (p. 13).

1. Does the activity engage learners' interest?
2. Is there a primary focus on meaning?
3. Is there an outcome beyond the use of language?
4. Is success judged in terms of achieving the outcome?
5. Is task completion a priority?
6. Does the activity relate to real-world activities?

Figure 2.1 Task-like Checklist (Adapted from Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 13)

Just as researchers have worked to define what a task is, scholars have also classified tasks according to different criteria. These distinctions are useful for teachers and materials designers to consider. The classifications of tasks are not mutually exclusive, and tasks may be characterized as fitting into a number of categories. The following taxonomy of tasks was presented to and analyzed by the preservice teachers in the current study.

1. *Real-world tasks*, or *target tasks*, refer to the type of tasks that learners need to complete in their real lives (Long, 1985; Nunan, 2004). Tasks that correspond to a real-world activity (e.g., filling out an immigration form) achieve situational authenticity and are considered real-world tasks (Ellis, 2003). *Pedagogic tasks*, on the other hand, may achieve interactional authenticity by replicating language use

that corresponds to communicative behaviors that are involved in performing real-world tasks, yet the activity in the task itself (e.g., spotting the differences in two pictures) is limited to use in the L2 classroom (Ellis, 2003).

2. *Closed tasks* are those in which there is one correct answer, whereas *open tasks* do not have a predetermined response and learners have the freedom to produce whatever outcome they see fit (Willis & Willis, 2007).
3. According to Ellis (2003), all tasks have some kind of gap that motivates learners to close it, and thus, utilize language and complete the task. Prabhu (1987) identified three types of gap tasks: *Information gaps* require learners to work together and exchange information in order to complete a task; *reasoning gaps* necessitate deriving new information through processes such as inferencing, reasoning, and identifying patterns; *opinion gaps* involve articulating personal preferences in response to a given context.
4. *Unfocused tasks* are not designed with having learners use a specific form in mind (Ellis, 2003); rather, they promote opportunities for general language use, including a range of grammatical structures and lexical items (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019). *Focused tasks*, while not specifying to learners that they must use specific grammatical or lexical forms, are designed to necessitate the processing (receptive or productive) of particular forms as learners perform a task and meet task criteria (Ellis, 2003).
5. *Convergent tasks* require learners to agree on a solution to a problem or agree on a selection from among various options, while *divergent tasks* allow for learners

to maintain different viewpoints and may require learners to defend contrasting positions (Ellis, 2003).

2.5.2 What is TBLT?

TBLT is a contemporary approach to L2 teaching that is known for its goal of developing students' ability to communicate in meaningful interactions using the target language (TL) through the use of tasks (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Nunan, 2004; Willis & Willis, 2007). TBLT has been shown to promote L2 learning (Long, 2016) and is both informed and supported by SLA research findings (Ellis, 2009; Long, 2015, 2016; Nunan, 1991). Some scholars describe TBLT as an extension, or development, of communicative language teaching (Ellis, 2017b; Faez & Tavakoli, 2019). Long (2000) describes TBLT as an approach that attempts to compensate for the short-comings of both traditional, form-focused approaches—which can lead to a one-size-fits-all approach, boring lessons, and low learner motivation, and whose grammar-based syllabi are not based on research that supports the order of L2 acquisition—and purely communicative, or meaning-based, approaches—which maintain that grammar should be learned implicitly and incidentally, though research has shown that this may not be an effective way for learners to acquire an L2.

Many scholars agree that TBLT begins with a needs analysis of learners' specific needs for L2 use and designs a syllabus around those needs; the course is then constructed around the use of pedagogic tasks that build students' abilities to perform real-world target tasks (Long, 2016; Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Other scholars (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Skehan, 1998) feel that a course does not depend on identifying target tasks as a starting point and rather may be designed around pedagogic tasks that match students' developing proficiency (Ellis, 2017a). The underlying belief of TBLT is that drawing learners' attention to grammatical forms, vocabulary,

and so forth as they arise during L2 use will promote *noticing* (Schmidt, 1993) and allow learners to process those forms at a time when they have the metalinguistic awareness needed to understand them (Long, 2000; Long & Crookes, 1992). In addition to noticing, TBLT is aligned with a number of additional SLA principles, such as its ability to provide learners with comprehensible input and opportunities for negotiation for meaning (Long, 1996); the resulting learner output (Swain, 1995); the potential for tasks to focus on each of the three aspects of learning from the cognitive perspective, namely, complexity, accuracy, and fluency (Ellis, 2005); and TBLT's ability to promote both learner autonomy (Shehadeh, 2007) and collaborative interactions that lead to increased L2 learning (Kim, 2008; Lantolf, 1996).

The term 'task-based' is sometimes used as an umbrella term to refer to different approaches to teaching that utilize tasks (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Distinguishing among these approaches can be helpful in order to understand how tasks are used in a language course or program. Three approaches can be differentiated:

1. In TBLT (or what some scholars would refer to as the strong form of communicative language teaching, e.g., Ellis, 2003, 2017a), as described above, tasks are the central unit of instruction, and they drive classroom activity (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). The course syllabus is designed around tasks that meet the specific needs of a group of learners, rather than by a previous selection of linguistic elements (Bygate, 2016). Assessment is also conducted in terms of task performance (Samuda & Bygate, 2008).
2. In task-referenced language teaching, tasks are chosen that represent benchmarks that students are required to reach during a language course (Bygate, 2016). This approach does not dictate a certain methodology; rather, tasks are used primarily

for assessment purposes but do not necessarily play a role in classroom activities (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019; Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

3. In TSLT, tasks are a key element in classroom activities but not the only element; they can be used to enact a structure-based syllabus, to enrich it, or to provide further learning opportunities (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Tasks are often used as self-contained activities, not necessarily tied to other pedagogic procedures utilized during a language course (Bygate, 2016). Lastly, tasks may be used to assess learners but are not the defining element of assessment (Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

When taking a task-based approach, a teacher or course designer should consider both the composition of each individual lesson and the series of lessons that comprise the course. A number of models have been proposed for the design of task-based lessons; however, one common feature is that the task cycle consists of three phases: a pre-task phase, a main-task, or on-task, phase, and a post-task phase (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019; Ellis & Shintani, 2014). Some of the elements that are commonly included in each phase are presented in Table 2.5. Task phases and the responsibilities of the teacher during each phase are important considerations when planning task-based lessons.

Table 2.5 Task Phases and Their Components

Phase	Component	Description
Pre-task phase	Modelling performance of the task	Students view an example of others performing the task.
	Pre-teaching or reviewing language	The teacher presents or activates recollection of language that may be useful for task performance.
	Schema-developing	The teacher activates or expands on students' knowledge of the topic of the task.
	Brainstorming strategies	Students brainstorm strategies to perform the task.

Main-task phase	Task performance	Students carry out the task.
	Explicit instruction	The teacher may take time out to address language issues as they arise.
Post-task phase	Repeat performance	Students repeat the task, possibly under different conditions (e.g., with a new partner, with a shorter time limit).
	Report	Students report to the class on their task performance.
	Language work	The teacher highlights language issues that arose during task performance; students may self-correct errors or work on language exercises related to those issues.

In addition to planning the phases of a task-based lesson, teachers should also consider task sequencing. Tasks can be linked thematically, and one task may serve as preparation, or to prime learners, for a successive task (Willis & Willis, 2007). Leading TBLT scholars have pointed out the difficulty in determining task complexity, which should likely guide the order of tasks incorporated in a syllabus (Ellis, 2017a; Long, 2016). Some factors that can influence task complexity include the input medium (e.g., text or pictorial input is easier to process than oral input); lexical and syntactic complexity; cognitive complexity, such as the amount of information to process; the level of learners' familiarity with the topic; the number of demands incorporated into a task (e.g., simply following a route on a map, versus identifying and following a route); and outcome complexity (i.e., tasks with straightforward outcomes versus ones requiring multi-faceted judgements; Ellis, 2003). Some researchers have proposed models to determine task complexity, such as Robinson's (2007) Triadic Componential Framework, yet given the number of factors to consider, there is as of yet no simple way to easily determine the level of complexity of a task. While future research may improve our ability to assess task complexity (Long, 2016), practitioners can meanwhile draw on their experience and intuition

when determining an appropriate sequence of tasks for their particular group of learners (Ellis, 2017a).

An additional important consideration is the role of the teacher in TBLT. While traditionally the L2 teacher has often been viewed as a language-knower and the individual who imparts that knowledge to their students, when taking a task-based approach, the teacher is also responsible for promoting authentic language use and managing discourse (Willis & Willis, 2007). Ellis (2017b) notes, "TBLT requires the teacher to perform a variety of roles including those of manager and facilitator of communication but also the traditional roles of corrector and provider of new language" (p. 114). In TBLT, the teacher's primary role has been defined as selecting appropriate tasks, while additional responsibilities include monitoring students' task performance, intervening with form-focused instruction when needed, and managing the classroom in order to allow students to work on the selected tasks (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019; Willis & Willis, 2007). The role of the teacher in TBLT is often described as that of a guide or facilitator who motivates students' participation in tasks. Samuda (2001) highlights the interplay of the teacher with tasks, as he or she 'leads from behind,' channeling students' attention and guiding form/meaning mappings during task performance. Van den Branden (2006b) notes that the teacher acts as "a true interactional partner, negotiating meaning and content with the students, eliciting and encouraging their output, focusing on form when appropriate and offering them a rich, relevant and communicative input" (p. 217). Van den Branden also offers a breakdown of the roles according to task stages: as the person who selects content, plans the focus of classroom activities, and plans the task-as-workplan in the pre-task phase (2016); as the motivator, organizer, and conversational partner and supporter in the during-task phase (2009);

and in the post-task phase, the person who leads discussions on issues that came up, focuses on form, discusses strategies, summarizes the lesson, and assesses students' performance (2016).

2.5.3 Implementation of TBLT and Teachers' Receptiveness

TBLT represents a major innovation for many teachers (East, 2014; Long, 2016), with its emphasis on holistic teaching (Ellis, 2017a), the philosophy that L2 acquisition can occur incidentally through meaningful use of language, rather than solely through formal instruction (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010; Prabhu, 1987), and the belief that students should act as doers or users of the language, rather than learners (Ellis, 2017a; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). As with any innovation, adopting new ideas and practices can be a challenge, and TBLT must have the approval and enthusiasm of teachers if it is to be successful (Van den Branden, 2016b). The essence of TBLT, as a learner-centered approach to language teaching, can contrast with more traditional, teacher-dominated approaches which are still the norm in many parts of the world (Van den Branden et al., 2009).

Tasks have been implemented in a number of countries around the world with a variety of L2s and learning contexts. For example, they were used in English as foreign language (EFL) classes in secondary schools as part of a three-year national research project in Germany (Müller-Hartmann & Schocker, 2017). In New Zealand, modern FL teachers in secondary schools have received "strong encouragement, at official levels" to implement tasks, as they align with the learner-centered, experiential objectives of the country's revised school curriculum (East, 2020, p. 2). TBLT has been adopted as the dominant teaching approach in the Flemish-speaking region of Belgium (Van den Branden, 2006a), and it is increasingly being endorsed in contexts such as Hong Kong (see Carless, 2004, 2012) and mainland China, where a national curriculum initiative mandated the use of TBLT (Chen & Wright, 2017; Hu, 2013; Zheng &

Borg, 2014). In Japan, Shintani (2016) has implemented a task-based approach with young, beginner learners through the use of input tasks. In addition, TBLT was used with recently developed conversation language archives to teach adults Ojibwe, an endangered Native American language spoken in Canada and the upper Midwest of the United States (Hermes & King, 2019), thus providing an example of a task-based initiative for language revitalization.

There have been mixed reactions from teachers, as well as varying degrees of success in the implementation of TBLT around the world, even in contexts where its use is officially mandated. One example of successful implementation of TBLT is the region-wide adoption of TBLT at the primary and secondary levels, as well as for adult education, in Flanders (Van den Branden, 2006a). McDonough and Chaikitmongkol (2007) found that teachers' impressions of a year-long, task-based EFL course at a Thai university were quite positive. As noted above, five months or more after a year-long training program focusing on TBLT in New Zealand, nearly 96% of Erlam's (2015) 48 teacher participants were implementing tasks. As previously described, one of Zheng and Borg's (2014) participants in China was optimistic about implementing TBLT and persevered in her attempts, while the other two teachers resisted the TBLT innovation due to contrasting beliefs. Hu's (2013) findings with in-service teachers in China were also mixed, with participants' reactions ranging from denial and resistance (17%) to acceptance and active implementation (50%). In a primary school study in China, Deng (2011) found that four teachers were using more activities that focused on form than on meaning, although one of the four embraced a more communicative approach.

There can also be a disconnect between teachers' stated beliefs about TBLT and their classroom practices. Zhang and Luo's (2018) findings indicated that although teachers in China stated that they intended to act on TBLT principles, their classroom activities were decidedly

non-task-like. Similarly, in their study of teacher beliefs and practices regarding TBLT in a Chinese secondary school, Chen and Wright (2017) found that although teachers expressed positive opinions about TBLT principles, there was a marked contrast with their classroom practices, especially for beginner learners. Indeed, teachers may adapt TBLT to their particular context due to a variety of constraints (i.e., localized TBLT, Kim, Jung, & Tracy-Ventura, 2017). For example, Carless (2004) found that three primary teachers in Hong Kong reinterpreted TBLT to align with their beliefs and contextual constraints, essentially using tasks as language practice activities.

Teachers have a number of concerns regarding the feasibility of implementing TBLT, such as how to integrate tasks with a prescribed syllabus, viability of tasks for beginning level students, how and when to give feedback on task performance, and so on (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). In certain contexts, such as East Asia, concerns such as classroom management, avoidance of English, incompatibility with public assessment demands, and conflict with educational values and traditions have been raised (Littlewood, 2007; Zheng & Borg, 2014). A recent meta-analysis provides evidence that many of these concerns may be unfounded and that TBLT can be an effective pedagogical approach in a variety of contexts for students of diverse proficiency levels (Bryfonski & McKay, 2019). One reason teachers may have difficulty implementing TBLT is that they do not always have a clear understanding of what constitutes a task (Carless, 2004; Erlam, 2016). Furthermore, a range of interpretations regarding TBLT exist, such as whether course syllabi must be organized around tasks (as in pure TBLT), or whether tasks can be integrated into a more traditional, synthetic syllabus as a means of providing learners with opportunities to practice their L2 (as in TSLT; Ellis, 2018a); whether tasks can have a linguistic focus (focused tasks) or not (unfocused tasks); and whether there is a place for

pedagogic tasks (those which promote authentic language use but do not correspond to real life events) in teaching, or whether all tasks should be real-world tasks (which aim at both interactional and situational authenticity; Ellis, 2018a). One way to address these topics and provide teachers with information which they can use to make informed decisions that are most applicable to their teaching context is through teacher education and training.

2.5.4 Teacher Education and Training for TBLT

Two leading TBLT scholars (Ellis, 2017a; Long, 2016) have published position papers on what they feel constitute real issues (i.e., those stemming from genuine concern of individuals within the TBLT community) and non-issues (i.e., those which may be due to misunderstandings of the approach or criticism from its detractors) regarding TBLT. There has been a recent surge of empirical research on TBLT motivated by a wide range of SLA theories, including sociocultural theory, conversation analysis, dynamic systems theory, language socialization, and systemic functional linguistics (Jackson & Burch, 2017). Thanks to the volume of empirical studies and continuing work to clarify the focus of TBLT by scholars like Ellis and Long, many issues surrounding TBLT have been resolved. However, several real concerns, such as how to determine task complexity and whether task abilities are transferable, remain. Of particular interest to this dissertation is the third real issue identified by both scholars, which Ellis identifies as perhaps the most serious problem: teacher education and how it can help teachers overcome the difficulties they face in TBLT. Given teachers' influence in classroom events, their approval and enthusiasm are fundamental to the success of TBLT (Van den Branden, 2016b). Despite the critical position they hold, teachers' role in TBLT is understudied (Han, 2018; Van den Branden, 2016b), and there is little research on TBLT teacher education or training (Ellis, 2017a; Han,

2018; Long, 2016). More practitioner-focused studies are needed, alongside experimental research, to better understand what works in the task-based classroom (East, 2020).

A limited number of studies have investigated TBLT in preservice teacher education programs. As noted above, Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) focused their research on a curriculum course for L2 education minors. Taking a constructivist approach, the authors led students to analyze pedagogical theories and develop skills for making sound instructional decisions, with the belief that this approach would make them more amenable to an innovative approach such as TBLT. As noted above, although teachers were more positively disposed toward TBLT following the course, for a variety of reasons, they did not implement tasks in the practicum that immediately followed the course.

East's (2014) beginning teachers were enrolled in a one-year program with a dedicated focus on TBLT at a tertiary institution. They were concurrently enrolled in a double-semester, theory-focused methodology course and a practical-focused specialist course in their chosen L2. Coursework included writing critical reflections on readings, which the teachers related to their current experiences; lectures; discussions; and the planning, implementation, and reflection on the success of at least one task. In addition, each novice teacher worked with an experienced specialist teacher who conducted observations and provided feedback on lesson plans. As previously described, teachers expressed more positive opinions about TBLT following their year of education, but they qualified those opinions by highlighting the role that their particular teaching context would play in their decision of whether or not to implement TBLT. A comparative study conducted by East (2020) supported his earlier findings and argued that positive results of experimental studies did not necessarily reflect changes in classroom practices.

Ellis's (2015) participants conducted action research as part of a course focused on TBLT while enrolled in a Language Teaching and Learning master's program at a New Zealand university. The students were teachers whose experience ranged from many years of teaching to none at all. During the course, students implemented and critiqued a task of their own design. They based their evaluation of whether the task 'worked' according to student motivation, student performance (i.e., whether students performed as expected), and evidence of L2 learning or development. Following this micro-evaluation of their tasks, students reported an increased understanding of tasks overall; thus, Ellis concluded that the undertaking was successful in helping his students make the theory-practice connection he hoped they would achieve.

Han's (2018) study presented a quantitative analysis of the writings of three teachers enrolled in a one-year Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages course that promoted TBLT and included a two-semester practicum. The texts Han analyzed came from teachers' journals written during the second semester; during this semester, the practicum involved completing both pedagogic and real-world tasks and culminated in the design of TBLT-compatible units of instruction. Han's automated analysis, which focused on aspects such as cognitive processes, semantic complexity, and emotional tone, revealed that teachers demonstrated measurable gains in their understanding of TBLT.

In the year-long professional development program described by Erlam (2016), teachers were provided with a number of definitions of tasks but gave prominence to Ellis's (2003) four criteria (i.e., a primary focus on meaning; existence of a gap; learners relying on their own resources; a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome). They also participated in lectures and completed a number of tasks throughout the program, evaluating them against task criteria. Lastly, similar to East's (2014, 2020) and Ellis's (2015) participants, the teachers in Erlam's

study completed a 'Learning Inquiry' in which they planned, taught, and evaluated a task-based lesson. Erlam found that the hardest criterion for teachers to meet in their task design was that learners use their own resources; the second most difficult aspect was the inclusion of a gap. However, 82% of tasks fulfilled three or four of the four criteria.

Overall, the results of the studies reviewed are largely positive, showing increased understanding of tasks and TBLT following teacher education or training. However, results are sometimes moderate, and authors often note the need for continued education and support for teachers implementing a task-based approach (East, 2020; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010; Van den Branden, 2006b). Researchers note the need for lots of modeling in teacher education (Han, 2018) and for teacher training programs to "teach what you preach" (Van den Branden, 2006b, p. 222), or in other words, incorporate plenty of tasks. Researchers also suggest that, more than just receiving a list of behaviors that they should follow in order to implement TBLT, teachers need to develop a thorough understanding of tasks and how to implement them (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Erlam, 2016; Han, 2018). Teachers need a variety of opportunities to learn about and engage with TBLT (Carless, 2012; Chan, 2012; Zheng & Borg, 2014). Finally, teachers should be exposed to both TBLT and TSLT in order to be able to make informed decisions about which approach works best for their context (Han, 2018).

2.6 The Current Study

The current dissertation responds to the need for further research in the principal areas presented in Figure 1.1. First, in terms of SLTE, researchers have called for more studies on short training programs (Borg, 2006; Choi, 2017), on programs promoting the use of TBLT (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010), and on the ways TBLT can be successfully introduced in those programs (Ellis, 2017; Erlam, 2015; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). In addition, scholars call for more

inquiries into the ways teacher education shapes teaching practices as well as beliefs (Ellis, 2011; Horii, 2015). Second, as short-term SA programs become a more common component of SLTE and teacher training programs (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Wernicke, 2010), there is a need for studies that investigate SA programs designed for L2 teacher development, particularly those that focus on teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their professional development (Gleeson & Tait, 2012) and those that include a practical teaching element (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006). Third, the current dissertation addresses a number of under-researched areas in the L2 teacher cognition literature: pre-service L2 teachers' cognitions in a greater variety of contexts (Borg, 2006), in longitudinal studies (Borg, 2003; Debreli, 2012; Song, 2015), and through qualitative studies (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Finally, TBLT scholars call for more research into the role of the teacher (Han, 2018; Van den Branden, 2016b) and for studies that examine teacher training and how it can help teachers overcome problems implementing TBLT (Ellis, 2017; Han, 2018; Long, 2016).

As described previously, the SA context provides an opportune setting for preservice L2 teachers to gain practical experience and reflect critically on their experience (Trent, 2011), benefitting from opportunities for human mediation, which is critical for their professional development, thanks to the presence of their peers and supervisors (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). The short, intensive SA experience is ideal for investigating preservice L2 teachers' cognition development (Borg, 2006), particularly in relation to teaching approaches and TBLT, an innovative approach for which scholars seek a better understanding of the role of teacher training (Ellis, 2017; Long, 2016). In order to address the aforementioned research gaps, a longitudinal multi-case study was conducted. The dissertation investigated the previously described issues in the context of a group of U.S. preservice EFL teachers who participated in a TEFL course with a two-week SA component that incorporated daily teaching practice. The research questions are

presented in order of their scope, from the narrowest (at the microgenetic level) to the broadest (on an ontogenetic scale):

1. In their teaching practice on the short-term SA component of a TEFL course, to what extent did preservice L2 teachers:
    a. implement activities that met the task criteria studied during the predeparture period;
    b. implement other aspects of a task-based approach studied during the predeparture period, such as task phases and task sequencing?
2. How do preservice L2 teachers' cognitions about (a) teaching approaches, (b) tasks, and (c) the role of the teacher change throughout a TEFL course with a short-term SA component incorporating daily teaching practice and during the following semester?
3. What is the impact of practice teaching during the short-term SA component of a TEFL course for preservice L2 teachers from the teachers' perspective in terms of:
    a. perceived benefits of the SA program;
    b. aspects of the SA program that facilitated their learning;
    c. influence on their future trajectories?

3 METHOD

The current chapter begins with an explanation of the approach to the dissertation study. This is followed by a description of the context of the study—the instructional context, including the SA portion, the individuals involved, and the reasons for selecting the focal participants. Next, the means and procedures by which data were collected and analyzed are explained in detail. The chapter concludes by recognizing the importance of the trustworthiness of a largely qualitative study and describing the means by which this dissertation aims to achieve that goal.

3.1 Case Study Approach

The goal of this dissertation was to investigate preservice L2 teachers' use of tasks during and after a SA program incorporating daily teaching practice, their developing cognitions about teaching approaches, tasks, and the role of the teacher throughout a TEFL course with a SA component incorporating daily teaching practice, and the perceived benefits of a SA teaching experience for preservice L2 teachers, the elements of the SA program they felt facilitated their learning, and the impact of such an experience on those teachers' future trajectories. In order to achieve an in-depth understanding of the impact of the TEFL course on teachers' cognitions and behaviors in the particular context of a SA teaching experience in Mexico, a largely qualitative, multi-case study was conducted (Casanave, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). A case study approach is particularly fitting when investigating a contemporary phenomenon in its real-world context, with multiple variables and data sources to consider (Yin, 2014). Given the complex interaction of participants in their unique context, it is not intended that the findings of this case study should be comparable to other SA teaching programs for preservice L2 teachers; rather, the goal is to provide a detailed portrayal of the experiences of the focal cases of this study. While the aim is to give "thick descriptions" (Geertz, 1973) of three individual cases—in this case,

three preservice L2 teachers—consideration will also be given to whether there are similarities that link the three individuals' experiences of the TEFL course and SA experience. The main focus of the multi-case study is that of the focal case participants' cognitions and teaching, and much of the data (e.g., interview data, written reflections) are from the perspective of the participants themselves. These, however, are enriched through my own observations and participation with the teachers, as well as the perspectives of others (e.g., supervisors and other teachers) who were involved in the TEFL course and SA program. Following are descriptions of the instructional and SA contexts.

3.2 Instructional Context and SA Program

The TEFL course that was the basis of the dissertation research was a three-credit course at a large research university in the southeastern United States entitled Selected Topics in Applied Linguistics: Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Mexico, Summer 2019. The focus of the course was to give the students—preservice teachers—practice in designing and teaching EFL lessons. The course was open to undergraduate and master's students, as well as post-baccalaureate students completing a TEFL certificate. The course took a constructivist approach, incorporating students' prior knowledge and encouraging explicit analysis of personal practical knowledge and critical analysis of theoretical knowledge (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). The director of the SA program, who was also the instructor of record for the course, was a Professor of Applied Linguistics & ESL from the university. I was involved from the planning stages, helping to choose topics for the predeparture class meetings, and then helped implement those sessions, as described below. In addition, two master's students with experience teaching and training teachers in EFL and ESL, who were also enrolled in the course, acted as teaching assistants during the program.

3.2.1 Predeparture Period

During the predeparture period, the participants learned about topics such as classroom management, lesson planning, and teaching young learners. They reviewed or were introduced to a number of TEFL approaches and methods, including TBLT, communicative language teaching (CLT), and the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) method (see Table 3.1 for a list of topics covered and tasks included). Given the limited number of class meetings (four), a flipped classroom approach was adopted in order to maximize the use of class time (Hung, 2017). As much as possible, students covered course content outside of class through selected readings and brief video lectures, which I made or selected from videos available online (see Appendix D for homework assignments). This allowed students to work at their own pace while learning about concepts and freed up class time for collaborative, deeper thinking activities. Flipped classrooms have been found to have positive effects on students' learning attitudes (Hung, 2017) and to produce interactions involving deeper information processing (Kim, Park, et al., 2017). In addition, flipped classrooms align with constructivist theory, placing students at the center of learning and making them active constructors of knowledge (Xu & Shi, 2018). Following Van den Branden's (2006b) recommendation to "teach what you preach" (p. 222), during class meetings, the preservice teachers completed a number of tasks. They also evaluated L2 activities, debated the merits of various teaching approaches, and analyzed and gave feedback on classmates' lesson plans. In addition, teachers participated in microteaching sessions in which they implemented activities or tasks they had designed, gave their peers feedback, and received feedback from peers and supervisors (i.e., the course director or teaching assistants). Finally, the teachers planned their lessons for the SA trip to Mexico and received feedback from the course director and teaching assistants.

Table 3.1 Topics and Tasks Included in Predeparture Coursework

Class	Topics covered	Tasks included	Additional topics covered in homework
1	Introduction to/ Review of TEFL methods & approaches Defining tasks	Compare the pros, cons, and effectiveness in promoting L2 learning for three lesson plans following different approaches Complete a real-world information/opinion gap task in pairs	SLA concepts and TBLT Classroom management Task types and features TBLT background
2	Form-focused vs. meaning-focused teaching approaches Ways different approaches promote L2 acquisition Defining "task"; task criteria Types of tasks Lesson elements & lesson planning	Compare and contrast planning lessons from different teaching approaches Evaluate past lesson plans used on SA program	Task phases Lesson planning The teacher's responsibilities in task-based lessons
3	Reviewing task criteria and definitions Review & expand: types of tasks	Complete a one-way, input-based task Analyze the task-likeness of L2 activities Categorize previously performed tasks by type	Roles of the teacher Varieties of task-based teaching
4	Roles of the teacher Task sequencing	Debate the best approach (task-based vs. task-supported vs. task-referenced) for given contexts Evaluate utility of tasks for promoting L2 production in different contexts	Task sequencing

3.2.2 SA Component

Following the predeparture period, students spent two weeks in a large city in northern-central Mexico during the summer semester. During this time, teachers either stayed in a hotel with the other participants or with a homestay family. While abroad, participants taught at an

English-language summer camp offered by a non-profit language institute, with approximately 300 students attending the camp overall, divided into classes made up of 10 to 15 students. The students ranged in age from five to fourteen years old. Many of them attended the language institute during the year, participating in bilingual and full immersion programs, while other students were members of the community. The camp was arranged for the period immediately following the academic school year, during which time the school staff and administrators were still on campus, making it an ideal time for the camp to be held. Because the school in Mexico helped to fund the program for the preservice teachers, a two-week time period was chosen as the length for the camp since it was feasible financially and would provide an intensive opportunity for the preservice L2 teachers to experience EFL teaching.

After a half-day orientation upon arrival in Mexico, the teachers taught from Monday through Friday for two weeks, with an optional weekend trip to a nearby mountain village. Each teacher was responsible for teaching one lesson to four classes each day, as well as leading a homeroom period (see Table 3.2 for the daily schedule). Teachers planned one lesson and modified it as needed according to the variation in students' ages and the levels of the classes they taught (e.g., first and second graders). During the homeroom period, teachers and their students got to know each other, did English-language activities and games, and planned a short presentation (e.g., skit, song, science experiment) to perform on the last day of camp. During one of the five weekdays, each teacher acted as a 'floater' and observed other classes, assisting other teachers if needed. This allowed the teachers to observe different age groups of students and other teachers' approaches and classroom management techniques.

Table 3.2 Daily Schedule on SA

Time	Students	Teachers
7:30 – 8:00 am	Arrival	Arrival

8:00 – 8:50 am	Class 1	Class 1
9:00 – 9:50 am	Class 2	Class 2
9:50 – 10:20 am	Recess	Breakfast
10:20 – 11:10 am	Class 3	Class 3
11:20 am – 12:10 pm	Class 4	Class 4
12:20 – 1:00 pm	Homeroom	Homeroom
1:00 – 1:30 pm	Physical education	Whole-group feedback session
1:30 – 2:00 pm		Small-group reflection/feedback session
2:00 – 2:30 pm	Pick-up	Lunch

Each teacher was observed daily by the program director, myself, or one of the two teaching assistants. At the end of each day, teachers received individual written feedback and participated in both a whole-group feedback session led by the director and small-group feedback/reflection sessions moderated by either the director, myself, or a teaching assistant. The small groups were determined based on the age and level of students, so that all teachers in a group taught the same groups (i.e., four classes) of students of a similar age. This allowed teachers to talk with other teachers teaching the same groups of students and gave them the chance to not only reflect on their teaching that day but also discuss challenges they had faced. All in all, the teachers spent from approximately 7:30 am to 2:30 pm each day at school. They were free in the afternoons to spend time with their host families or their peers, explore the local surroundings, and prepare their lessons for the following days. They were also responsible for writing a brief reflection about their teaching experience each day. The final day of teaching included a closing ceremony for families of the students.

3.2.3 Post-SA Period

After returning home, students compiled a portfolio including their lesson plans and materials (as they had implemented them), their daily written reflections, a final reflection paper about their overall experience, and the daily written feedback they received about their teaching.

3.3 Participants

3.3.1 Information about the Cohort

The participants were 22 students (16 female, six male) from a large research university located in the southeastern United States. All 22 students were enrolled in the 2019 summer TEFL course with SA component in Mexico described above. The participants included undergraduate students (11), graduate students (nine), and post-baccalaureate students (two). The undergraduate students had a variety of majors, including Applied Linguistics & ESL (9), biology (one), and English (one). Eight of the graduate students were pursuing a Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics & ESL; one graduate student was pursuing a Master of Arts in Education; and the two post-baccalaureate students were completing a master's-level TEFL certificate program offered through the Department of Applied Linguistics & ESL. The students' academic backgrounds ranged from having taken only one course related to applied linguistics or teaching English as a foreign/second language (e.g., Introduction to English Linguistics) to having taken more than 10, including courses such as Approaches to Teaching Second/Foreign Languages, SLA, and TEFL 1. The participants' backgrounds ranged from those who had no teaching or tutoring experience to those who had already gained some experience in the classroom.

The average age for the undergraduate students was 20.45 years (ranging from 19 to 23 years old), while the average age for the graduate students was 30.22 years (ranging from 21 to 46 years old), and the two post-baccalaureate students were 64 and 65 years old. Twenty-one of the participants indicated that English was their first language, while one participant's first language was Korean. In addition, two participants spoke Spanish as an additional first language, one participant also spoke Somali as a first language, and one participant also spoke Vietnamese as a first language.

3.3.2 Rationale for Choice of Focal Participants

Three focal participants were chosen in accordance with the idea of maximum variation sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The one male and two female focal participants reflect the overall ratio of male (six) to female (16) participants. Additionally, two of the focal participants planned to teach EFL, while one saw teaching EFL as a possible future endeavor but not a primary career goal. Importantly, the focal participants represent the range of academic preparation of the cohort, as described below, such that common patterns emerging from the experiences of these participants with varied backgrounds would be of particular value in capturing core aspects of the SA teaching phenomenon (Patton, 2002). An additional consideration was the hope that the three focal participants might go on to teach ESL during the semester following SA. In addition, the focal participants were selected after initial interviews as they were deemed to be cases that would yield information-rich data (Patton, 2002). Three focal participants were selected in order to represent three broadly categorized levels of the academic preparation of the participants (novice, mid-range, and more advanced) while providing in-depth description and contextualization of each case, taking into consideration the participants' perspectives, their interactions with their students, fellow teachers, and supervisors, and their developing ideas regarding teaching approaches and other aspects of teaching (Duff, 2008).

3.3.3 Focal Participants

Table 3.3 presents background information for the three focal participants. It highlights some of the differences among the participants and helps to illustrate some of the reasons for their selection. Outside of coursework, none of the participants had had any formal training for teaching English as a second or foreign language.

Table 3.3 Background Information on Focal Participants

Participant	Jocelyn	Chobi	John
Age	19	21	21
First language	English	English	English
Additional languages (self-reported level)	Spanish (advanced), French (novice)	French (intermediate), Japanese (intermediate)	Spanish (advanced), Portuguese (novice)
Educational level	Undergraduate, rising sophomore	Undergraduate, rising senior	Master's
Relevant courses completed	Introduction to English Linguistics	English Grammar in Use Introduction to English Linguistics Introduction to Linguistics Language in Society Languages of the World Phonetics & Phonology SLA TEFL 1	Approaches to Teaching Second/Foreign Languages Classroom Practices in Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language Computers and Language English Grammar for ESL/EFL Teachers General Linguistics Historical Linguistics Intercultural Communication Morphology & Syntax Phonetics & Phonology SLA (undergraduate level) Sociolinguistics TEFL 1 (undergraduate level) TEFL 2 (undergraduate level)
TEFL certificate	Planning to complete	Partially completed	Completed
Experience teaching or tutoring	None	Tutored beginner ESL students in high school	Teaching individual ESL lessons at a private language institute (Business English, Advanced Conversation)
Previous experience abroad	None	Studied Korean in South Korea for 3 months, summer 2017	Studied Spanish in Spain for 3 months, summer 2016
Career goals	Teach EFL in a Spanish-speaking location	Teach EFL in Japan	Complete a PhD

3.3.3.1 Jocelyn

Jocelyn represents the novice end of the spectrum in terms of academic preparation. She was 19 at the time of the SA course and had just finished her freshman year at university. She had taken only one course related to her major of Applied Linguistics &ESL, and that was Introduction to English Linguistics. She spoke excitedly about having recently changed to this major after discovering its existence. She had previously planned to major in Spanish and was interested in teaching, although not in a traditional classroom setting in the United States. Therefore, she was very enthusiastic about the idea of teaching EFL as a career and about the possibility of experiencing this firsthand on the SA program. On her needs analysis questionnaire, Jocelyn indicated that she was "slightly familiar" or "not familiar at all" with teaching approaches and concepts related to TEFL. In addition, she indicated that she had tutored Spanish a few times in high school but that it had been very limited, and she had never taken any courses related to teaching a language. Despite her lack of experience tutoring or teaching, in her pre-course interview, Jocelyn noted that she liked to throw herself "into the deep end" as she found it was usually a rewarding, if somewhat stressful, way to gain experience doing something new. During SA, she taught groups of students aged 7 to 9 years old, who were at a beginning level of English proficiency.

3.3.3.2 Chobi

Chobi represents the 'mid-point' in the range of participants' academic preparation. Twenty-one at the time of the SA program, Chobi was a rising senior whose major was Applied Linguistics & ESL. She had taken eight courses related to language acquisition and teaching, including Introduction to Linguistics, Language in Society, SLA, and TEFL 1. As evidenced in her needs analysis questionnaire and first interview, Chobi had a good understanding of basic

approaches to teaching EFL/ESL, as well as of some of the issues that students may face while learning a new language. While in high school, Chobi had tutored students taking ESL classes. She had observed how essential English was to those students' personal and academic success and how disadvantaged they could be as non-proficient users of English, and this in part inspired her to want to teach English as a second/foreign language. Chobi had long wanted to be a teacher but didn't feel that teaching in the United States would be fulfilling, based on her experiences as a student. Chobi was very excited to experience firsthand the career she believed she wanted to pursue and to put into practice things she had been studying for several years but had had few opportunities to implement in the classroom. During SA, she taught groups of students aged 9 to 11 years old, who were approximately of a pre-intermediate level of English proficiency.

3.3.3.3 John

John represents the more academically experienced end of the spectrum of participants. Also 21 years old at the time of the SA program, he had recently completed his undergraduate degree in the Department of Applied Linguistics & ESL and was pursuing a master's degree in the same department. Between his undergraduate and graduate coursework, he had completed thirteen courses related to language learning and teaching, including Approaches to Teaching Second/Foreign Languages, Classroom Practices in Teaching ESL/EFL, English Grammar for ESL/EFL Teachers, and Sociolinguistics. He had a good understanding of a variety of approaches to teaching ESL/EFL and of some of the issues that impact learning second/foreign languages, on both a practical and a theoretical level. At the time of the TEFL course, John was teaching individual lessons to an ESL student at a local ESL school. One of his goals for the SA program was to determine whether he also enjoyed teaching in a larger classroom setting. During SA, he taught groups of students aged 11 to 14 years old, who were of a pre-intermediate to

intermediate level of English proficiency. His career goals included pursuing a PhD in applied linguistics and doing research related to natural language processing tools and their application in the classroom. He saw teaching EFL/ESL as a possibility while taking a break between graduate degrees, but it was not his aim to become an ESL/EFL teacher long-term.

3.4 Researcher Positionality

Merriam (2009) outlines four relationships between the observer and the observed, on a spectrum from complete participant to complete observer. According to this taxonomy, my role would be that of "observer as participant" (Merriam, 2009, p. 124), in that my research activities were known to the participants, and my participation in the group was secondary to my research activities. This role provided access to participants and information, while my participation in group activities did not constitute full group membership. In addition to interacting with the participants as a researcher, I implemented pre-departure class meetings—preparing instructional materials and leading discussions and activities on topics such as approaches to TEFL, tasks, and various aspects of TBLT. I also accompanied the class to Mexico and was involved in the daily SA activities. I believe my role could best be described as that of a teacher-mentor. In addition to leading predeparture class sessions, I provided feedback to some teachers on their lesson plans and microteaching (prior to departure) and on their teaching during the summer camp (while abroad). However, I did not provide feedback to the focal participants, and I was not responsible for assigning grades to any of the preservice teachers. I did my best to avoid a role which would be seen as evaluative of participants' performance, in the hopes that they would feel comfortable expressing themselves openly in interviews when giving opinions on their use of tasks and teaching approaches. I also emphasized in predeparture classes and during interviews that while

task-based teaching was one approach that might work well for our context, they were free to choose the approach they felt best fit their classes.

In some respects, I might have been viewed by the participants as something of an insider: I was a graduate student in the same department as the majority of the participants; I participated in all predeparture meetings, group meetings, and meals on SA; and I shared the experience of living abroad (although briefly) in a foreign culture and navigating the challenges that arose as a result. I believe these aspects contributed to creating a friendly rapport, in addition to the explicit steps that I took to try to do so, such as including getting-to-know-you activities in the predeparture classes and making myself available as a resource not only for questions related to the course, but also to the SA trip in general and by sharing my personal experiences of teaching abroad. I may have been seen as more accessible than the program director for asking questions related to teaching and logistics. At the same time, I was somewhat an outsider: I was not participating in the TEFL course as a student, nor was I teaching the students of the camp in Mexico firsthand. In addition, I was a PhD candidate, rather than an undergraduate or master's student, and I was older than most of the preservice teachers. As Patton (2002) notes, it is important to balance the roles of insider and outsider in qualitative research in order to understand the setting as an insider, while being able to describe it accurately to outsiders.

In sum, I believe the participants viewed me as a friendly resource, and I believe they were quite forthcoming and open in sharing their ideas and opinions with me. From emails I received after the program, I learned that many of the participants appreciated the opportunity to reflect on their experiences throughout the program through interviews and reflection assignments, and this may have added to them having a positive view of participating in the study. Nonetheless, when considering the findings of the dissertation, it is important to note that I

am the researcher, and though I have done my best to accurately represent the participants' perspectives throughout the analyses and reporting, the interpretations of the data are my own.

An additional caveat regarding my positionality should be mentioned, that which is known as the observer's paradox. This concept refers to the fact that the 'best' or most authentic data would hypothetically be collected when subjects are not being systematically observed, yet the only way to collect the needed data is through systematic observation (Labov, 1972). In my case, my goal was ostensibly to observe the teachers while they were teaching without interrupting or impacting their lessons, yet their behavior during observed lessons may have been modified simply due to my presence, or that of a video camera. Moreover, a potential moral dilemma arose when, on occasion, the teachers asked me for input following an observation. Though I did not want to influence their teaching behaviors while collecting data about those behaviors, I also recognized that they saw me as a resource and asked for my input because they needed guidance; thus, I tried to offer options that they could choose to implement without dictating a best course to follow. Merriam (2009) notes that while in traditional research the goal is to be objective and detached and avoid 'contaminating' the study, in qualitative research, particularly if the researcher acts as the primary data collection instrument, "subjectivity and interaction are assumed" (p. 127), and this interdependency may cause changes in both the observer's and the participants' behaviors. Thus, the question becomes not *whether* the researcher's presence affects the participants but *how* to identify the effects and account for them when interpretating the data (Merriam, 2009), which I have endeavored to do.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The dissertation research was conducted over a period of eight months, starting with an initial data collection point prior to the start of the TEFL course in early May 2019. The

predeparture instructional period spanned two months, including May and June 2019. The SA program took place during the first half of July 2019, with the immediate post-SA period in the latter half of that month. The delayed post-SA period encompassed the following fall semester, from August to December 2019 (see Table 3.4 for a timeline of data collection).

Table 3.4 Data Collection Timeline

Phase	Dates	Data collected (for each focal participant)
Pre-course	Early May 2019	Needs analysis questionnaire Pedagogical beliefs questionnaire Language Learner Autobiography Pre-course interview
Predeparture	May – June 2019	Homework assignments Class discussions (audio recording) Microteaching lesson plans & materials Lesson plans & materials for Mexico Predeparture interview
Study Abroad, Week 1	June 30 – July 6, 2019	1 or 2 observations with field notes 4 video recordings of classes Individual interview (Stimulated recall and semi-structured questions) Daily feedback sessions (audio recordings)
Study Abroad, Week 2	July 7 – 13, 2019	1 or 2 observations with field notes 4 video recordings of classes Individual interview (Stimulated recall and semi-structured questions) Daily feedback sessions (audio recordings)
Post-SA	July 14 – 31, 2019	Portfolio (Finalized lesson plans and teaching materials, daily written reflections, final reflection paper, written feedback from daily observations) Pedagogical beliefs questionnaire L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement Post-SA interview Post-SA focus group interview
Delayed post-SA	Fall 2019 semester	2 observations with field notes and video recordings 2 delayed post-SA interviews (Stimulated recall and semi-structured questions) Pedagogical beliefs questionnaire Revised L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement

Note: Participants who were not teaching in the Fall 2019 semester completed one delayed post-SA interview with semi-structured questions only (no stimulated recall).

While all of the data outlined in Table 3.4 were collected for the three focal participants in the study, a large amount of data were collected for additional participants (see Table 3.5 for a breakdown of which data were collected for which participants). All of the data that were collected for the three focal participants whose findings were reported in the dissertation were also collected for three additional potential focal participants. For two additional participants (referred to as 'Additional interviewing participants' in Table 3.5), nearly all data were collected with the exception of the stimulated recall interview data, which were not included due to time constraints for video collection and interviewing. The majority of the data were also collected for the two master's students who were acting as teaching assistants. Finally, of the remaining 12 students enrolled in the TEFL course, 10 agreed to allow their course documents and questionnaire data to be used in the study; these participants are referred to as 'Cohort participants' in Table 3.5. In the following sections, the data collection is described in terms of what was collected for the focal participants of this study, although as Table 3.5 illustrates, a number of those measures were implemented for other participants as well.

Table 3.5 Types of Data Collected for Each Group of Participants

Phase	Data collected	Focal participants (n = 3)	Potential focal participants (n = 3)	Additional interviewing participants (n = 2)	Teaching assistants (n = 2)	Cohort participants (n = 10)
Pre-course	Needs analysis questionnaire	X	X	X	X	X
	Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire	X	X	X	X	X
	Language learner autobiography	X	X	X	X	X
	Pre-course interview	X	X	X	X	
Predeparture	Predeparture assignments	X	X	X	X	X
	Lesson plans and materials	X	X	X		X
	Predeparture interview	X	X	X	X	
	Predeparture class audio	X	X	X	X	X
On SA	Observations	3	3			
	Videos	8	8			
	Interviews	2, with stimulated recall	2, with stimulated recall	1		
	Audio from feedback sessions	X	X	X	X	X
Post-SA	Portfolio	X	X	X		X
	Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire	X	X	X	X	X
	L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement	X	X	X	X	X
	Interview	X	X	X	X	
	Focus group interview	X	X	X		X
Delayed Post-SA	Observations	2 (if teaching)	2 (if teaching)			
	Videos	2 (if teaching)	2 (if teaching)			
	Interview(s)	2 with stimulated recall if teaching; otherwise, 1	2 with stimulated recall if teaching; otherwise, 1	1	1	
	Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire	X	X	X	X	
	Revised L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement	X	X	X	X	

3.5.1 Pre-course and Predeparture Period

Prior to the beginning of the TEFL course, teachers completed needs analysis and pedagogical beliefs questionnaires (see Appendices A and B), wrote a Language Learning Autobiography (see Appendix C), and participated in a semi-structured interview in order to gain a deeper understanding of their knowledge of teaching approaches and dispositions toward TBLT and to find out about their goals for the course and afterward (see Appendix F for semi-structured interview protocols). In May and June 2019, teachers participated in four predeparture class meetings (see Table 3.1 for topics covered and tasks included), completed homework assignments (see Appendix D), did microteaching, and planned their lessons for the SA period with input from course supervisors. Following the last predeparture class meeting and prior to departure, teachers had a second semi-structured interview that focused on their expectations for the trip and whether and how they thought they might apply the content of the course to their teaching.

3.5.2 During SA

During the SA component of the TEFL course (June 30 – July 13, 2019), one class period for each participant was recorded every day they taught. I observed each focal participant a total of three times (once or twice each week; see Table 3.6 for a schedule of observations, videos, and interviews), during which I made field notes and video recordings. On the day following one of each teacher's observations each week, I conducted an interview with that teacher which included stimulated recall (SR) questions and semi-structured questions about the participant's teaching experience, especially as it related to their choices of approach(es) and use of tasks or lack thereof (see Appendix G for SR protocols). Audio recordings were made each day during group feedback sessions.

Table 3.6 Video, Observation, and Interview Schedule on SA

	Week 1						Week 2				
Participant	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thu	Fri	Sat	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thu	Fri
John	V		V	V	V, O	I	V, O		V	V, O	V, I
Chobi	V, O		V		V, O	I	V		V, O	V, I	V
Jocelyn	V	V	V, O	I	V		V, O	V, O	V, I		V

Note: V = a video was made of one of the teacher's classes; O = teacher was observed; I = teacher had a stimulated recall/semi-structured interview

3.5.3 Post-SA Period

Two and a half weeks after the conclusion of the program, participants submitted their portfolios, including their finalized lesson plans and materials, daily written reflections, final reflection papers, and written feedback they received from the program director and supervisors. At this time, participants also submitted an L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement (see Appendix E), and they completed the pedagogical beliefs questionnaire a second time. Subsequently, they had an individual interview in which they were asked to reflect on their overall experience in the course and on SA. Lastly, teachers participated in one of two focus group interviews with other participants in the cohort. The focus groups were led by facilitators who were researchers experienced in conducting interviews (see Appendix H for focus group interview protocol).

3.5.4 Delayed Post-SA Period

In the Fall 2019 semester, the teachers revised their L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement (see Appendix E for revised assignment), completed the pedagogical beliefs questionnaire a final time, and had an individual, semi-structured interview. Those teachers who were teaching or tutoring were observed and video-recorded twice (mid-way through the semester and at the end of the semester), after which they had interviews incorporating SR.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

3.6.1 Course Materials

Following is a description of the course materials that were collected for data analysis.

3.6.1.1 Needs Analysis Questionnaire

The Needs Analysis questionnaire (see Appendix A) was administered through Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT) prior to the start of the TEFL course. It contained 11 yes-no items, four multiple choice items, five Likert-scale items, 22 short answer items, and nine open-ended items. The questionnaire collected data related to teachers' demographic information, academic background, and experience teaching or tutoring a FL. It also asked about participants' experience living or studying abroad, career goals, and familiarity with various TEFL approaches and methods.

3.6.1.2 Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire

Also administered via Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT), the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire, adapted from Ogilvie and Dunn (2010), was used to gauge teachers' dispositions towards TBLT. The questionnaire contained 36 items, two each addressing 18 topics related to aspects of language learning that aligned with or differed from principles of TBLT (see Appendix B for topics, questionnaire items, and the items' disposition toward TBLT). Participants indicated their agreement or disagreement with the items by selecting an answer from a six-point Likert scale (i.e., strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, partly agree, agree, strongly agree). The six-point scale was chosen in order to prompt teachers to make a choice (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Prior to administering the questionnaire, it was piloted with a population similar to the expected participants (i.e., students enrolled in a TEFL II course), and modifications were made based on participants' performance and feedback. After administering

the questionnaire in the predeparture period, a reliability analysis was carried out. Chronbach's alpha indicated that the questionnaire reached acceptable reliability, $\alpha = 0.735$. In order to help judge whether a shift in cognitions about tasks and TBLT occurred over time, the questionnaire was administered at two additional times over eight months, presenting the items in random order each time.

3.6.1.3 Language Learner Autobiography

The Language Learner Autobiography (Bailey et al., 1996; see Appendix C) is a one- to two-page reflection paper in which teachers describe their language learning experiences, their criteria for judging the success of language learning, and the ways that L2 learning has influenced their ideas about L2 teaching. The act of writing one's language learner autobiography is a reflexive exercise that serves to activate potentially unacknowledged beliefs about SLA and L2 teaching. Pre-service teachers have found that writing their autobiography provoked powerful reactions and revealed how much past learning experiences could affect beliefs about L2 teaching (Bailey et al., 1996). Students were asked to write an autobiography at the beginning of the course in order to make explicit and understand their beliefs about L2 learning and teaching before they did further study or gained experience in the classroom.

3.6.1.4 Homework Assignments

As outlined in Table 3.1, during the predeparture period, teachers completed a number of assignments that included reflective questions related to their understanding of various teaching approaches, the benefits and challenges of using tasks, and the relationship between language learning and a task-based approach (see Appendix D for homework assignments). For example, in a homework assignment following the first class meeting, teachers read two short chapters entitled "Why TBLT" and "What is a Task?" and answered reflection questions from the text

(Faez & Tavakoli, 2019, pp. 1-5, 7-9). They also watched two short videos which I made, the first explaining the difference between form-focused and meaning-focused L2 teaching and the second explaining how TBLT aligns with various SLA theories and concepts (e.g., Output Hypothesis, negotiation of meaning). While watching or after watching the videos, students answered questions provided in a homework packet.

3.6.1.5 Lesson Plans and Teaching Materials

During the predeparture period, teachers prepared abbreviated lesson plans and teaching materials which they used during microteaching sessions with their peers. These were collected in order to observe teachers' early approaches to lessons and their use of tasks and activities. Prior to departure, teachers also submitted 10 lesson plans with accompanying materials which they intended to use in their classes on SA.

3.6.1.6 Teacher Portfolios

During the two and a half weeks following SA, teachers compiled their teaching portfolio for the TEFL course. This included their final lesson plans and teaching materials as they had implemented them. It also included a written reflection for each day (approximately one-half page to two pages long) and a final reflection paper (approximately two pages long) describing the things they had learned and what they took away from the experience. In their portfolios, teachers also included copies of the written feedback they received each day from the program director, myself, and teaching assistants following observations.

3.6.1.7 L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement

The L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement is a one- to two-page document in which teachers describe their beliefs about how L2s are learned, the role of the L2 teacher, and opinions about various teaching methods and approaches (Chism, 1998; O'Neal, Meizlish, & Kaplan, 2007; see

Appendix E for the post-SA and delayed post-SA (revised) versions of the assignment). Teaching philosophy statements are commonly used as a way for teachers to analyze and report on the elements of a course or program that shaped their views (e.g., Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). By using a variation of the same written assignment twice (i.e., at post-SA and delayed post-SA data collection points), teachers had a chance to evaluate and describe whether and how their beliefs had changed over time, giving more in-depth information than could be gathered from a beliefs questionnaire (Busch, 2010).

3.6.2 Interviews

Interviews are particularly important in teacher cognition research as a way of making tacit, unobservable beliefs explicit (Canh & Maley, 2012). Three types of interviews were used in the study.

3.6.2.1 Semi-structured Interviews

Teachers participated in a number of individual, semi-structured interviews over the course of the study (see Appendix F for interview protocols), each of which lasted approximately half an hour to one hour in length. Semi-structured interviews were chosen for their flexible format, which allows the interviewer to explore unforeseen opportunities as they arise (Canh & Maley, 2012). The interviews covered topics such as participants' goals for the course and teaching previous experience (pre-course), expectations for SA and teaching (predeparture), enjoyable moments and challenges in the classroom (while on SA), their role in the classroom and things that surprised them on SA (post-SA), and perceived benefits of the experience and whether they had met their stated goals (delayed post-SA). While interviewing participants, I endeavored to keep in mind that interviews—especially semi-structured ones—are co-constructed in nature and are influenced by social relationships and the interaction between

interviewer and interviewee (Borg, 2012; Duff, 2008, 2012). Thus, I did my best to attend to power imbalances (Canh & Maley, 2012) and to create a respectful, non-judgmental environment (Borg, 2006).

3.6.2.2 Stimulated Recall Interviews

Stimulated recall (SR) is a valuable introspective method which uses a prompt, such as a video, to cue teachers' memories (Gass, 2001; see Appendix G for the SR interview protocol). It was selected as a means of data collection in order to gather data about participants' cognitive processes related to teaching without disturbing the naturalistic context (i.e., to avoid interrupting them while teaching in order to gain insight into their choices and thought processes; Lyle, 2003). SR is particularly appropriate for education research, which is characterized by complexity, non-deliberative decision making, and multi-variable goals (Lyle, 2003). In order to be most effective, SR interviews took place as soon after the teaching event as feasible—in this case, the following day; I followed an interview protocol that included reminders to the teachers to try to recall what they were thinking at the time they were teaching, and I avoided asking questions that required explanation, which could encourage post-hoc interpretations (Gass, 2001; Gass & Mackey, 2000). Twice during SA (once each week, approximately mid-week) and twice during the semester following SA, teachers participated in SR interviews using their teaching video the day after teaching a lesson. These interviews sought to understand teachers' cognitions about their teaching while students were performing tasks or activities by asking questions about what teachers were thinking when making decisions about student interaction groupings, whether to intervene during group work, whether to offer corrective feedback, whether to provide explicit focus on form, and so forth. Because the results did not pertain directly to the research questions

as they developed over the course of the study, the SR data were not included in the dissertation report.

3.6.2.3 Focus Group Interview

Not long after returning home (10 days to two and a half weeks later), the focal participants participated in one or two focus group interviews with other members of the cohort. This interview was led by a facilitator who was not involved with the SA program in order to encourage participants to express themselves freely (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). During the interview, participants discussed topics such as challenges they had faced, the types of activities or tasks they had found to be successful, and the impact of SA (see Appendix H for protocol). The focus group format was chosen since one participant's recollections may spark another person's memories and since themes that were common to multiple participants might become apparent through their conversation.

3.6.3 Audio and Video Recordings

During predeparture class meetings, audio recordings were made of group conversations in which the preservice teachers discussed topics such as task criteria, the task-like nature of activities, and the merits of using different teaching approaches for different contexts. While on SA, daily group feedback sessions were audio-recorded. Video recordings were made of each focal participant while teaching daily on SA and on two occasions in the semester following SA.

3.6.4 Field Notes

During observations, I wrote field notes, making frequent note of the time for reference and recording elements of interest, such as interaction patterns, stages of activities, student and teacher behaviors, and my reflections and follow-up questions to ask teachers.

3.6.5 Analytic Task Rubric

An analytic rubric was developed to determine how closely teachers' tasks or activities adhered to four task criteria that have been identified as fundamental task constructs (Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Long, 2000) and are widely agreed upon as being basic task criteria (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019; see Appendix I). Similar criteria have been used in previous studies for the purpose of evaluating teachers' tasks following training on TBLT (e.g., Erlam, 2016). Tasks were given a score of 0, 1, or 2 for each criterion, according to whether they did not align, partially aligned, or fully aligned with the criterion, resulting in an overall score between 0 and 8 for each task, with 0 being not task-like at all and 8 fully adhering to all task criteria.

3.7 Data Analysis

Whenever feasible, given time restraints, data analysis was concurrent with data collection in a progressive focusing approach (Verschuren, 2003). In other words, each stage of data analysis informed the next stage of data collection. For example, reviewing students' needs analysis questionnaires gave me insight into what questions to ask in their first interview; similarly, participants' answers to the first week's interview questions while on SA informed the subsequent week's interview content, and so forth. Each of the three research questions was answered by analyzing a variety of data sources, as summarized in Table 3.7. Following is a description of the analyses I conducted.

Table 3.7 Alignment of Data Sources and Research Questions

Research Question Number	Research Question	Data Sources Used to Answer the Question
1	In their teaching practice on the short-term SA component of a TEFL course, to what extent did preservice L2 teachers:	• Video recordings of lessons • Lesson plans and teaching materials • Field notes of observations • Semi-structured interviews • Daily written reflections

Research Question Number	Research Question	Data Sources Used to Answer the Question
	a. implement activities that met the task criteria studied during the predeparture period b. implement other aspects of a task-based approach studied during the predeparture period, such as task phases and task sequencing?	• Final reflection paper • L2 teaching philosophy statements • Written feedback from daily course observations • Daily group feedback sessions (audio) • Focus group interview
2	How do preservice L2 teachers' cognitions about (a) teaching approaches, (b) tasks, and (c) the role of the teacher change throughout a TEFL course with a short-term SA component incorporating daily teaching practice and during the following semester?	• Pedagogical beliefs questionnaires • Needs analysis questionnaire • Language learner autobiography • Predeparture assignments • Predeparture class discussions (audio) • Semi-structured interviews • Daily group feedback sessions (audio) • Daily written reflections • Final reflection paper • L2 teaching philosophy statements • Focus group interview
3	What is the impact of practice teaching during the short-term SA component of a TEFL course for preservice L2 teachers from the teachers' perspective in terms of: a. perceived benefits of the SA program; b. aspects of the SA program that facilitated their learning; c. influence on their future trajectories?	• Language learner autobiography • L2 teaching philosophy statements • Daily written reflections • Final reflection papers • Semi-structured interviews • Focus group interview

3.7.1 Research Question 1

Research Question 1, which examined teachers' implementation of tasks[3] during SA, was answered using video recordings of lessons, teachers' lesson plans and teaching materials, and field notes, and was supplemented with the analysis of additional data sources, such as interview data and written reflection data. In order to examine teachers' use of tasks (or lack thereof) in the classroom in detail, I applied an analytic rubric (see Appendix I) to the tasks they had implemented, using the video recordings of lessons, teachers' lesson plans and teaching materials, and field notes to understand the composition of the class and the characteristics of the tasks. I also referred to semi-structured interview data to better understand the participants' perspective on their implementation of classroom activities and tasks. Teachers' daily written reflections, final reflection papers, and philosophy statements were used to triangulate the findings, and data from supervisors' written and oral feedback also helped to interpret the findings.

As a first step, I watched the video of each lesson, filling in a template which indicated the starting and stopping time of the various activities/tasks included in a lesson, the interaction patterns between and among teacher and students, what students did during each task, and any notes that were pertinent to their implementation. Next, the main task (or tasks) was (were) identified. This determination was based on the way the teacher introduced the task, the way other activities or tasks built up to the main 'event' of the lesson, and, if additional information was needed, the way teachers described the activities/tasks in interviews, their lesson plans, or written descriptions of their lessons. Pre- and post-task phases were also identified, if they were

[3] For simplicity's sake, the main activities and tasks in teacher's lessons will be referred to as tasks, although as evident in the results, some were more task-like than others, based on their adherence to or divergence from task criteria.

included in the lesson. The analytic rubric was then applied to the main task (or tasks). Similar to Erlam (2016), using the rubric, each task was assigned a score of between 0 and 8 points.

After analyzing three lessons (one from each focal participant), the templates and videos were shared with a second researcher who is an ESL teacher experienced in using TBLT and an instructed SLA researcher; I indicated the main task(s) on the template for each lesson. The researcher then identified whether there were pre- and post-task phases in the lesson and applied the task rubric to the main task(s), evaluating each criterion and assigning a score from 0 to 2 points. After comparing our ratings, we resolved differences through discussion, and I revised the rubric descriptors in cases where they were unclear or imprecise. The second researcher and I then analyzed nine additional videos (three per focal participant) independently, and we again compared ratings and resolved any discrepancies through discussion and reference to the TBLT literature. When needed, a third rater—an expert in TBLT research and task design—was consulted to finalize the ratings. Interrater reliability was calculated based on the ratings of the nine videos and was found to be 87.50%. Finally, I rated the remaining eleven lessons, for a total of 23 lessons (eight per focal participant, minus one when one teacher was sick on a teaching day).

By considering the overall ratings of each task, it was possible to note whether teachers' implementation moved in a task-like direction over the two weeks abroad. By considering ratings for the individual criteria, it was also possible to see whether teachers' tasks adhered more consistently to certain task characteristics as opposed to others and whether this was similar among participants or varied from individual to individual.

3.7.2 Research Question 2

Research Question 2, which investigated teachers' developing cognitions about teaching approaches, tasks, and the role of the teacher, was answered using the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire and the qualitative analysis of a variety of data sources.

3.7.2.1 Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire

Teachers' responses to the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire were used to assess their initial disposition toward TBLT and any change in their disposition over time. The 36 statements in the pedagogical beliefs questionnaire either aligned with or diverged from principles of TBLT. Following Ogilvie and Dunn (2010), teachers' responses were scored from 1 to 6, indicating a range of opinions from negative to positive dispositions toward TBLT. For statements that aligned with TBLT principles, an answer of 'strongly disagree' was given a one, whereas an answer of 'strongly agree' was assigned a 6. Statements that diverged from TBLT principles were scored the opposite way, such that an answer of 'strongly disagree' received 6 points, and so forth. By inverting the scoring in this way, a higher score always indicated greater alignment with TBLT principles. For example, if teachers expressed agreement with an item that emphasized the importance of drills for developing accuracy through positive habit formation, this would reflect divergence from TBLT principles (and a low score), whereas a statement that highlighted the importance of group interaction for developing communicative competence would represent alignment (and receive a high score; see Appendix B for questionnaire items and their disposition toward TBLT). By summing each teacher's scores for the 36 items, a total score on a 180-point scale resulted, ranging from 36 to 216. Dividing this number by the total number of possible points, 216, resulted in a percentage for each teacher, reflecting how positive their overall disposition toward TBLT was. By computing the percentages at three points in time, an

overall change score was calculated from the difference in percentage points (i.e., predeparture to the semester following SA) as well as changes from predeparture to post-SA and post-SA to the following semester, indicating whether teachers' beliefs related to TBLT changed over time. In addition, beliefs that changed by two or more positions on the Likert scale were highlighted for further consideration.

3.7.2.2 Qualitative Thematic Analysis

Qualitative thematic analysis was carried out using a number of data sources: needs analysis questionnaires (short answers related to the teachers' understandings of TEFL methods and approaches), interview data (semi-structured and focus group), written reflection data (language learner autobiographies, predeparture assignments, daily written reflections, final reflection papers, and L2 teaching philosophy statements), and audio data (predeparture class discussions and daily feedback sessions). After the audio data were transcribed and checked for accuracy, they were uploaded to NVivo (released in March 2020). I then coded two of the focal participants' data for topics that related to the research questions using an iterative process with two cycles of coding, namely a first cycle in which I applied descriptive and in vivo codes to sections of the text and a second cycle which grouped those codes into patterns (Miles et al., 2014). Some codes from a 2018 pilot study (D'Arienzo & Kim, 2019) served as a starting point, while others emerged from the data (see Appendix J for a comprehensive list of first-cycle codes, pattern codes, and themes relating to Research Question 2).

Next, in order to validate the principal ideas I had identified in the data, I selected 10 passages that included a variety of pattern codes. A second qualitative researcher who is experienced working in SLTE and assessment read the passages, identified the main topics, and determined the codes he would have used to code the passages. Nine out of 10 topics/pattern

codes were the same: Applicability of different types of tasks, Beliefs about PPP, Beliefs about TBLT, Choice of EFL approach, Role of the teacher, The importance of engagement, Understanding of CLT, Understanding of 'task,' and What makes good language teaching. The tenth was closely related: Where I had coded Beliefs about tasks (specifically, 'Tasks help teach survival language'), he had identified Real-world tasks (specifically, 'Real-world connection'). As I revised the coding scheme, I renamed the tenth code in order to incorporate the second coder's ideas, which applied more widely to more of the data. I next coded the third focal participant's data. As I coded new data, I frequently returned to documents I had already coded and recoded portions of them, incorporating new ideas that had emerged from the data or revising codes whose meanings had shifted slightly in light of additional data, continually revising the coding scheme as I proceeded. As I refined the meanings of the codes, I wrote definitions to help distinguish them from one another (Saldaña, 2009). Throughout the process, I wrote analytical memos to create a chain of evidence and stimulate reflection on the categories of the data (Yin, 2003).

To improve the reliability of my analyses, the second researcher coded approximately one quarter of the data. When selecting the data for the second coder, I chose a variety of documents (both written and interview data) from all three focal participants spanning the entire range of time of the TEFL course (from predeparture to post-SA). First, I met with the second coder and went over the code book. I then provided him with one interview transcript in which the passages that I had coded were highlighted. He analyzed the interview transcript by applying codes from the code book to the highlighted passages. This first analysis served as 'calibration' and to ensure that he understood the coding scheme clearly. Intercoder agreement was calculated in NVivo at the character level, with a resulting kappa value of 0.85. We discussed the

differences in our coding, and I added one code as a result; I recoded some portions of the data accordingly. The second researcher then coded three additional documents using the same approach. The resulting kappa value—also calculated at the character level using NVivo—for intercoder agreement was 0.90.

I next grouped the pattern codes from the second cycle of coding into themes to answer the research question, creating visual displays such as networks to confirm relationships among nodes (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). In addition to observing the presence of emerging themes across the data chronologically, in order to examine teachers' cognition development, I looked closely at the specific ways their language changed in their descriptions of tasks and the role of the teacher in order to identify shifts in their understanding and perspectives over time.

3.7.3 Research Question 3

Research Question 3, which asked about the perceived benefits of practice teaching during a short-term SA program for preservice teachers, the elements of the SA program that the teachers felt facilitated their development, and the impact of such a program on those teachers' future trajectories, was answered through the qualitative thematic analysis of a variety of data sources. Interview data, needs analysis short-answer data, daily written reflections, final reflection papers, and philosophy statements for two focal participants were analyzed following the same two-cycle process described above. Next, 32 lengthy passages were selected that included 34 different first-cycle codes and eight pattern codes (see Appendix K for a complete list of first-cycle codes, pattern codes, and themes relating to Research Question 3). A second researcher who is very experienced with L2 pedagogy and acquisition coded the passages. The codes were compared, resulting in one main area of difference, which was resolved through discussion. Following this process, I coded the third focal participant's data, keeping in mind the

insights gained from discussion with the second coder, refining the coding scheme as needed. The themes that resulted from grouping the pattern codes allowed me to form an understanding of the impact of the SA program on teachers' future trajectories, the benefits they perceived, and the elements of the program they perceived as having facilitated their learning.

3.8 Trustworthiness of Inquiry

Throughout my dissertation, I have attempted to arrive at valid and reliable findings in an ethical manner (Merriam, 2009). Rather than searching for "the right or ultimate answer, the correct version, the Truth" (Wolcott, 1994, pp. 366-7), I have sought understanding and plausible interpretations of the data I collected. In order to conduct a rigorous, trustworthy inquiry, I have addressed the concerns of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Guba, 1981), otherwise referred to as internal validity, external validity/generalizability, reliability, and objectivity, respectively, in the study design and its implementation.

Since it is assumed in qualitative research that there is not one true reality (Merriam, 2009), the dissertation attempts to present findings that are credible, given the data presented (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to increase credibility—how congruent the findings are with reality (Merriam, 2009)—and interpretative validity (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007), a number of measures were carried out. These included the adoption of well recognized research methods, as described in previous sections, the development of early familiarity with the site of the dissertation research and a cohort of similar participants, which I achieved by conducting a pilot study, and the examination of previous research to frame this study's findings (Shenton, 2004). I also used various tactics to try to ensure honesty from my participants, such as giving them the opportunity to refuse to participate or stop participating, encouraging them to be frank in their answers, and ensuring them that there were no right answers during interviews (Shenton, 2004). I

also used iterative questioning during interviews in order to cover previously discussed topics and confirm participants' stated beliefs, and I had frequent debriefing sessions with my advisor in order to widen the vision of the research project and discuss alternative approaches (Shenton, 2004).

Another key to conducting credible research is triangulation, which I attempted to achieve through the use of multiple data sources (e.g., people—participants, researcher observations; times—pre-departure, on SA), data collection methods (e.g., observation, interview, document), and data types (e.g., audio recordings, needs analysis; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). Figure 3.1 provides an illustration of the types of triangulation incorporated in the first research question. The longitudinal nature of the study also allowed for greater credibility, as findings could be confirmed over time. Additionally, at the post-SA and delayed post-SA data collection points, the data began to feel saturated (i.e., responses to questions did not present new findings), indicating that there had been adequate engagement in data collection (Merriam, 2009).

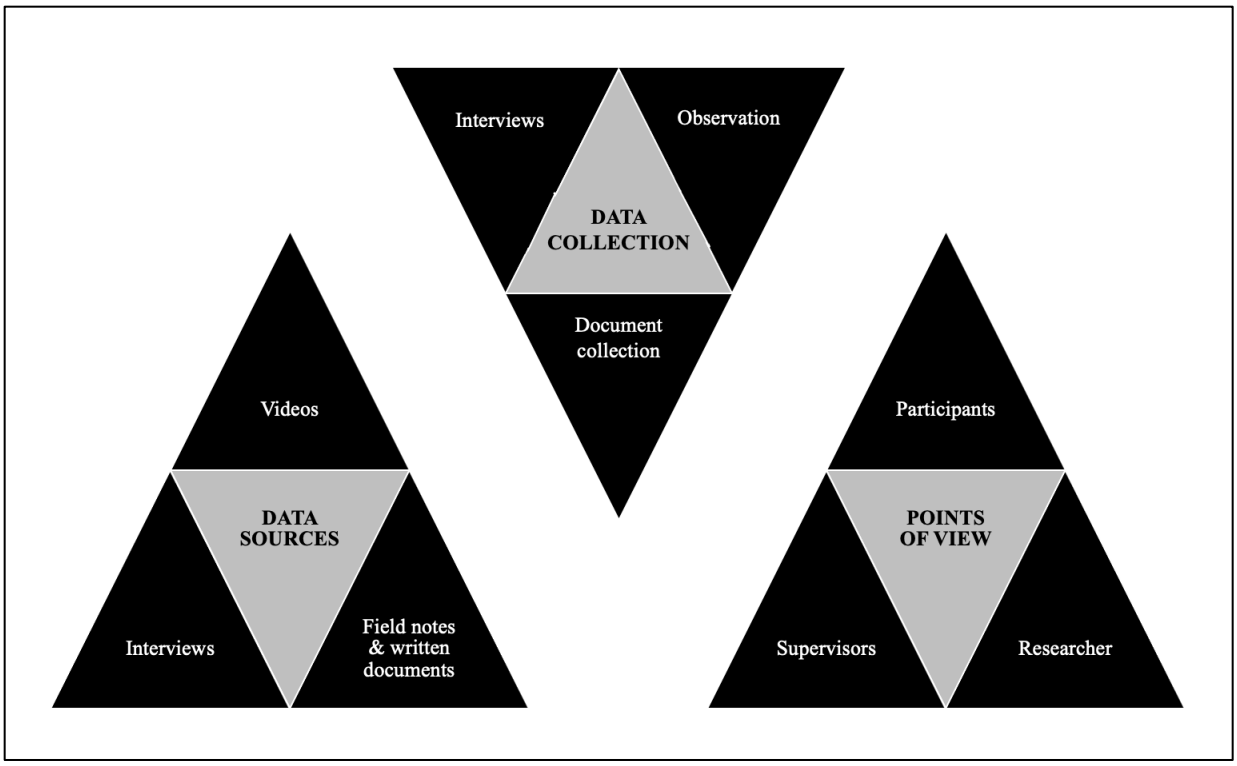

Figure 3.1 Types of Triangulation Used for Research Question 1

Given the small sample size of a multi-case study, I undertook efforts to increase transferability, so that the findings of this study could be transferred to other contexts beyond the scope of the dissertation. I did this by selecting participants who were representative of the population in the context under examination and by providing thick description of the context, the participants, and the research design so that the contextual boundaries of the findings were clear; in this way, readers should be able to determine whether the findings are transferable to their own contexts (Jenson, 2008).

To increase the dependability of the dissertation research, I employed 'overlapping methods,' such as individual interviews and focus group interviews, as well as classroom observations and video-recordings, and I reported the methods of the study in detail (Shenton, 2004). In addition, Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that the measures undertaken to ensure the

credibility of a study (described above) overlap quite a bit with those utilized to increase its dependability.

Last, I followed a number of recommendations to attempt to provide confirmability, so that the findings represent the experiences and beliefs of the participants, rather than my own characteristics or preferences (Shenton, 2004). This included utilizing triangulation, in order to reduce the effect of investigator bias, recognizing the shortcomings in the methods of the study, and providing in-depth methodological description so that the results can be scrutinized (Shenton, 2004).

4 RQ 1 – IMPLEMENTATION OF TASKS: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter and the subsequent two chapters present the findings and discussion for the three research questions, starting with teachers' implementation of tasks on SA (the current chapter), then moving to teachers' developing cognitions (Chapter 5), and concluding with the impact of the SA experience (Chapter 6). The current chapter presents and discusses the findings of the first research question, which investigated the extent to which, in their teaching on SA, teachers implemented activities that met key task criteria studied during the predeparture period. From multiple definitions of task that the teachers became familiar with during predeparture instruction, four key criteria were highlighted and formed the basis of the analytic rubric (see Appendix I): *Primary focus on meaning, Real-world parallel, Non-linguistic outcome,* and *Target language (TL) use opportunities*. The activities that teachers implemented on SA were assessed using the rubric, which evaluated the degree to which the activities met the four criteria, each of which was scored between 0 and 2. The rubric was applied to the activities in the video recordings of teachers' lessons, and these were supplemented with field notes and triangulated through participants' lesson plans, materials, and interview and reflection data. The first research question also investigated the extent to which the teachers implemented other aspects of a task-based approach, such as task phases and task sequencing. The task cycle, with three phases, characterizes TBLT and provides opportunities for motivating and priming students (pre-task phase) in preparation for task performance (during-task phase) and for recognizing whether task objectives were met and potentially focusing on form (post-task phase; Faez & Tavakoli, 2019). A complex topic, task sequencing is important because it recognizes the need for planning, even if short-term (Candlin, 2009). Participants were encouraged to think of their lessons as a cohesive series, not a collection of stand-alone events. The first section below presents an

overview of the findings, followed by a detailed analysis for each participant. In the second section, these findings are discussed separately for each participant.

4.1 Findings

Table 4.1 presents an overview of the analysis of teachers' classroom activities and their task implementation on SA. Some trends stand out, such as the fact that Chobi treated each lesson as one task cycle, while John and Jocelyn sometimes implemented more than one task, or activity, during a lesson. The average overall rubric scores indicate that Jocelyn's classroom activities were the least task-like, followed by Chobi's, and John's were the most task-like. The averages for the four task criteria in the analytic rubric demonstrate that while each participant's scores varied, in general, their tasks more easily met the criteria *Primary focus on meaning* and *TL use opportunities*, whereas they were less strong in the categories *Real-world parallel* and *Non-linguistic outcome*. All three participants included a pre-task phase more often than a post-task phase, but for Jocelyn, the inclusion of a post-task phase was noticeably less frequent compared to the other two preservice teachers. In the following sections, findings for each participant related to task characteristics, as revealed through analysis using the analytic rubric, are presented first along with the description of a typical task designed and implemented by that participant. This is followed by the findings related to the teacher's use of task phases and task sequencing. The analyses were triangulated using participants' interview data.

Table 4.1 Overview of Tasks Implemented by Focal Participants on SA

	Number of days taught	Number of tasks implemented	Average overall task rubric score	Average task rubric score by criterion				Percent of tasks with pre-task phase	Percent of tasks with post-task phase
				Primary focus on meaning	Real-world parallel	Non-linguistic outcome	TL use opportunities		
Jocelyn	8	11	3.82	1.09	0.91	0.64	1.18	72.73	27.27
Chobi	7	7	6.43	1.86	1.43	1.43	1.71	85.71	57.14
John	8	12	7.08	2.00	1.67	1.50	1.92	83.33	75.00

4.1.1 Jocelyn: Implementing Tasks and Games to Make Using L2 Fun

Prior to going to Mexico, Jocelyn, the least academically prepared of the three focal participants, stated both that she wanted to take a task-based approach and also that she didn't want to follow a single approach, but rather wanted to focus on getting the students to have fun using English (Jocelyn, Predeparture Interview). The contrast in these two positions played out in Jocelyn's implementation of tasks and activities in her teaching on SA.

4.1.1.1 Task Ratings

As evident from Figure 4.1, which illustrates the number of tasks (or classroom activities) receiving each overall score, from 1 to 8 points as determined using the analytic rubric, Jocelyn's approach was not highly task-like. It was also not very consistent from one task or activity to the next. In terms of task-likeness, her tasks ranged from one to seven points, and nearly twice as many tasks (seven tasks) scored three points or less compared to those that scored six points or more (four tasks). None of her activities were considered fully task-like, and the maximum score that any of her tasks received was a seven.

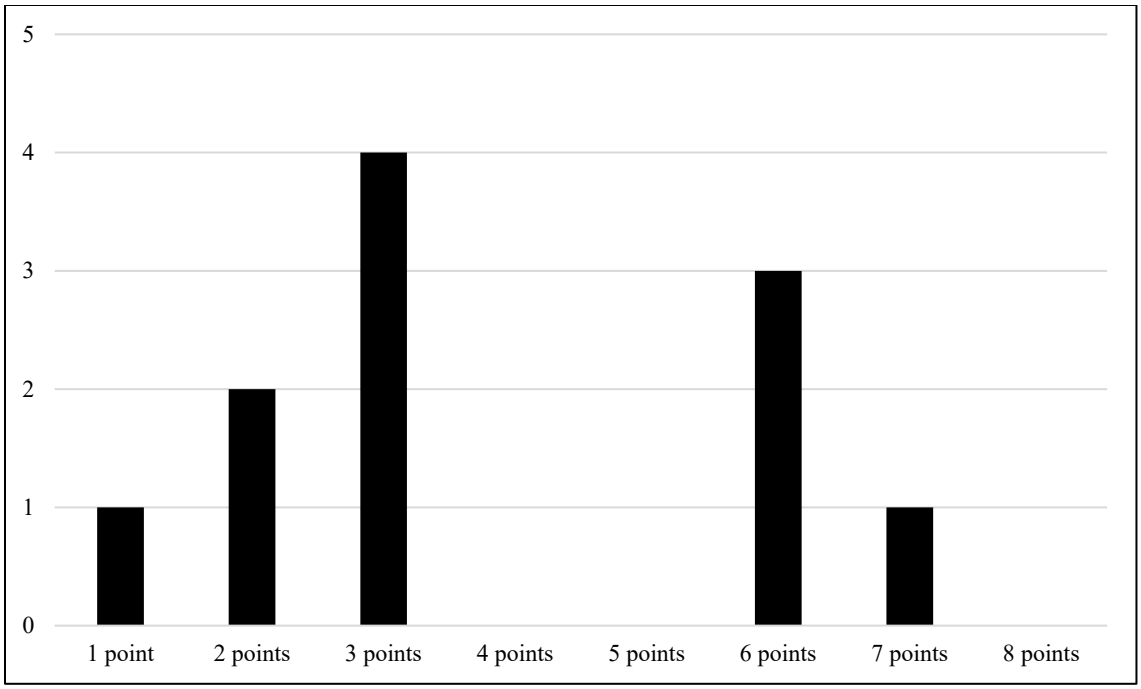

Figure 4.1 Jocelyn: Number of Tasks Receiving Each Overall Score

Table 4.2 displays the criteria ratings for each task, while Figure 4.2 visually presents the rubric scores for the four criteria, averaged by day. Daily averages were created in order to more easily observe any change over time; however, since most days included only one main task, it was necessary to average scores only for Day 8 (three tasks) and Day 10 (two tasks). When observing the criteria separately, it immediately becomes clear that some criteria were relatively stable, while others varied widely from day to day. For instance, the scores for *Focus on meaning* ranged from 0 to 2, and they were nearly equally distributed among the different scores (i.e., 0 points – 3 tasks, 1 point – 2 tasks, 2 points – 3 tasks). Additionally, this variation oscillated over time and showed no clear pattern of change or development. For example, Jocelyn's task on Day 2 consisted of students working together with the teacher to put the various steps of a recipe in order. Students were focused exclusively on the meaning of the sentences, rather than, say, the imperative, a form which is often practiced with recipes; thus, the task received 2 points for *Focus on meaning*. In contrast, on Day 3, students played a game

called *What's the time, Mr. Wolf?* In this game, students drilled the question, "What's the time, Mr. Wolf?" and then advanced across a playing field by the number of steps corresponding to the time the chosen 'Mr. Wolf' gave in his reply. Although asking and telling time certainly has a real-world application, in the game there was no context to the question or the answer; rather, the class was repeating a question the teacher called out, and Mr. Wolf arbitrarily chose a number for his answer (e.g., "It's two o'clock"). Therefore, this task received zero points for *Focus on meaning*. A final example was Jocelyn's task on Day 6, a game called *Simon Says*. In *Simon Says*, one student ('Simon') gives directions (e.g., "Sit under your desk") that the rest of the students have to follow if the directions begin with the words, "Simon says." Although the repetitive nature of this game apparently resembles *What's the time, Mr. Wolf?*, *Simon Says* differs in that Simon has the freedom to give nearly any direction that he or she chooses. In addition, in order to continue in the game, the students had to successfully follow the directions, demonstrating that they had understood the message. In Jocelyn's implementation of the game, she encouraged Simon to tell the students to go to a physical location (rather than to complete an action, such as raising their hand), since they had previously focused on prepositions of location; therefore, this task was largely focused on meaning, with some attention to form, and it received one point for *Focus on meaning*.

Table 4.2 Jocelyn: Task Ratings

		Rubric scores				
Day	Topic	Primary focus on meaning (0-2 points)	Real-world parallel (0-2 points)	Non-linguistic outcome (0-2 points)	TL use opportunities (0-2 points)	Total
1	Getting-to-know-you Qs & As	1	1	0	1	4
2	Putting a recipe in order	2	1	2	1	6

Day	Topic	Rubric scores: Primary focus on meaning (0-2 points)	Real-world parallel (0-2 points)	Non-linguistic outcome (0-2 points)	TL use opportunities (0-2 points)	Total
3	What's the time, Mr. Wolf?	0	1	0	1	2
5	Ordering at a restaurant	0	1	1	1	3
6	Simon Says	1	1	0	1	3
7	Around the world	2	0	0	1	3
8	Create a superhero	2	2	2	1	7
	Alien invasion	2	1	1	2	6
	20 Questions	2	1	1	2	6
10	Hangman	0	0	0	1	1
	What's the time, Mr. Wolf?	0	1	0	1	2

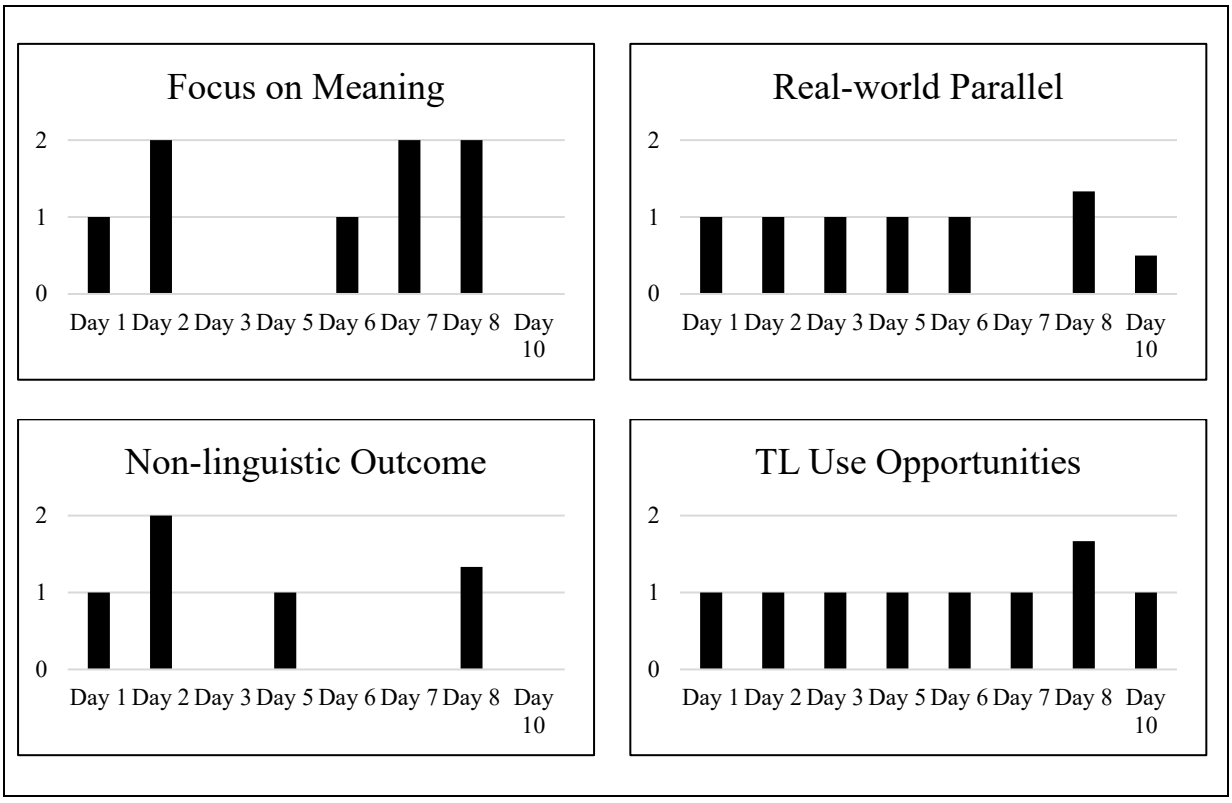

Figure 4.2 Jocelyn: Task Rubric Criterion Scores Averaged by Day

The second criterion that showed noticeable variability was *Non-linguistic outcome*. Like *Focus on meaning*, for Jocelyn's tasks, this criterion varied from zero to two points and also varied over time. In contrast to *Focus on meaning*, however, only one of Jocelyn's daily averages was 2 points for *Non-linguistic outcome*, while five of her daily averages were 0 points, and the remaining two averages were 1 and 1.3 points, indicating that in general, a non-linguistic outcome was not a strong feature of her tasks. Two tasks that received zero points for *Non-linguistic outcome* were *What's the time, Mr. Wolf?* and *Simon Says.* For both of these games, there was no actual outcome besides winning the game. What is more, Jocelyn had the students continue playing until it was time for the class to get ready to go; therefore, the length of the activities and their potential outcomes (i.e., winning the game) were quite arbitrary. Two of Jocelyn's other main tasks were also game-like in nature. On Day 5, students completed a game with mini-role plays in which one team ordered from a menu; students on the opposing team were then able to earn points if they could recall the other team's order; at the end of the game, the team with the most points won. On Day 8, students played 20 Questions (described above). While these games did not result in a product, such as an email or a poster, the students used English to arrive at a non-tangible goal (i.e., winning the game); therefore, these games received one point for *Non-linguistic outcome*.

The remaining two criteria were somewhat more consistent over time. For *Real-world parallel*, the majority of Jocelyn's tasks received between 1 and 1.33 points (six out of eight daily averages), while her daily averages for the remaining two days received lower scores (0 points on Day 7, 0.5 points on Day 10). As was true for the other focal participants, Jocelyn's tasks on the last day of teaching may not have been typical of her approach. Excluding the scores on Day 10, it appears that Jocelyn's tasks quite consistently received close to one point for their

real-world characteristics. Several of Jocelyn's tasks received one point in this category because the language used in the task was realistic, while the context of the task was not, or the materials were not authentic. These include asking and answering getting-to-know-you questions in a a highly controlled context (Day 1), asking and telling time in the game *What's the time, Mr. Wolf?* (Day 3), and ordering at a restaurant for a task whose materials were not authentic (Day 5).

Lastly, the category *TL use opportunities* was also quite consistent over time, with seven out of eight daily averages rated as 1 point and the remaining average (Day 8) rated as 1.67. Many of Jocelyn's main tasks were the culmination of a series of activities that introduced (or reviewed) and practiced language, such as asking and telling the time, using prepositions to describe a location, or talking about superheroes' powers. These main tasks were in the form of a game, as previously described, such as *What's the time, Mr. Wolf?*, *Simon Says*, and *20 Questions*. In *What's the time, Mr. Wolf?* and *Simon Says*, only one student spoke at a time, and while the other students were exposed to L2 input, due to the highly structured nature of the games, the opportunities for L2 use were fairly limited; thus, these tasks received one point for this attribute. In the game *20 Questions*, however, students asked and answered questions of each other to try to determine the identity of a superhero. Since the students were free to ask any yes-or-no question they liked, the opportunities to use the L2 were much greater than in *What's the time, Mr. Wolf?,* in which they repeated the same question each time; thus, this task received a 2 in this category. Other tasks that received one point for *TL use opportunities* include asking and answering getting-to-know-you questions (Day 1), putting a recipe in order (Day 2), ordering at a restaurant (Day 5), and discussing countries around the world (Day 7). Though these tasks were designed to give students a chance to practice using the L2, they were heavily teacher-led, and

thus the potential opportunities for using English were limited by the way the tasks were implemented.

A typical lesson of Jocelyn's was the one she implemented on Day 5. In the pre-task, or warm-up phase, Jocelyn introduced key vocabulary and phrases using a video on YouTube, which she drilled with the students (see Figure 4.3 for an illustration of the timing and contents of the phases). As more vocabulary was introduced, Jocelyn created a word bank on the whiteboard, which served as a reference for the subsequent game. The main task, or activity, was a game in which one student from a group role played ordering from a restaurant using a generic fast-food menu that was projected onto the whiteboard, with Jocelyn acting as the salesperson (see Figure 4.4 for an image of the class playing the game). The opposing team had the opportunity to earn points by recalling the items the other team had ordered. Jocelyn extended the dialogue and introduced new phrases during the game, which took up two-thirds of the class time. This activity was evaluated at 3 out of 8 points for its task-likeness. Three out of four criteria received one point: There are certainly real-world parallels to ordering at a restaurant, but the materials were completely decontextualized (*Real-world parallel* – 1 point); like other games, there was somewhat of a non-linguistic outcome, but the conversation produced in the game was quite repetitive and not very authentic (*Non-linguistic outcome* – 1 point); there were some opportunities for students to produce the L2, but these were limited as the entire game consisted students interacting one at a time with the teacher (*TL use opportunities* – 1 point). The game received no points for *Focus on meaning* because the phrases the students used were highly scripted, with Jocelyn frequently suggesting what they should say next by pointing to phrases in the word bank on the whiteboard.

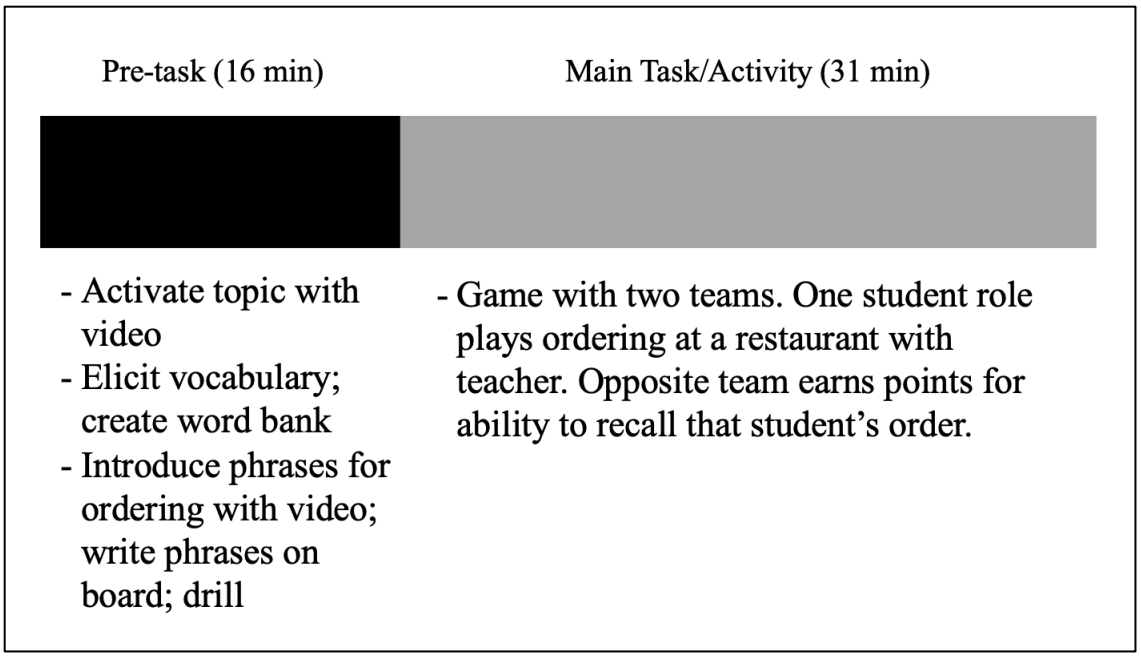

Figure 4.3 Jocelyn: Phases and Timing of a Typical Lesson (Ordering at a Restaurant)

Figure 4.4 Image of Jocelyn's Class Playing the Restaurant Game

4.1.1.2 Task Phases and Task Sequencing

In terms of task phases, of the three focal participants, Jocelyn's approach varied the most. During eight teaching days, she implemented eleven tasks, eight of which were preceded by pre-task activities. The three that were not preceded by pre-task activities were implemented on the first and the last day of teaching. For the majority of her lessons, Jocelyn included a number of pre-task activities, ranging from two to five activities per pre-task phase (see Table 4.3). Jocelyn's pre-task phases included activities such as brainstorming key vocabulary with students and creating word lists, activating students' topic-related background knowledge through teacher-led questions and answers, playing games to practice key phrases for the main task, and using videos to introduce or review key vocabulary and phrases.

Table 4.3 Jocelyn: Task Phases

Day	Topic	Pre-task phase?	Type(s) of pre-task activity	Post-task phase?	Type(s) of post-task activity
1	Getting-to-know-you Qs & As	n		n	
2	Putting a recipe in order	y	Vocabulary & schema activation	n	
3	What's the time, Mr. Wolf?	y	Practice telling the time with videos and games	n	
5	Ordering at a restaurant	y	Practice telling the time with videos and drilling	n	
6	Simon Says	y	Vocabulary activation with realia and videos, drilling, practice playing the game	y	Reviewed principal language with realia
7	Around the world	y	Brainstorming, vocabulary and schema activation	y	Ticket out the door (reflection questions)

Day	Topic	Pre-task phase?	Type(s) of pre-task activity	Post-task phase?	Type(s) of post-task activity
8	Create a superhero	y	Vocabulary activation with videos	n	
	Alien invasion	y	Vocabulary activation with videos, superhero task, group discussion	y	Present to class
	20 Questions	y	Superhero task, alien invasion task, brainstorming	n	
10	Hangman	n		n	
	What's the time, Mr. Wolf?	n		n	

Note: y = yes, n = no

If we exclude the first and last days' lessons, Jocelyn invariably incorporated a pre-task phase with multiple activities for her tasks. However, she was less consistent about including a post-task phase. In fact, she included a post-task phase for just three of her tasks. Even without considering the first and last days' lessons, which were different in their structure, she still implemented nearly twice as many tasks without a post-task phase (i.e., five) as she did with a post-task phase (i.e., three). None of Jocelyn's tasks in Week 1 included a post-task phase. In Week 2, her first three lessons included a post-task phase, each of which was different: On Day 6, students repeated the main task with a slight variation; on Day 7, the post-task phase consisted of ticket-out-the-door questions, similar to those used by John; and on Day 8, after creating a story, the students presented it to the class, much as Chobi's students regularly did during the post-task phase. Disregarding the last two days of SA (On Day 9, Jocelyn was a floater and did not teach, and on Day 10, her lesson was quite different from the others and served as a fun, wrap-up lesson.), Jocelyn's use of post-task activities in Week 2 was more task-like than Week 1, or at least gave her tasks and her lessons more of a sense of closure.

Jocelyn's lessons were independent of each other from one day to the next, and there is little evidence of task sequencing. However, her lesson on Day 8 included three tasks that were related thematically: First, students created superheroes and presented them to the class; next, they worked in groups to decide how their superheroes would save the world from an alien invasion; lastly, they played the game 20 Questions, in which they had to guess the identity of a superhero by asking questions about the superhero's attributes. In this lesson, the first two tasks were sequenced such that the task outcome of the first task was essential to performing the second task. The third task, or game, was an additional means of practicing the language related to superheroes used in the first two tasks.

4.1.1.3 Summary of Jocelyn's Task Design and Implementation

In sum, Jocelyn's approach, in terms of task-based criteria, was quite variable. Judging by the rubric scores, her approach was not very task-like overall: two criteria (*Real-world parallel* and *TL use opportunities*) were consistently rated one out of two points, and the other two were not very consistent, with *Primary focus on meaning* receiving a range of 0 to 2 points and *Non-linguistic outcome* also varying but receiving lower scores on average, indicating it was not a strong feature of her tasks. The average of her daily composite rubric scores (see Figure 4.5) also illustrate that her approach was not very task-like, and there is no evidence of change over time. In terms of task phases, Jocelyn generally used one or more pre-task activities but rarely included a post-task phase. Lastly, one lesson showed evidence of task sequencing, but in general, her lessons included one main task only, and sequencing was not a strong feature of her approach.

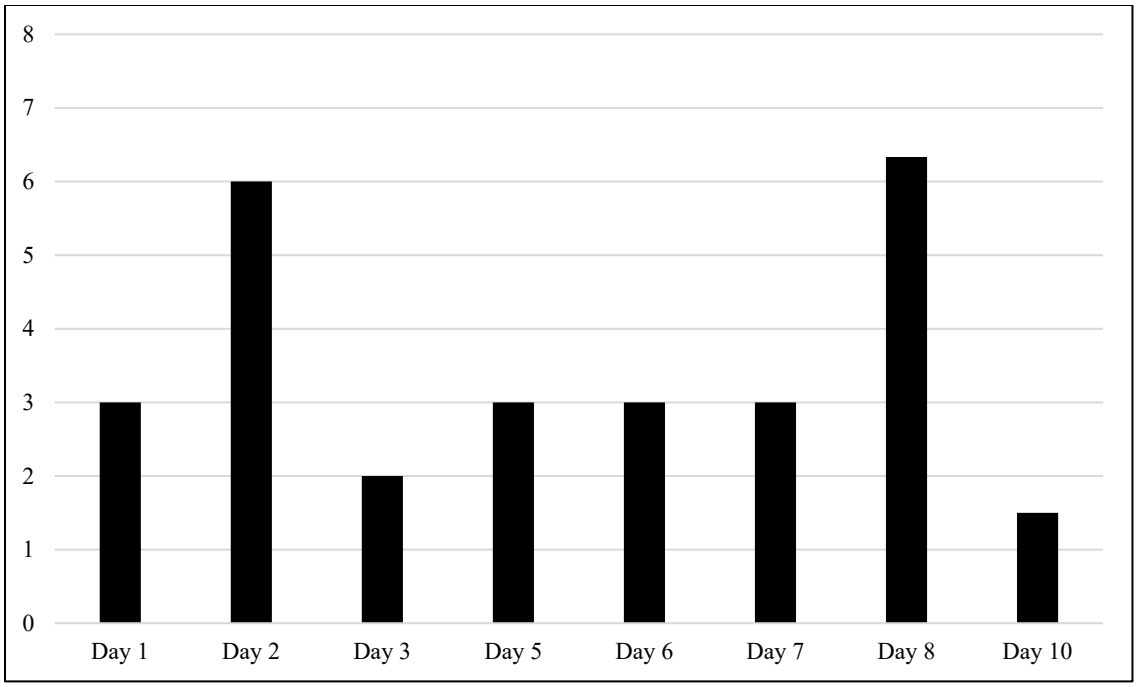

Figure 4.5 Jocelyn: Average Task Rubric Scores by Day

4.1.2 Chobi: Committed to Using Tasks Despite Challenges

Chobi, the more academically prepared undergraduate participant, decided prior to departure to implement a fully task-based approach in her teaching on SA. Although she faced some challenges with time management, which affected her ability to implement her tasks as she had planned, overall, she was quite successful in implementing a task-based approach.

4.1.2.1 Task Ratings

Figure 4.6 shows the number of Chobi's tasks that were rated according to each scoring band. Overall, Chobi's tasks achieved a high degree of task-likeness. All her tasks were rated 5 points or higher (out of 8), and the band with the greatest number of tasks was band 7, with three tasks receiving this rating.

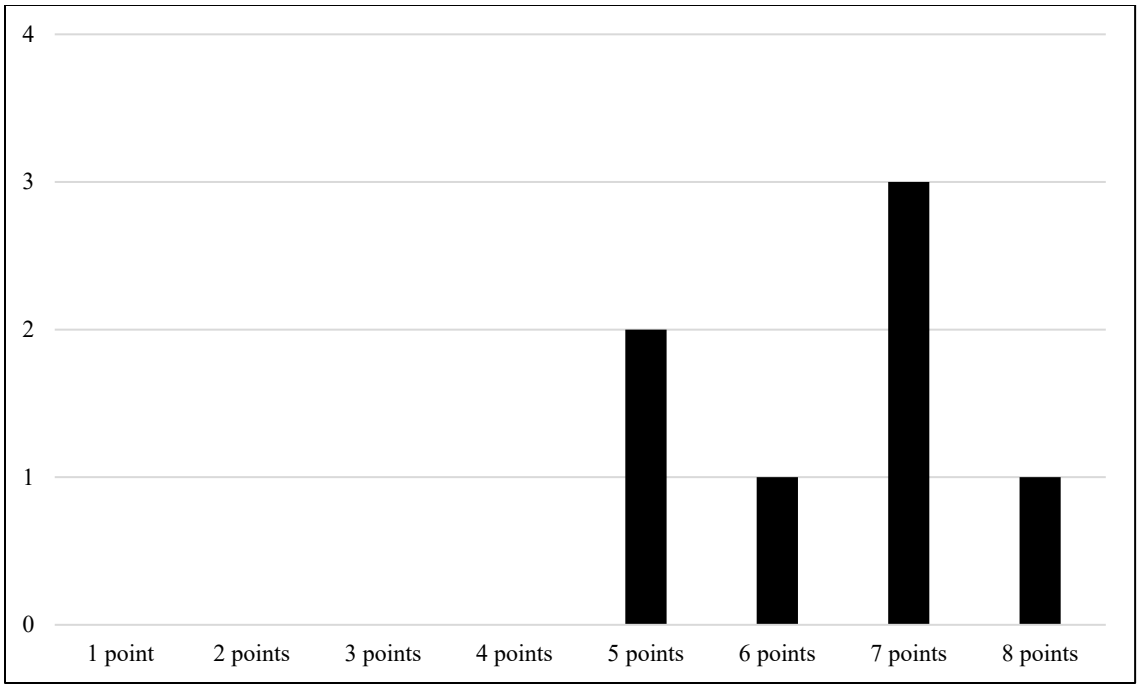

Figure 4.6 Chobi: Number of Tasks Receiving Each Overall Score

Table 4.4 provides a breakdown by criteria for each task's rating. The criterion for which Chobi's tasks were most task-like was *Primary focus on meaning*, with only one task receiving less than the potential 2 points. The next category for which Chobi's tasks were most task-like was *TL use opportunities*; all but two tasks received a full 2 points in this category. Of the two tasks receiving 1 of 2 possible points, the first (Day 9) was not intended to be the main task but became so due to challenges with timing (i.e., she did not have time for the main task she had planned; thus, a pre-task activity was considered the main task in that lesson). The task that was planned for Day 9 would have had greater opportunities for students to use the TL, whereas the task that ended up being the default main task was more limited from this perspective. The second task that received 1 point in this category (Day 10) was the game Jeopardy, which was used on the last day as a review and, due to the nature of the game, did not maximize the opportunities for students to actively use the TL. Thus, it seems that Chobi had a very strong grasp of the need for tasks to give students the opportunity to use the TL and was quite

successful in designing tasks that achieved this objective, just as she successfully designed and implemented tasks that focused on meaning rather than form.

Table 4.4 Chobi: Task Ratings

		Rubric scores				
Day	Topic	Primary focus on meaning (0-2 points)	Real-world parallel (0-2 points)	Non-linguistic outcome (0-2 points)	TL use opportunities (0-2 points)	Total
1	Souvenirs	2	1	1	2	6
3	Utopia	2	1	2	2	7
5	Camping	1	2	2	2	7
6	Recipes	2	2	2	2	8
8	Spells	2	1	2	2	7
9	Countries	2	2	0	1	5
10	Jeopardy	2	1	1	1	5

The scores for Chobi's tasks in the remaining two categories were much more varied. For *Non-linguistic outcome*, 57 percent of her tasks were rated 2 points, 29 percent were rated 1 point, and 14 percent were rated 0 points. The task that received zero points in this category (Day 9) was the same task that rated lower in the *TL use opportunities* category. In this activity, Chobi asked students what country they would travel to for a certain reason (e.g., to eat good food) and then asked individuals to tell the class the reason for their choice. Because it was planned as a pre-task activity, this allowed students to familiarize themselves with the content material but did not have a clear outcome; thus, it received 0 points for *Non-linguistic outcome*. Chobi's Day 1 task, an information gap activity in which students exchanged information about souvenirs, also received a low score in this category (1 point). Chobi had planned a subsequent task in which students would have used the information they gathered in the information gap to make a decision about which souvenirs to purchase for different people. Had the lesson been implemented as planned, this might have affected the way the information gap task was viewed

(i.e., it might have been seen as a pre-task activity), and the follow-up, or main, task would have had a higher rating in this category. However, since the students did not have time to complete all the planned activities, the information gap was considered the main task. Lastly, Chobi's main task on Day 10, Jeopardy, was a game and did not have a strong non-linguistic outcome; therefore, it also received one point in this category. Thus, as implemented, Chobi's tasks received varied ratings in this category, but if Chobi implemented her tasks the way she had planned, all those except games would have rated very high in this category; therefore, it appears that Chobi's understanding of this aspect of tasks was strong, and her intended tasks rated high in this category, while her tasks as implemented were somewhat less strong.

For the last criterion, *Real-world parallel*, Chobi's tasks were nearly equally split between a 2-point rating (43%) and a 1-point rating (57%). Some of the tasks had clear real-world parallels, such as planning a camping trip (Day 5) or writing a recipe (Day 6), whereas others were activities that students might realistically undertake in an academic setting but did not have clear parallels to real life, such as designing a utopia (Day 3). In her Week 2 interview, Chobi noted that she felt creativity was key to a successful task, even if it might not promote real-world language, and this was evident in her tasks such as writing a magical spell (Day 8). Chobi believed that since she was teaching in an EFL context, the real-world aspect of tasks might not be the most important one for her students and that fostering students' creativity and enthusiasm through tasks was more important than seeking to create realistic tasks.

Chobi's composite task ratings, when viewed over time (see Figure 4.7), at first glance appear to resemble a bell curve. However, if the last day's activity, which was a review game and received 5 points out of 8, is excluded, the penultimate day's task, which also received the lowest rating of Chobi's tasks (5 points), appears to be more of an anomaly, rather than a

potential trend of Chobi implementing activities that were progressively less task-like. Overall, with a bit of variation, Chobi implemented tasks that were highly task-like.

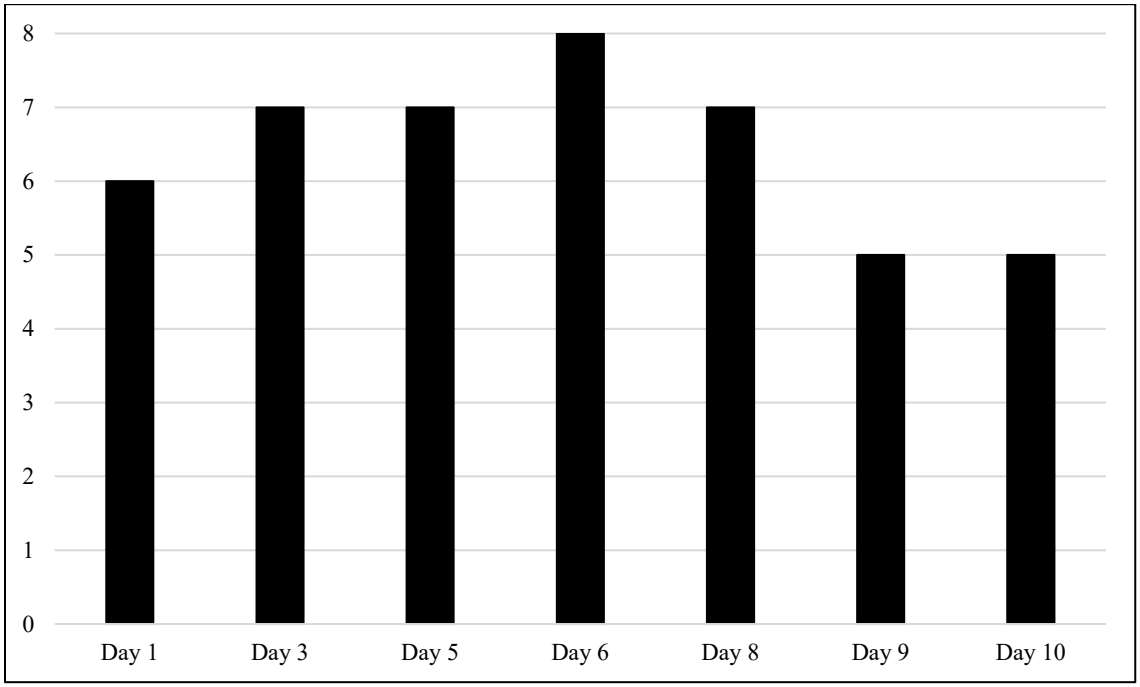

Figure 4.7 Chobi: Average Task Rubric Scores by Day

An example of a typical task of Chobi's was her lesson on Day 3, in which students designed a utopia (see Figure 4.8 for images from the Power Point presentation used in class). After introducing the topic with scenes from the film *The Hunger Games*, students recalled key vocabulary that could be useful for the task (pre-task phase; see Figure 4.9 for an illustration of the timing and contents of a typical task). During the main task phase, students designed utopias in pairs. After designing their utopia, pairs presented them to the class, and students voted on the best utopia (post-task phase). The post-task phase also included a class discussion on problems in society.

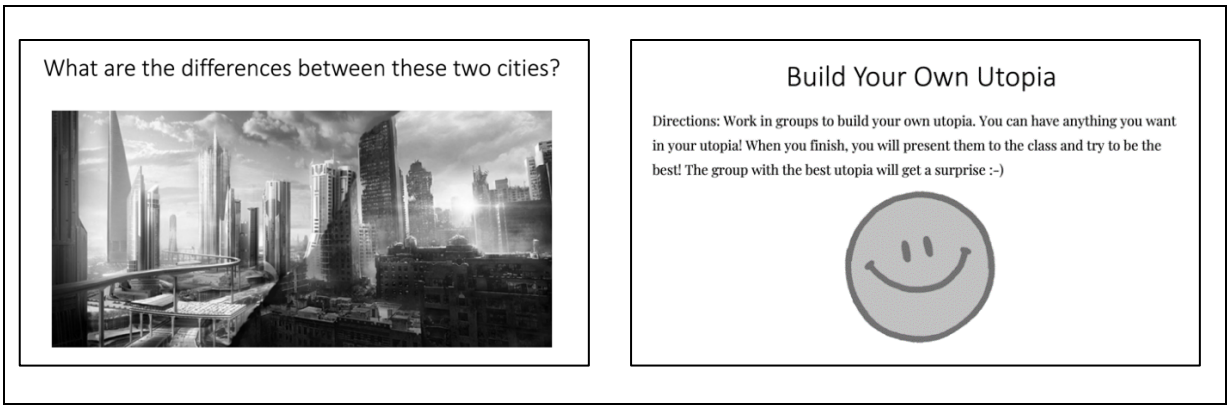

Figure 4.8 Power Point Slides from Chobi's Utopia Lesson

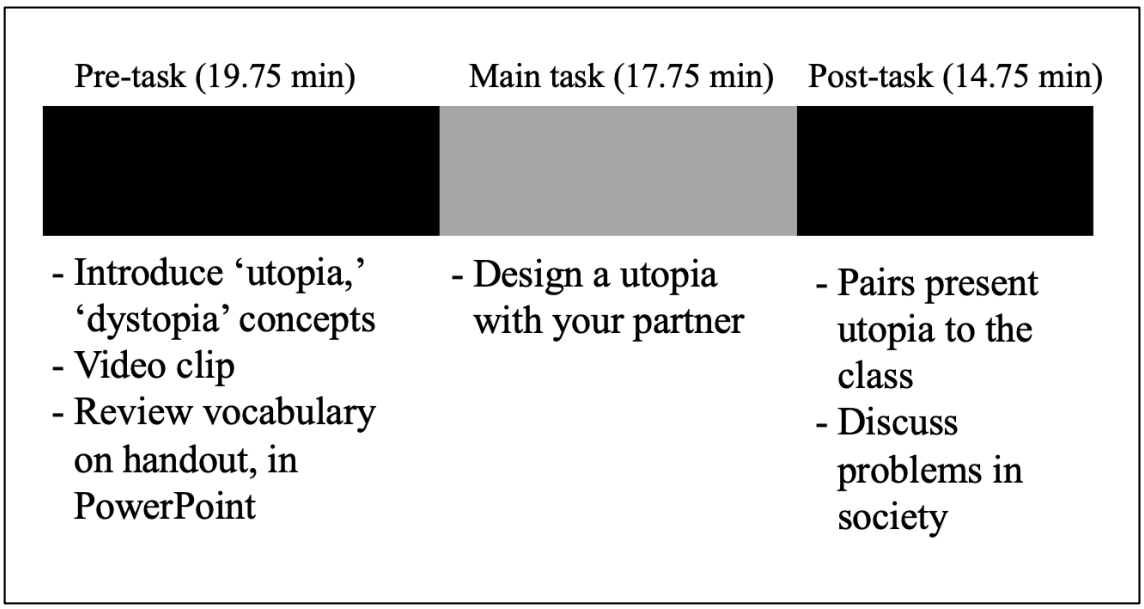

Figure 4.9 Chobi: Phases and Timing of a Typical Lesson (Design a Utopia)

For three of the four criteria in the analytic rubric, this task earned a full two points: During task performance, students were free to use any language at their disposal and focused on the design of their utopia (*Primary focus on meaning* – 2 points); successful completion of the task had a clear product—the hypothetical utopia—which students subsequently presented to the class (*Non-linguistic outcome* – 2 points); and working in pairs or small groups to achieve a shared goal, students had ample opportunities to speak in English (*TL use opportunities* – 2 points). The one area in which this task earned less than full points was that of *Real-world*

parallel (1 point). As noted previously, working in a group to design a utopia is a plausible activity for students to complete in an academic setting, but there are fewer similarities to real-world activities than might be present in other tasks.

4.1.2.2 Task Phases and Task Sequencing

In her interviews, Chobi stated that she was following a task-based approach, and in many ways, the tasks she implemented in the classroom and her use of task phases reflect this intention. Each of Chobi's seven lessons was planned as a single task cycle, and, apart from Jeopardy, which students played to review material on the last day, each lesson had a pre-task phase (see Table 4.5). Chobi's pre-task activities usually included brief conversations with students to activate the topic of the task and activities to brainstorm vocabulary related to the task, often with the help of power point presentations incorporating GIFs of key terms. On several occasions, Chobi utilized video clips to activate students' familiarity with the day's topic.

Table 4.5 Chobi: Task Phases

Day	Topic	Pre-task phase?	Type(s) of pre-task activity	Post-task phase?	Type(s) of post-task activity
1	Souvenirs	y	Vocabulary activation	n	
3	Utopia	y	Vocabulary activation with Power Point presentation	y	Present to class, class discussion
5	Camping	y	Vocabulary activation	y	Present to class, telling stories
6	Recipes	y	Vocabulary activation with video, Power Point presentation	y	Present to class
8	Spells	y	Vocabulary activation with Power Point presentation, practice writing a spell	y	Present to class
9	Countries	y	Brainstorming, vocabulary activation with Power Point presentation	n	
10	Jeopardy	n		n	

Note: y = yes, n = no

At first glance, it appears from Table 4.5 that Chobi included a post-task phase just over half of the time. However, for two of the three lessons that were lacking a post-task phase, there is a logistical explanation. On Day 1, Chobi had a post-task phase planned but ran out of time to implement it. Similarly, on Day 9, Chobi's planned task had a post-task phase, but because she spent too much time on a pre-task activity, she was unable to complete the main task, and thus she did not arrive at the post-task phase. The final lesson that was lacking a post-task phase was the last day, during which Chobi's class played Jeopardy as a review. Because this was a game and a review activity, there was no planned post-task phase. As seen in the rubric analysis results, this was one of the least task-like activities that Chobi implemented, which corresponds to the fact that the task cycle was incomplete.

Each of Chobi's lessons had a unique topic and was independent of her other lessons; thus, there was very little task sequencing in Chobi's lessons. However, she did intentionally incorporate familiar content in subsequent lessons, such as when she reintroduced the idea of a dystopia (Day 3's topic) when students were tasked with writing magical spells in order to fix a problem (Day 8). Chobi noted that she was pleased at how much her students remembered from her lesson on utopias when they used the vocabulary again on Day 8 (Chobi, SA Week 2 Interview). Thus, Chobi had an idea of the merits of reviewing and recycling previously covered content, but task sequencing was not a feature of her lessons.

4.1.2.3 Summary of Chobi's Task Design and Implementation

To sum up, Chobi's lessons were highly task-like, judging by both the composite rubric scores and also in terms of the criteria for having a primary focus on meaning and giving opportunities for students to use the L2. Her tasks were more varied in terms of including a non-linguistic outcome, and a real-world parallel was not always a strong feature of her tasks, though

this was often a choice and not a shortcoming or an inability to design tasks with that characteristic. Chobi planned very task-like lessons, which included a pre-task phase, during-task phase, and post-task phase, although due to issues with timing, the post-task activities were not always implemented. The majority of her tasks involved pair or group work followed by students presenting their group's outcome to the class. Chobi's lessons did not incorporate task sequencing, since each lesson was equivalent to one task cycle and independent of previous or subsequent lessons.

4.1.3 John: Using Tasks to Engage His Students

When asked what approach he planned to take while teaching on SA, John—the most academically advanced of the three focal participants—stated that he was taking a task-based approach in his lessons because he believed it would be the best way to engage his students in using English (John, Predeparture Interview). This decision is evident both in the ratings of his tasks obtained using the analytic rubric and in his use of task phases.

4.1.3.1 Task Ratings

Figure 4.10 shows the number of John's tasks that were rated according to each scoring band using the analytic rubric, which ranged from 1 to 8 points. It is immediately clear that in general, like Chobi, his tasks achieved a high degree of task-likeness. The lowest rating any of his tasks received was a 5, and the band with the greatest number of tasks was 8, the highest score possible.

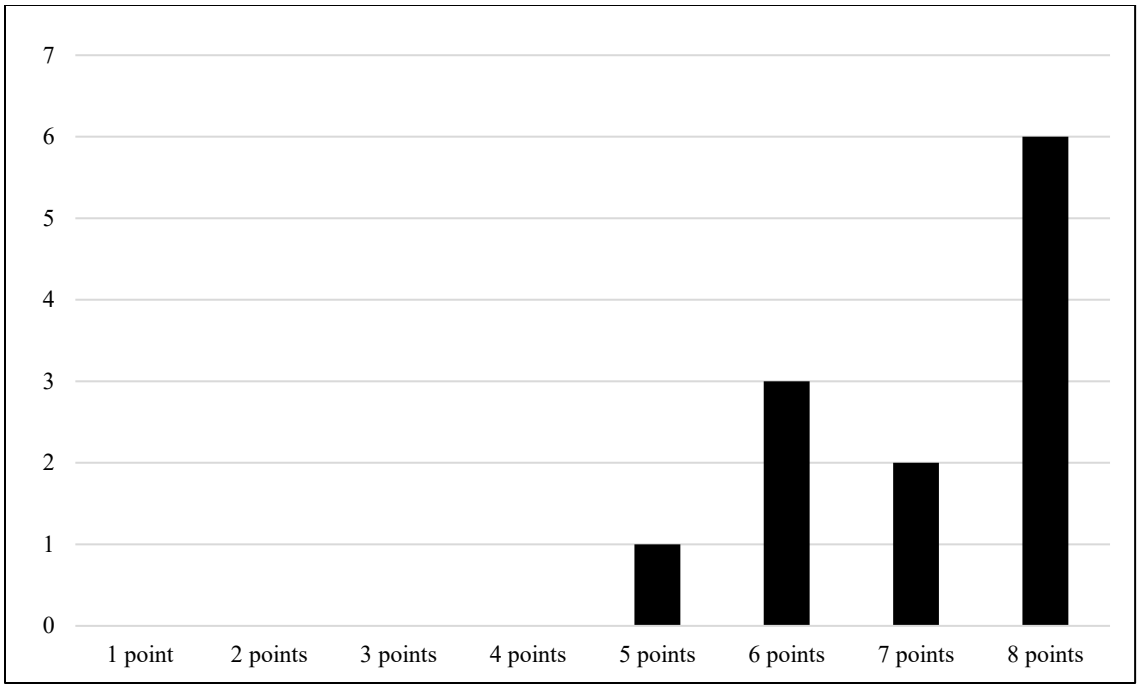

Figure 4.10 John: Number of Tasks Receiving Each Overall Score

Table 4.6 provides a breakdown of the four criteria of the ratings for each task. From this analysis, it is clear that John, like Chobi, had a very clear grasp on two concepts, *Primary focus on meaning* and *TL use opportunities*, and was able to fully achieve their implementation nearly one hundred percent of the time. John felt strongly that students should be *using* the L2, not just *studying* it (John, Predeparture Interview), which may have positively influenced his task design in providing his learners with opportunities to use English. His tasks also received full points for the criterion *real-world parallel* two-thirds of the time, whereas one-third of the time, they received one point in that category. It does not appear that there was a progression over time, rather that perhaps for certain tasks, this aspect was more difficult to achieve. For the criterion *Non-linguistic outcome*, John's tasks were rated 2 points half of the time and 1 point the other half of the time. These ratings follow a similar pattern to those in the *Real-world parallel* category; in fact, the same tasks that received 1 point for their real-world aspect also received less than full marks for having a non-linguistic outcome. Thus, it seems that certain tasks fell

short of being fully task-like in more than one way. One of these tasks (on Day 4) was an information gap task, which, while traditionally recognized as a typical task, does not have many real-world applications. John's tasks in which students gave and followed directions (Day 6) had parallels to a real-world activity but were implemented in somewhat limited ways that did not fully develop their realistic potential (i.e., the places to which students gave directions on a map were schematic and not life-like, and when students gave directions to each other to follow physically in a game setting, it did not resemble following directions as one would when, say, looking for a location in a city); thus all three of these tasks received 1 point for *Real-world parallel*. The tasks on the last day of teaching were also rated low in these categories (*Real-world parallel*, *Non-linguistic outcome*) due to their implementation (i.e., the survey did not use the results in a meaningful way and thus did not have a clear non-linguistic outcome) or due to the game-like nature of the activity (i.e., playing Jeopardy as a review had neither a clear non-linguistic outcome nor strong parallels to real-world L2 use).

Table 4.6 John: Task Ratings

		Rubric scores				
Day	Topic	Primary focus on meaning (0-2 points)	Real-world parallel (0-2 points)	Non-linguistic outcome (0-2 points)	TL use opportunities (0-2 points)	Total
1	Vacations task 1	2	2	2	2	8
	Vacations task 2	2	2	2	2	8
3	Bike tour	2	2	2	2	8
4	Survey	2	2	1	2	7
	Info gap	2	1	1	2	6
5	Proposals	2	2	2	2	8
6	Directions-map	2	1	1	2	6
	Directions-outside	2	1	1	2	6
8	Protest	2	2	2	2	8
9	Debate	2	2	2	2	8
10	Survey	2	2	1	2	7
	Jeopardy	2	1	1	1	5

There is some fluctuation in John's overall task scores during the two weeks (see Figure 4.11 for average rubric scores by day). However, especially if we disregard the scores on the last day of teaching, which was not typical for a number of reasons (e.g., teachers saw this day as a review; they were focused on preparing their students for an end-of-camp ceremony; they had to be flexible due to variations in the daily schedule), it is apparent that John largely implemented activities that were highly task-like, with the occasional task that was slightly less task-like.

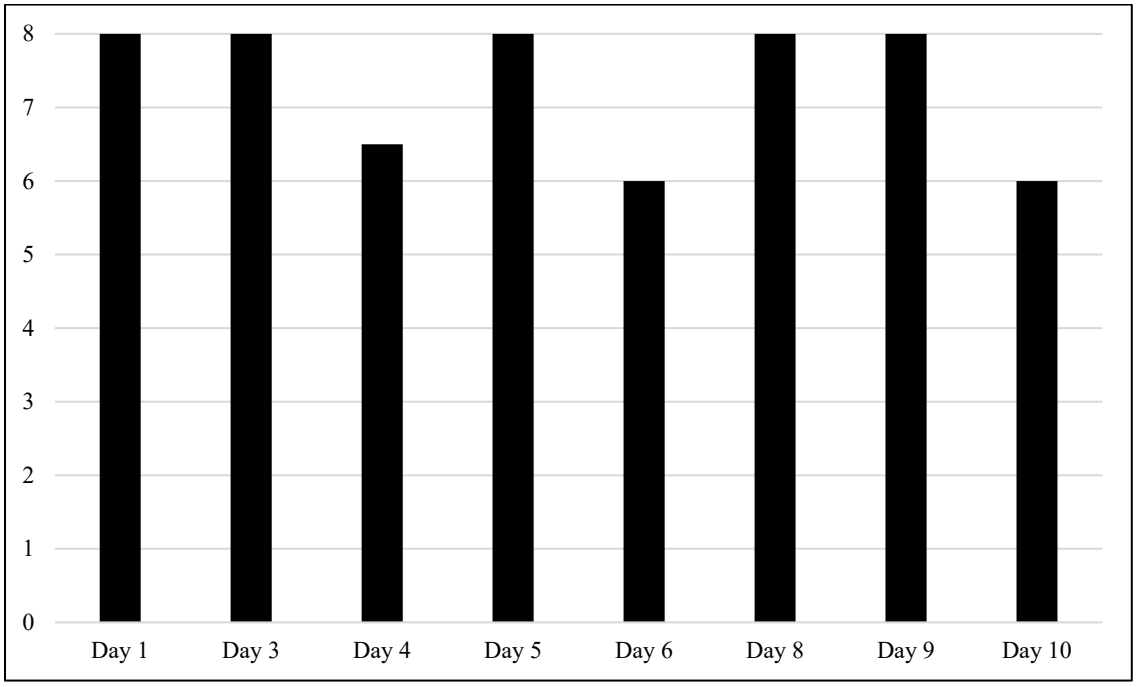

Figure 4.11 John: Average Task Rubric Scores by Day

An example of a typical task that John created and implemented was the task that comprised his lesson on Day 3, in which students worked in pairs to design a bike tour of their city (see Figure 4.12 for an illustration of the timing and contents of the task phases). In the pre-task phase, students brainstormed a list of tourist sites in their city. John also presented an example tour of Atlanta as a model. In the main task phase, the pairs of students planned a city bike tour in pairs, which required determining the order of the sites to visit and the associated costs (see Figure 4.13 for the task handout). In the post-task phase, pairs presented their tours,

and the class voted for the best tour. This task was evaluated as being fully task-like (i.e., it was rated 8 out of 8 points): During the task, students were clearly focused on discussing the topic matter, with no particular emphasis on grammar or specific vocabulary (*Primary focus on meaning*); it incorporated real-world locations that students were familiar with and was an activity students might perform for friends visiting from out of town (*Real-world parallel*); while performing the task, students were working to achieve a goal (i.e., create a tour of their city; *Non-linguistic outcome*); and the majority of the time was spent in discussion with group members, with students having ample speaking and listening opportunities as they chose locations and designed a route for their tour (*TL use opportunities*).

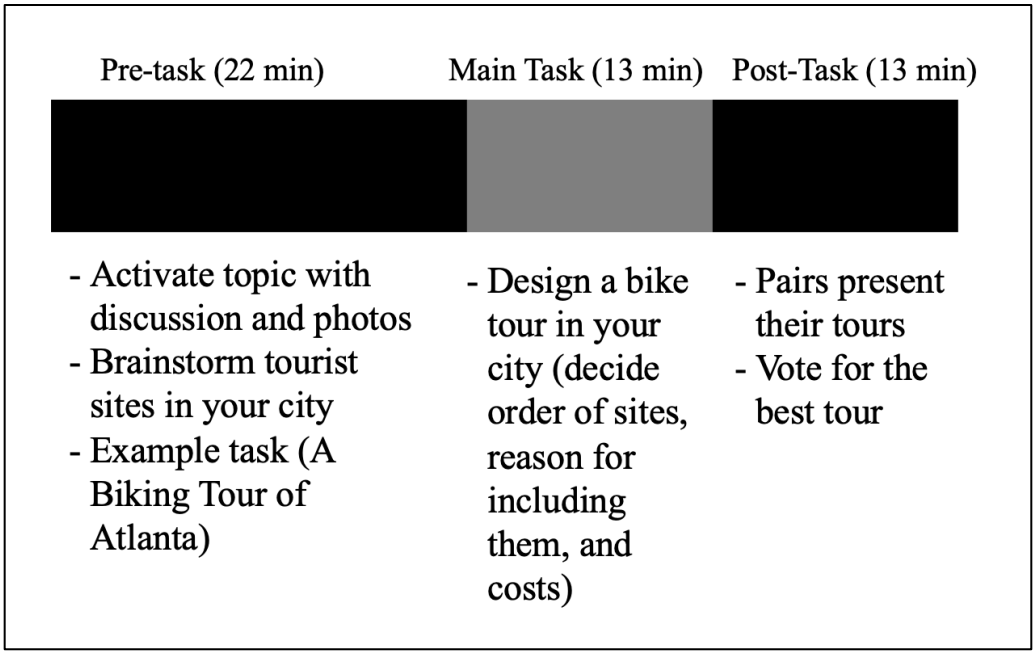

Figure 4.12 John: Phases and Timing of a Typical Lesson (Design a Bike Tour)

Destination	Price of Attraction
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	

Figure 4.13 Excerpt of Handout for John's Bike Tour Task

4.1.3.2 Task Phases and Task Sequencing

In the twelve tasks that John implemented on SA, he nearly always included a pre-task activity (see Table 4.7). In fact, the only tasks for which he did not implement at least one pre-task activity were the two tasks he implemented on the last day. In that lesson, prior to the students conducting a survey, he briefly reminded them of the topic, which had been covered during the previous day's lesson, and checked that they recalled how to carry out a survey, which they had already done in a previous lesson, before they began asking each other the survey questions. Before beginning the second task, in which students played Jeopardy, John explained the rules of the game and modelled how to play, but since the game was a review of material covered over the two weeks, he did not conduct any pre-task activities. Unlike the tasks in this last lesson, John usually implemented at least one pre-task activity. For example, on the fourth day of teaching, the students also carried out a survey, related to travelling. Prior to conducting the survey, students discussed airports and places they had travelled to, analyzed boarding

passes, and drew and discussed airport signs. The implementation of this survey was typical of John's lessons, which usually included a series of pre-task activities, allowing students to activate their knowledge related to the topic, activate schemata, and brainstorm vocabulary they could use in the upcoming task.

Table 4.7 John: Task Phases

Day	Topic	Pre-task phase?	Type(s) of pre-task activity	Post-task phase?	Type(s) of post-task activity
1	Vacations task 1	y	Brainstorming	n	
	Vacations task 2	y	Brainstorming, Task 1	y	Present to class
3	Bike tour	y	Brainstorming, vocabulary activation	y	Present to class
4	Survey	y	Vocabulary activation, drawing signs	y	Teacher-led wrap-up
	Information gap	y	Vocabulary activation, drawing signs, travel survey	n	
5	Proposals	y	Vocabulary activation, partner discussion, brainstorming	y	Present to class
6	Directions-map	y	Brainstorming	y	Teacher-led wrap-up
	Directions-outside	y	Brainstorming, Task 1	y	Teacher elicited words learned
8	Protest	y	Brainstorming, vocabulary activation	y	Present to class
9	Debate	y	Brainstorming, partner discussion, vocabulary activation, practice debate	y	Ticket out the door (reflection questions)
10	Survey	n		y	Teacher-led wrap-up
	Jeopardy	n		n	

Note: y = yes, n = no

Similarly, the majority of John's tasks also included a post-task phase (see Table 4.7). Aside from Jeopardy, which was a review game that students played on the last day and unlike the other tasks John designed, only two tasks did not include at least a brief post-task activity. John's first task on the first day of teaching required pairs of students to choose a location from a

list of places they had compiled individually and plan a vacation there together. Immediately following the conclusion of this task, students completed a second task in which they worked in larger groups to discuss and choose one of their vacations, which they had to agree they would all take together. In this lesson, though there was no post-task phase for the first task, it was followed seamlessly by a second task, and thus was a good example of task sequencing (Willis & Willis, 2007). John's second task on Day 4, an information gap task involving boarding passes, was followed by a "ticket out the door" activity, in which students answered travel-related questions on their way out of the classroom. This day's lesson is different from John's Day 9 task, a debate, following which a ticket-out-the-door activity was used as a post-task activity. However, whereas the ticket-out-the-door activity on Day 9 included questions related specifically to the task (e.g., *What is a rebuttal?*), the ticket-out-the-door questions on Day 4 were related to the day's theme but not specifically to the main task, and thus do not clearly constitute a post-task phase. John's remaining eight tasks had post-task phases of two types: in four instances, students presented their task outcome (e.g., a proposal, Day 5) to the class, and in the remaining four cases, John led a wrap-up discussion that prompted students to reflect on their task performance or recall things they had learned while performing the task.

In addition to designing tasks with distinct phases, as teachers had studied during the predeparture period, John had intentions to sequence tasks, from simple to complex to reflection tasks (John, Predeparture Interview). He achieved this sequence in some of his lessons. For example, on Day 1, the output of his first task, completed by students in pairs, was the basis of his second task, completed in groups of four. On Day 4, a survey about travel was followed by an information gap task related to boarding passes and travel information. On Day 6, following a pre-task phase, pairs of students gave and followed directions using a map. This pedagogic task

was followed by a more real-world version of the task in which students gave each other directions that they followed physically out of doors, giving the task a component of movement that could make it be considered more complex. The lesson concluded with a brief teacher-led conversation in which students reflected on what they had learned while completing the two tasks. Lastly, on Day 10, students first completed a survey related to the previous day's topic, video games. This was followed by the game Jeopardy, which reviewed material covered throughout the two weeks. While this sequence may have progressed from simple to complex, it was less successful in directly connecting the content of the two tasks; however, as previously noted, the last day was not typical for a variety of reasons.

In sum, all of John's tasks except those on the last day included a pre-task phase. Three of his tasks did not have a post-task phase: the first task on the first day, which was part of a task sequence; his Day 6 information gap task; and his final task on the last day (Jeopardy). Like John's first task, his last task, Jeopardy, was not typical of his other lessons. Excluding these two atypical tasks, all but one of his tasks included a post-task phase. Thus, overall, John consistently planned and implemented lessons with three easily identifiable task phases, and he evidenced awareness of task sequencing and implemented it with some success in several of his lessons.

4.1.3.3 Summary of John's Task Design and Implementation

In summary, John started with a clear understanding of task phases and task characteristics. Many of his tasks received a full 8 points when evaluated using an analytic rubric. His tasks were strongest in achieving the aspects of having a primary focus on meaning and providing TL use opportunities for his students. While not to the same extent, John's activities also were quite task-like in terms of having real-world parallels and non-linguistic

outcomes. During the two weeks of teaching on SA, John consistently implemented tasks that incorporated both pre- and post-task phases, with one strong example of task sequencing.

4.2 Discussion

The TEFL course in the current study differs from that of previous studies on TBLT in preservice SLTE programs in that those programs had a duration of one year (e.g., East, 2014, 2020; Erlam, 2016; Han, 2018) or one semester at the participants' own university (e.g., Ellis, 2015), whereas the preservice teachers in the current study participated in predeparture coursework spanning two months and then taught on SA for a two-week period. Nonetheless, comparing participants' experiences may reveal universal commonalities or highlight differences that could be individual or program-related.

4.2.1 Jocelyn: Implementing Tasks and Games to Make Using L2 Fun

Like Chobi and John, and as noted by scholars of many preservice teachers (e.g., Beijaard & Verloop, 1996), Jocelyn was open to learning about different teaching methods and approaches, in particular because she had not had any formal training and had not previously taken any courses related to TEFL (Jocelyn, Pre-course Interview). Prior to SA, Jocelyn noted that she felt she was supposed to follow a task-based approach and to avoid PPP because of the need to avoid explicit grammar teaching during SA (Jocelyn, Predeparture Interview). However, like the teachers in Zhang and Luo's (2014) study, whose stated beliefs differed from their classroom practices, Jocelyn's approach in the classroom was not typical of TBLT. Her Day 1 lesson primarily consisted of teacher-led question-and-answer drills, while Day 2 included a game, a task, and a story-telling activity. Jocelyn's lessons on Days 3, 5, and 6 could best be described as following the PPP method, with the inclusion of a game as the last element and an opportunity for freer practice of the day's language focus. Day 7 incorporated vocabulary-

building activities, followed by a game—the simulation of boarding a plane and taking off—that was loosely tied to the day's topic, travel. Day 8 was characterized by two tasks leading up to a game, and Jocelyn's final day of teaching comprised two games that were used as a review of the two weeks. Thus, the main element that was consistent throughout Jocelyn's lessons was her use of a game as the culminating activity. This corresponds to her description of her approach, in which she stated that she was not attempting to follow a particular method, but rather wanted to make learning English fun for the children (Jocelyn, SA Week 1 Interview). This approach is similar to that of Erlam's (2016) participants, the majority of whom were teaching young learners and chose to use games in order to motivate their students.

The above-described variation in the structure of Jocelyn's lessons and her stated intention not to follow a given method makes it somewhat difficult to characterize Jocelyn's approach to teaching in the classroom. Although Jocelyn stated that she did not believe she was implementing PPP (Week 1 Interview), her description of the way she planned her lessons (i.e., start with vocabulary-building or teach a sentence structure, practice that with an activity or a game, and then do a bigger activity or game in which students are more independent; Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview) resembled PPP, and three of her lessons adhered to the methodology fairly closely. This could be due to the tendency of preservice teachers to fall back on the way they learned as students when they first begin teaching (Johnson, 1994), which Jocelyn herself noted might have been the case (Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview), especially since her favorite language instructor favored presentations followed by practice (Jocelyn, Autobiography). Like the teachers in Phipps and Borg's (2009) study, whose teaching defaulted to ideas rooted in practical experience when contrasts between their stated beliefs and practices arose, when uncertain about a new teaching approach she had been encouraged to try (i.e.,

TBLT), Jocelyn may have reverted to the method which she had experienced firsthand as a language learner (i.e., PPP), though she tried to integrate elements of the new approach.

Jocelyn noted that although she was not doing grammar presentations in class, she did prefer to begin a lesson by highlighting or teaching vocabulary and phrases and then have students practice those words and phrases (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview), a sequence typical of PPP. Rather than priming students in a pre-task phase and activating students' previously held knowledge, as would be the case for a task-based lesson (Ellis, 2003), Jocelyn often introduced new language that students would practice throughout the lesson, which is not characteristic of TBLT. This aspect of Jocelyn's approach is similar to the approach of Zheng and Borg's (2014) participant, Ms. Ma, who believed there was a need for explicit, preemptive grammar work. Like all three of Zheng and Borg's focal participants, who principally saw tasks as opportunities for students to communicate in pairs or groups, Jocelyn seemed to view tasks as a means for students to practice language, in particular orally (Jocelyn, Predeparture Assignments, SA Week 2 Interview). Thus, she included tasks and games, which she viewed as somewhat similar to tasks, in her lessons as a way for students to practice that day's language focus (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview). Rather than tasks being the principal element in her lessons, as is typical of TBLT, they were key elements that enriched her lessons and provided learning or practice opportunities, as is typical of a task-supported approach (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). During the predeparture period, Jocelyn indicated that she believed that one benefit of TSLT was the teacher's ability to focus on a certain form during a lesson, and she expressed a preference for focused tasks for the same reason (Jocelyn, Predeparture Assignments). In contrast to John and Chobi, as well as to Erlam's (2016) participants, this indicates that Jocelyn viewed her students

as language learners rather than language users, as would be typical of a task-based perspective (Ellis, 2017a; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010).

In addition to using the method she was most familiar with, other factors may have shaped Jocelyn's teaching approach during SA. Like Ms. Ma (Zheng & Borg, 2014), whose concerns about class sizes and mixed levels led her not to fully embrace TBLT, Jocelyn stated on numerous occasions (e.g., Predeparture Assignments, SA Week 2 Interview, Post-SA Interview, Post-SA Focus Group Interview) that she felt that TBLT was more appropriate for older or more advanced learners. Like Erlam and Ellis's (2018b) focal participant, Jocelyn enjoyed the sense of accomplishment that came from students completing tasks (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview). However, unlike teachers who have successfully implemented input-based tasks with beginner-level learners (Erlam & Ellis, 2018b; Shintani, 2016), Jocelyn used production-based tasks and noted being scared to do so given her students' age and level. Her concerns regarding the feasibility of using tasks with low-proficiency learners echo those of other teachers (Samuda & Bygate, 2008); because of those concerns, Jocelyn used games more often than tasks (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview). Additionally, Jocelyn's position was similar to that of East's (2014) participants, who had positive views of TBLT following their year of training but maintained that their choice or ability to implement it would depend on their teaching context. Jocelyn, who was quite positive about TBLT in theory, noted she would be more likely to implement it in the future with adults (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview) or in an ESL context (Jocelyn, Predeparture Interview). Lastly, the demanding nature of TBLT may have required more expertise than a novice teacher like Jocelyn had (Long, 2016).

Like John and Chobi, as well as participants in previous studies (e.g., Ellis, 2015), Jocelyn included numerous activities in her lessons that might be considered part of a pre-task

phase. However, as noted previously, overall, Jocelyn's lessons were not always task-like. Thus, some activities, such as brainstorming a word bank with food vocabulary (Day 5) or activating students' schemata regarding travel (Day 7) would be considered pre-task activities, while others, such as drilling phrases to use in a restaurant (Day 5), which were necessary for the following activity, would not be considered pre-task activities. Rather, these could be seen as controlled practice opportunities in a PPP lesson. Meanwhile, Jocelyn included activities that could be considered part of a post-task phase after only three of the eleven tasks she implemented, or just over a quarter of the time, indicating that overall, she did not conduct lessons with a strong sense of the task cycle. Similarly, many of Jocelyn's lessons could be viewed as having a number of smaller activities leading up to one main activity or game. However, these would not be considered examples of task sequencing. One clear exception was her lesson on Day 8, in which the outcome of the first task—a student-created superhero—was an essential component of the subsequent task in which students planned how to save the world from an alien invasion. In general, though Jocelyn acknowledged the advantages of using tasks with well-defined non-linguistic outcomes, she felt that using a series of activities that kept her students engaged was more important, especially given their age (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 interview).

In contrast to the tasks implemented by the other focal participants in this study and by the teachers in Erlam's (2016) study, overall, Jocelyn's classroom activities were not very task-like, as evidenced by the rubric ratings. Similar to John and Chobi's criteria ratings, however, one criterion did receive high ratings in Jocelyn's tasks—that of *Primary focus on meaning*. However, although her average score for this category was relatively high compared the scores of other criteria for her tasks, Jocelyn still received full points in this category less than 50

percent of the time. Jocelyn was more focused on form compared to the other focal participants in this study, and this is reflected in the rubric ratings. The criterion for which Jocelyn's tasks received the highest ratings was *TL use opportunities*, which was the second highest criterion for John and Chobi, following *Primary focus on meaning*. Again, however, although the rankings among the three participants are similar, Jocelyn's tasks received lower ratings for *TL use opportunities* (1.18 on average) compared to the other focal participants (John, 1.92; Chobi, 1.71). This can be explained by the nature of some games that Jocelyn implemented and the fact that some of her other tasks (e.g., ordering a recipe, travel vocabulary-building) were heavily teacher-led, limiting the opportunities students had to use the TL.

Like John, and in contrast to Erlam's (2016) teachers, the category in which Jocelyn's tasks scored lowest on average was *Non-linguistic outcome*. (Chobi's tasks also received lower ratings for this criterion, but they received the same score as for *Real-world parallel*.) Since one of Jocelyn's main goals was to make learning fun for her students and to get them talking, she was not necessarily focused on a task outcome, or product, but rather on encouraging them to use the L2 in some way. Although she commented on the usefulness of having a non-linguistic outcome, she also stated that she was hesitant to do discussion-based tasks or any activity other than games due to her students' age and proficiency level (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview)—contextual factors that previous studies (e.g., Zheng & Borg, 2014) have noted may deter teachers from implementing TBLT. Lastly, like Chobi, Jocelyn did not receive high ratings for the *Real-world parallel* of her tasks (73 percent of her tasks received one out of two possible points for this criterion, while 18% of her tasks received 0 points, and only 9% received 2 points). Unlike Chobi, for whom the lower scores for this criterion reflected her intentional choice of fantastical topics, Jocelyn often selected realistic language (e.g., ordering in a

restaurant), but the materials or the context of the L2 use in her lesson did not reflect real-world usage.

In sum, the relative rankings of criteria for Jocelyn's tasks were similar to both John's and Chobi's tasks: *TL use opportunities* and *Primary focus on meaning* were relatively higher, while *Real-world parallel* and *Non-linguistic outcome* were lower. However, unlike the other focal participants in this study and the participants in Erlam's (2016) study, the main activity in Jocelyn's classes was frequently not very task-like. Furthermore, she demonstrated little evidence of task sequencing, and while she regularly incorporated pre-task activities, her lessons did not usually reflect a complete task cycle.

4.2.2 Chobi: Committed to Using Tasks Despite Challenges

As scholars (e.g., Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010) have previously noted, SLTE programs can be an ideal time for preservice teachers to learn about and assess a novel teaching approach, such as TBLT, as well as discuss its pros and cons with peers and experts, which was certainly true for Chobi, the more academically advanced undergraduate participant. She was excited about the depth of knowledge about TBLT she gained during the predeparture period—both through coursework and in discussion with more advanced classmates—and was excited to implement that approach during SA (Chobi, Predeparture Interview). Unlike many preservice teachers, who initially teach the way they were taught (Johnson, 1994), Chobi, who had mainly experienced PPP as a student, was fully committed to teaching using TBLT while on SA. This openness to using an innovative teaching approach may be in part due to the constructivist approach taken during predeparture coursework and the intentional effort made to address teachers' previously held beliefs during that time (Bailey et al., 1996; Borg, 2003; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Lo, 2005; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). It may also be tied to the depth in which TBLT was covered

during the predeparture period, or to Chobi's own preference for the theoretical and practical aspects of TBLT. Like Miss Wu, one of Zheng and Borg's (2014) participants, despite the problems with classroom management that she experienced early on, Chobi persisted in implementing task-based lessons throughout SA because she believed in the benefits of the approach (Chobi, SA Week 1 Interview).

Chobi chose a task-based approach because she wanted to avoid a focus on forms while teaching in Mexico, since she felt students received enough of that type of instruction during the academic year (Chobi, Predeparture Interview). In addition, like Erlam's (2016) participants, Chobi believed that using tasks would help make her classroom more learner-centered and would lead to more L2 production (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview). Tasks were very much the central unit of Chobi's lessons and the driver of classroom activities (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Nearly every one of her lessons was composed of a task cycle with three phases, as is typical of task-based lessons (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019; Ellis & Shintani, 2014) and consistent with predeparture readings that teachers completed (e.g., Bygate et al., 2012). Despite discussing the benefits of creating a series of cohesive lessons prior to departure, this aspect of task design proved challenging for many of the participants, and Chobi's lessons did not have a strong sense of task sequencing. However, unlike Erlam's (2015) participants, who planned and implemented one-off lessons that often did not integrate well with previous language lessons, Chobi did consider how her tasks complemented her other lessons over the two weeks on SA and made an effort to create a sense of cohesion among them.

Overall, like John and like Erlam's (2016) participants, Chobi planned and implemented lessons that were quite task-like: over fifty percent of her tasks were rated seven or eight out of eight possible points on the analytic rubric, and the lowest score a task of hers received was a

five. In terms of the individual criteria ratings, like both Erlam's participants and John, Chobi found it easiest to design tasks whose primary focus was on meaning. In addition to covering the characteristics of tasks and TBLT, during the predeparture period, teachers learned about topics key to second language acquisition, such as form-focused instruction versus meaning-focused instruction, and teachers were asked to link these concepts to various teaching approaches. This exercise, requiring explicit reasoning on this subject matter, may have helped clarify this criterion in Chobi's and other participants' minds, making it easier for them to design tasks that successfully focused on meaning rather than form.

The second easiest criterion for Chobi to meet successfully was that tasks provided *TL use opportunities*. Teachers were told by the program director that their students in Mexico studied English during the school year and that one advantage of having teachers from the U.S. for the two-week camp was the chance they had to use English in communication. Therefore, it seems quite natural that the teachers may have felt that giving students the opportunity to use English was a goal they should strive to achieve on SA. Chobi had explicitly stated that she had chosen a task-based approach in order to give students the opportunities to use English, so it would seem that she clearly understood the potential that tasks had for providing students the chance to use their L2.

Just over half of Chobi's tasks received full points in the category for the criterion *Non-linguistic outcome*. However, if we exclude the two tasks that were not implemented according to Chobi's lesson plans due to timing issues and the last task, which was a review game and not typical of her other tasks, Chobi received full points for all her tasks in this category, making her implementation in this area quite similar to Erlam's (2016) participants, 90 percent of whom successfully fulfilled this criterion. Four of Chobi's tasks followed a quite similar structure, with

clear task phases, a clear non-linguistic outcome, and a presentation of the task outcome to the class in the post-task phase. Although perhaps somewhat formulaic, it does appear that Chobi had a good grasp on how to orient a task to having a non-linguistic outcome.

The criterion for which Chobi's tasks were least strong was *Real-world parallel*. Fewer than half of her tasks (43 percent) received full points in this category; the other 57 percent received one out of two points. However, rather than a lack of being able to fulfill this criterion, I believe this was a choice that Chobi made based on what she felt was most useful for her students. She noted that in an EFL context, it was more difficult to create tasks that had an immediate application for her students (Chobi, Predeparture Interview). She also believed it was more important to engage her students, perhaps with fantastical topics, given their age, than it was to use real-world tasks, which they might find boring (Chobi, SA Week 2 Interview). Thus, Chobi's focus was more on creating tasks with clear outcomes and providing opportunities for TL use than on creating real-world parallels, and this is reflected in the scores her tasks received using the analytic rubric.

In sum, Chobi designed and implemented tasks that were meaning-focused and provided students opportunities to use the TL. Often these opportunities were based on non-realistic topics, such as writing spells or creating utopias. Chobi's tasks that were implemented successfully also showed evidence of having clear non-linguistic outcomes, though this was not always the case. Therefore, like Erlam's (2016) participants and like John, Chobi designed and implemented activities on the 'task' end of the continuum and carried out task-based lessons with clear phases.

4.2.3 John: Using Tasks to Engage His Students

As previously mentioned, preservice teachers may be more open to innovation compared to experienced teachers, since their practical knowledge has yet to stabilize (Beijaard & Verloop, 1996). John, the most academically prepared focal participant, is a good example of a preservice teacher who was open to trying a new approach in the classroom—TBLT—following a period of education (i.e., the predeparture period). In this way, he was similar to participants in previous studies who implemented a task-based approach following teacher development on TBLT (e.g., Erlam, 2015), though some of those participants were in-service teachers (e.g., Hu, 2013). John's decision to follow a task-based approach in order to maximize students' opportunities to produce the L2 reflects a feature which is a hallmark of TBLT (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Nunan, 2004; Willis & Willis, 2007). In some ways, this made John similar to the focal participants in Zheng and Borg's (2014) study, who felt that a primary goal was to give students more opportunities for communicating. However, John's belief that his students should be L2 *users*, not *learners*, is a distinction that has been made regarding TBLT and the way proponents of this approach believe a language is learned (Ellis, 2017a; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). This belief sets John apart from the teachers in Zheng and Borg's study, who felt strongly that grammar and vocabulary needed to be taught directly and that tasks could be used subsequently in order to practice those language points.

Though John did not have the opportunity to conduct a needs analysis on which to base his lessons, he did choose tasks that he felt would develop useful skills that could build up to real-world tasks that the students might need to perform in their future (e.g., planning a vacation, deciphering a boarding pass, giving and following directions; John, SA Week 1 Interview), as is characteristic of TBLT (Long, 2016; Samuda & Bygate, 2008). In addition, as was true for

Chobi's lessons, tasks were the central unit of each of John's lessons and drove classroom activities, which is characteristic of a task-based approach (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). In several instances, John's lessons showed evidence of task sequencing, especially from a thematic standpoint (Willis & Willis, 2007). In addition, like Chobi's lessons, John's tasks showed clear distinctions between pre-task, main-task, and post-task phases (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019; Ellis & Shintani, 2014).

Ellis's (2015) participants conducted micro-evaluations of tasks that they themselves designed and implemented with learners of English. Like John, Ellis's participants chose their tasks in part based on student's needs and a desire to engage their learners. While Ellis presents detailed information about which aspects of the tasks worked and which didn't, these results are not comparable to the findings of the current study. Regarding task sequencing, however, Ellis notes that one of his participants, Marlow, highlighted the importance of sequencing activities in order to ensure students' success in the main-task phase. Marlow emphasized the fact that she had not included a 'facilitating task' in the pre-task phase that could have helped her learners perform the main-task more effectively. In contrast, John was diligent in always including pre-task activities and noted that this was the phase of the lesson in which he had the most active role in order to set students up to perform the main task independently (John, SA Week 1 Interview).

Erlam (2016) reports that 82 percent of her participants' tasks fulfilled three out of four task criteria, while 47 percent fulfilled all four, indicating that overall, their tasks adhered quite well to task criteria, and this placed their approach on the 'focus on meaning' end of the spectrum as opposed to 'focus on forms' (Littlewood, 2004). John's tasks were similar, with 50 percent of his tasks receiving full points in the rubric analysis, and two-thirds of his tasks being rated seven or higher. Erlam also rated participants' tasks using a 4-criterion analytic rubric

based on 'the task as construct' (Ellis, 2012; Ellis & Shintani, 2013). Her participants struggled the most to achieve the criteria *Learners should have to rely on their own resources* and *There should be some kind of gap* (consequently, these criteria were not included in the rubric in the current study). Meanwhile, Ellis's participants more easily fulfilled the criterion *The primary focus should be on meaning* (84% successful). John's tasks were similar in that he earned full points on all tasks for their having a *Primary focus on meaning*. As noted above, John, like most of Erlam's participants, seemed to view his students as language user' as opposed to language learners' a characteristic of task-based teaching (Faez & Tavakoli, 2019).

Interestingly, the criterion which Erlam's (2016) participants' tasks fulfilled most easily, *There is a clearly defined outcome other than the use of language* (90% of tasks fulfilled it), was the criterion that John struggled most to achieve (50 percent of John's tasks received a full two points in this category, while the other fifty percent received one point). Compared to other participants, John was relatively successful in incorporating a non-linguistic outcome in his tasks; however, it was the area in which his tasks were least clearly aligned with the task-based rubric. One reason Erlam gives for the likelihood of her participants' tasks scoring high for this criterion is that they were quite aware of the need to make learning the L2 fun for their students and therefore used familiar activities such as games. In the current study, games were not presented as a strong example of tasks during predeparture coursework; in fact, in this study's rubric guidelines, games received one out of two points for fulfilling the criterion of having a *Non-linguistic outcome*, as winning a game was believed to be a less clear example of having an outcome as compared to, say, creating a brochure or working with a group to come to a decision, in particular since games are sometimes chosen for their potential to have students practice language, rather than having an objective that is independent of this. Overall, however, all of

John's tasks either partially or fully achieved the criterion of having a *Non-linguistic outcome*, and all of his tasks had a *Primary focus on meaning*, the two criteria that Ellis (2009) denotes are key characteristics for a task to be task-like. Thus, if tasks are considered to exist along a continuum, as opposed to a binary categorization (i.e., task-like or un-task-like; Littlewood, 2004), John, like Chobi and like Erlam's participants, can be said to have designed and implemented activities that were on the 'task' end of the continuum and to have kept students' focus more on meaning than on form.

5 RQ 2 – TEACHER COGNITIONS: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The current chapter presents and discusses the findings of the second research question, which asked how preservice L2 teachers' cognitions about teaching approaches, tasks, and the role of the teacher changed throughout a TEFL course with a short-term SA component incorporating daily teaching practice and during the following semester. In order to answer this question, I drew in part on the analysis of the pedagogical beliefs questionnaire to determine whether the teachers' beliefs had changed over time. I also utilized findings from the qualitative analysis of data collected from documents, such as teachers' predeparture assignments, philosophy statements, and written reflections, and interview data, along with class observation notes. When asked about their approach to L2 teaching, participants' responses fell into one of two broad categories: approaches in the general sense of the word and approaches in the pedagogical sense of the term, including references to specific teaching methods. During interviews, teachers were asked to define the term "task" as they understood it at that moment, and they were also asked to reflect on their role as a teacher. Thus, the current chapter presents and discusses findings related to teachers' cognitions as they developed over eight months (prior to the TEFL course, through the predeparture period, while abroad, and after SA) regarding three topics: L2 teaching approaches, tasks, and the role of the L2 teacher. In the three sections that follow, the findings for the three focal participants are presented first, followed by a discussion of those findings.

5.1 Cognitions About Teaching Approaches

Throughout the TEFL course and afterward, the teachers developed beliefs about the teaching approaches they studied and subsequently implemented. Many participants noted that they had not had any firsthand experience of TBLT; therefore, using this approach on SA

provided them the opportunity to directly observe the affordances and constraints of such an approach. Those who used a variety of approaches or methods were able to contrast the benefits and limitations among the approaches. The teachers also observed and reflected on the way TEFL approaches worked with their specific student population. In addition, as noted above, the teachers' cognitions about teaching approaches included not only EFL methods and approaches, but also more general aspects of teaching approaches, such as beliefs regarding the role of explicit grammar instruction, error correction, and authentic communication. In the following sections, the cognition development for each focal participant regarding L2 teaching approaches is described.

5.1.1 Findings – Cognitions About Teaching Approaches

As described in section 3.7.2.1, the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire was implemented at three points in time (prior to the TEFL course, immediately after SA, and at the delayed post-SA data collection point) and provided data that could reveal changes in teachers' beliefs regarding L2 pedagogy and teaching approaches. By assigning a score (from 1 to 6) to the degree to which participants agreed with statements that aligned with or differed from TBLT and subsequently calculating an overall percentage, the extent to which each participant's beliefs about pedagogy aligned with TBLT at the three data collection points could be determined. As seen in Table 5.1, all three focal participants started out with pedagogical beliefs that were largely in line with TBLT principles, although Chobi and John's beliefs (at approximately 72% and 71%, respectively) were more aligned than Jocelyn's (approximately 64%). All three teachers' beliefs about pedagogy largely grew more favorable towards TBLT over time and did so to an overall similar degree, although Jocelyn and Chobi's questionnaire results had increased by six points at the post-SA data collection point and decreased by one at the delayed post-SA

data collection point, whereas John's score had increased by three points after SA and by an additional two points five months later. In order to obtain a more detailed understanding of the results presented in Table 5.1, for each participant, items on the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire whose answers changed by two or more positions on the Likert scale over time were investigated further. Table 5.2 highlights those items for which the participants' beliefs about pedagogy changed by two or more positions over time and reports the overall direction the beliefs moved in (though some fluctuated during the course of the study, as discussed below). The results are presented in the following sections together with findings from the qualitative analyses described above.

Table 5.1 Degree to Which Participants' Beliefs About Pedagogy Aligned with TBLT Principles (%)

	Predeparture	Post-SA	5 Months Post-SA
Jocelyn	63.89	70.37	68.98
Chobi	72.22	77.78	76.85
John	71.30	74.07	76.39

Table 5.2 Comparison of Participants' Teaching Approaches and Changes in Cognitions

	Jocelyn	Chobi	John
Teaching approach(es) teacher took on SA	Various	TBLT	TBLT
Key element of teacher's approach	Two goals: Get the students using English and having fun	Create a student-centered classroom	Engage students
Beliefs that moved to align more closely with TBLT principles	Role of explicit grammar teaching Role of accuracy Role of error correction Controlling the classroom	Role of explicit grammar teaching Role of accuracy Role of student input Inability to predict a lesson's outcome	Role of explicit grammar teaching Organization of courses around activities

	Jocelyn	Chobi	John
Beliefs that diverged from TBLT principles	Role of authenticity	Controlling the classroom	Role of accuracy

5.1.1.1 Jocelyn

Early in the study (during her Predeparture Interview), Jocelyn—the focal participant with the least academic preparation—expressed the belief that teachers should use a variety of methods in order to appeal to the largest number of students. Regarding TEFL methods and approaches, this belief was the idea that appeared most frequently over time in her data. It was also reflected in what she did in the classroom, despite the prevalence of a second theme—that she felt she was *supposed* to use TBLT. Despite my best efforts to convey the message that the choice of approach was up to the teacher, in part due to the time spent prior to departure learning about TBLT and in part due to conflicting feedback from supervisors as to whether teachers were supposed to teach in a certain way, some teachers, like Jocelyn, felt that there was a preferred method. This was evident in the way she talked about her teaching approach. However, there was simultaneously a contrast in what she said regarding what she felt she was supposed to do and what she was actually doing in the classroom:

> Yeah, I do want to focus on TBLT just because I know a lot about it and you know, you want us to focus on it and I think that again, that is a good way of doing this whole, you know, teaching thing. Um, but I am gonna... my main focus is not on following a certain approach. (Jocelyn, SA Week 1 Interview)

In addition to expressing the idea that she wanted to experiment with multiple methods because she was new to teaching and wanted to find out what worked, Jocelyn also had overarching goals that she hoped to achieve with her students. Throughout her time on SA and

afterward, Jocelyn emphasized that her two main goals while teaching on SA were to get the students speaking English and make sure they were having fun. She specified that these goals took priority over using any particular method: "The focus is *off* using a specific like way like TBLT or PPP or CLT and kind of just figuring out, 'Okay, how do I get the kids talking, but also having fun at the same time?'" (Jocelyn, SA Week 1 Interview). She recounted how this had become her main goal on SA, saying:

> I'm just really, really focused on trying to find stuff that my students can do, but also do English at the same time, that's fun. ... That is my life. I have the horse blinders, those focus goggles, or whatever they're called; that- yeah, that's my focus. (Jocelyn, SA Week 1 Interview)

She highlighted the fact that in her opinion, this approach was essential when teaching young learners and trying to engage them in classroom activities: "They need to talk and they need to have fun. … You know, first and second graders … they have to have fun, or they won't do it" (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview).

Jocelyn's dual goals of getting students to use English and have fun are reflected in a change in position in relation to two items on the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire. Over time, she came to agree more with the idea that the authenticity of language use is not important as long as students are using the L2 in the classroom (see Figure 5.1, left-hand graph), a position that was less aligned with TBLT principles. Although at the delayed post-SA data collection point Jocelyn still disagreed with one of these statements, she partly agreed with the other, indicating that she may have felt that any use of the L2 was preferable to no use at all. For a novice teacher, L2 use in the classroom may have seemed like success, without being overly critical of the content or focus of the students' language use.

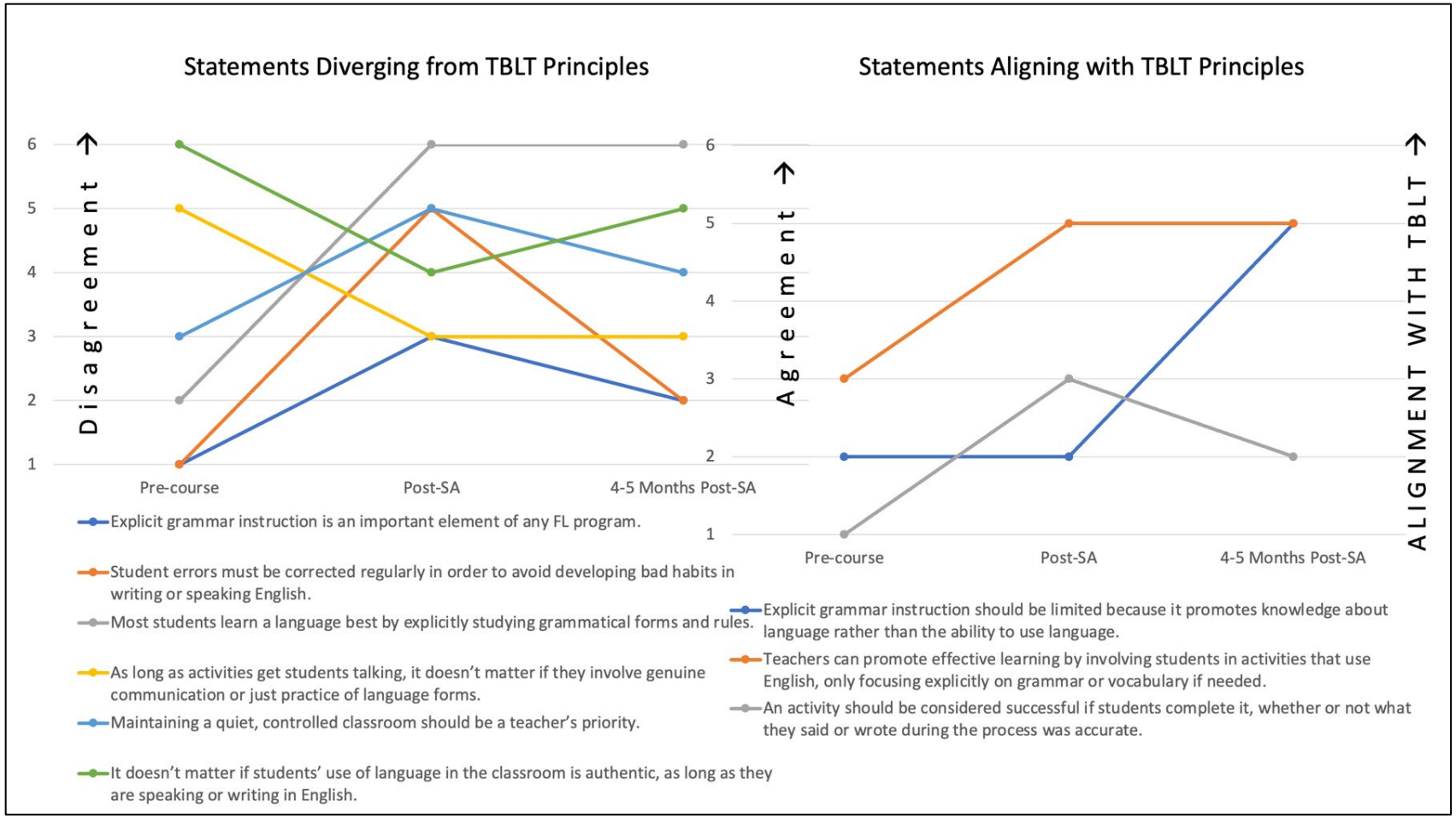

Figure 5.1 Jocelyn's Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire Items That Changed Two or More Positions Over Time

Note. For Statements Diverging, 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = partly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree; for Statements Aligning, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = partly agree, 5 = agree, 6 = strongly agree. In each of the charts, the higher the score, the more in alignment with TBLT principles the participant's position was.

Jocelyn's beliefs about error correction are also in line with her goals for teaching. Prior to the TEFL course, Jocelyn strongly agreed with an item on the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire stating that students' errors should be corrected regularly in order to avoid them developing bad habits (Figure 5.1, left-hand graph). Though error correction is not at odds with TBLT, the idea of correcting all errors in order to avoid developing bad habits is divergent from TBLT principles. This item showed great fluctuation over time, with Jocelyn's position moving to 'disagree' at post-SA and back to 'agree' five months after SA. Her beliefs appear to have been impacted by the SA experience, in that she gave it less importance immediately after SA, but perhaps at heart she believed in the importance of this statement. This idea is supported by a comment she made regarding her own L2 learning experience and the importance of correcting errors:

> I definitely want to be able to gently correct them. I don't want to be a teacher who just like kind of lets it slide because I do have language teachers like that who don't correct them for the most part, and I don't think that that helps anybody. (Jocelyn, Pre-course Interview)

Jocelyn's change in position regarding the role of explicit grammar instruction—giving it less importance over time—can also be seen to align with her primary goal of getting students speaking the L2, without focusing too much on the details. Jocelyn's position related to the idea that students learn best by studying grammar rules and forms (Figure 5.1, left-hand graph) changed from 'agree' to 'strongly disagree' between predeparture and post-SA. During the same period, her opinion about the idea that teachers can promote effective learning by involving students in activities that require English, focusing on grammar only when needed, changed from 'slightly disagree' to 'agree' (Figure 5.1, right-hand graph). Both of these views were maintained

through the delayed post-SA period. Similarly, Jocelyn's position related to the idea that grammar instruction should be limited (Figure 5.1, right-hand graph) changed from 'disagree' to 'agree.' Interestingly, this change occurred between the post-SA and the delayed post-SA data collection points; therefore, in addition to reflection that may have taken place after SA, other factors could have influenced this change, such as applied linguistics courses she was taking that semester.

Somewhat in contrast to these three changes was Jocelyn's opinion of the questionnaire item stating that explicit grammar instruction was an important component of FL programs (Figure 5.1, left-hand graph). Although her view moved more towards alignment with TBLT principles after SA, at 5 months post-SA she indicated that she agreed with that idea, indicating that although she felt an L2 could best be taught through activities or tasks and that it was best to limit explicit grammar instruction, to some degree she may have still believed it was important for explicit instruction to take place. Somewhat similar to this item, in terms of change over time, was Jocelyn's opinion about the idea that the completion of activities was important, regardless of accuracy (Figure 5.1, right-hand graph). Her position changed from 'strongly disagree' to 'slightly disagree' at post-SA and then to 'disagree' five months after SA. Thus, although there was movement towards a view more aligned with TBLT principles, this was not fully sustained and perhaps indicates that Jocelyn saw a greater role for accuracy then promoted by TBLT, in comparison to task completion. One additional belief about her approach to L2 teaching which diverged somewhat from TBLT principles was her position in relation to the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire statement that maintaining a quiet, controlled classroom was a priority (see Figure 5.1, left-hand graph). Jocelyn initially chose 'partly agree,' for this statement, changed to 'disagree' at post-SA and ended at 'slightly disagree.' Like Chobi, classroom management was

an area in which Jocelyn struggled; therefore, it is not surprising that her views on the topic might waver, or that she would not have strong views discounting the importance of maintaining a controlled classroom, despite the fact that Jocelyn's classes were usually quite lively and involved a lot of student talking.

Jocelyn felt that her stated goals of getting students to speak English and have fun were important both in the short-term and in the long run. As illustrated in Figure 5.2, Jocelyn noted that when her students were using English and having fun, she felt she had implemented a successful lesson. After SA, she observed that when she had successfully achieved those two goals, she had fewer classroom management issues, such as students being off-task or talking out of turn: "I definitely think that because they were having fun and playing in teams, I did have to do a lot less classroom management because they were having fun. I think that's what made it successful" (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview). She also described how she modified the lessons she had planned prior to departure in order to appeal more to her young learners to achieve those goals:

> I made my lessons more simple. I changed the topic because I also feel like I wasn't really thinking from the viewpoint of an eight-year-old really well, when I made those lessons, so I made them more fun for them. (Jocelyn, Post-SA Post-SA Focus Group Interview)

Jocelyn's two goals were also connected to instilling a love of learning English in the young children she was teaching. She felt that by making speaking English achievable and enjoyable, they would be more likely to want to persist in their learning over time:

> I wanted them to have a functional lesson but also have fun … because especially since they're so young, I want them to continue to want to learn English, because that's an

important part of actually learning languages—actually wanting to do it, especially since it takes so much time and effort. So yeah, especially since they're so young, you know, you got to keep their attention, and you have to want them to grow up wanting to learn English. (Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview)

This illustrates how Jocelyn wished to provide students with language they could use (i.e., have a functional lesson) but also have fun so that their motivation to learn English would persist over time.

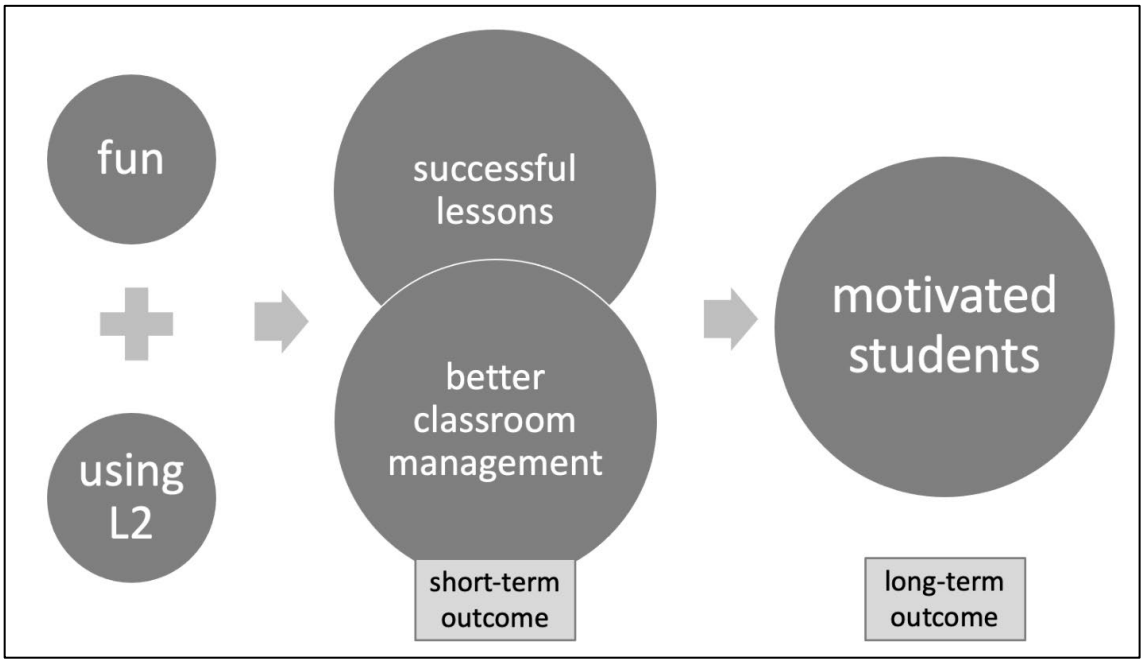

Figure 5.2 Graphic Representation of Jocelyn's Ideas About Fun and L2 Use

When asked to describe her approach in terms of TEFL methods or approaches, some of the components Jocelyn named varied over time, while other characterizations remained constant. While on SA, she sometimes described her approach as a mixture of CLT and TBLT and sometimes said she was doing TBLT with the whole class (as opposed to implementing pair or small group work), which she felt worked better with young learners. She also made the point on several occasions that she was not using PPP. However, despite this assertion, the structure of

a number of her classes followed the PPP method quite closely. After SA, she described her approach as a lot of TBLT and some PPP, or as a mixture of the two. During her Post-SA interview, she also said that "TBLT plus games" was an accurate description of her teaching approach, especially since fun was one of the goals of the summer camp. When describing specific lessons, she noted that two of them—her lessons on time and on restaurants—were the most task-based and that they were also her best lessons in general.

When asked what approach she might take in the future, Jocelyn stated that it would depend a lot on the context and the students, specifying that beginner learners might benefit from PPP at first, but if the students were planning to move abroad to an English-speaking location, then TBLT would definitely be the most appropriate approach. For children, she said she would once again use tasks and games, whereas for adults she would use more functional tasks. Five months after SA, when reflecting on her SA approach, she said she had aimed to do TBLT but had probably done more of a mix of TBLT and other elements, such as CLT. She also commented that she had done, "a little bit of everything" (Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview) because it was her first time teaching and she wanted to figure out what worked well. In her last interview, Jocelyn noted that she liked the fact that tasks included a goal, and she liked having something to work up to in her lessons. She described her approach as PPP incorporating tasks in the final Production stage, a description which was quite accurate. For future teaching, she said she would do little in the way of grammar-based exercises before proceeding with more fun activities that allowed for more flexible use of the language. Thus, it seems that Jocelyn's original idea about the benefits of using a variety of methods changed from an idea of simply using a lot of different methods to using an approach that she felt worked well—essentially PPP incorporating a task for freer practice in the last stage. However, she used this approach on SA

because it aligned with her overall philosophy—which still seemed to supersede the use of any particular method—that the students needed to use English and have fun. Jocelyn's later data indicated that she would adapt this approach as appropriate in future contexts, whether using more functional tasks for adults, traditional grammar-based exercises for beginners, or other similar modifications.

5.1.1.2 Chobi

Chobi—the undergraduate participant with a moderate degree of academic preparation—began the TEFL course with positive impressions of TBLT but without having experienced it firsthand. She had previously learned about TBLT in coursework required for her Applied Linguistics & ESL major, but she had never experienced it as a learner, and while she had tutored high school students in ESL, she did not have any teaching experience. Her understanding of TBLT expanded over the eight months of the study. At that time, she believed that TBLT might be more appropriate for certain student populations as compared to others. Overall, however, she was very enthusiastic about TBLT and a firm believer in the effectiveness of the approach. Prior to the TEFL course, Chobi recounted that in her experience, language teachers tended to use PPP, but she felt that an approach should appeal to more skills and engage students through activities that appealed to students' personal interests, such as reading literature in the L2. While describing her university Korean classes, she noted, "In terms of giving me a solid basis for beginning my language journey through Korean, the PPP method served its purpose. However, I felt a huge lack of confidence in my ability to communicate in a meaningful way" (Chobi, Language Learner Autobiography). She also felt that PPP's rigid structure would lead to boredom. She believed that CLT would be difficult to implement successfully because of the lack of a clear way to focus on form, and she felt that TBLT had an advantage in this regard.

Chobi characterized her lessons on SA as primarily task-based, with some tasks possibly resembling communicative activities more than traditional tasks, due to her decision to incorporate topics that did not have a strong real-world parallel. She described making the decision to incorporate more fantastical topics and changing a number of her lesson plans after her first week teaching because she felt that her students wanted to do fun things and were not that interested in real-world tasks:

> Now that I know my kids, I'm trying to do topics that they really relate to. I have a lot of students that like Harry Potter, so I think I'm going to do a task like, 'create your own spell,' even though you wouldn't really do that in real life. But it's still kind of a task. I know it's more communicative. But I think … the thing I've had the hardest time with is real-life tasks. Because they don't- they're not really interested in it as much as I thought they might be. (Chobi, SA Week 1 Interview)

Chobi reiterated this view after SA, recounting how CLT and TBLT had somewhat fused in her mind. It was not that the distinctions between the two approaches had been blurred, however, rather that perhaps Chobi initially had a strict view of what TBLT 'should' look like, and since she made the decision to move beyond a narrow interpretation in what she was doing in the classroom, she felt she was partially combining the two approaches. In other words, since she had decided to employ tasks that lacked a strong real-world aspect, she felt that her tasks were leaning towards what might be considered communicative activities rather than 'true' tasks.

As noted before, when Chobi began the TEFL course, she was somewhat familiar with TBLT but had never experienced it in the classroom. On SA, Chobi took a full TBLT approach to her classes. During this time, she observed a number of benefits and some limitations. For instance, Chobi found that a task-based approach helped learners develop their productive skills,

and she believed it encouraged participation, in particular when students presented their work to their peers in the post-task phase. She also felt that it promoted learner autonomy and increased their confidence. During her time teaching on SA, Chobi came to disagree more strongly with the idea that explicit grammar instruction was essential and that teachers should provide structures for students to use during activities in order to promote accuracy (see Figure 5.4, left-hand graph). Both of these beliefs continued to change in a direction of greater alignment with TBLT following SA. The main difficulty with TBLT that Chobi highlighted was the challenge of incorporating a real-world aspect in her tasks for an EFL context, and in fact, as noted previously, she deviated from this task criterion in order to design tasks that she felt were more engaging for her learners.

Chobi also developed beliefs about the use of tasks related to their appropriateness for certain populations of students. She felt that the approach would vary by students' age and would need to be modified for each group of students. For instance, at her Delayed Post-SA interview, she discussed the idea that tasks were best for intermediate students and that they were successful with her fourth- and fifth-graders partly due to the structure that they provided the class, whereas she had observed classes with older learners that she felt would do well with a less structured approach, such as CLT. Chobi stated that she felt closed tasks would be better suited for younger learners, whereas she believed tasks would not be suitable at all for very young learners. However, for learners similar in age to those she had taught on SA (i.e., 9- to 11-year-olds), Chobi observed that she preferred using open tasks. This preference aligned with her belief that her classes were more successful when students felt a personal connection to the topic or activity. She described this in relation to a task in which her students designed travel brochures:

> But when you actually give them a task that's allowing them to choose as they would in real life … assuming someone came to them and said, "here's some money go travel anywhere." I think it allowed them to have a lot more fun with it. And I think that's kind of what a task is; I think it needs to be open for it to work well … when you allow the students to be creative, I think creativity is the key to a successful task. (Chobi, SA Week 2 Interview)

In Chobi's data, the strongest theme related to her approach to L2 teaching was the idea of a student-centered classroom. This was in contrast to earlier ideas she had which viewed the classroom as a teacher-led environment. Figure 5.3 contrasts Chobi's early view of a teacher-centered classroom with her later understanding of a student-centered environment. Prior to SA, Chobi reflected that, "In the beginning, I had a very utopian idea of being a teacher and *creating* a classroom" (Chobi, Predeparture Interview). However, she said she had come to realize that students already had knowledge and that it was her job to guide them, rather than for her to be the focal point of the classroom. On SA, through both teaching and observing other classes, she noted that students were more engaged and that classes worked better when they were student-centered. In addition, she remarked on several occasions that the thing that surprised her most was how much students already knew when she let them take the lead. Rather than acting as the leading figure, she described working together with her students to negotiate meaning as "the coolest thing I do" (Chobi, SA Week 2 Interview).

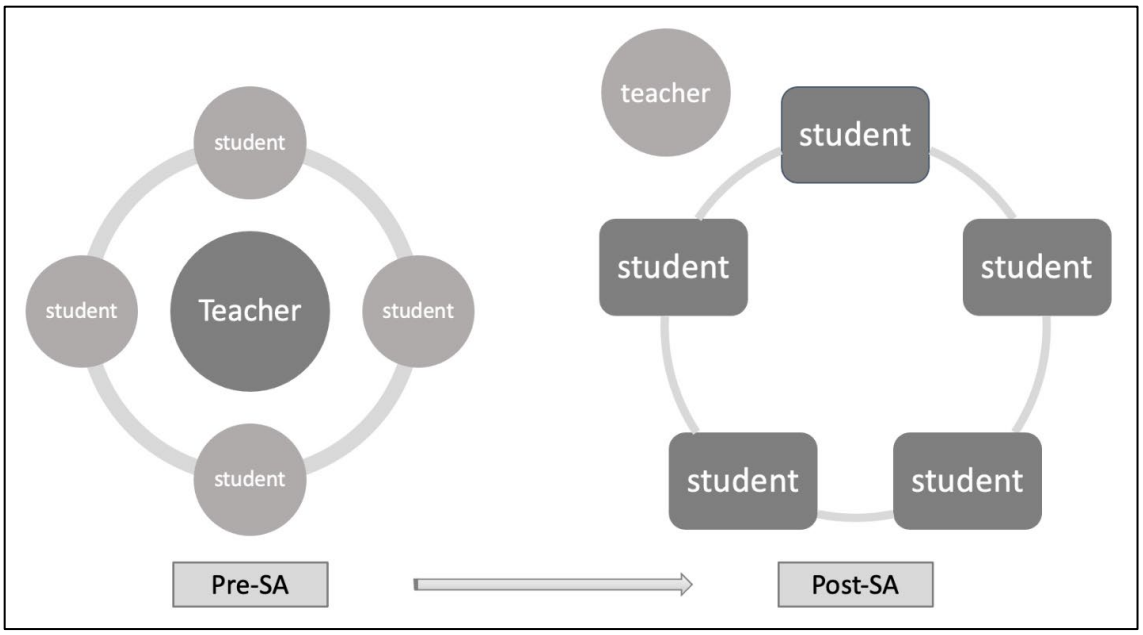

Figure 5.3 *Development of Chobi's View of a Student-centered Classroom Over Time*

Over the two weeks abroad, Chobi made deliberate efforts to make her classroom more student-centered. These included actions such as reworking lesson plans in order to focus on topics that she learned would be of greater interest to her students, and also allowing her students to play more prominent roles in the classroom while she tried to step back and make her presence less conspicuous. She later described this change:

> Before, I really thought that the teacher was like, know all, do all. But after being in Mexico, I realized that I was only needed sometimes, and it's kind of good to just kind of exist on the side and be present when you need to be. That way your students don't just rely on you for everything. (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview)

Chobi's change in position relative to a statement on the pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire support this idea (see Figure 5.4, right-hand chart): From predeparture to post-SA, she came to disagree strongly with the statement that students' input should not be considered for classroom

content; this belief was maintained through the delayed post-SA period. After SA, Chobi reflected on the importance of taking students' interest into consideration:

> Upon arriving, I realized that a lot of my lesson plans were focused around things that I like, without much consideration for what fourth and fifth graders like. … I changed nearly all of them trying to accommodate the wants and needs of my students. I felt very proud to shift from a teacher-based to a more student-led classroom. I believe this was my first really effective change in terms of making a better classroom atmosphere that was fun but also allowed for genuine conversation. (Chobi, Final Reflection Paper)

Similarly, in the right-hand graph, for statements aligning with TBLT principles, it is evident that Chobi's beliefs changed noticeably at post-SA related to the idea that the exact outcome of a lesson is unpredictable due to differences in learner performance, in line with TBLT beliefs. This belief was slightly less strong at the last data collection point but still more closely aligned with TBLT principles than prior to departure.

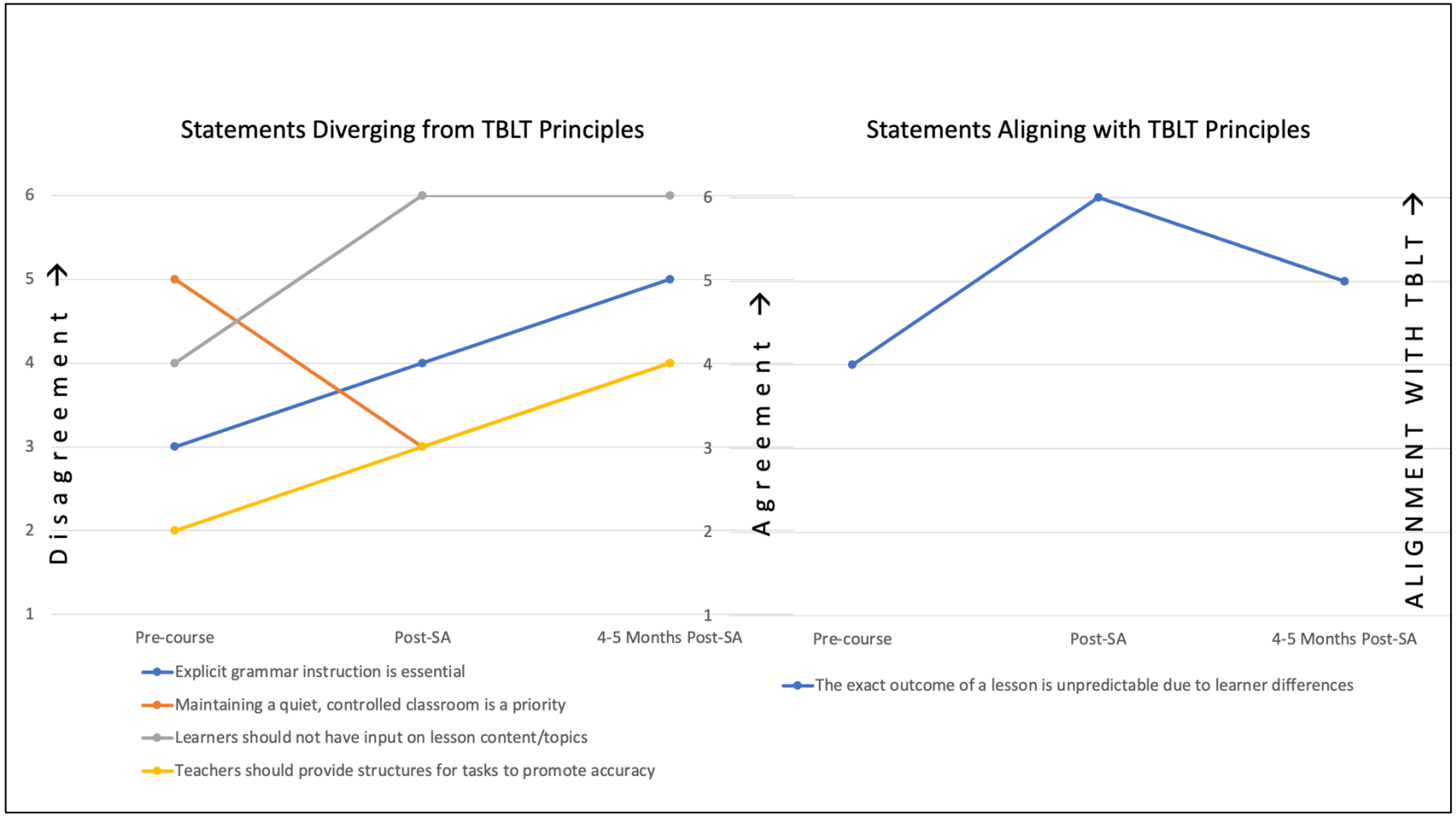

Figure 5.4 Chobi's Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire Items That Changed Two or More Positions Over Time

Note. For Statements Diverging, 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = partly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree; for Statements Aligning, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = partly agree, 5 = agree, 6 = strongly agree. In each of the charts, the higher the score, the more in alignment with TBLT principles the participant's position was.

After SA, Chobi reflected that the first week had been challenging in terms of discipline and that she had had to earn her students' respect; once she had earned it, it was easier to let them lead, and she felt that her classes went much better at that point. The results of the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire on the item stating, "Maintaining a quiet, controlled classroom should be a teacher's priority," reflect the challenges she faced. Her score on that item moved from 'disagree' to 'partly agree' after SA, likely due to the important role that discipline and classroom management played in her feeling successful in the classroom. Keeping students engaged and on task was one area that Chobi described as being quite challenging for her. During her interview after the first week of teaching on SA, Chobi described losing her patience when students kept talking during other students' presentations. While classroom management was an important issue on SA, at the delayed post-SA data collection point, Chobi slightly disagreed with the statement, giving lesser importance to the idea of controlling the classroom and moving in a direction of greater alignment with TBLT principles, perhaps because the impact of the SA experience and the challenges she faced had lessened slightly. Also at five months after SA, Chobi noted that she had seen in action how student-led classrooms worked better than teacher-led ones. She also observed that it had been harder than she thought to create a student-centered class but that it was worth it. She noted that students thrived in that environment and that there was more genuine communication taking place. She summarized the changes she made and the results five months after SA:

> When I taught in Mexico, during the first few classes I definitely led a more teacher-based class. I learned that this did not allow for a lot of genuine communication amongst students and changed my idea of what a teacher should do during class. Once I provided my students with the knowledge and resources they needed, they were able to take

> control of their own L2 learning and it proved to be quite successful. (Chobi, Revised L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement)

In summary, despite some limitations or caveats as to how Chobi viewed the ideal implementation of TBLT, overall, given her enthusiasm for the approach during and after SA, Chobi could be described as a 'disciple' of TBLT. She summarized this position saying:

> Before Mexico, I had a very strong opinion of TBLT, but I didn't realize how effective it was until I went to Mexico. And I think I'm now even more of a firm believer in the powers of TBLT because my classroom was so smooth-, went so smoothly when my lessons were in that format. (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview)

5.1.1.3 John

Prior to the TEFL course, John, who had the most extensive academic background of the three focal participants and who was teaching an individual ESL student prior to SA, stated that he felt CLT was the best approach because it was less rigid than other approaches, making it more likely to appeal to more students. However, at the end of the predeparture period, he had decided to take a fully task-based approach because he believed it would allow him to maximize students' L2 input and their speaking time. He felt it was the approach that would most actively engage his students, at least partly due to the goal-oriented nature of tasks. He also noted that it was the approach he felt was most engaging while still being meaningful, as opposed to games, which could be fun but lacked an objective. He qualified that if problems with grammar arose, he would dedicate some time to grammar as needed through a brief intervention in the style of a more traditional method, such as PPP or the audiolingual method. The minor role that John viewed for explicit grammar teaching is also represented in his response to two statements on the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire (see Figure 5.5). In line with TBLT principles, John became

less convinced that explicit grammar instruction was essential to L2 teaching, as seen in the graph on the left of Figure 5.5. A similar idea is evident from the right-hand graph, which shows John's increasing agreement with the idea that teachers should involve students in activities using the L2, focusing on grammar only when needed. This also aligns with John's view of his role as teacher (see section 5.3.1.2), which entailed acting as an instructor for the first ten minutes of a lesson in order to activate students' knowledge related to a task, after which he preferred to take a less central role and allow them to work independently, making use of the linguistic resources they had at their disposal.

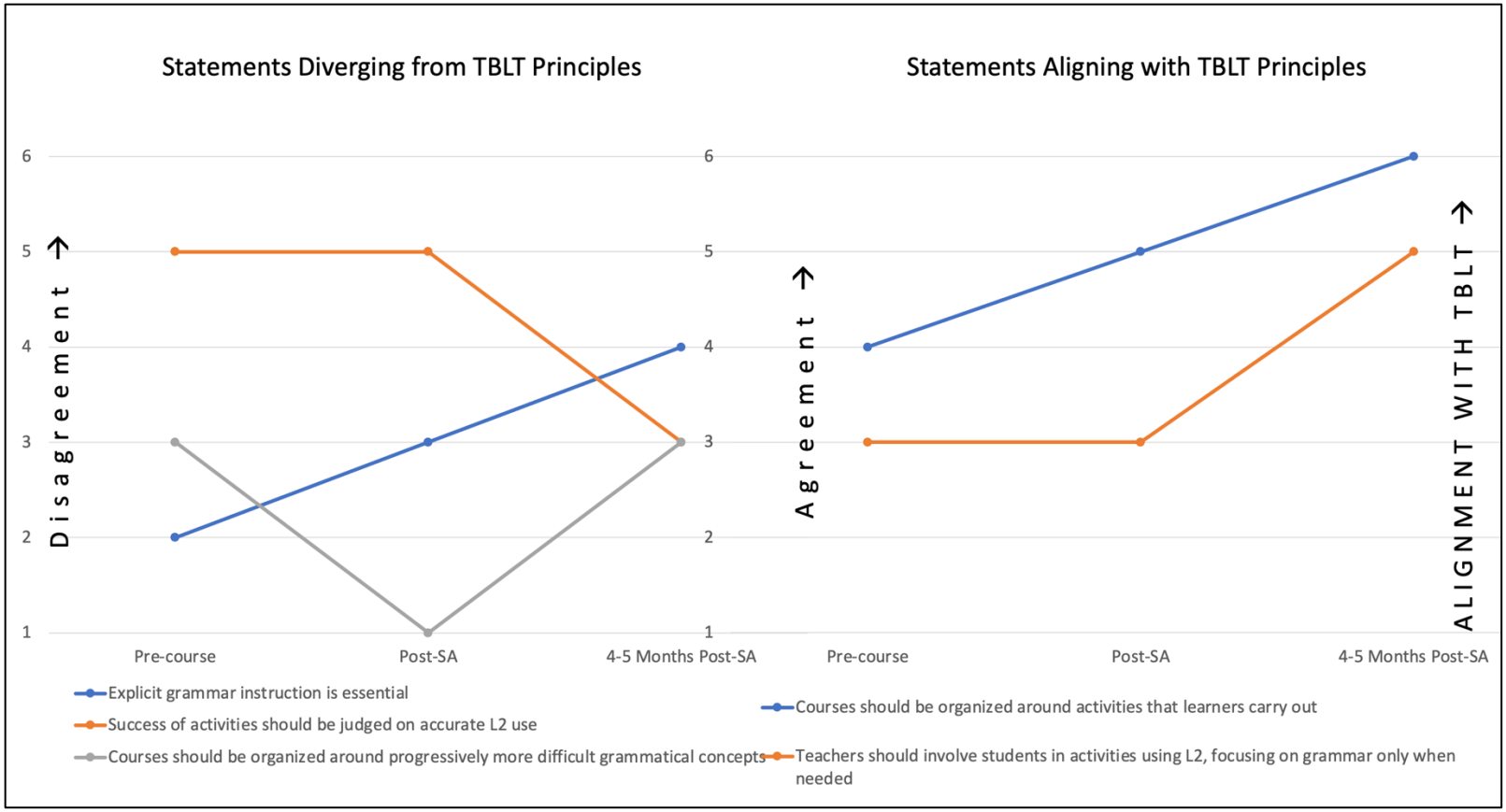

Figure 5.5 John's Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire Items That Changed Two or More Positions Over Time

Note. For Statements Diverging, 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = partly agree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = disagree, 6 = strongly disagree; for Statements Aligning, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = partly agree, 5 = agree, 6 = strongly agree. In each of the charts, the higher the score, the more in alignment with TBLT principles the participant's position was.

Implementing tasks on SA showed John the benefits of a task-based approach, as well as its limitations. Like Chobi, he found that TBLT encouraged participation in class and helped learners work on their L2 speaking skills. He also felt that using tasks made it easy to assess his students' L2 use, and he reiterated that the inclusion of a goal made using tasks highly motivating. John saw some limitations to using TBLT, including that it would be difficult to implement with small classes or with individuals. Overall, after his experience using TBLT on SA, John came away with a very positive view of the approach. He explained his opinion in this way:

> I had always been fairly confident that task-based was the best way to go, but I didn't have confirmation from my own experience. And this taught me that, yeah, that was the best way to go. Because anytime I veered from trying to do a task, I lost engagement completely, because they had- they had nothing really to do. (John, Post-SA Interview)

He added that were he to teach longer on SA, he thought some grammar instruction might be called for, in order to facilitate students' ability to complete tasks. This concorded with his belief, which he later expressed, that the best approach was largely implicit, with some explicit instruction when needed. When asked what approach he would use in the future, John said he would use TBLT, adapting it as needed to the context. He specified that the students' age and whether the instructional context was ESL or EFL were the characteristics that he felt would be the determining factors as to how TBLT could be implemented.

Another aspect of L2 teaching that John noted varied according to the specific group of students was engagement. The importance of engagement was a very strong theme in John's data. In his words, "Student engagement is the key to creating an environment that is conducive to successful learning" (John, Philosophy Statement). Although he did not emphasize

engagement much prior to departure, once abroad, it became a key element to what John felt made a successful lesson. The number of times John spoke about engagement during his interviews and in his written reflections, as seen in Figure 5.6, also indicates how strongly he felt about its importance. During the predeparture period, John noted that the biggest challenge he foresaw was knowing what students wanted out of the classes and figuring out what motivated them, in other words, how to engage them. John depicted his first day of SA as a failure because his students were not engaged. He recounted that it was hard to keep them engaged for more than three minutes at a time. By Day 4, things had improved slightly, but the students were still not as engaged as he would have liked. He was considering changing the topics of the lessons he had planned for the second week in order to try and increase learner engagement. In fact, John later reflected (in his post-SA interview) that his greatest challenge had been finding topics that engaged his students.

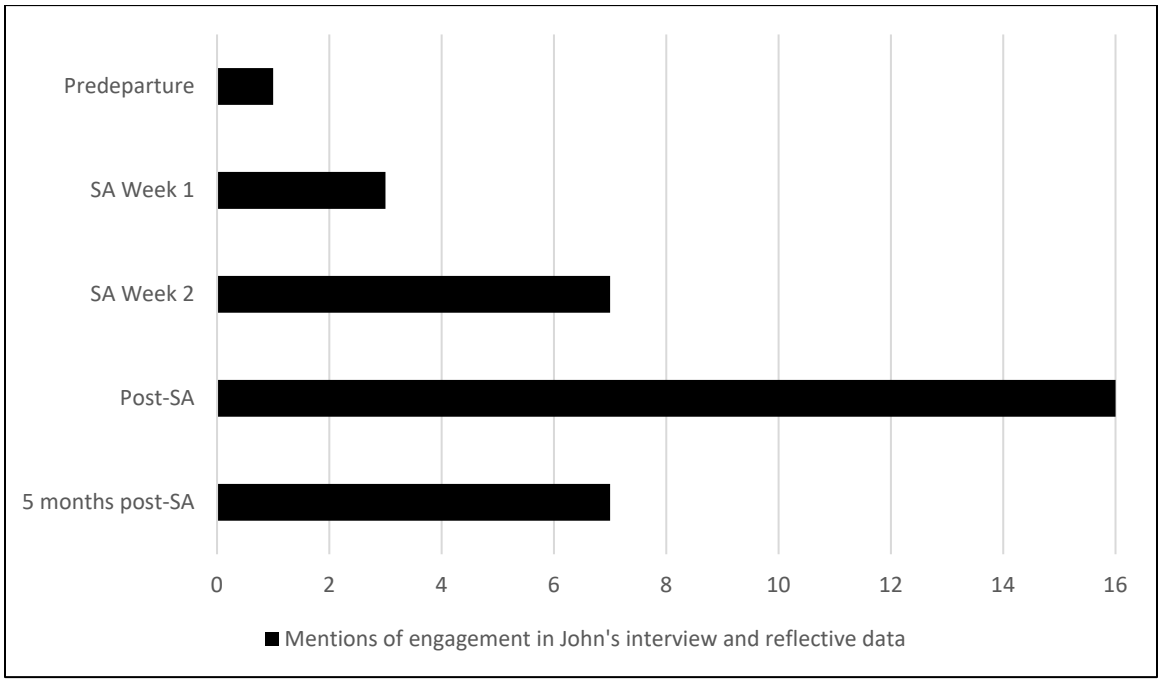

Figure 5.6 The Number of Times John Mentioned Engagement by Time Period

As time progressed, John made several observations about key aspects of learner engagement. For instance, in the second week, he noted that even if his materials were good, if the topic wasn't relatable, it wasn't engaging; thus, he chose new topics that he had discovered students liked (e.g., video games, debate). He adjusted his last two lessons to be fun and interactive, and found that students were very much engaged. He also learned that each group of students was slightly different, and he had to adjust his lessons for each class to maximize that particular group's level of engagement with the topic and tasks. After SA, John reflected that at first, he had been more concerned with the real-world applicability of the tasks he was implementing, but he realized that lessons had to be relatable to students' interests, or they wouldn't engage. He also noted that more fantasy-related topics could have been more engaging considering his learners' age range. As John summarized in his final reflection paper:

> What I learned most is that the lessons have to be somewhat entertaining and related to students' interests, or the lesson will fail to take off. It, unfortunately, took until the second week to learn that my lessons, simply put, were boring the students. I adjusted accordingly and saw engagement and interest skyrocket. (John, Final Reflection Paper)

During the semester following SA, as John continued completing his master's coursework, he taught individual lessons at a private language institute. As he described it, his approach was very close to a task-based approach, composed of mini-tasks that he devised in response to communication problems his student encountered during the week. He noted that a full task-based approach would have been challenging with an individual given the interpersonal dynamics involved, changing in his role as a teacher from instruction-giver to participant, and so forth. He also described these lessons as a mix between TBLT and CLT. When his one-on-one lessons changed to exam preparation, John called his approach "a communicative approach to

test preparation" (John, Delayed Post-SA Interview 2), in that he tried to make the preparation exercises as communicative as possible, noting that TBLT would not have been possible in this case. During this same period, John's opinion about the idea that the success of activities should be judged on accurate L2 use—a concept which diverges from TBLT principles—changed from disagreeing with this statement from the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire (as he had prior to the TEFL course and immediately after SA) to partly agreeing with that idea at the delayed post-SA data collection point (see Figure 5.5, left-hand graph).

John's opinions regarding another belief statement on the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire showed divergence from TBLT principles and then a move back toward alignment closer to those principles. At predeparture, John partly agreed with the idea that courses should be organized around progressively more difficult grammatical concepts, an idea that diverges from the TBLT principle of organizing a syllabus around tasks. At the post-SA data collection point, John agreed strongly with this idea; however, at five months after SA, this belief had reverted to 'partly agree,' moving in a direction of alignment with TBLT principles. Interestingly, over the same period of time, John moved from partly agreeing with the idea that courses should be organized around activities or tasks that students carry out to strongly agreeing with this idea, finishing at the point that is most closely aligned with TBLT principles. Considering these two contrasting ideas together, it seems that overall, John's ideas about course organization were moving in a direction that aligned with TBLT. His use of tasks throughout SA and afterward would support this position. John planned each of his SA lessons around a main task, such as giving directions or writing a proposal. At five months post-SA, John described what he thought about when planning a lesson:

> I definitely think that the idea of having to use language to accomplish a goal is inherently good for students and is much more fun for an instructor, and it's much better for learning outcomes. To be able to do something with language is often what people want to do. (John Delayed Post-SA Interview 2)

Thus, John saw value in using tasks as the organizing element of courses, rather than planning lessons based around grammar, and commented that he would choose to implement his classes in this way as long as the context allowed.

In his last interview, John noted that in the future, he would continue to implement an approach somewhere between task-based and communicative, emphasizing the importance of making his teaching personalized and communicative and noting that the tangible goals of tasks were very valuable. In sum, John developed a very favorable view of TBLT, which he noted he would use if the context permitted. Unlike many other participants, John had the opportunity to teach immediately after SA and thus saw right away that different contexts call for diverse approaches. He highlighted the principles of TBLT that he felt were key and implemented a task-based approach to the extent that he felt the context warranted. Five months after SA, John reflected that he hadn't realized how important engagement was before SA. However, in his ESL teaching five months after SA, he continued to see the importance of engagement, which was illustrated in an observation he made about how his student's interest in a topic predicted how well he did on reading exercises. Thus, John saw engagement as a critical factor for successful teaching that varied according to learner variables and the context of the learning (e.g., summer camp vs. individual lessons) but that continued to be of utmost importance for students' success in L2 acquisition.

5.1.1.4 Summary

As evident from the previous sections, some aspects of the three focal participants' cognitions about L2 teaching changed over time, while other elements remained quite strong throughout. The participants shared some beliefs, such as the importance of choosing topics that interested the learners (Chobi, John) or the importance of maintaining a controlled classroom (Jocelyn, Chobi). Each participant also had beliefs that characterized their approach in unique ways. The findings will be discussed in the following section.

5.1.2 Discussion – Cognitions About Teaching Approaches

Previous research has found that the extent to which SLTE programs influence preservice L2 teachers' pedagogical beliefs, especially when teachers are exposed to teaching innovations such as TBLT, is not yet clear (Bryfonski, 2019). In the current study, a number of data collection and analysis methods were used to investigate teachers' cognition development regarding TEFL approaches over the course of the study, including quantitative analysis of the change in teachers' beliefs as evidenced by data from the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire, qualitative analysis of interview data and documents, and classroom observation. The findings of the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire indicated that overall, the three focal participants' pedagogical beliefs became more aligned with TBLT principles over the course of the study, as was also true for the preservice teachers in Ogilvie and Dunn's (2010) semester-long curriculum course and East's (2014, 2020) participants after a year-long education program. However, while the findings of the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire were overall quite similar for the three focal participants, for each teacher, there were topics about which their beliefs varied over time. These differences were also evident in findings of the qualitative analysis that was carried out. These findings are discussed for each participant in the following sections.

5.1.2.1 Jocelyn

Of the three focal participants, Jocelyn's pedagogical beliefs were the least clearly defined and also the ones that changed the most over time. Neither of these findings is particularly surprising, given that she was the least academically prepared of the three teachers and therefore one could expect to observe growth and development from the introduction of new ideas and experiencing the implementation of those ideas in the classroom (Borg, 2003). The changes in Jocelyn's beliefs related to grammar instruction—which overall moved towards a position aligned with TBLT, stating that students can learn effectively through activities using English, focusing explicitly on grammar only when needed—are like the views of Ogilvie and Dunn's (2010) participants, the majority of whose dispositions were also more favorable towards TBLT regarding explicit grammar instruction following their semester-long curriculum course. Her beliefs were also like those of Altan's (2012) participants, who moved away from beliefs aligning with the Grammar-Translation method and towards a communicative approach following a SLTE program. In this regard, Jocelyn is also somewhat similar to Nordlund's (2017) participants, whose beliefs were moving towards research-supported ideas regarding L2 acquisition at the conclusion of a methodology course. Likewise, following a semester SLA course, MacDonald et al.'s (2001) participants' cognitions had moved away from behaviorist views and from the idea that language instruction needed to follow a strict grammatical order. Both Nordlund and MacDonald and colleagues, however, note that beliefs are slow to change and that this might help to explain why their participants did not demonstrate greater changes of cognition. In like manner, while many of Jocelyn's beliefs showed quite a bit of change, she also expressed beliefs at the post-SA and delayed post-SA data collection points that indicated that her views might not have changed completely, such as her agreement five months after SA with

the ideas that explicit grammar instruction was important and that student errors needed to be corrected regularly to avoid forming bad habits.

Another factor that may have influenced those of Jocelyn's pedagogical beliefs that did not show great change is the fact that teachers bring previously held beliefs to preservice education from their apprenticeship of observation as an L2 learner (Lortie, 1975); these memories of instruction have been shown to guide preservice teachers' approaches to teaching (Bailey et al., 1996). Jocelyn made specific reference to the fact that her French teacher—the teacher she felt had been her best L2 teacher—used PPP very effectively in the classroom, and although Jocelyn initially stated that she was trying to do TBLT, most of her lessons more closely resembled PPP, as she herself stated later in the study. Previous research (e.g., Johnson, 1994) has found that preservice teachers judged the suitability of teaching theories and methods in terms of their own experiences as L2 learners. Research has also shown that teachers may avoid certain practices based on their own negative experiences. For instance, Numrich (1996) showed that teachers avoided correcting their students' errors due to negative experiences being corrected as learners, whereas Jocelyn had negative views of teachers who did not correct any of their students' errors, leading her to believe that correcting her students' errors was preferable.

The changes in Jocelyn's cognitions over the duration of the study reflect a clearer understanding of what she stated she was aiming to do in the classroom and what she was actually doing. Jocelyn's descriptions of her approach changed from stating that she would not use PPP—which was a message she had likely internalized from predeparture discussions and feedback from some supervisors—to describing her approach as PPP utilizing tasks for the final production stage, or a form of TSLT (Ellis, 2003). In part, her understandings of the differences among TEFL approaches likely deepened over the span of the TEFL course and through

firsthand teaching experience on SA (Comogly & Kikilitas, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2021; Richards & Farrell, 2011). Discussing her approach during interviews also allowed Jocelyn to clarify some of her ideas and to begin to describe her approach using academic, or scientific, concepts (Vygotsky, 1986). In addition, post-SA reflective exercises and the time available to process her experience abroad may have led her to a better understanding of both her preferences and the approach she had been taking in the classroom (Johnson & Golombek, 2016; Richards & Farrell, 2011). The narrative approach of the post-SA reflective assignments may have also helped Jocelyn solidify her understandings of new concepts and make sense of her feelings about them (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). Thus, her later descriptions of her approach more closely described her approach to teaching in terms of TEFL methods/approaches.

Jocelyn's later description of her approach also aligns well with her overall goals for L2 teaching, which remained quite constant throughout the study—to get the students using the L2 and having fun, regardless of the method or approach used to achieve those goals. Like Ogilvie and Dunn's (2010) participants, following the predeparture period of instruction, Jocelyn's questionnaire results and findings from the qualitative data analysis indicated that she was in favor of a task-based approach, and yet she did not implement a fully task-based approach in the teaching practice on SA that immediately followed the instructional period. However, unlike Ogilvie and Dunn's participants, who did not implement TBLT for a variety of reasons, including that they felt they did not have support from their mentor teachers and they feared it went in contrast to the type of instruction their students were used to, Jocelyn noted that her aim was to achieve her two stated goals—getting the students using English and having fun—and not to implement any given method. Thus, Jocelyn's choice in using methods other than TBLT was goal-driven rather than due to a lack of resources or support. Jocelyn viewed this dual goal as

having long-term effects, in that she believed that a positive experience in the classroom could motivate students to want to continue learning English throughout their life. Jocelyn's stated beliefs and actions in the classroom confirm previous research showing that preservice teachers' pedagogical beliefs are influenced by their personal belief systems and that their understandings of what constitute effective teaching practices are influenced by these beliefs (Sheridan, 2016).

5.1.2.2 Chobi

As mentioned previously, overall, Chobi's cognitions, like those of the other focal participants, moved in a direction of greater alignment with TBLT principles over the course of the study. Several changes in specific beliefs of Chobi's moved in the same direction. Like Jocelyn (see section 5.1.2.1) and participants in previous studies (e.g., Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010), one area in which Chobi's views became more aligned with TBLT was that of the relatively low importance of explicit grammar teaching. Her views also became more favorably disposed towards TBLT regarding the relatively lesser important role of accuracy as compared to fluency, like the majority of Ogilvie and Dunn's (2010) participants. In contrast, Chobi's views diverged from TBLT principles at post-SA regarding the importance of maintaining a quiet, controlled classroom. This likely reflected the challenges that Chobi faced on SA with classroom management, as is true for many preservice teachers (Borg, 2006; Numrich, 1996).

As previously noted, preservice teachers often judge the appropriateness of teaching methods in terms of their own experiences as language learners (Johnson, 1994; Lortie, 1975). Chobi's written and oral data indicate that her initial beliefs reflected positive learning experiences, such as learning French in an International Baccalaureate program, which led her to want to appeal to students' interests and to incorporate creativity in her teaching —a quality that has been found to be of importance to preservice teachers (Numrich, 1996). She also had ideas

about L2 teaching that stemmed from reactions to learning experiences that she felt were less than satisfactory (Numrich, 1996), such as a period of studying Korean through the PPP method, which did not result in an ability to communicate in Korean, and perhaps made her more interested in trying an approach that would promote students' communicative abilities.

Since Chobi finally had a chance to experience teaching EFL firsthand on SA, after long believing that TEFL was her desired career, she decided to teach her classes using a task-based approach. While teaching on SA, Chobi benefitted from the cycle of theorizing and practicing that took place thanks to regular feedback and daily opportunities for reflection (Hepple, 2012; Trent, 2011) that allowed her to better understand the principles of TBLT as she implemented the approach. As she observed which practices were more or less effective, she adapted her approach to meet the needs of her specific student population (Kim, Jung, & Tracy-Ventura, 2017)—that of intermediate, fourth- and fifth-grade EFL students in Mexico. Thus, like previous preservice L2 teachers on SA (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006), Chobi developed an understanding of the importance of context for teaching that was afforded her through daily teaching practice on SA. The combination of practice and theory that is recognized as being fundamental for successful SLTE (Freeman, 2016; Johnson, 2015) was critical for Chobi's cognition development regarding TBLT, such that her beliefs regarding TEFL approaches that might otherwise would have remained theoretical were viewed in action and were developed in their particular aspects.

As Chobi gained experience in the classroom on SA, one element became emblematic of her approach—the importance of incorporating student input. Chobi expressed more than once that she was surprised at how much her students knew and how well they did when she let them take the lead. Having observed this in a positive light, a change towards a more student-centered classroom became central to Chobi's approach on SA. To Chobi, this meant designing materials

around topics that would interest her students and letting them take an active role in the classroom. The importance Chobi ascribed to this aspect of her teaching is similar to two concerns of preservice teachers found in Numrich's (1996) diary study, that of responding to student's needs and focusing on the students rather than on oneself. Chobi used tasks to make her students the principal actors in the classroom and give them responsibility for their learning. In a similar vein, Erlam's (2015) participants believed that using tasks had made their classes more learner-centered. Chobi's description of working together with her students to negotiate meaning as they worked out the content of a task is in line with Van den Branden's description of the teacher as a "true interactional partner" (2009, p. 284). In addition, the incorporation of students' input is in line with another change in Chobi's views that became more aligned with TBLT, as reflected in the questionnaire findings—that of recognizing that the outcome of a lesson is unpredictable, due to the influence that the students' input has on the way the class develops.

5.1.2.3 John

Like the two other focal participants in this study, John's beliefs became more aligned with principles of TBLT over time. One particular area of beliefs that followed this pattern was the relatively low importance John ascribed to explicit grammar teaching, as was true for both other focal participants in this study (see sections 5.1.2.1, 5.1.2.2) and participants in previous studies (e.g., Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010). On the other hand, in one area, John's beliefs became less aligned with TBLT principles: five months after SA, John partly agreed that activities' success should be judged on accurate L2 use, as opposed to his previous position of disagreement with this idea. This change in beliefs likely reflects John's then-current instruction of a student who was preparing to take the Test of English as a Foreign Language, for which accuracy would have been essential. John's questionnaire findings also revealed somewhat contradictory beliefs

regarding how a course should be organized—partly agreeing that it should be organized around successively more difficult grammatical topics yet fully agreeing it should be organized around tasks. It could be that John did not view these two things as contradictory, or perhaps his ideas on this topic were still in flux. It might also be the case that while the participants were asked to express their position about this idea, their day-to-day focus was centered around task design and implementation, not necessarily a broader view of how to approach a course or syllabus; therefore, ideas regarding this topic might have been less clearly developed than others on topics that were more pertinent to their experiences on SA.

Like Chobi, John decided to take a task-based approach on SA. By the end of the predeparture period, John's cognitions had shifted from a belief that CLT was the best approach to the idea that TBLT would be most effective, illustrating the idea that preservice teachers are often open to innovation and considering new approaches (Johnson & Golombek, 2016). Later, John said that he would use TBLT again in the future if the context were suitable, similar to East's (2014, 2020) participants, noting that he would adapt the approach as needed, especially for students' age and EFL/ESL context. This position is also in some ways similar to the views of in-service teachers with positive views of TBLT but concerns about its implementation (Zhang & Luo, 2018; Zheng & Borg, 2014). John did not fully adopt a task-based approach without analyzing its benefits and its limitations. He appreciated those aspects of TBLT that he felt made it successful, such as the presence of a goal to work toward and its ability to engage students. In fact, engagement was a key theme in John's data and the key element to his approach. Prior to departure, most of John's energy was focused on designing quality materials; he had not yet appreciated the importance of the need to create fun, engaging lessons based on topics that would interest his students, as he later recounted. Therefore, similar to Chobi, he

benefited from the authentic classroom experience (Barahona & Davin, 2021; Deocampo, 2020) and the theory-practice cycle afforded to him through daily teaching practice and reflection on SA (Hepple, 2012; Trent, 2011). After modifying his lessons to incorporate topics his students were interested in, he noticed increased engagement and deemed his lessons much more successful than those he had implemented at the beginning of SA. These beliefs were reinforced through implementing tasks in the classroom firsthand and witnessing their success, highlighting once again the importance of including both theory and practice in SLTE (Freeman, 2016; Johnson, 2015; Richards & Farrell, 2011). John found that using a task-based approach afforded students more opportunities to use the L2, much like other teachers in previous studies (e.g., Erlam, 2015). However, John also felt that communicating in an L2 about topics of personal importance, perhaps even in the absence of a goal, could be rewarding; along these lines, he described his approach while teaching after SA as being at the intersection of TBLT and CLT. When discussing what approach he would take in the future, John specified that though he would take a task-based approach, if problems with grammar arose, he would spend some time focusing on grammar through a more traditional method, such as PPP or the audiolingual method. It may be that John appreciated the strengths of TBLT for developing students' communicative abilities and did not realize that the approach also provides for a focus on form (Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Van den Branden, 2006a).

5.1.2.4 Synthesis and Summary

Like the participants in previous studies (East, 2014, 2020; Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010), all three focal participants' dispositions towards TBLT grew more favorable over the course of the current study. However, unlike the participants in Ogilvie and Dunn's (2010) study, many of whom did not implement TBLT during their teaching practicum following a semester of

instruction, in the current study, two of the three focal participants chose to take a task-based approach during their two weeks of teaching abroad, and the third focal participant experimented with tasks and other approaches. This could be due to a number of factors, such as the relative freedom that the focal participants had in choosing an approach (i.e., not feeling pressure to take a traditional approach), perhaps owing to the fact that they were teaching in a summer camp; the seeming appropriateness of the approach for the context, given TBLT's strengths in promoting students' communicative abilities and the school administrators' desire that the camp participants have plentiful opportunities to use their L2; and the support the teachers received from their supervisors. Like the teachers in studies that evaluated participants' understandings of TBLT after a period of instruction (Ellis, 2015; Han, 2018), the three focal participants demonstrated more advanced understandings of TBLT at the end of the study compared to their initial understandings. Similar to Erlam's (2015) participants, Chobi and John developed more in-depth understandings of task criteria, while Jocelyn was able to recognize the approach she took as a task-supported approach, as opposed to a task-based approach.

All three focal participants viewed the role of explicit grammar teaching as less important over time, moving in a direction of alignment with TBLT principles. However, it should be noted that on SA, they were teaching in a context that downplayed the need for traditional, grammar-based teaching (for the purposes of the camp) in favor of promoting activities that promoted L2 use. Therefore, we should consider that this change in cognitions may to some extent be a product of the SA context and the participants' particular teaching experience.

Another commonality between Chobi and John was that they modified their teaching materials to better meet their students' needs and align with their interests. John's adaptation of topics and materials to his students' needs and interests, like Chobi's rewriting of her lesson

plans, is an example of creating a localized task-based curriculum (Kim, Jung, & Tracy-Ventura, 2017). One difference relates to the fact that the teachers had limited information about their students prior to departure. Therefore, rather than planning a syllabus organized around tasks prior to the beginning of the course, as would ordinarily be true for a task-based approach (Long, 2016), their adaptations to their students' needs were enacted through a series of modifications once the teachers got to know their students on SA. In this way, they were considering each class as "a culture into itself" (Willard-Holt, 2001, p. 513) and giving their classes the individual attention that they needed to thrive.

Chobi and Jocelyn shared an outlook on L2 teaching and its role in their students' lives. Jocelyn believed that providing her students with a positive experience in the classroom could motivate them to continue studying English over the long-term, while Chobi believed that using tasks would encourage greater learner autonomy, which could have a long-lasting positive impact. Both participants saw themselves as potentially influencing students' lives beyond their immediate experience on SA and felt this was a very important aspect of what they hoped to achieve through their teaching.

Each participant's approach had a key characteristic: Jocelyn's goal was to get her students using English and having fun; Chobi was focused on creating a student-centered classroom; and John's focus was on engaging his students. Though each of the three focal participants discussed these key characteristics in different ways and using different terms, there are similarities among them. Each of the three recognized the importance of engaging their students in order to have successful lessons, whether that was through the use of games to make the lessons fun, by making the classroom student-centered, or by modifying task topics in order to appeal to students' interests. One important difference was how this general approach

interacted with the teachers' chosen TEFL approach. For Jocelyn, ensuring the students used English and had fun superseded the need to follow a single teaching method or approach, whereas for Chobi and John, the modifications they made to achieve student-centeredness and high student engagement were done within the framework of a task-based approach.

5.2 Cognitions About Tasks

Because TBLT was a key area of interest in the current study and many of the teachers chose to take a task-based approach on SA, their cognitions regarding task design and implementation were also a focal point of the study. The teachers provided a definition for their then-current understanding of tasks at each interview, and they reflected on task types, task phases, and their design and use of tasks in written assignments, providing a variety sources from which to evaluate their cognition development regarding tasks.

5.2.1 Findings – Cognitions About Tasks

In analyzing teachers' definitions of tasks, it was evident that some of the teachers' understandings became more nuanced over time while others remained more static. Some characteristics were present in the teachers' definitions throughout the study, while in other cases, task characteristics included in their definitions disappeared and reappeared over time. In addition to developing an understanding of what defines a task, the teachers developed beliefs related to the benefits and limitations of designing and using different types of tasks with their students. The findings for each participant are presented in the following sections.

5.2.1.1 Jocelyn

In Jocelyn's definition and descriptions of tasks, there were four primary characterizations that she used quite consistently over time (see Figure 5.7). The first of these was the use of the L2. Jocelyn—the most novice of the three focal participants and new to the

ideas of TEFL approaches and TBLT—saw tasks as a classroom activity that should get students using the target language. She also hoped that by using the L2 to complete tasks, students would learn language that was flexible enough that they could use it in new contexts, and not just repeat phrases they had learned (Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview). The second aspect of tasks that Jocelyn highlighted, which was closely related to the first, was that tasks should promote functional language use, or be appropriate for real-world use. Jocelyn viewed tasks as a means for students to learn for real-world language and skills, such as telling the time or ordering food in a restaurant. She also felt that tasks should prepare students to be able to communicate in the real world, so that performing tasks in the classroom was a way to build up language skills and promote transfer to linguistic interactions in non-academic contexts.

	Pre-course	Pre-departure	SA Week 1	SA Week 2	Post-SA	5 Months Post-SA
Use L2	X	X	x	x	X	x
Functional/ real-world		X		x	X	
Practice	X	X		X	x	x
Goal		X	X	X	X	X

Note: X = stated in Jocelyn's definition; x = implied

Figure 5.7 *Descriptors Included in Jocelyn's Definition of Task Over Time*

A third way Jocelyn characterized tasks was that they provided an opportunity for students to practice grammar and vocabulary. Although this description may initially seem similar to the first characteristic related to L2 use, from a task-based perspective, they are actually quite different. Whereas Jocelyn on the one hand thought tasks should get students using the L2, she also saw them as a means for students to practice specific grammatical or lexical

features that she highlighted in a lesson. The following definition, which Jocelyn wrote as part of a predeparture assignment, highlights both the aspect of practice and the real-world element that she believed tasks should include:

> I would define a task in TBLT as an exercise that incorporates grammar and vocabulary aspects for practice by utilizing a topic geared toward what needs to be practiced and also focuses on preparing the learner to communicate in a real-life situation. (Jocelyn, Predeparture assignment)

The fourth characterization of tasks that Jocelyn used consistently over time was that of their having a goal. This criterion seemed to grow in importance as Jocelyn saw the effects of implementing tasks firsthand. Towards the end of SA, Jocelyn noted that she had been scared to try discussion-based tasks, given the age of her students, and that the main activities in her lessons (she was unsure whether they truly 'counted' as tasks) were games. However, when she had implemented a discussion-based task, she had been pleasantly surprised by how well the students responded:

> I think that today's had more of a functional purpose. It was more mature, I think, because it was a discussion, not really a game. Of course, it was still fun. They still loved it because it was superheroes, but they actually accomplished something other than winning a game. So I think I've been kind of scared to do group discussions and do anything other than games, because I was like, "What if they get bored? What if they just don't know enough to talk enough about it? What if they just want to speak in Spanish but they just don't do it?" But I'm glad I kind of ventured out a little bit because they're surprising me. (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview)

Jocelyn noted several times that her lessons were more successful when the students were working on a task with a goal, and therefore working to achieve something, and she observed that this encouraged them to work more independently, which was also a positive outcome.

5.2.1.2 Chobi

During the predeparture period, Chobi's definition of task changed from indicating an activity that reflects everyday actions and has a strong real-world parallel to one that emphasizes the authenticity of L2 use and incorporates pedagogic tasks (see Figure 5.8). Her later definition was sustained over the next six months, likely due to her adaptations of teaching materials to an EFL context, which she noted influenced the types of tasks that were successful. Five months after SA, Chobi—the focal participant with moderate academic preparation and ESL tutoring experience—defined a task as, "an activity provided to a learner of an L2 in order to guide them to a form of authentic communication to be able to complete the task" (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview). Figure 5.8 displays the elements that Chobi included in her definition of task at various points in time (moving left to right). Her initial understanding of task began as strictly referring to a real-world task that was an everyday activity. For instance, she designed a task for her microteaching session in which the participants had to imagine they were studying abroad and had to choose from among different types of tea in order to take a present to their host mother. Although her definition during predeparture coursework appears to be similar to her initial ideas, she had already begun to modify her ideas somewhat during the predeparture period, making qualifications such as: tasks were *often* based on real-world activities, and tasks were everyday activities *that required language*.

	Pre-course	Early Pre-departure Period	End of Pre-departure Period	During SA	Post-SA	5 Months Post-SA
Real-world	X	X				
Everyday activity	X	X	X			
Pedagogic			X	x	x	X
Provides opportunities for L2 use			X		X	
Topic/task may not relate to real life, but L2 use is authentic			X	X	X	X
Emphasis on completion					X	X

Note: X = stated in Chobi's definition; x = implied

Figure 5.8 *Descriptors Included in Chobi's Definition of Task Over Time*

By the end of the predeparture period, Chobi had expanded her definition to include pedagogic tasks and added the need for tasks to provide opportunities for L2 use, noting that the task might not always relate to real-life, but that L2 use should be authentic. This change—from viewing tasks as real-life activities to no longer requiring a strong real-life parallel—marked a noticeable change in Chobi's thinking during the TEFL course. During SA, Chobi felt challenged by trying to engage her students through tasks, and she realized that the topics of her tasks needed to relate more closely to her students' interests. She rewrote nearly all her lesson plans to incorporate their interests, which also meant including topics that did not lend themselves to tasks with strong real-world parallels. For instance, one day, students wrote magical spells, and on another day, they designed a utopia. Despite their lack of strong real-world ties, Chobi felt that these tasks were successful because they engaged students and prompted authentic communication as students worked together to complete the tasks. Though not a criterion of a task, Chobi also felt the creativity that tasks promoted was important:

> I think creativity is the key to a successful task. And I've learned that throughout this trip. So I want to keep being creative and allowing students to be creative, and coming up with topics that may not, you know, promote real-world language, because we might not talk about wizards or magic or anything in real life, but you also might, so I think it's worth it to provide them with that kind of obscure language so that it allows for less robotic conversations. (Chobi, SA Week 2 Interview)

This change—implementing tasks with more fantastical topics and fewer real-life parallels—is also reflected in the fact that Chobi began to include pedagogical tasks in her definition, something which she had not included at the outset, and she added the descriptor of tasks as providing opportunities for L2 use. This inclusion of pedagogic tasks in her definition and the criterion that called for authentic L2 use continued to characterize her definition of task throughout SA and were still present five months later. In addition, during the post- and delayed post-SA periods, Chobi highlighted the element of completion in her definition, a criterion which was not heavily emphasized in the predeparture period of this TEFL course but is one that is often incorporated in definitions of task.

5.2.1.3 John

John's pre-course definition of task was fairly simple, characterizing a task as an everyday activity that involved meaningful communication (see Figure 5.9). At that time, John—the master's student with the greatest academic preparation of the three focal participants—gave examples of tasks, such as, "going to the grocery store and asking where something specific is, going to the bank and having to exchange money in a foreign country … even waking up in the morning and greeting someone" (John, Pre-course Interview). However, during the predeparture period, John's definition of task changed noticeably. His definition expanded to become quite

broad, incorporating numerous elements. At the predeparture data collection point, his definition included pedagogic tasks, and he specified that tasks should have an authentic context, learners should use their own resources while completing a task, and the L2 should be used to complete a goal.

	Pre-course	Early Pre-departure Period	End of Pre-departure Period	During SA	Post-SA	5 Months Post-SA
Everyday activity	X					
Meaningful communication	X					
Pedagogic		X	X (or real-world)			
Use L2 to complete a goal		X	X	X		X
Learners use own resources		X				
Authentic context		X				
Real-world applicability			Not a requirement	X		X

Note: X = stated in John's definition; x = implied

Figure 5.9 Descriptors Included in John's Definition of Task Over Time

During his predeparture interview, John noted that his original understanding had been that all tasks had to be real-world tasks, and that his view had expanded due to the predeparture coursework. It is interesting that while at the end of the predeparture period, John noted that real-world applicability was not a requirement of tasks (a new concept for him), during SA and four months later, he once again included real-world applicability as one of the two defining characteristics of tasks. The issue of how important real-world applicability was to defining a task seemed to remain somewhat of an issue for John. On the one hand, it seemed that he prided himself for using real-world tasks, while on the other hand, he recognized that topics that were

less realistic and more fun might have been more successful with the young learners in Mexico. He reflected on this after SA:

> I felt that my topics were a lot more real-world scenario than any of the other teachers had done because I know some other teachers that did zombie apocalypse escape. … I did navigating an airport … or creating a tour for your family or something. Those are things that … they need to know how to use language for that, to achieve the goal. And I don't know, they sometimes were not as interested … at that age, they really just wanted to have fun, especially at the summer camp. I think if I could go back and do that again, I would adjust some of my lessons to be a little more fun or a little more fantasy or something like that. (John, Post-SA Interview)

The other aspect of tasks that John highlighted at numerous data collection points was the use of the L2 to complete a goal, or, as he described it, "…some sort of interaction is needed, or, an interaction through language is needed to accomplish something. … Where language is the tool and is the way you achieve an outcome" (John, Predeparture Interview). John believed that the inclusion of a goal in tasks was very motivating for his students. Thus, after an initial expansion of how he characterized tasks, John's definition focused on two principal elements—the real-world aspect and the use of L2 to accomplish a goal—and these remained his core criteria for defining tasks, even five months after SA.

5.2.1.4 Summary

Two descriptors of tasks were shared by all three focal participants—the real-world aspect of tasks and the use of L2 tasks necessitated. However, whereas the use of L2 through tasks was frequently mentioned by all three teachers, the real-world descriptor was less consistent over time. Other defining characteristics shared by the participants over time included

authentic communication (Chobi, John), the incorporation of a goal (Jocelyn, John), and the inclusion of pedagogic tasks (Chobi, John). The changes in the participants' definitions of task reflected their developing cognitions; these changes will be discussed below.

5.2.2 Discussion – Cognitions About Tasks

5.2.2.1 Jocelyn

As illustrated in Figure 5.7, the descriptors in Jocelyn's definition of task remained largely stable over the course of the study. This is representative of the fact that her understanding of tasks did not vary, or deepen, much during or after SA. As illustrated in section 4.1.1, Jocelyn did not implement many activities that were highly task-like; thus, her cognitions did not benefit from the opportunities on SA for reflecting and theorizing (Trent, 2011) as much as the other two focal participants' did. Jocelyn used tasks as a means of providing students freer practice opportunities and of establishing a goal for her lessons that students could work up to, which she believed was motivating for students. Jocelyn valued the real-world aspect of tasks and the functional language they could promote and hoped that the language students learned through completing tasks would transfer to outside contexts (Ellis, 2017; Long, 2016).

5.2.2.2 Chobi

Chobi's cognitions about what constitutes a task expanded over the course of the study, adding additional descriptors to her original definition over time. At times, Chobi struggled to reconcile her original ideas of what defined a task with her developing practices, which included implementing tasks with more fantasy-related topics, which reduced their real-world parallel. This prompted Chobi to question whether her classroom activities were truly tasks, according to her initial parameters. In the end, she concluded that they were tasks and that the changes were necessary in order to teach in her specific context, constituting a localized TBLT approach (Kim,

Jung, & Tracy-Ventura, 2017). This recalibrating of her definition resembles the tension that Phipps and Borg's (2009) participants experienced when their stated beliefs did not align with their instructional decisions and the dissonances that existed between Zhang and Luo's (2018) participants' beliefs and their teaching practices. In both of these previous studies, as was also true for Chobi, teachers' firsthand experiences prevailed when they were forced to choose between beliefs and acting on what they felt would work best in the classroom. Furthermore, it illustrates why scholars value practice teaching highly for the authentic classroom experience it provides (Barahona & Davin, 2021; Deocampo, 2020) and why they say that teaching cannot be taught directly (Chinokul, 2021; Richards, 1998).

In addition to debating how strictly task criteria should be interpreted, Chobi developed other ideas about teaching her specific student population, such as the belief that closed tasks were better for learners of the age she was teaching, whereas open tasks might be more effective with older or more advanced learners. Shintani (2016) recognizes the challenges of using tasks with young learners and beginners and notes that tasks with concrete topics and focused tasks are often preferable for that age group, the use of both of which in a sense narrow the scope of a task, as Chobi did by using closed tasks. Following further reflection after SA, Chobi reported that she would like to implement input tasks in her future teaching, another type of task that is recognized as being successful with young learners (Erlam & Ellis, 2018a, 2018b; Shintani, 2016). Overall, Chobi found that using tasks facilitated assessing learners' progress (Van den Branden, 2016a) and led to greater L2 production (Erlam, 2015).

5.2.2.3 John

Like Chobi, John debated the limits that delineated tasks and communicative activities and questioned whether some of his tasks, such as a debate, met all the criteria needed to be

considered a task. He too questioned the importance of the real-world aspect of tasks, as he found that what worked better in the classroom (more fanciful topics) did not align with the definition of task that highlighted its parallel to real-world L2 use. John's understanding of the importance of context for teaching benefitted from his SA experience (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006), and he adapted his task topics to better suit his learners. In this way, he too—like Chobi and participants of previous studies (e.g., Phipps & Borg, 2009; Zhang & Luo, 2018)—chose to implement what he felt would work best in the classroom, though it apparently was at odds with beliefs he had previously expressed. These changes John made and his reflections about them illustrate Richards and Farrell's (2011) description of the theorizing of practice, as John related his classroom experience back to the theories of task he had studied prior to SA. Similar to Chobi, John found that using tasks provided greater opportunities for his students to use the L2, like teachers in previous studies (e.g., Erlam, 2015), and he also noted that using tasks facilitated assessing his students (Van den Branden, 2016a).

5.2.2.4 Synthesis and Summary

In a sense, the teachers' cognitions about tasks paralleled the ways they implemented tasks in the classroom. Jocelyn, the participant with the least academic preparation and no previous teaching or tutoring experience, implemented few activities that were highly task-like, and her definition of task remained largely stable over time, as it was essentially undisturbed by her classroom activities. Chobi and John, on the other hand, planned, adapted, and implemented task-based lessons, and their definitions reflect some of their changes in cognitions over time, such as John's specifying that real-world applicability was not a requirement of a task, or Chobi's addition of pedagogical tasks to her definition. These changes illustrate the benefits of practice teaching for allowing teachers to connect theoretical knowledge from coursework to

actual teaching practices in the classroom (Comoglu & Dikilitas, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2021; Richards & Farrell, 2011).

5.3 Cognitions About the Role of the Teacher

As noted in the literature review, the role of the teacher is one aspect that differentiates TBLT from other, more traditional teaching approaches. Therefore, the teachers' cognitions regarding the role of the teacher were of interest, as was whether or not those cognitions had changed over the course of the study.

5.3.1 Findings – Cognitions About the Role of the Teacher

The role of the teacher was covered through predeparture coursework, and teachers were asked to reflect on the role of the teacher during their interviews. Each focal participant described the way they viewed their role using various terms and metaphors, and these descriptions varied over time. Two items on the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire dealt specifically with the role of the teacher. Though none of the participants' beliefs changed greatly regarding the role of the teacher as measured by the questionnaire, the teachers' positions on these items are included below as they directly relate to the role of the teacher. The findings related to each participant's views on and understandings of the role of the teacher are presented in the following three sections.

5.3.1.1 Jocelyn

As seen in Figure 5.10, prior to going abroad, Jocelyn—the most novice of the focal participants, who had previously taken only one course related to English linguistics and none specifically about TEFL—expressed the belief that one of her roles as a teacher was that of a *team player*. As such, she felt that for learning to take place, the students also had to do their part. She did not, however, mention this idea again during or after SA. Prior to SA, Jocelyn also

stated that she felt that teachers should be approachable and should act as a *friend* to their students. Like team player, this role was not brought up during predeparture coursework or during SA. However, Jocelyn used it to describe her role as a teacher again five months after SA, stating that she felt it was important to be friendly and approachable, so that students would not be afraid to ask her for help if they needed it. Two additional roles were discussed by Jocelyn prior to departure and again after SA, though not during SA: *motivator* and *creator of an immersive environment*. The latter of these two ideas aligns with the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire item stating that it is the teacher's job to "facilitate language development by creating an environment conducive to learning" (see Appendix B); Jocelyn agreed with this statement prior to SA, immediately following SA, and five months afterward. She emphasized on numerous occasions and in various types of data (e.g., assignments, interviews, philosophy statements) that she believed it was the teacher's responsibility to create an immersive environment in which authentic communication could take place. She stated, "I kind of think of the classroom door as an airtight lock on a spaceship in science fiction. The teacher seals the door when class begins, keeping out all (or at least most of) the students' native language," (Jocelyn, L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement). Although she did not mention this idea during interviews while on SA, she seemed to feel quite strongly that creating this L2-only environment was one of the best ways to help her students learn English.

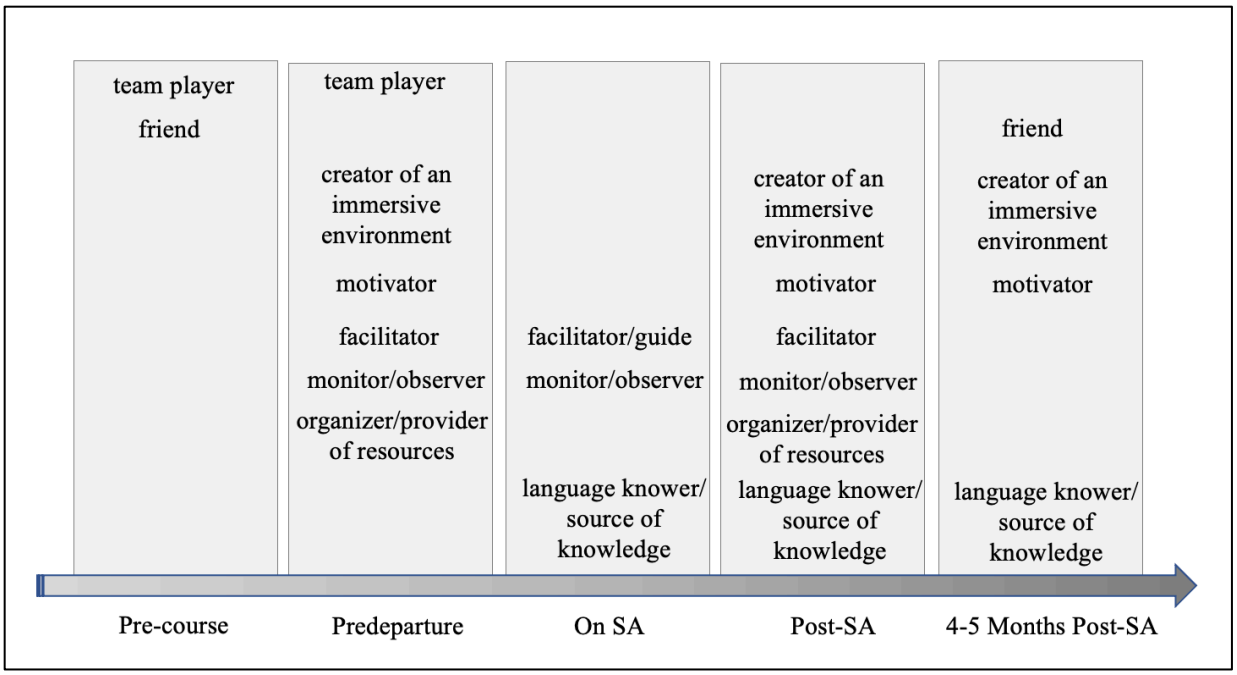

Figure 5.10 Traits Included in Jocelyn's Description of the Role of the Teacher Over Time

Occurring with similar frequency in Jocelyn's data was the role of *motivator*, which Jocelyn emphasized as being very important. Jocelyn discussed the need to motivate her students both in and outside of the classroom. In the classroom, Jocelyn saw this role as closely related to that of *facilitator*, since by aiming to act as a facilitator and have students largely completing activities on their own, the teacher would need to motivate the students sufficiently so that they would carry out these activities independently. Jocelyn also believed it was important to motivate one's students so that they would want to continue learning outside of the classroom. She noted that many students do not appreciate the hard work that can be necessary to be successful in acquiring a second language, and she stressed the importance of motivating your students to want to learn and do well beyond the scope of any given course:

> It is important for the teacher to make the students actually want to learn and do well in the L2 beyond just earning a passing grade. This is definitely one of the more difficult

> tasks that a teacher must undertake, as it can be very difficult to motivate anyone, especially if they're on the younger side. (Jocelyn, Revised L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement)

The role that Jocelyn mentioned most frequently was that of facilitator, or *guide*. At predeparture she used the terms synonymously, and she noted that they related to the idea of a partnership that she believed should exist between a teacher and their students. Since the students needed to take an active role in their own learning, the teacher was merely there to provide resources and guide the students along. On SA, Jocelyn noted that she thought she would have been more of a facilitator, and she observed that she was talking more than she had expected to. In her Week 1 interview on SA, Jocelyn differentiated the two terms, facilitator and guide, assigning a more active sense to the latter and indicating that she had been acting more as a guide than as a facilitator. This was true for the second week of SA as well. However, after SA, Jocelyn once again adopted the term facilitator, noting that she had tried to take on this role and also that she felt it was the role she was supposed to have enacted. During the same time periods (i.e., predeparture, during SA, and post-SA), Jocelyn also brought up the role of *monitor* or *observer*. She stated that, in part, she felt it was necessary to carry out this role in order to keep students on task, but she also genuinely enjoyed getting a chance to hear what her students were discussing when they were completing a task and she was able to take on a less hands-on role for some time. She also recounted how enacting this role had shaped her view of how a teacher should act, since prior to SA she had principally seen the teacher as "someone who stands at the front of the board and just talks all day" (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview), whereas in Mexico her experience had been that of a more active, observant, and non-stationary figure.

The final role that Jocelyn described on numerous occasions was that of *source of knowledge*, or *language knower*. In her Week 1 interview on SA, Jocelyn said she felt like she was constantly being called to enact this role, especially when asked to supply students with vocabulary they needed to complete activities. She described the importance of this role as it related to the roles of facilitator and *organizer/provider of resources*. Jocelyn stated that by providing the students with the activities necessary for them to learn, she could then facilitate their activities and act as a resource for language-related questions, and she believed that these three roles (i.e., provider of resources, facilitator, language knower) would suffice to implement a successful lesson with ample opportunities for L2 learning. The role of language knower was one that Jocelyn referred to frequently both during and after SA. This belief about the role of the teacher is reinforced by the fact that on each administration of the pedagogical beliefs questionnaire, Jocelyn agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "The role of the language teacher is to impart knowledge to students through explanations, lectures, leading activities, and so forth."

Thus, it seems that Jocelyn's ideas about the role of the teacher moved from being nearly an equal or a friend of one's students, participating in equal measure with them, to a figure that might be less prominent, setting the stage for students to actively propel their own learning, while she could help from an auxiliary role, facilitating their learning and being available as a language resource. Jocelyn's ideas, or perhaps ideals, of acting as a friend and facilitator remained fairly strong over time, evidenced by the fact that they reappeared in her data after SA. However, they were not prominent in the time that Jocelyn was actively teaching in the classroom on SA.

5.3.1.2 Chobi

Prior to the TEFL course, Chobi—the focal participant who had taken a good number of EFL-related courses but had yet to experience EFL teaching—described the teacher's role as that of a *sage*, or an all-knowing individual who could impart knowledge to their students (see Figure 5.11). However, already at the time of her predeparture interview, Chobi stated that she had realized this was not the case. As she put it, "Instead of being the all-knowing person, your students are actually the ones with the knowledge. It's just your job to facilitate and manage it" (Chobi, Predeparture Interview). She reiterated this view—that the teacher's job was not to act as a sage—again five months after SA. Chobi's responses on the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire do not fully align with this change in cognitions, as she indicated that she slightly disagreed (Pre-course), partly agreed (Post-SA), and slightly disagreed (Delayed Post-SA) with the statement, "The role of the language teacher is to impart knowledge to students through explanations, lectures, leading activities, and so forth." However, her final position on the questionnaire does indicate that she did not view her role as that of a sage, or one who should impart knowledge to her students.

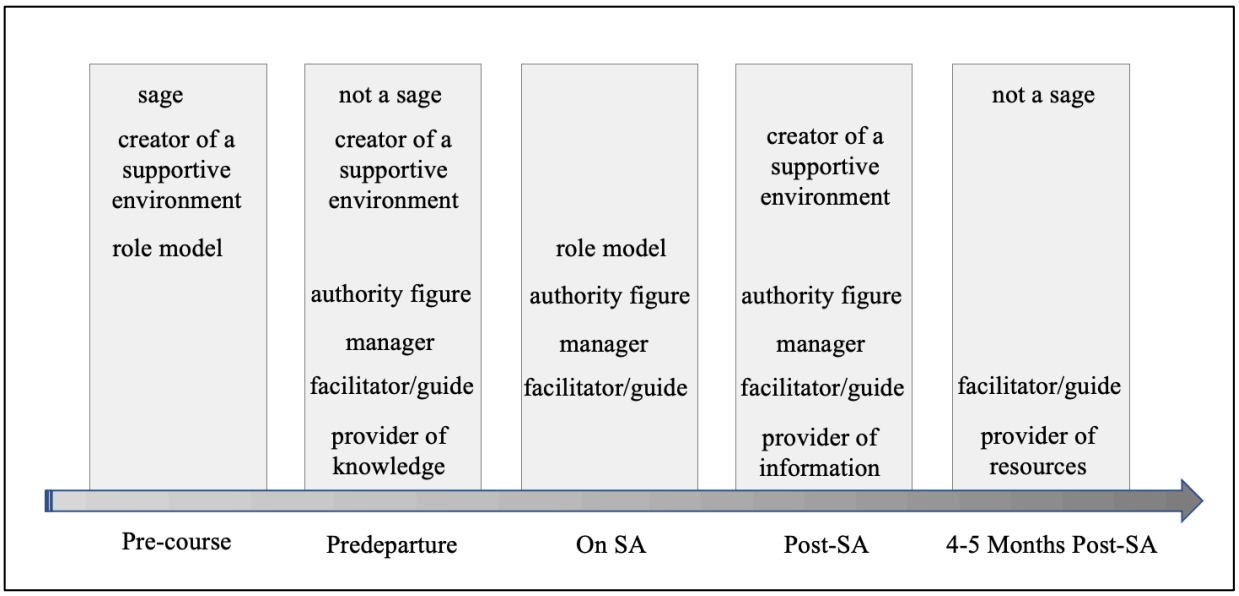

Figure 5.11 Traits Included in Chobi's Description of the Role of the Teacher Over Time

In contrast, one role that Chobi felt was important early on and which remained constant both before and after SA was that of *creator of a supportive environment*. This view is reinforced by the fact that all three times the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire was administered, Chobi agreed with the statement, "The teacher's job is to facilitate language development by creating an environment conducive to learning." Chobi believed it was very important to create an environment in which all students felt comfortable so as to foster genuine communication. As she stated in a predeparture assignment, "As a teacher, the main thing I want to achieve is being successful in creating a safe space for English conversation without high affective filters" (Chobi, Predeparture Homework Assignment 4). It is evident from her words that Chobi was attuned to contextual factors that could facilitate learning and had students' general wellbeing in mind. Similarly, Chobi noted prior to the course and during SA that she felt it was her job to be more than just an instructor; rather, she saw herself as an all-around *role model* for her students. While on SA, Chobi said she had realized that her role as teacher encompassed more than just what took place in the classroom. She said, of her students:

> I'm kind of shaping how they view the world, and it's my responsibility to make sure that they grow up and go into the world with an open mind … When you have an open mind, you know, there's just more peace in the world, as cheesy as that sounds, but it's a huge role. … I want to reflect on that a lot. Think about it, how- what can I do as a teacher to prepare kids to go into the world with an open mind, which is not really related to teaching materials at all, but it's part of being a teacher and just a role model in general. (Chobi, SA Week 2 Interview)

During the predeparture period, Chobi added several additional roles to her descriptions, including *authority figure* and *manager*. Chobi noted that she struggled with being an authority figure; however, this and the responsibilities of managing the classroom were both roles that she viewed as important and worked on improving throughout her time teaching on SA. In a written reflection, Chobi described the importance she associated with being an effective authority figure in the classroom and the progress she was making as she worked to take on this role:

> I'm beginning to feel more comfortable being more assertive with my students. Establishing myself as an authority figure is vital to my success in the second week. I will continue to work on these things tomorrow and the rest of my time at the school. (Chobi, Written Reflection, Day 5)

Chobi often felt challenged when she needed to manage her classes, whether it was related to enforcing timing, keeping students on task, or other similar responsibilities. Like her struggle to feel she was an effective authority figure, she sometimes disliked managing her classes because it required telling her students they could not do something they wanted to do or disciplining students who were not listening. However, she recognized that these tasks were necessary to successfully run the classroom.

Another role that was prominent in Chobi's descriptions from the predeparture period through her final interview was that of facilitator or guide. Through the coursework in the predeparture period and through her experience teaching abroad, Chobi said she had realized it was her job to facilitate students' learning and knowledge, rather than dictate it. She recounted:

> After being in Mexico, I realized that I was only needed sometimes and it's kind of good to just kind of exist on the side and be present when you need to be. That way your students don't just rely on you for everything. (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview)

The idea of acting as a facilitator or a guide was closely related to the role of *provider of resources*, in that both assign an active role to students and a less prominent one for the teacher. In reflecting on the teacher's role in her last interview, Chobi described her role as someone who provided students with what they needed to complete tasks and be successful in the classroom. It is interesting to note that over time, she moved from describing her role as providing knowledge (predeparture), to providing information (post-SA), to providing resources (delayed post-SA) for her students, another indication that she was moving away from the idea of being a sage to that of being a facilitator. As Chobi stated five months after SA:

> The main thing I learned is that being a teacher isn't just like you have to know everything, you have to do everything, and be everything. It's not. It's really just about being a facilitator of learning and providing resources for your students to be able to take their own learning journeys. (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview)

5.3.1.3 John

The role that John—the most academically prepared of the three focal participants—cited most frequently and most consistently over time was that of guide (see Figure 5.12). In particular, he felt students should arrive at answers themselves, and that the teacher should create

a context for their learning and help them along their way, but that students were responsible for their own learning. The beliefs he expressed in interviews and reflection documents on this topic are supported by his position on the two related items on the Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire: he disagreed or slightly disagreed with the statement, "The role of the language teacher is to impart knowledge to students through explanations, lectures, leading activities, and so forth," and strongly agreed with the statement, "The teacher's job is to facilitate language development by creating an environment conducive to learning." John hoped that by acting as a guide and giving students responsibility for their own learning, they would understand the relevance of the language they were studying on their own:

> I've been a guide recently, going around clarifying language. But I don't really reiterate the task unless they ask for it, because I want them to think, "Well, what am I using this for?" I don't want to *tell* them what they're using this for. I want them to *think* themselves, "What do I use this for?" And that's why I've been mostly a guide. (John, SA Week 1 Interview)

At the post-SA data collection point, John reflected that he had acted as more of a guide while teaching on SA than he had expected to, and the following semester, he noted that he continued to enact the role of a guide with his student taking individual lessons.

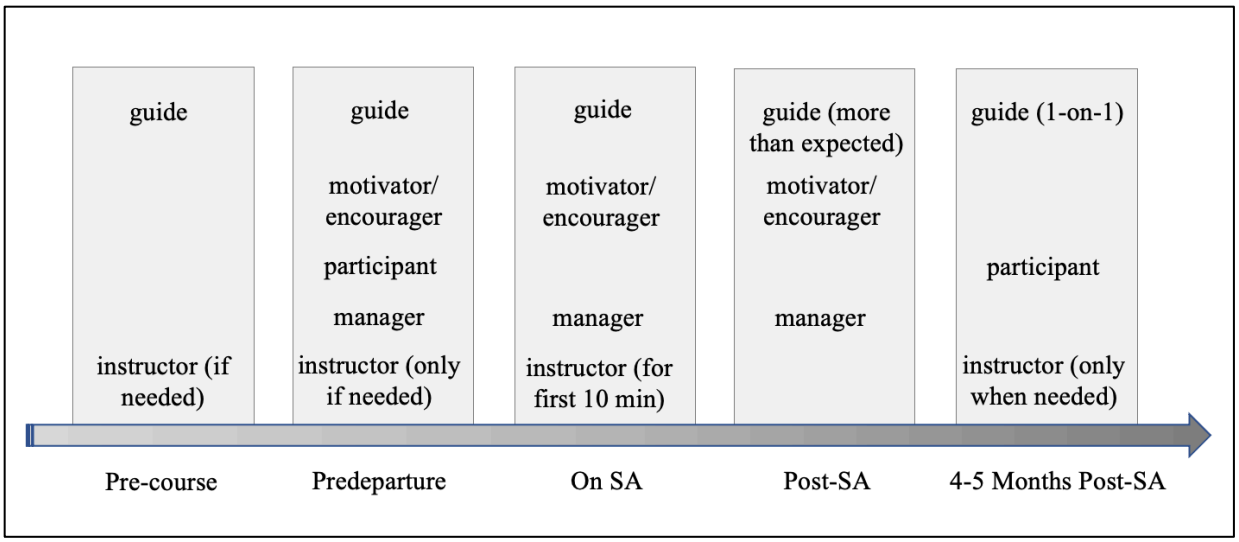

Figure 5.12 Traits Included in John's Description of the Role of the Teacher Over Time

Another role that John ended up enacting more than he had expected was that of motivator, or *encourager*. At predeparture, John noted that being an encourager could be important, although he didn't feel completely comfortable with this role. He said that the most difficult thing for him was developing a teaching personality that was encouraging without being excessively enthusiastic or coming across as insincere. John described being surprised at how much encouragement was needed for his students and the fact that teaching was not a straightforward enterprise of simply teaching a lesson:

> I thought, "oh well, I'll just go there and teach English," when there's so much more than that. There's so many compiling or confounding factors that I had to address. That was probably the most to me—that teaching wasn't teaching, it was mentoring. Being a guidance counselor and talking to students in the class if they were sad. It was all of that, but it was all encompassed in the role. (John, Post-SA Interview)

Prior to SA, John said he thought he would alternate between being a *participant* and a manager. He thought he would participate with small groups while they were working in order to offer ideas and help with problems. He also noted that he felt this role was more appropriate for

smaller classes. Perhaps for this reason, he next emphasized this role several months after SA while describing his role with the individual student he was teaching at the time; since he wanted to lower the power distance between himself and his student, he tried to take the role of participant as often as possible.

In contrast to the role of participant, which John did not bring up while abroad or immediately after SA, John discussed enacting the role of manager during both those time periods. For instance, John felt he took the role of manager more in the second week of SA in order to keep students involved and on task. After SA, he noted that following an initial introduction to a lesson, he felt a teacher should act as a manager, so that students could take the lead. However, he also noted that he had become much more of an encourager, or manager of behavior, than a manager of tasks. He likely did not find as much need for this role with an individual adult student and did not discuss it at the delayed post-SA data collection time.

Lastly, John often spoke of the role of *instructor*, though it was not one he wished to enact very often. He usually qualified his description of himself in this role by saying he would only take it when needed, or for as little time as needed. On SA, he clearly said that he was an instructor for the first 10 minutes of class so as to provide students with the background information they needed to carry out the day's tasks. He viewed this initial time in each lesson as necessary to enable the students to work more independently. His preference to act as a guide and his reticence to take on the role of traditional instructor are evident in his description of when he might need to assume the latter of these two roles:

> I don't think I would adopt the instructor one unless, as I said, there is a terrible problem there in what they're saying, and these tasks make absolutely no sense, and they lack any sort of grammatical know-how to continue the task. Then I might adopt an instructor

> personality for a second—instructor role, just to correct the mistake and then hopefully, dive right back into the task. (John, Predeparture Interview)

5.3.1.4 Summary

As evident in the preceding sections, the teachers described numerous roles that they felt both that they should enact and that they had enacted in the classroom. Some of these roles were common among the participants, while others differentiated them. They will be discussed in the following section.

5.3.2 Discussion – Cognitions About the Role of the Teacher

As noted previously, one area of teachers' cognitions that was explored during each interview, as well as through reflective exercises prior to, during, and following SA, was the role of the teacher. Each of the three focal participants described a number of roles they felt they had taken on while teaching during SA, as well as roles that a teacher would ideally enact. Those roles will be discussed in the following sections, first individually by participant and then together in a synthesis of the three participants' findings.

5.3.2.1 Jocelyn

The first role that Jocelyn felt that she, as a teacher, should enact was that of a team member, who would participate in equal measure with her students. This recalls Van den Branden's description of the teacher as a "true interactional partner" (2009, p. 284). Jocelyn also felt that teachers should create an immersive L2 environment. In a similar vein, Willis and Willis (2007) note that teachers are responsible for promoting authentic L2 use, and Van den Branden (2006b) emphasizes the teacher's role in offering rich, communicative input, which would form the basis of such an environment. Jocelyn's descriptions of the teacher as motivator, facilitator, and guide are all quite central to the TBLT literature on the teacher's role (e.g., Ellis, 2017b;

Samuda, 2001; Van den Branden, 2009). However, Jocelyn noted that she had not acted as a facilitator as much as she thought was expected of her. Her description of a facilitator as the person who provides resources and then lets students work independently is in line with some portrayals of the TBLT teacher which Van den Branden (2016b) critiques, emphasizing rather the critical role of the teacher for successful learning in a task-based classroom. In fact, Jocelyn specified that she had felt like more of a guide, or a more active figure in assisting students' learning, much as Van den Branden notes that teachers play numerous active roles as they implement tasks in the classroom. Additionally, Jocelyn highlighted her role as monitor, another commonly described role in TBLT (e.g., Faez & Tavakoli, 2019). Finally, Jocelyn recounted often being called on to act as a source of knowledge or language-knower. This is somewhat distinct from what Faez and Tavakoli (2019) describe as the teacher's role as language resource—someone who calls students' attention to focus on form at the appropriate moments. Though Jocelyn did see herself as a resource, the term used by these authors, she was likely acting as a source for lexical items as needed by students, rather than guiding their attention during task performance. Therefore, Jocelyn's description of the role of the teacher as a source of knowledge might be more in line with what Willis and Willis (2007) call the "language 'knower' and adviser" (p. 150), an equal participant with greater knowledge of the L2; or, it might align more closely with more traditional approaches to teaching, in which the teacher is seen as the knowledge-holder who imparts knowledge to their students.

5.3.2.2 Chobi

Chobi's change in the view of her role from that of a sage to a facilitator or manager reflects the contrast that Willis and Willis (2007) present between the traditional view of the teacher—"that of knower, someone who imparts and shapes knowledge" (p. 148)—and the

principal duties of the TBLT teacher—one who leads discussions and manages the class so that learners can engage in tasks. As noted previously, the view of the teacher as a facilitator or guide is well supported in the TBLT literature (e.g., Ellis, 2017b; Samuda, 2001), as is that of manager (e.g., Ellis, 2017b; Faez & Tavakoli, 2019; Willis & Willis, 2007). Chobi's description of her responsibility to create a supportive environment aligns with the role of motivator as described by Willis and Willis, in that instructors should give learners as much encouragement as possible and highlight their progress. Chobi's views of herself as a role model and an authority figure are certainly legitimate potential roles of a teacher, but they go somewhat beyond the roles described in the TBLT literature. Lastly, Chobi's description of her role as a provider of knowledge, which evolved to provider of information, and then to provider of resources, moves her view of her role more in line with a task-based view of the teacher (Ellis, 2017b; Van den Branden, 2016b; Willis & Willis, 2007).

5.3.2.3 John

The role which John cited the most often and that which he also preferred to enact, that of a guide who supports his students' active learning, corresponds to Van den Branden's (2016b) description of the teacher in the pre-task phase—one who chooses the content, selects the focus of classroom activities, and develops tasks. The role of motivator, which surprised John for the degree to which it was necessary for successful teaching in Mexico, aligns with Willis and Willis's (2007) characterization of the motivator role, stating that it is important to "give learners all the encouragement you can" (p. 150). The role of participant, which John expected to enact often but did not mention frequently while on SA, is an interesting, and perhaps somewhat conflicted, role. Ellis (2003) states that it is difficult for teachers to succeed in acting as an equal with students, who see the teacher as a superior. John, however, also discussed the role of

participant when he was teaching individual lessons after SA. He made an effort to create a sense of parity between himself and his student by participating in classroom activities much of the time. In fact, he had difficulty moving out of the role of participant and into that of instructor, or one who gave directions. In either case, the contrast between the teacher as a role model versus the teacher as a (near) equal is a balance that can be difficult to navigate successfully. John's view of his role as manager was very much in line with the description of the teacher's role of discourse manager (Willis & Willis, 2007) or classroom manager (Faez &Tavakoli, 2019). Lastly, the role of instructor, which he reluctantly took but accepted as necessary at given moments during a lesson, is well characterized by Ellis (2017b) as the person who corrects and provides new language.

5.3.2.4 Synthesis and Summary

In looking at the three focal participants together, there are some roles that all seem to share, while other roles distinguish them. For instance, both Jocelyn and John discussed the importance of acting as a motivator, and Chobi described one of her roles as the creator of a supportive environment. In terms of their position in relation to their students, Jocelyn's descriptions of her role as a friend and team player aligned her most closely with her students, whereas Chobi described herself as an authority figure and a role model. This may be partly due to the fact that Chobi had envisioned herself in the role of teacher for some time, whereas Jocelyn once noted that she was kind of like a kid herself. John's descriptions of his role were also more detached from his students; he described acting as a participant in classroom events but did not go so far as to indicate he was a member of a team, as Jocelyn had.

Jocelyn's views of her role in relation to whom in the classroom holds the knowledge also contrasts with Chobi's and John's views. Jocelyn described her role as a source of

knowledge and language knower, whereas Chobi explicitly stated that the teacher was not a sage. While Chobi started out describing the teacher as a provider of knowledge, her description changed over the course of SA and afterward to a provider of resources. Similarly, John described enacting the role of instructor, in the sense of one conveying information to students, only when necessary and for as little time as possible, in order to let his students take charge of their learning.

In terms of setting up and running the classroom, Jocelyn described the ideal role of the teacher as someone who created an environment conducive to learning and then acted as a facilitator and monitor, letting the students act largely on their own. However, she noted that his was the role she felt she *should* have enacted, while she had actually taken a more participatory role on SA. Chobi and John both highlighted the role of guide and manager, emphasizing the importance of keeping to the sidelines and allowing the students to run the show.

For the most part, the roles described by the focal participants correspond with roles outlined in the TBLT literature. In addition to those that align with teacher roles in TBLT, such as motivator and monitor, Jocelyn acted in a somewhat more traditional role of language knower, imparting knowledge to her students both before tasks and during task performance. Chobi also enacted a number of roles highlighted as important in a task-based classroom, including facilitator and manager. In addition to those, Chobi saw a broader role for herself (going beyond the role of teacher as defined for a teaching approach or method) as a role model and authority figure. All of the roles John described were very much in line with roles described in the TBLT literature, though he was happier about performing some of them, such as guide, as compared to others, such as instructor; and he was surprised at the extent to which some, like motivator, were necessary to implement successful lessons.

6 RQ 3 – IMPACT OF THE SHORT-TERM SA PROGRAM: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the findings and discussion for the third research question, which investigated the impact of the SA teaching experience from the preservice L2 teachers' point of view in terms of the benefits they perceived, the aspects of the SA program that facilitated their learning, and the influence of the SA teaching experience on their future trajectories[4]. To answer this question, I used the findings from the qualitative analysis of participants' interview data and documents, such as the teachers' predeparture assignments, philosophy statements, and written reflections. For the three sections in this chapter, the findings are presented for the three participants together, followed by a discussion of those findings.

6.1 Perceived Benefits of the Short-term SA Program

The first part of the third research question examined the perceived benefits of a two-week SA program with daily teaching practice for preservice L2 teachers and whether participants' beliefs about this changed over time.

6.1.1 Findings – Perceived Benefits

The first theme that emerged from data analysis incorporated the different areas in which the participants felt they had learned—from pedagogical knowledge and skills, to classroom management and engaging students, and from growing into the role of the teacher to areas of personal growth. All three focal participants in this study demonstrated growth related to pedagogical knowledge and skills. For Jocelyn, the most novice of the three participants, the predeparture workshops opened her eyes to the variety of TEFL approaches in existence

[4] Some of the findings and discussion in the current chapter were previously published in a book chapter (D'Arienzo & Kim, 2022).

(Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview), and the practice teaching on SA gave her the possibility to experiment with different approaches and to begin to develop skills in the classroom. Five months after SA, Jocelyn said that she didn't remember the "technical terms" related to teaching approaches; however, she recalled using a variety of approaches in her teaching: "I kind of did a little bit of everything just because it was my first time teaching and I was like, you know, I need to figure out what works" (Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview). Meanwhile, John and Chobi, who were already familiar with some TEFL methods from previous coursework, both decided to take a task-based approach while teaching in Mexico. After SA, both John and Chobi reported having a better understanding of the approach. In addition, both participants demonstrated improving skills in implementing task-based lessons over the two weeks, in areas such as increased student participation (Observations of John's lessons, Days 5 and 9) and completing task phases (Observations of Chobi's lessons, Days 1 and 8).

All three participants felt they had made gains in classroom management during their two weeks' teaching experience. Over the two weeks, both John and Jocelyn began to incorporate classroom management techniques that were new to them. John noted that he was using techniques—even ones that he did not feel overly comfortable using, such as clapping—because they proved effective in focusing students' attention (Observation notes). Jocelyn also tried different classroom management techniques, such as using a timer and implementing a reward system with happy and sad faces to recognize good and bad behavior (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview). Jocelyn also experimented with ways to let students know when they could speak in class. She remarked that using a ball to indicate which student was allowed to speak was much more satisfying than just standing at the front of the room and talking at her students (Jocelyn, SA Week 1 Interview). Both Jocelyn and Chobi observed that managing their classes required

being more assertive or stern that they initially felt comfortable with but that they improved in this aspect over the two weeks abroad (Chobi, Post-SA Interview; Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview). All three participants highlighted the importance of good classroom management. As Chobi noted after SA, "Classroom management is like the key to success because they have the knowledge there, it's just getting them to the point where they can sit still and sit down and produce that language" (Chobi, Post-SA interview).

Engaging students was another area that all three participants felt was challenging and was also an area in which they had improved. John emphasized the importance of choosing topics and designing lessons that engaged students: "What I learned most is that the lessons have to be somewhat entertaining and related to students' interests, or the lesson will fail to take off" (John, Final Reflection Paper). Chobi rewrote nearly all her lesson plans following a survey of students' interests on the first day in order to gear her lessons towards topics that would engage the students (Chobi, Informal conversation). Jocelyn observed that her early lesson plans had not accounted for the age and interests of her students but that after her experience on SA she felt she was better equipped to gauge this in the future and plan more successful lessons (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview). She later remarked that this was an aspect of lesson planning that she had not fully appreciated in the beginning and that it was an area in which she would continue to try to improve in her future teaching (Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview). Jocelyn also commented that including an element of competition in classroom activities or tasks helped engage students and got them producing more of the L2 (Jocelyn, Post-SA Focus Group Interview). In their revised L2 teaching philosophy statements in the fall, both John and Chobi affirmed their belief that student engagement was key to effective teaching.

Many codes that emerged from the thematic analysis were related to participants growing into the role of the teacher. This study found that the teachers experienced increased confidence as a result of their SA experience. Participants highlighted specific attributes they had learned to embody, such as the need to act as an authority figure (Chobi, SA Week 1 Interview; John, Final Reflection Paper), as well as the need to be flexible and think on one's feet (John, SA Week 2 Interview). After SA, Chobi noted, "You have to be spontaneous to be a teacher. You have to be able to change your lesson plan if your first class fails … you just gotta be prepared for that" (Chobi, Post-SA interview). The focal participants highlighted their students' needs and reflected on the desire to promote a student-led classroom that would meet those needs. Overall, the participants described developing a teacher persona (Chobi, Post-SA Interview; John, Daily Written Reflections) and noted that the experience had widened their horizons in terms of how they thought about teaching (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview; John, Post-SA Interview). After SA, Chobi observed that being in the role of the teacher was anxiety-reducing. Five months later, she confirmed this view, saying:

> I enjoyed seeing myself in a totally different light, because I have such bad anxiety when it comes to getting in front of people and talking to people. ... But when I get into teacher mode, it's like all of that goes away. (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview)

Two weeks after SA, John reported having learned not to expect perfection and that he had had to take on unexpected roles: "I had envisioned being more of a manager or a supervisor of tasks … but I ended up doing more motivating… or guiding … so it was a lot different than I originally thought," (John, Post-SA Focus Group Interview). Jocelyn spoke about developing a teaching philosophy while abroad. For her, this included creating an immersive environment, making learning fun, and teaching usable language: "I definitely want to think of the fun level

and then … can they use this? Are they going to be able to go somewhere and actually speak this?" (Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview).

A number of topics that emerged from the data analysis related to participants' personal growth. For example, Chobi highlighted strengthened interpersonal relationships with other teachers and students, and John described developing ties with his host family. The participants also reported enjoying getting to know a foreign culture through activities such as eating out and shopping (e.g., Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview), although given the SA program's heavy focus on lesson planning and teaching, they did not have extensive time to explore the local culture. Both Chobi and John reported developing self-awareness. Numerous instances in the data related to the ways the participants felt they had challenged and learned about themselves, both immediately after SA and later on. For instance, five months after SA, Chobi stated:

> I didn't realize it was going to be such an opportunity for me to grow on my own – not just as a teacher, but as an individual. … It was a really good experience for me all around … applying what I learned in school and learning who I am as a person. (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview)

Similarly, Jocelyn described throwing herself into the deep end, with no prior teaching experience, and how rewarding it could be to challenge oneself in that way (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview).

In summary, all three participants found value in the SA experience for their expanded knowledge and skills related to pedagogy, including teaching approaches, managing a classroom, and engaging students. They also felt that SA helped them grow into the role of the teacher, and they reported different areas of personal growth they had experienced while abroad. As evidenced by the examples provided above, overall, the participants' opinions five months

following the SA program confirmed their initial beliefs about the value of SA and the professional and personal ways they had benefitted from the experience.

6.1.2 Discussion – Perceived Benefits

As described above, all three focal participants in this study reported and demonstrated growth related to pedagogical knowledge and skills. In Jocelyn's case, being the most novice of the three, this meant gaining familiarity with a variety of approaches and experimenting with them in the classroom, a key benefit of teaching practice (Chinokul, 2021; Richards & Farrell, 2011). Chobi and John, who had greater familiarity with TEFL approaches prior to the TEFL course in this study, chose to implement a fully task-based approach. After the practice teaching experience on SA, they reported increased pedagogical understandings, like other L2 preservice teachers in previous studies (e.g., Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Harbon, 2007; Hepple, 2012; Lee, 2009, 2011). In addition, like both preservice L2 teachers in previous research (e.g., Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Hepple, 2012; Kabilan, 2013) and non-L2 preservice teachers (e.g., Colwell et al., 2019; Tang & Choi, 2004; Willard-Holt, 2001), they reported increased pedagogical skills. In addition to increased skills that were related to TEFL approaches, like Yang's (2011) participants, all three focal participants in this study reported making gains in classroom management while abroad, another recognized benefit of teaching practice experience (Deocampo, 2020). Learning how to better engage their students was another key area that the focal participants in this study reported working on and improving in. Engagement of students has not been prominently discussed in the SA literature. Perhaps since the teachers in this SA program were fully responsible for choosing topics and planning lessons for their students themselves (i.e., there was no assigned curriculum, and they were not given lessons to

implement), they were acutely aware of the impact those choices had on student engagement and the success or failure of their lessons.

Growing into the role of the teacher was a prominent theme in this study as in previous studies (e.g., Yang, 2011). Like many examples of previous research (e.g., Colwell et al., 2019; Lee, 2009, 2011; Tang & Choi, 2004; Willard-Holt, 2001; Woodgate-Jones, 2006; Yang, 2011), this study found that the teachers believed their confidence had increased thanks to their SA experience. In like manner, increased confidence in one's teaching abilities is a recognized benefit of practicums, or practice teaching (Eginli & Solhi, 2021). In addition, the participants became aware of specific qualities they had learned to embody as teachers, such as acting as an authority figure and flexibility, which has also been found in previous short-term SA research (e.g., Willard-Holt, 2001). Similar to Harbon's (2007) participants, whose understanding of students' needs and characteristics, and the relationship between teachers and students grew on SA, all three focal participants discussed the benefits they found from understanding the importance of engaging their students and considering ways to meet their students' needs. Likewise, developing learner-focused teaching is a key development of teachers completing practice teaching (Richards & Farrell, 2011).

Regarding personal growth, Chobi highlighted strengthened interpersonal relationships with other teachers and students, much like preservice teachers in previous studies (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Lee, 2009; Willard-Holt, 2001), while John described his ties to his host family, as other previous participants have (e.g., Lee, 2009). The participants also reported benefits of being immersed in a foreign culture, although given the time demands and the short duration of the SA program, these experiences remained somewhat limited compared to the findings of other studies. Also different from other studies (e.g., Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Bodycott & Crew,

2000; Kabilan, 2013; Karaman & Tochon, 2007; Lee, 2009, 2011; Tang & Choi, 2004; Trent, 2011; Woodgate-Jones, 2006), the participants in this study did not highlight L2 proficiency gains. This could be because L2 (i.e., Spanish) learning was not a key component of the SA program, though some participants reported enjoying using their L2 Spanish, or it might also relate to the short-term nature of the sojourn in Mexico. Lastly, the participants in this study reported developing self-awareness, as has been found for previous short-term SA participants in numerous studies (e.g., Colwell et al., 2019; Hepple, 2012; Tang & Choi, 2004).

6.2 Aspects of the SA Program That Facilitated Teachers' Development

The second part of the third research question examined the aspects of the SA program that the preservice L2 teachers reported as having facilitated their learning.

6.2.1 Findings – SA Elements That Facilitated Teachers' Learning

A second major theme that emerged from the qualitative data analysis related to the different ways the teachers learned on SA. The participants noted many positive aspects of their SA experience that related to the intensive nature of teacher training. Thanks to the many hours each day the teachers spent teaching, the immediate feedback they received, and the opportunity to apply that feedback in subsequent lessons, they were able to observe their progress and learn a lot in a short time. Chobi said, "I feel like I learned so much in such a short period of time" (Chobi, Post-SA Interview). She noted that although the time abroad was short, the ability to see a trajectory of improvement made the experience worthwhile. Similarly, during the second week of SA, Jocelyn noted that her lessons in the middle of the week were more successful than the early part of the week, and the second week was going better than the first (Jocelyn, SA Week 2 Interview). Jocelyn later reflected on being able to see her progress:

> Wednesday, like the previous week, was a success for everyone in my group. Our supervisor was beaming when he sat us down for our feedback, as were the rest of us. We knew that we hadn't yet mastered teaching and that we weren't anywhere close to doing so, but all of us could see ourselves and each other improving every day. (Jocelyn, Final Reflection Paper)

After SA, John stated, "You learned an enormous amount in two weeks because you're practically working or thinking about work for 10 hours a day" (John, Post-SA interview). Jocelyn remarked about the overall experience and the intensive work involved:

> I can truthfully say that these short two weeks were one of the most educational and enlightening of my life. I had so much fun and experienced so many new things, but I also worked from sunrise to sunset most days. (Jocelyn, Final Reflection Paper)

One of the biggest benefits of this intensive experience was that participants had the opportunity to figure out whether they liked teaching and whether they could envision themselves pursuing language teaching as a career. John stated prior to going abroad, "The two weeks gives … a good taste of teaching. … In two weeks, I can find out, 'Well, that's not gonna work,' or, 'this is great. I want to keep doing this for the rest of my life'" (John, Pre-course Interview). Similarly, Chobi felt that the trip was a chance to find out if teaching was the right career for her, and Jocelyn noted afterward, "I definitely figured out if I like teaching, which I do" (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview).

Closely related to the importance of the intensive environment of the SA experience was its hands-on nature. This was the participants' first chance to experiment with different teaching roles and approaches with a class of actual students, as opposed to microteaching with peers. The teachers highlighted the benefits of being able to experiment in the EFL context firsthand and

observe the implementation of pedagogic elements they had previously discussed. John observed that he had previously believed that task-based teaching was an effective approach but was only able to confirm that after his experience teaching on SA (John, Post-SA interview). Chobi echoed this sentiment five months after SA, adding that she hadn't fully understood task-based teaching until she was able to apply it in her SA classroom. Similarly, she recounted how experiencing teaching firsthand had confirmed her belief that a student-centered classroom was preferable: "I realized that it should be more student-led than teacher-led. I had the idea before, but I saw it in action, so it's a lot more- it's a stronger belief now" (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview). Jocelyn also commented on the importance of firsthand experience:

> I definitely think that study abroad … really allows people who actually want to teach as their career to actually do it, because there- otherwise there's no way to know if you actually like it. … So, you can figure out if you actually want to do that, and you can figure out what your strengths and weaknesses are. (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview)

Being in the classroom for the first time helped the teachers learn from their mistakes. As John noted on several occasions, "I always think about my first day failure. … What I learned is to keep at least one catastrophe in the back of my head so that I understand how to respond to it" (John, Delayed Post-SA Interview 2).

The reflective and social nature of the SA program were elements that teachers noted were important for promoting their development. This included both individual reflection, which was incorporated through daily writing tasks, and small- and large-group reflection sessions, which took place at the conclusion of each school day. In the semester following SA, John indicated that while in Mexico, he had developed the habit of reflecting after teaching each day, both as part of a large group and in a small group, and that because it was so useful, he continued

to implement this (though now on his own) after each class he taught. Chobi was also impacted by the opportunities for reflection that were incorporated into the SA program, as well as reflecting on her teaching through interviews that were an element of the current study. In an email to me, Chobi wrote:

> I believe that my time watching my own teaching as well as you allowing me time to reflect through interviewing me helped me to learn about myself as a teacher immensely. I am so grateful to have been given the opportunity to help you with your research, as it ultimately helped me in ways I never could have imagined. (Chobi, Personal Communication, July 2, 2020)

Regarding the social nature of the SA experience, the participants emphasized learning from their peers, through peer observation, learning to work together as colleagues, and through group reflection. Describing the problem-solving that took place in daily small group reflection sessions, John noted after SA, "I think the collaboration was what I learned most from" (John, Post-SA Interview). The teachers noted that the supportive relationships that developed among the teachers on the SA program played a key role in their learning. These relationships carried over into teachers' free time, during which they planned and critiqued lessons together and did microteaching. Jocelyn recounted how her second day of teaching had been a disaster, and she had thought, "I can't do this. I'm not gonna be a good teacher. Maybe I can't do this as a career. I just want to go home" (Jocelyn, SA Week 1 Interview). However, she met with her group members in the evening and modified her next day's lesson plan based on their suggestions, after which she reported, "Wednesday was fantastic. It went so much better" (Jocelyn, SA Week 1 Interview). Similarly, immediately after SA, Chobi noted that the second week was much more successful than the first because she and her group were working together (Chobi, Post-SA

Interview). Five months after SA, Chobi recalled, "Because we had such a small group, and we were able to provide each other feedback … being able to come together and collaborate … was really good. … We had a lot of mentors in our group" (Chobi, Delayed Post-SA Interview). Chobi described how these supportive relationships began before going abroad, noting that at the beginning of the predeparture period, "I was very nervous and felt very inadequate" (Chobi, Final Reflection Paper). However, she continued:

> I began to see a change in myself within the first few weeks of the course itself, and began to see myself already starting to make progress. I'm not usually one to answer questions in class, but this group really helped to create a safe space that I felt very comfortable being open in. I believe this was the key to our massive success as a group in Mexico. Our ability to communicate before even departing was a really great starting point. (Chobi, Final Reflection Paper)

Lastly, the participants recounted how they benefitted from the sustained support of their leaders, through group and individual feedback, and in whole-group and small-group reflection sessions, as well as in informal settings, such as breakfast and lunch-time conversations, or even impromptu evening advising sessions (Chobi, Informal conversation). Those participants who were staying in the hotel particularly benefitted from extra, informal coaching from their supervisors. Jocelyn related how during the second week she and her group met almost nightly with one of the supervisors who was also staying in the hotel to go over lesson ideas; she emphasized how much they had benefitted from his input (Jocelyn, Delayed Post-SA Interview).

In summary, the participants learned a lot in a short amount of time while abroad, thanks to the intensive nature of practice teaching on the SA program, the opportunity this intensive program gave them to discover whether they liked teaching, the hands-on nature of the program,

the reflective and social elements, the supportive environment created among the participants, and the support of the supervisors throughout.

6.2.2 Discussion – SA Elements That Facilitated Teachers' Learning

As noted above, one aspect of the SA program that the participants found beneficial was their ability to find out in a short amount of time whether they could imagine themselves teaching EFL as a career—whether it was Jocelyn, who had just learned of the existence of EFL as a field, Chobi, who had for some time seen herself as a future EFL teacher and wanted to try it out firsthand, or John, who had other career plans but wanted to expand his future options. This was due in part to the intensive nature of the program, which has been shown to benefit preservice teachers' learning on short-term SA (Pfingsthorn & Czura, 2017) and the concentrated number of teaching hours incorporated in a short time. Not only was the SA program intensive in terms of timing, its hands-on nature, reported in previous literature as being one of the most impactful elements of short-term SA programs (Harbon, 2007; Kabilan, 2013; Yang, 2011), was crucial. Similarly, the hands-on nature of teaching practice (whether on SA or in other contexts) has been highlighted as the reason for its invaluable contribution to preservice L2 teachers' development in SLTE (Comoglu & Dikilitas, 2020; Deocampo, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2021; Richards & Farrell, 2011).

Putting into practice while teaching on SA the approaches they had recently studied in the predeparture period was key to the teachers' ability to understand those topics fully. As with the preservice teachers on SA in Australia in Dunn and colleagues' (2014) study, the teachers in the current study were able to experiment in the EFL context firsthand and observe a clear theory-practice connection (Trent, 2011). Though Pfingsthorn and Czura's (2017) participants did not have teaching practice while on SA, the practical tasks that they completed as part of their SA

program were highlighted as one of the aspects that contributed to their learning. In addition, research carried out in non-SA settings also provides support for the crucial role of connecting theoretical knowledge from coursework with teaching practices in the classroom that is possible during practice teaching (Comoglu & Dikilitas, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2021; Müller-Hartmann & Schocker, 2017; Richards & Farrell, 2011).

The regular opportunities for reflection for the participants of the current study while in Mexico increased their opportunities for meaningful learning through the juxtaposition of theorizing and putting things into practice. This combination of theoretical and practical aspects of practice teaching have been noted as crucial to preservice L2 teachers' development (Barahona & Davin, 2021; Burton, 2009; Deocampo, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2021; Senior, 2006). Opportunities for reflecting were incorporated through daily writing tasks, much like Colwell and colleagues' (2019) participants made use of blogging on SA in northern Italy. Similarly, researchers have noted for non-SA contexts that reflective writing can foster greater understandings of teaching (Eginli & Solhi, 2021). Reflection was also incorporated in the current study through daily small- and large-group reflection sessions, which previous studies in the SA literature have documented as beneficial for teachers' development (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Hepple, 2012). Likewise, in non-SA contexts, researchers have highlighted dialogic reflection as beneficial thanks to the opportunity it affords teachers to co-construct knowledge with their peers (Comoglu & Dikilitas, 2020) and with expert-others (Richards & Farrell, 2011). The success of learning how to reflect on his teaching prompted John to continue doing so on a regular basis in the semester following SA, just as previous studies have reported an increase in participants' reflectivity (Lee, 2009; Willard-Holt, 2001).

The small- and large-group feedback sessions provided not only space for reflection but also for working through problems, creating opportunities for peer and expert-other mediation, which has been found to play a key role in teachers' development (Johnson & Golombek, 2016; Pfingsthorn & Czura, 2017). In addition to the daily feedback sessions, brief moments of individual feedback following observations and informal gatherings after school provided opportunities for mediation targeting the teachers' potentiality in the ZPD from expert-others, i.e., the supervisors, which promoted greater chances for meaningful learning to stem from the teachers' experiences in the classroom (Johnson & Golombek, 2016; Yang, 2011). These examples of mediation highlight the importance of the social nature of the SA program.

In addition to learning from their peers and expert-others during reflection sessions, the participants reported learning from their peers through peer observation, as has been reported previously in the literature (e.g., Kabilan, 2013; Yang, 2011) and through learning to work together as colleagues. As previous studies have found (e.g., Dunn et al., 2014; Kabilan, 2013), the focal participants expressed the belief that the supportive relationships among the teachers on SA were key to their professional development. Those relationships were important not only during school hours, but also afterward, carrying over to joint lesson planning, after-hours microteaching, and group brainstorming sessions. In sum, the teachers described benefitting from the SA program thanks to its context and structure—an intense, hands-on, short-term practice teaching experience abroad that gave them the opportunity to try out teaching and learn from their mistakes; reflective elements of the program, such as daily reflection sessions with peers and supervisors; and the social nature of the program, which provided for structured and unstructured moments of learning.

6.3 Impact on Teachers' Future Trajectories

The third part of the third research question asked how the SA teaching experience impacted the trajectories of the preservice L2 teachers. Just as each participant had unique background knowledge and experience prior to teaching in Mexico, the SA experience impacted each participant in different ways.

6.3.1 Findings – Impact on Teachers' Trajectories

6.3.1.1 Jocelyn: A Taste of My Future

Early in the predeparture period, Jocelyn recounted that she did not want to teach in a typical U.S. classroom setting and thus had become very excited when she learned about the prospect of teaching English abroad as a career; she noted that SA would give her a chance to try out exactly what she hoped she would be doing in her future—teaching EFL in a Spanish-speaking location (Jocelyn, Pre-course Interview). Jocelyn was very excited about the opportunity to throw herself "in the deep end" and gain practical experience teaching (Jocelyn, Pre-course Interview).

After SA, Jocelyn remained very enthusiastic—both about her experience teaching in Mexico and about the possibility of pursuing such a career in a similar location in her future—despite the challenges she faced teaching:

> I definitely still think that that's the path that I'm taking. It was kind of a roller coaster when I got there. At first, I hated it because I didn't know what I was doing. It was really hard, and I was like, "Okay, I'm dropping out of school. This is not right." But then, a couple days later I was like, "Oh, actually I kind of like this, so I'm gonna stick with it." … I definitely still want to stick with it, and this program helped me a lot with that. (Jocelyn, Post-SA Interview)

Jocelyn noted that before the SA program, she did not have a good understanding of how TEFL worked (Post-SA Interview). Indeed, though excited about the idea of teaching English abroad, she was not yet committed to a career in TEFL. Experimenting with teaching and trying it firsthand gave her the opportunity to determine whether teaching English abroad could be right for her. As she described in the focus group interview after SA:

> I think that for especially for a lot of us, and for me, it was our first experience teaching and we used it kind of as … I can figure out if I like it or not, and if I don't, I can change my path … and I did like it. So, I think in 10 years, I probably will be teaching English, and I can say that my trip to Mexico was my first experience. This showed me that I wanted to do it, and it was just really incredible. (Jocelyn, Post-SA Focus Group Interview)

6.3.1.2 Chobi: A Chance to Confirm Career Goals

Prior to SA, Chobi stated that she had wanted to teach EFL for a long time but had never had the chance to try it out. She was anxious to find out if she enjoyed teaching as much as she thought she would. SA affirmed her passion for TEFL:

> This was kind of the determining trip for me, like, "Am I doing the right thing?" And once I got there, and it felt so natural and so good, I was like, "it's the right thing. I'm on the right career path." (Delayed Post-SA Interview)

For Chobi, personal and professional growth were very closely related. In fact, her positive teaching experience prompted significant personal growth:

> I didn't realize it was going to be such an opportunity for me to grow on my own ... not just as a teacher, but as an individual. … I think that those, those two also kind of coincide because … being a teacher is who I am. … It was a really good experience for

> me all around … applying what I learned in school and learning who I am as a person and developing who I am as a teacher. (Delayed Post-SA Interview)

Thus, teaching on SA served not only to affirm Chobi's ideas about wanting to teach EFL as a career in her future, but also to bolster her confidence and feelings of personal growth.

6.3.1.3 John: An Opportunity to Develop New Skills

Prior to the TEFL course, John expressed the desire to complete a PhD and conduct research in applied linguistics as his career. He saw teaching EFL as a potential short-term job he might take between completing his master's degree and before beginning a doctoral program. John's approach to teaching on the SA program was quite professional. Having taught individual ESL lessons, one of his goals for SA was to see if he could transfer those skills to teaching a whole class of students. He noted that the two intensive weeks on SA, in contrast to his undergraduate coursework, had prepared him to teach:

> It's a little bit different when you have six of your American students and co-students in class telling you that, "Oh, that might work. That might not work," but when you're in a classroom, and it's not working, what do you do? It's one thing to know whether it's a decent idea, but if it's just failing and what do you … I just think that's the value you don't get from anything else, especially in two weeks. (John, Delayed Post-SA Interview 2)

After SA, John confirmed that he still saw teaching EFL as an opportunity he might consider in the future, although it did not alter his overall plans to pursue a PhD. He wrote:

> The time I spent in Mexico teaching was certainly a very positive, professionally enriching experience. … While teaching is not my primary career interest, it is something that I have considered doing abroad after I finish my master's degree next year. It would

> be a thrill to live in an EFL context and teach students (hopefully, adults or university students). (John, Final Reflection Paper)

Thus, John's experience on SA did not alter his career plans, but his positive experience teaching in Mexico did give him the confidence to affirm that he could teach classes of EFL students and reinforced the idea that he believed he would enjoy teaching for a period of time in his future. In addition, it provided him with a better understanding of the context in which he would want to do so—in an EFL context and with students of university age or older.

6.3.2 Discussion – Impact on Teachers' Trajectories

The three focal participants participated in the SA program at different points in their academic careers. Jocelyn was at the outset of her university degree, with nascent ideas about wanting to teach English in a foreign country one day. Practice teaching on SA allowed her to get a taste of what TEFL was all about and, like other preservice teachers completing a practice teaching experience, feel capable of taking on 'real teaching' in the future (Richards & Farrell, 2011). Chobi was nearing the end of her university career and hoped to confirm that teaching EFL—her desired future career—was as satisfying as she had long thought it would be; she was pleased to discover that it was every bit as exciting as she had hoped. In addition, Chobi's positive experience in the classroom bolstered her feelings of self-efficacy, as was true for preservice teachers in previous research following a 12-week practicum (Eginli & Solhi, 2021). John was working on his master's degree and contemplating an extended academic career, with teaching being peripheral to his goals. Having only taught an individual ESL student prior to the teaching practice on SA, he hoped to understand whether he could also teach classes of students. In addition, John noted the limitations of the microteaching he had carried out at his home university (Richards & Farrell, 2011) and the importance of authentic classroom teaching

experience (Barahona & Davin, 2021; Deocampo, 2020). The SA teaching practice gave him the confidence to realize that, yes, like other preservice teachers who benefitted from a teaching practice experience, he was capable of engaging groups of students and managing classes (Eginli & Solhi, 2021). Thus, in terms of future careers or trajectories, the practice teaching during SA served a different purpose for each of the three participants—whether that was to confirm one's interest in a potential career, as was the case for Jocelyn; to support one's belief that a desired career was a good fit, as was true for Chobi; or to affirm one's abilities for a potential future short-term job and perhaps expand one's options, as was the case for John. Overall, the practice teaching experience on SA was positive for all three focal participants and assured them of the potential for teaching EFL as an option for their future trajectories.

6.4 Synthesis and Summary

In conclusion, the third research question examined the perceived benefits that the three focal participants found in the two-week SA program in Mexico with daily teaching practice, the aspects of the short-term SA component that they believed facilitated their growth, and the impact the program had on their future trajectories. The program had a positive impact on the participants' pedagogical knowledge and skills, as well as personal growth. For many teachers of previous studies (e.g., Dunn et al., 2014; Kabilan, 2013), personal growth was intertwined with professional growth. For Chobi, this was very much the case, as her positive teaching experience prompted significant personal growth. Thus, as was true for Harbon's (2007) participants, some teachers, like Chobi, may experience personal change after a short-term SA program, but not all necessarily will. However, all three participants experienced professional growth after just two weeks abroad. The experience of these three focal participants confirms previous research findings of benefits for non-L2 pre-service teachers' professional and personal growth following

short-term SA programs as short as one week (Willard-Holt, 2001), as well as the benefits of a practice teaching experience for preservice L2 teachers (Richards & Farrell, 2011). These positive developments can be linked to the intensive, daily teaching experience, numerous opportunities for reflection, and social interaction with mentors and peers on SA. The program allowed the participants to experiment with a new possible career path, confirm their desired career goals, or expand their future career options. Like previous studies with non-L2 preservice teachers, whose positive changes persisted over time following a very short-term SA program (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008; Willard-Holt, 2001), the benefits and beliefs reported by the focal participants in the current study after SA persisted five months later.

7 IMPLICATIONS

The current dissertation has illustrated the varied experiences of three preservice L2 teachers' implementation of tasks on a short-term SA component of a TEFL course, their cognition development regarding approaches to L2 teaching, tasks, and the role of the teacher over the duration of the TEFL course and the following semester, and the impact of a short-term SA experience on those preservice L2 teachers immediately following SA and five months later. The study found that the teachers implemented tasks to varying degrees while teaching on SA; their cognition development demonstrated some shared features and other distinguishing traits; finally, the teaching experience abroad impacted each teacher in different ways but had a positive effect on all three. The teachers' use of tasks, beliefs about teaching approaches, and experience of SA were influenced by their academic backgrounds and previous learning and teaching experiences, as well as by the predeparture period and the teachers' experiences on SA. The implications of the findings can be considered in terms of their impact on TBLT teacher education and teacher cognition theory, on methodology, and on pedagogy and SA programming for SLTE. Below, each of these areas will be discussed: theoretical implications, methodological implications, and pedagogical and program implications.

7.1 Theoretical Implications

This dissertation responds to calls for more longitudinal studies of independent development of preservice L2 teachers, given that variable outcomes and individual developmental pathways are key to an understanding of SLTE's impact on L2 teacher cognitions (Borg, 2006). It contributes to the need for more research on preservice teachers' cognition development related to tasks and TBLT, the role of the teacher, and teacher training (Ellis, 2017a; Long, 2016; Van den Branden, 2006a). In addition to shedding light on preservice L2

teachers' beliefs about L2 teaching approaches, it gives insights into preservice L2 teachers' beliefs about SLTE. This dissertation contributes to these areas of scholarship by presenting detailed analyses of longitudinal data evidencing cognition development for preservice L2 teachers, in particular regarding TBLT, and by demonstrating how individual teachers' development may differ according to their academic background. The dissertation illustrated the ways preservice teachers implemented tasks in their early teaching experience, and it incorporated longitudinal data related to teachers' beliefs about teaching and TBLT five months after the SA teaching experience.

The findings of the current study indicated that all three teachers' cognitions were impacted by the TEFL course and its short-term SA component, though in different ways. Those teachers who had greater academic preparation prior to the TEFL course (Chobi and John) developed more in-depth and nuanced understandings of TBLT, whereas the most novice of the three teachers (Jocelyn) developed a more basic understanding, with some beliefs that resembled a more traditional approach to EFL teaching, implying limits of the degree to which a short-term SA program with predeparture instruction can impact the cognitions of teachers who are completely new to TEFL. It is also true that the two teachers whose cognitions developed more fully regarding TBLT were the two who took a task-based approach to teaching on SA (as opposed to using a variety of approaches); therefore, the role that teaching practice plays in cognition development should not be underestimated.

Many of the beliefs the preservice L2 teachers developed during the TEFL course were still expressed by them five months after SA, indicating the longitudinal impact that preservice SLTE, including a very short sojourn abroad, can have. In some cases, at five months post-SA, teachers lacked the appropriate technical terms to discuss EFL approaches, indicating that some

level of detail of cognition development may not be sustained over time, in particular for teachers who are less prepared academically prior to a SLTE course. This implies that continued education is necessary to maintain and further the cognition development of preservice L2 teachers.

For two of the three teachers, key elements of their approach became evident through their teaching practice on SA and remained at the forefront of their beliefs five months after the SA experience. For the most novice of the three teachers, her overarching goals for her students on SA stemmed from personal beliefs about what would be best for their learning, rather than from predeparture instruction; those beliefs remained constant throughout her teaching experience on SA and afterward. This indicates that some teachers' cognitions may be less amenable to change via instruction, or less susceptible to influence from classroom experience, particularly if they are strongly held beliefs.

All three focal participants enacted multiple roles typical of the TBLT teacher, though the most novice teacher, Jocelyn, continued to enact some roles more typical of a traditional approach, even though in reflection, she indicated that she wanted to enact the role of guide, which is typical of TBLT. This implies that the reality of the classroom may impact teachers' abilities to enact the roles they desire to take on, and additional support may be needed to help new teachers take on the roles needed to successfully implement a task-based approach. It should also be considered that learning to enact these roles is a gradual process that might not have been observable in the two weeks of teaching experience in this study.

7.2 Methodological Implications

This dissertation study was designed as a longitudinal, multi-case study. This allowed for an in-depth understanding of three focal participants' cognition development related to teaching

approaches, tasks, and the role of the teacher prior to, during, and after a TEFL course with a short-term SA component incorporating teaching practice. It also entailed a detailed examination of the teachers' use of tasks and classroom activities while teaching on SA. Lastly, it explored the impact of a short-term SA teaching experience on teachers' perceived beliefs, the elements of the SA program they believed facilitated their learning, and its influence on their future trajectories. The extended data collection period, including questionnaire, interview, reflection, and observational data at five months post-SA and the findings that resulted underline the importance of longitudinal and varied data collection for understanding teacher cognition development and the impact of practice teaching in SLTE.

In contrast to large-scale questionnaire studies, which often find no or little change in cognitions over extended periods of time (e.g., MacDonald et al., 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Peacock, 2001), the largely qualitative, multi-case study approach revealed the nuanced ways in which participants' beliefs and understandings changed over an eight-month period (Casanave, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). It incorporated multiple data sources and allowed for the consideration of multiple factors influencing the participants' cognition development over time (Borg, 2006; Yin, 2014), such as academic preparation, preexisting beliefs, predeparture instruction, SA teaching practice, and post-SA teaching. Lastly, the study design and the detailed level of findings confirm the need for various types of data analysis and data triangulation in order to better understand teachers' cognition development.

My role as a participant-researcher gave me an in-depth understanding of the instructional context in the predeparture period and the teaching context abroad, which facilitated my analysis of the data. Keeping in mind the caveats and limitations of this dual role, I believe the affordances of such an approach to data collection, including the degree to which I got to

know the participants and the opportunities for informal exchanges on topics related to the study, outweigh the limitations. Therefore, this approach may be a useful one for future researchers investigating preservice L2 teachers' cognition development.

Lastly, materials developed for the current dissertation may have methodological implications for future research. The Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire, adapted from its original form as developed by Ogilvie and Dunn (2010), may be of use in future studies for examining teachers' cognition development regarding L2 teaching approaches and TBLT. The analytic rubric developed for analyzing teachers' task implementation may also be of use for future researchers wishing to examine teachers' use of tasks in a focused manner at the task-criterion level.

7.3 Pedagogical and Program Implications

From a pedagogical standpoint, a number of recommendations for future TEFL courses with teaching practice on short-term stays abroad can be made. First, there are implications at the level of course organization and course components. As in previous research (e.g., Debreli, 2012, 2016; Harbon, 2007; Hepple, 2012; Lee, 2011; Trent, 2011), the hours spent teaching in the classroom were found to impact teachers greatly; thus, it is highly recommended that the time abroad be maximized to give teachers the greatest number of teaching hours possible, especially for short stays abroad. Observations of other teachers also proved useful for the preservice L2 teachers. The extensive preparation that teachers completed during the predeparture period meant that the time abroad could be spent mainly on teaching and adapting lesson plans, rather than covering content. This seemed to be an effective model and may be useful for future courses to replicate. On SA, immediate feedback from supervisors and opportunities for reflection—both individual (written) and in groups (orally)—are two additional aspects of the program that were

found to create a productive theory-practice cycle and to benefit teachers' learning, as they have in previous SA research (e.g., Burton, 2009; Busch, 2010; East, 2014, 2020; Hepple, 2012; Lee, 2011; Trent, 2011; Yang, 2011). Findings from research on practice teaching (e.g., Barahona & Davin, 2021; Deocampo, 2020; Eginli & Solhi, 2020; Senior 2006) also underscore the importance of combining reflection with practice. Thus, these components are highly recommended for SLTE programs with teaching practice.

Additional pedagogical implications relate specifically to the structure and content of the predeparture period of instruction. Predeparture preparation has been highlighted as critical to participants' success abroad (Çiftçi & Karaman, 2019; Yang, 2011). Given that many programs have limited time for predeparture instruction, it is crucial to carefully plan that period. The flipped classroom approach implemented for the predeparture period of instruction in the current study necessitated that students covered content primarily in their own time through readings and videos, and thus, we were able to make the most of class time (Hung, 2017). During classes, students performed tasks, discussed and debated issues related to content, and did microteaching, thereby following Van den Branden's (2006b) recommendation to "teach what you preach" (p. 222). Because the predeparture tasks and microteaching were cited by more than one participant as the elements that they found most helpful in preparation for teaching on SA, it is recommended to include both of these components in predeparture instruction. Due to the importance of the relationships among teachers for successful implementation of the program (teachers had to coordinate with other teachers who had students of the same age while abroad; teachers observed each other and sometimes had to substitute for each other), it is recommended to spend time helping teachers get to know each other prior to departure and to nurture a supportive environment. Given the challenges the teachers faced adapting their lesson plans to

their classes after arrival in Mexico, in particular those teaching the youngest students, it is suggested that ample time be spent in the predeparture period preparing teachers to teach young learners. If the students that teachers will be teaching on SA vary in age, as was the case for this study, differentiated training might be the most efficient way of preparing teachers in a limited amount of time; in other words, those teaching very young learners might receive different preparation from those teaching older learners.

The findings of the dissertation also have implications at the program level. First, given the importance that teachers ascribed to the support they received from supervisors both during the school day and outside of school hours, involving experienced teaching assistants and ensuring that group leaders are accessible to teachers can facilitate teachers' development in both structured and unstructured moments. Along these lines, the teachers who stayed at the hotel benefitted from unplanned (in terms of the official SA program) moments in which they collaborated both with their supervisors and also with each other, often doing group lesson planning and microteaching in the afternoons and evenings. Therefore, organizing lodging so that all teachers and supervisors are staying near each other could have a positive impact on teachers' opportunities for continuing their development outside of school hours. However, the teachers who stayed with a host family had greater cultural exposure and, in some cases, opportunities to practice Spanish as a foreign language. Thus, there are benefits to both housing arrangements that should be considered along with the program goals when determining lodging arrangements for the participants. Additionally, it is recommended that if a certain teaching approach for classes on SA is preferred, or if, on the contrary, teachers are free to choose the approach they believe is best, this position should be clearly communicated to all supervisors so that a unified message is presented to the teachers.

In line with the positive findings of other previous studies (e.g., Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006; Willard-Holt, 2001), this dissertation makes a strong case for promoting short stays abroad as a part of SLTE programs. This dissertation is similar to previous studies that have found that teacher education can impact preservice teachers' beliefs (e.g., Angelova, 2005; Busch, 2010; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; East, 2014, 2020; Harrington & Hertel, 2000) and their subsequent use of tasks (Erlam, 2015) and that task implementation and reflection on that process can help teachers make theory-practice links (Ellis, 2015). Given the numerous positive outcomes of the study (e.g., teachers' increased understanding of TEFL approaches in general and of TBLT in particular, their ability to design tasks and implement them in the classroom, their use of a variety of techniques to manage their classes, their increased confidence in the classroom, and their understanding of whether they might want to continue teaching EFL in the future) and in line with the majority of studies on preservice teachers demonstrating positive outcomes (Trent, 2011), a short stay abroad with teaching practice is highly recommended for SLTE programs, in particular for preservice teachers with greater academic preparation. Because there were necessarily limitations to teachers' cognition development in the two-week span, especially for the most novice of the participants, the findings also suggest that a longer stay abroad could be even more beneficial for developing teachers' pedagogical understandings and skills. However, as a first experience to introduce preservice L2 teachers to the EFL context and give them a taste of what a career in TEFL might be like, also taking into consideration financial and temporal limitations, a well-planned two-week stay can be sufficient for giving teachers' an idea of what TEFL entails and can have an important impact on participants' future trajectories as EFL teachers.

Independently of the study abroad setting, the teachers benefitted greatly from the intensive experience, the high number of practice teaching hours, multiple opportunities for individual and group reflection, and support from their supervisors; thus, the findings support the use of professionally guided, reflective teaching practice in domestic settings as well as abroad. Finally, numerous participants expressed a desire to return to the school in Mexico for a longer stay. Thus, a possible future collaboration of a semester-length duration could be organized so that preservice teachers could benefit not only from a greater number of practice teaching hours and a longer time frame over which to reflect on and learn from those experiences, but potentially also from observing experienced teachers (Yang, 2011) and working with other teachers (Kabilan, 2013; Willard-Holt, 2001).

8 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The dissertation has limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. This study followed a single cohort of students enrolled in a TEFL course including a short-term SA component with daily teaching practice, and it reported findings for three focal participants. It is hoped that the findings may be relevant to instructors and program directors of other TEFL courses and SA programs; however, the findings should be interpreted based on the particular group of preservice L2 teachers in this study, who taught in a two-week summer camp in Mexico. Because the dissertation was designed as a multi-case study, it has the limitations inherent to any case study, such as the fact that the goal is not to perform statistical generalization from the results, but rather to promote transferability (Jensen, 2008). To that end, I selected participants who were representative of the population being studied. I also provided thick descriptions of the participants, the context of the study, and the research methods so that readers can decide for themselves if the findings are transferable to their own contexts. If desired, future research could replicate the current study in order to substantiate its confirmability. Replication could also allow for aggregating data and performing statistical analyses of the quantitative data, such as the questionnaire data or rubric ratings of teachers' task implementation, to provide a baseline against which to evaluate individual focal cases. Through replication, additional cases could be selected for cross-case analysis (Duff, 2008).

In the current dissertation, data were presented for three focal cases who were chosen based on the range of their academic preparation and, secondarily, on their teaching or tutoring experience. While evaluating and reporting on three focal cases allowed for greater depth of analysis and thicker description in the written report than would have been possible with a greater number of cases, it also limited the possibilities for identifying commonalities among the

participants' experiences and contrasting the findings for participants with different backgrounds. In addition, each focal participant taught students of a different age and proficiency level; therefore, the findings should be interpreted bearing in mind that the focal participants' experiences varied due to a number of factors. Future research could incorporate the data of additional focal participants teaching groups of students at each age and proficiency level, which could help strengthen the findings of commonalities among the participants, or possibly reveal aspects for which the chosen focal participants were unique cases (Duff, 2008). Alternatively, rather than choosing future focal participants based on their individual differences (as was true for the current study), choosing a group of teachers that were teaching students of the same age and proficiency level might reveal greater variation in their cognition development and task implementation that could be linked to their individual differences. In addition, the SA program that was the focus of this dissertation often has participants aged 62 years or older. Because there were only two of those participants in the cohort whose data was collected, neither was selected as a focal case for this study; however, analyzing their data in the future could add an interesting perspective to the findings.

The dissertation included data collected over the course of eight months. This allowed for a glimpse of the long-term influence the SA experience might have had on the preservice teachers. However, because most participants did not go on to teach during the semester following SA, the study was unable to capture the ways in which the SA experience might have impacted their teaching, or to observe if or how their cognitions changed as a result. Future research could include additional data collection over a longer timespan to investigate whether new insights could be gained. At the same time, it should be acknowledged that the time spent teaching abroad was two weeks, and though this experience may have been impactful for

participants, especially since for many it was their first time teaching in a classroom, cognition development is influenced by a number of factors, including experiences that may come after SA, such as coursework or a domestic practicum, and it would not be not possible to separate the influence of SA and the TEFL course from that of other factors, particularly over a longer time span.

One limitation regards the study design and participants' choice of teaching approach. Though I framed the predeparture instructional sessions in a constructivist manner and told the participants explicitly on more than one occasion that they could choose the approach they felt worked best for them while teaching abroad, it was evident from some participants' data that they felt they were supposed to use tasks in their teaching. This may be partly implicit, owing to the detail in which we discussed TBLT and the time spent on that approach. However, it was revealed in some participants' data that they were told by other supervisors that they were supposed to be using tasks; therefore, they received mixed messages from supervisors and in some cases were told explicitly they should be using a task-based approach. Aside from the implication that the leaders of the program should be more closely in agreement upon what teachers are told regarding the approaches that they can or should use while teaching, this raises the question of whether it is possible to familiarize participants with more than one approach well enough in the limited time available prior to departure for them to be able to implement a chosen approach without giving preference to one approach over another. An alternate tactic would be to treat the predeparture period as teacher training for TBLT rather than teacher education that incorporates multiple approaches. However, there are trade-offs to this approach as well, so the benefits and limitations of each approach should be considered along with the program's goals.

My role as instructor and supervisor may have influenced the degree to which participants felt they could freely express their opinions during interviews. Though I avoided a direct supervisory role (i.e., I did not complete observations that were considered as a part of their grade), I was still in a leadership role and therefore was not likely seen as an impartial figure; thus, participants may have felt that I wanted them to implement a task-based approach. I did my best to mitigate this by creating an open, non-judgmental atmosphere with participants, and the fact that one non-focal participant chose not to implement TBLT and explained his choice openly in interviews leads me to believe that some, if not all, participants did feel they could not only choose the approach they preferred, but that they could also speak freely to me about this choice. Nonetheless, it cannot be assumed that this was true for all the participants. Similarly, teachers' daily written reflections and final reflection papers were included in their teaching portfolios, which were read by the SA director. Therefore, when considering those data, we must keep in mind that in addition to expressing their thoughts and feelings about their experiences abroad, the teachers were writing for a certain audience.

Finally, there are some limitations tied to the data collection instruments and their implementation. For instance, the pedagogical beliefs questionnaire was based on previous research (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010) and was piloted with a sample group of teachers before being administered to the current study's participants. However, the limitations of using questionnaire data to try to gauge whether cognitions have changed over time must be recognized (Borg, 2006). Because teachers had just completed a TEFL course at the post-SA data collection point, they may have chosen answers that they felt were correct or desirable. In addition, questionnaire items may not have reflected teachers' beliefs completely or have reflected all the areas of beliefs that were important to the teachers (Borg, 2006). For these reasons, the questionnaire data

were triangulated with other types of data; however, the data should still be interpreted cautiously. Replication of the questionnaire with a different cohort of teachers would strengthen the validity of its results.

For this study, a rubric was designed to evaluate the task-likeness of teachers' classroom activities. This rubric was designed based on previous studies (e.g., Erlam, 2016) and informed by oft-referenced TBLT research (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Long, 2000). However, it relied on a fairly high level of interpretation on the part of the rater. For this reason, a second rater evaluated more than one-third of the data and interrater reliability was calculated; in addition, the ratings were triangulated using teachers' lesson plans and interview data. Nonetheless, the ratings were still somewhat subjective; thus, replication of the use of this rubric would strengthen the validity of the findings. The rubric could be used during the predeparture portion of future TEFL courses to guide teachers' understanding of what constitutes a task. Beyond the TEFL course in this study, the rubric could also be useful to L2 teacher educators in other contexts and for future research. Other task-based researchers may feel that other criteria should be included in the rubric, meaning that they might wish to modify it for their use.

There are additional areas of interest for future research in addition to those tied to the limitations of the study. For instance, audio recordings of predeparture sessions and the daily small-group reflection/feedback sessions were made, and these data have not yet been fully analyzed. Analysis of these data, along with analysis of supervisors' daily written feedback, which was included in teachers' final portfolios, could help shed light on the ways supervisors and peers supported and influenced teachers' learning and cognition development through scaffolding, collaborative dialogues, and brainstorming solutions together. Also, in addition to the analyses already performed, a detailed analysis of participants' homework and their

predeparture discussions in class could highlight which topics teachers gained a solid understanding of and which might need to be covered more in depth, as well as which tasks and classroom activities were most effective and which could be improved upon to maximize teachers' learning in the predeparture period. Finally, analysis of the SR interview data could reveal insights into teachers' real-time thinking about tasks while teaching.

In addition to the cognition development of the focal participants, who participated in the TEFL course as preservice teachers, the perspective of the teaching assistants is an area of interest for future investigation. The two master's students who acted as teaching assistants had experience teaching English as a foreign/second language and training EFL/ESL teachers. Although they were acting in a supervisory role during SA, they were fully enrolled in the TEFL course just as the other participants were, and TBLT was somewhat new to them. They represent a unique group of participants, as they had comparable academic preparation to other participants but had already had classroom teaching experience. Although they were not teaching on SA, the teaching assistants observed multiple teachers in the classroom each day during SA, and they led daily reflection sessions with the teachers. Thus, it would be interesting to see how the short-term SA experience may have impacted their cognitions.

In addition to teachers' cognition development and growth as teachers, another perspective that merits investigation is that of the SA students. While two weeks would almost certainly be too brief to measure proficiency gains of any sort—in particular since the lessons were not focused on a particular L2 feature—students' engagement, their perceptions of their teacher, and their experience of learning on the summer camp could be investigated through the implementation of a questionnaire and interviews in order to shed light on the students' experience of task-based learning. An evaluation of the students' experience in the summer camp

could also be conducted using classroom videos or through ethnographic observations to triangulate the students' self-reported data. The findings could inform future teacher development, in that future cohorts of preservice teachers could learn about and observe the types of teacher behaviors and classroom activities that are engaging and have been implemented successfully.

Finally, one further future direction for research and program implementation is linked to the concept of transferability. As noted previously, it is hoped that the descriptions of the methods, participants, and context of the dissertation are sufficiently clear such that interested readers can decide whether the findings are transferable to their own context (Jensen, 2008). The findings of the dissertation might inform teacher educators planning TEFL courses with SA components, or potentially in non-SA contexts as well. One such context could be a local, rather than foreign, context. For instance, there is a city with a large refugee population located not far from the home university of this study's participants. Were a similar course devised with a local, short-term, intensive practice teaching component, preservice L2 teachers—in particular those who could not afford to study abroad or could not go abroad for other reasons—might benefit in similar ways to the participants in the TEFL course with the short-term SA component. Additionally, a program of this type could have a positive impact on a disadvantaged population who might benefit from increased English proficiency, and the program would not necessarily have the same time constraints as the SA component in the current study.

9 CONCLUSION

This dissertation investigated three preservice L2 teachers' cognition development regarding teaching approaches, tasks, and the role of the teacher over the duration of a TEFL course with a period of predeparture instruction and a short-term SA component that included daily teaching practice, and during the following semester. It analyzed teachers' implementation of tasks and classroom activities during the SA portion, and it evaluated the perceived benefits of a short-term SA teaching experience for preservice L2 teachers, the elements of the SA program that the teachers believed facilitated their learning, and the impact of such an experience on those teachers' future trajectories.

The findings revealed that for Jocelyn, a participant with little academic preparation in related areas (i.e., TEFL, SLA) and no previous teaching experience, the course provided a way of describing different approaches that she had experienced as an L2 learner but had not realized were defined in distinct ways. It also allowed her to reconcile the approach that she initially reported she was aiming to use in the classroom (TBLT) with the approach she preferred and that she had actually implemented (something akin to TSLT, or PPP with communicative tasks and games in the final stage). Though she came to appreciate the differences between different approaches, she did not develop a belief that one approach was necessarily superior to others. Her overriding goals of getting students to use their L2 and have fun persisted throughout the duration of the course and afterward. Many of Jocelyn's lessons on SA were not strictly task-based, though she did appreciate the effectiveness of tasks when she implemented them. Though she found the SA experience quite challenging, afterward, she was very enthusiastic about her experience teaching in Mexico and about the possibility of pursuing a career in TEFL.

For Chobi, a participant with moderate academic preparation and ESL tutoring experience, the TEFL course was a chance to better understand an approach (TBLT) of which she had cursory knowledge. Teaching on SA not only built up her confidence as a teacher, it also gave her confidence as an individual, and it convinced her that TBLT was the approach she preferred for teaching EFL. Chobi struggled with maintaining a real-world aspect to her tasks but chose to give priority to appealing to her students' interests. She observed how modifying tasks to better suit one's teaching context could promote higher student involvement, and she became convinced that a student-centered classroom was highly preferable to a teacher-centered one. Chobi's tasks were well designed, but she struggled with some aspects of implementation related to classroom management and timing. The SA experience convinced Chobi that her desired career—that of an EFL teacher—was indeed the path she wished to pursue.

For John, a participant with extensive academic preparation and limited ESL teaching experience, the TEFL course allowed him to develop more nuanced understandings of the variations of task-based approaches. Teaching on SA was an opportunity to try out a task-based approach with a class of students and to fine-tune that approach. John's classroom activities were highly task-like, though he found that when teaching young learners, he had to consider learner engagement more than he had anticipated, which required modifying his tasks to some degree. Teaching on SA was a positive experience for John, and he applied key aspects of task-based teaching to his teaching the subsequent semester. Although the SA experience did not alter his main career goals, which did not include teaching EFL, he did feel that the experience had provided him with the skills he would need to teach short-term if the opportunity presented itself in the future.

Overall, the TEFL course with a two-week SA practice teaching component had a positive impact on the participants' pedagogical knowledge (to varying degrees), ability to design tasks, teaching and classroom management skills, and personal growth. These positive changes can be linked to the predeparture training, the intensive, daily teaching experience on SA, numerous opportunities for feedback and reflection, and social interaction with mentors and peers. The program allowed the participants to either confirm their desired career goals or expand their future career options. The perceived benefits and beliefs reported by participants after SA largely persisted five months later, indicating the lasting effects of the experience. As a multi-case study, the findings of the dissertation are limited to an in-depth understanding of three focal participants, whose experiences may not represent those of all preservice L2 teachers. Nonetheless, given the extensive data collection with additional participants enrolled in the TEFL course in this study, including pedagogical beliefs questionnaires, reflective assignments, and interviews, it is arguable that the experiences of the three focal participants were fairly representative of other teachers in this program, and similar findings in previous research support the idea that their experiences were not an anomaly.

The current study shed light on the potential benefits of practice teaching during short-term SA programs in teacher development, the utility of TBLT as an approach for preservice teachers, the cognition development that can take place during a TEFL course with teaching practice on a short-term SA component and afterward, and the benefits of longitudinal case-study research for studying these phenomena. Though the findings do not suggest that short-term SA programs should be promoted over longer sojourns abroad for preservice L2 teachers, this type of program can be very worthwhile. With the appropriate planning, predeparture instruction and preparation, and implementation, SA programs incorporating teaching practice as short as two

weeks can greatly benefit preservice L2 teachers, providing them with increased knowledge of teaching approaches, the ability to design and implement a variety of pedagogical tools, increased confidence, and insight into their future trajectories as teachers.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Needs Analysis Questionnaire

Thank you for completing the Needs Analysis questionnaire for the Summer 2019 TEFL course. It should take about 12 minutes to complete.

I This section will ask you about your background.

Q1 Name: _____

Q2 Age: _____

Q3a Academic program:
Undergraduate student (1)
Masters student (2)
Post-baccalaureate TEFL Certificate student (3)

Q3b Major: _____

Q3c Minor (Write "none" if you don't have a minor.):_____

Q4 What year in your program did you just complete? (1st, 2nd, etc.)
1st (1)
2nd (2)
3rd (3)
4th (4)
Other (Please explain.) (5) _____

Q5 Have you taken a course on Second Language Acquisition (SLA)?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q6 If SLA course? grade? = No

5A When did you take the SLA course? _____

5B What grade did you earn in the SLA course? _____
Q6 Have you taken a course on Teaching English as a Foreign Language (e.g., TEFL 1)?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q8 If Have you taken a course on Teaching English as a Foreign Language (e.g., TEFL 1)? = No

Q6A When did you take TEFL 1? _____

Q6B What grade did you earn in TEFL 1? _____

Q7 Have you taken a second course on TEFL (e.g., TEFL 2)?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q8 If Have you taken a second course on TEFL (e.g., TEFL 2)? = No

Q7A When did you take TEFL 2? _____
Q7B What grade did you earn in TEFL 2? _____

Q8 What (other) Applied Linguistics courses have you taken at GSU (or elsewhere)? (Please list all the AL courses you have taken.)

_____
_____

Q9 Is English your first language (L1)?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q10 If L1 = Yes

9A What is your first language? _____

9B How long have you studied/spoken English? _____

Q10 Do you study/speak any additional languages?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q11 If L2s = No

10-1a What is your first additional language?[5] _____

10-1b What is your proficiency level in Language #1?
Novice (1)
Intermediate (2)
Advanced (3)
Equivalent to L1 (e.g., bilingual English-Spanish speaker) (4)

10-1c How long have you studied/spoken Language #1? _____

[5] Note: This series of questions repeats for up to five additional languages.

10-1d Do you study/speak a second additional language?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q11 If Do you study/speak a second additional language? = No

10-6 If you speak additional languages, please describe your proficiency level and how long you have spoken them in the comments box at the end of the questionnaire.

Q11 Have you ever lived or studied abroad?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q12 If Have you ever lived or studied abroad? = No11-1a Please describe your experience abroad: Country #1.
What country? (1) _____
When? (From ____ to ___) (2) _____
At what age? (3) _____
For what reason? (4) _____

11-1b Have you lived or studied in an additional country?[6]
Yes (5)
No (6)

Skip To: Q12 If Have you lived or studied in an additional country? = No

11-5b If you have lived or studied abroad in additional countries, please add information in the notes section at the end of the questionnaire.

Q12 Why do you want to participate in this study abroad program? Choose all that apply. Add additional reasons if needed.
I want to have practical teaching experience before graduating/obtaining my TEFL certificate. (1)
I want to complete additional credits during the summer semester. (2)
I want to travel to Mexico. (4)
I want to have experience teaching English abroad. (3)
This is an opportunity to find out whether I like teaching. (7)
I want to practice my Spanish. (5)
Other: (6) _____

Q13 Have you had any training to teach English as a foreign language?
Yes (1)
No (2)
Skip To: Q14 If TEFL training = No

[6] Note: This series of questions repeats for up to five additional countries.

Q13A When was your TEFL training? _____

Q13B Please describe your TEFL training. _____
_____

Q14 Have you had any experience tutoring or teaching English (or another language) as a foreign or second language?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q15 If Have you had any experience tutoring or teaching English (or another language) as a foreign or se... = No

14A Where did you teach/tutor (city/country, what type of school)?
_____
_____

14B When and for how long did you teach/tutor?
_____
_____

14C What type of classes did you teach/tutor? (one-on-one? general English? English for academic purposes? etc.)
_____
_____

14D Describe the students you taught/tutored (age, proficiency level, etc.).
_____
_____

Q15 Are you planning to take any applied linguistics (or other TEFL-related) classes this fall?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q16 If Are you planning to take any applied linguistics (or other TEFL-related) classes this fall? = No
Q15B Please list the courses you are planning to take. _____
_____

Q16 Are you planning to teach or tutor EFL or ESL this fall?
Yes (1)
No (2)

Skip To: Q17 If Are you planning to teach or tutor EFL or ESL this fall? = No

Q16B Please describe where and whom you plan to teach or tutor.

Q17 What are your career goals for after completing your degree or certificate?

II This section will ask you about your familiarity with some topics related to second language teaching and learning.

Q18A How familiar are you with the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)?
Extremely familiar (1)
Very familiar (2)
Moderately familiar (3)
Slightly familiar (4)
Not familiar at all (5)

Q18B In your opinion, how important is it for EFL teachers to have knowledge of SLA? Please explain your answer.

Q19A How familiar are you with communicative language teaching (CLT)?
Extremely familiar (1)
Very familiar (2)
Moderately familiar (3)
Slightly familiar (4)
Not familiar at all (5)

Q19B Please provide a brief definition of what you understand communicative language teaching to be.

Q20A How familiar are you with the Presentation—Practice—Production (PPP) method?
Extremely familiar (1)
Very familiar (2)
Moderately familiar (3)
Slightly familiar (4)
Not familiar at all (5)

Q20B Please provide a brief definition of what you understand the Presentation—Practice—Production method to be.

Q21A How familiar are you with task-based language teaching (TBLT)?
Extremely familiar (1)
Very familiar (2)
Moderately familiar (3)

Slightly familiar (4)
Not familiar at all (5)

Q21B Please provide a brief definition of what you understand task-based language teaching to be.

Q22A How familiar are you with form-focused instruction (FFI)?
Extremely familiar (1)
Very familiar (2)
Moderately familiar (3)
Slightly familiar (4)
Not familiar at all (5)

Q22B Please provide a brief definition of what you understand form-focused instruction to be.

Q23 If you have comments or would like to expand on any of your answers, please do so here.

Thank you very much for your time and your answers!

Appendix B: Pedagogical Beliefs Questionnaire Items, Topics, and Dispositions

Questionnaire item	Disposition toward TBLT	Topic addressed by pair of statements
Student errors must be corrected regularly in order to avoid developing bad habits in writing or speaking English.	-	Error correction
It is natural for students to make errors while learning a language	+	
Activities used in a language classroom ought to have a clear focus with predetermined outcomes.	-	Focus on process or product
The exact outcome of lessons is unpredictable because every student is unique and will cause the lesson to proceed in a different manner.	+	
Explicit grammar instruction is an important element of any foreign language program.	-	Explicit grammar instruction
Explicit grammar instruction should be limited because it promotes knowledge about language rather than the ability to use language.	+	
The genuine interaction that can take place during group work activities is crucial for learning to communicate effectively.	+	Group work
During group work, students spend more time goofing around, talking in their mother tongue, and learning each other's errors than productively completing tasks.	-	
Drills are important for developing accuracy because they promote the formation of positive speaking habits.	-	Use of exercises and drills
Exercises/drills are useless because they don't develop skills/knowledge that can be transferred to real-life situations.	+	
Courses should be organized around progressively more difficult forms (grammatical concepts) or functions (greetings, requests, etc.).	-	Syllabus design
Courses should be organized according to activities that learners carry out in English (e.g., Unit 1 = Finding a part-time job, Unit 2 = Planning a class trip, etc.).	+	
Since learners enter into the classroom with little or no knowledge about English, they are not in a position to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities are useful for their learning.	-	Negotiation of syllabus

Tasks and activities should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs rather than exclusively determined by the teacher.	+	
Training students to take responsibility for their own learning is pointless because they do not have the maturity to direct their own learning.	-	Promoting learner autonomy
A language teacher should help students develop strategies for improving their language on their own.	+	
Grammatical correctness is the most important criterion by which language performance should be judged.	-	Fluency and accuracy
The main focus of a language program should be for students to develop the ability to communicate effectively.	+	
Most students learn a language best by explicitly studying grammatical forms and rules.	-	Focus on language study or language use
For most students, language is acquired best when used as a tool for doing a task rather than studied in an explicit manner.	+	
The role of the language teacher is to impart knowledge to students through explanations, lectures, leading activities, and so forth.	-	Role of the teacher
The teacher's job is to facilitate language development by creating an environment conducive to learning.	+	
To facilitate effective learning, a brief presentation towards the beginning of class is needed to set the focus of the lesson.	-	Student or teacher directed
Teachers can promote effective learning by involving students in activities that use English, only focusing explicitly on grammar or vocabulary if needed.	+	
Maintaining a quiet, controlled classroom should be a teacher's priority.	-	Classroom management
Students should be actively involved in classroom activities, even though this may sometimes be a noisy undertaking.	+	
It's important for students to engage in activities that resemble realistic language use.	+	Real-world use of language
It doesn't matter if students' use of language in the classroom is authentic, as long as they are speaking or writing in English.	-	
Teachers should provide students with specific vocabulary or grammatical structures to use in activities so that they	-	Use of own resources

produce more accurate language and are more successful in completing the activities.		
Students should complete activities using whatever knowledge of English they have, even if it means they make mistakes along the way.	+	
Classroom activities should be set up so that learners have to genuinely communicate in order to complete the activity (i.e., not just repeat something they were told to say).	+	Existence of a gap
As long as activities get students talking, it doesn't matter if they involve genuine communication or just practice of language forms.	-	
The success of an activity should be judged primarily according to whether students use English accurately.	-	Task completion has some priority
An activity should be considered successful if students complete it, whether or not what they said or wrote during the process was accurate.	+	
Activities should be focused on using English to communicate a message or accomplish a goal.	+	Focus on meaning vs form
The focus of activities should be to manipulate and practice grammatical structures or specific vocabulary.	-	

Appendix C: Language Learner Autobiography

Adapted from Bailey et al. (1996)

Assignment: Write a one- to two-page reflection on your experiences as a language learner. Answer the following questions:

1. What language learning experiences have you had and how successful have they been? What are your criteria for judging success?

2. If you were representative of all language learners, what would we have learned about language learning from reading your autobiography? What can be learned about effective (and ineffective) teaching by reading your autobiography?

3. How has your experience as a language learner influenced your ideas about language teaching?

What is the format/style?

- 1-2 pages long, double-spaced
- 12-point Times New Roman, one-inch margins
- Use first person.
- Try to be specific (give examples; avoid clichés).
- Make it reflective and personal.

Appendix D: Homework Assignments

Appendix D.1: Homework Packet 1

Chapter 1: Why TBLT?
1) Read "Why TBLT" (Faez & Tavakoli, pp. 1-2). Then answer these questions: a) What is your understanding of TBLT? What have been your experiences with it (if any)? b) What excites you about this approach to language learning? c) What concerns you about this approach? 2) Continue reading the "History of TBLT" (pp. 3-4), and answer these questions: a) Which principle(s) about the nature of language in TBLT draw(s) your attention? Why? b) How might assumptions about how language is learned influence language instruction? 3) Read the last section, "What is TBLT" (pp. 4-5), and answer these questions: a) What are some of the strengths of TBLT? b) What are some of the potential weaknesses of TBLT? c) What are some potential challenges of implementing TBLT in the study abroad context in Mexico? How might you overcome these challenges?

Chapter 2: What is a Task?
1) Read "What Is a Task" (Faez & Tavakoli, pp. 7-8). Then answer these questions: a) How would you define a task? b) Do the additional definitions in the reading add any new elements compared to the definitions we discussed in class (Ellis, 2003; Long, 1985; Nunan, 2004; Skeehan, 1998)? 2) Read "Task Features" (pp. 8-9). a) Think of a task-like activity. Use the questions by Willis and Willis (2007) to determine the extent to which it can be considered a useful task for your classroom. b) How do your personal experiences as a language learner and/or teacher relate to the use of tasks? 3) Read the last section, "Type of Tasks" (pp. 9-11), and answer these questions: a) What types of tasks might you use more often in your classroom? Why?

b) What are some strengths and limitations of the different types of tasks?

Video #1 – Form-focused vs. Meaning-focused
1) Can you explain the difference between form-focused and meaning-focused activities? Write your ideas here (no need to look anything up; this is just your initial understanding). Or, you can write "I don't know"!: form-focused: meaning-focused: 2) Watch the video "Form-focused vs. Meaning-focused." 3) Check your initial ideas with what you heard in the video. Would you adjust your definitions? 4) Can you give an example of a form-focused language learning activity and a meaning-focused activity?

Video #2 – TBLT & SLA
1) Watch the video "TBLT & SLA." Make a note of any terms that are new for you. Were any unclear? 2) Negotiation of meaning a) What does this term mean? b) How does it relate to SLA? c) How does it relate to TBLT?

Appendix D.2: Homework Packet 2

Video #3 – Implementation of TBLT
1) Watch the video "Implementation of TBLT." Which aspects of the pre-task phase do you think could be especially helpful for learners? 2) What are some ways you could have learners repeat a task in the post-task phase without it becoming repetitive? 3) What are some activities/exercises you might use to help learners focus on form in the post-task phase?

4) Have you ever taught or participated in a task that required teacher-class interaction? What are some benefits and limitations of this participatory structure?

5) In what ways do you think a teacher might intervene if students are having trouble completing a task?

Reading – Tasks and Teaching (Bygate, Norris, & Van den Branden, 2015, pp. 4-5)
1) What are some of the teacher's responsibilities in the three task phases? pre-task: during task: post-task: 2) What is one thing the authors emphasize about the pre-task phase that wasn't mentioned in the video?

YouTube Video – "Task Based Lesson - Teaching Vocabulary and Speaking Skills"
Watch the following video and answer the questions below. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QLjyHh3LxmY Note: Once you understand what a phase is about, you can skip ahead. Make sure to 'tune in' at the beginning and then at 07:30, 13:00, 14:30, 17:00, 19:00, 23:45, 24:30, and 26:50.
1) How well does the lesson align with the phases of TBLT? If they are not clear, what modifications would you suggest? 2) How task-like is the lesson? Use Willis & Willis's (2007) questions to guide your answer. 1. Will the activity engage learners' interest? 2. Is there a primary focus on meaning? 3. Is there an outcome beyond the use of language? 4. Is success judged in terms of achieving the outcome? 5. Is task completion a priority? 6. Does the activity relate to real-world activities? 3) Would you suggest any modifications to make the task more authentic? 4) What are the benefits of the focus-on-form activities in the lesson? 5) Do you think the teacher and student roles reflect those we have discussed for TBLT (e.g., as described in the Video "Implementation of TBLT")? If not, would you suggest any changes?

Appendix D.3: Homework Packet 3

Reading – Teacher Roles (Willis & Willis, 2007, pp. 148-151)
As you read, think about your L2 learning experiences. Answer the following questions in a paragraph or two. • Did your foreign language teacher(s) adopt the roles described in the reading? • Are those roles the way you typically imagine a foreign language teacher? • Would you feel comfortable taking on the roles described in the reading?

Video #4 – Task-Based Language Teaching and Task-Supported Language Teaching
Watch the video and answer the following questions: 1) What do you understand the main differences to be between TBLT & TSLT? 2) Make a list of benefits of TBLT and also of TSLT. 3) Which approach do you think might be better suited to the teaching context in Mexico? 4) Do you think TBLT can be used exclusively, or does it need to be complemented by other teaching approaches?

Reading – The 'Task Generator' (Willis & Willis, 2007, pp. 107-110)
Read "A summary of task types using the 'task generator'" (Willis & Willis, pp. 107-8). Are there any additional task types you might use (either in the pre-task phase or main-task phase) to enrich your lessons?

Appendix D.4: Homework Packet 4

Sequencing Tasks (adapted from Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 86)
In what sequence might you do the following four listening activities with an elementary-level class? Justify the order you choose and say how you might set up each activity. Note: You might not want to do them all in one lesson. What would be a good follow-up task for your learners?
Topic: Understanding street directions a Learners hear a recording of someone giving street directions starting from a 'You are here' point, but not knowing what their final destination will be. They draw the route on their street map. Do they all end up in the same place? What landmark is it nearest to? They can do this several times with different destinations.

b Learners listen and match words or phrases denoting local landmarks (for example, post office, petrol station) to corresponding pictures.

c The teacher tells the students about particular local landmarks and how to find them on the street map they have.

d The teacher demonstrates with a section of street map on the board, talking the class though the route she needs to take to go from A to B, with phrases like 'turn left,' 'right,' 'go straight,' 'second on the right,' etc.

Reflection
Write a brief reflection (1-2 paragraphs): Of the topics we've discussed related to TBLT (e.g., role of teacher, sequencing tasks, TBLT vs TSLT, task criteria, Willis & Willis's checklist, evaluating tasks, TBLT vs CLT vs PPP), which do you find to be most helpful/applicable for your upcoming teaching in Mexico? What questions do you still have about this approach? Are you planning to use tasks in Mexico? Why/why not? (Note: You will receive a grade for completion; this is your opinion—your ideas are not being graded for 'correctness.')

Appendix E: L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement Assignments

Appendix E.1: L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement

Assignment: Write a one- to two-page explanation of your beliefs about second language (L2) teaching.

What is the format/style?

- 1-2 pages long, double-spaced
- 12-point Times New Roman, one-inch margins
- Use first person.
- Try to be specific (give examples; avoid clichés).
- You can refer to things you have studied in AL classes, but you don't need to use a lot of jargon or technical terms. (This is not a research paper!)
- Make it reflective and personal.

What do I include?

There is a lot of variety in teaching philosophy statements. Below are some questions to help you think of ideas. However, please write a narrative—don't just answer the questions. Also, note that there won't be space to address them all!

- How do you think L2 learning occurs?
- How do you envision yourself as a teacher? / What is the teacher's role in the classroom?
- How can your teaching facilitate student learning?
- What kind of environment will you try to create in the classroom? Why?
- What do you want students to learn? How do you know if students are learning?
- Do you think some methods/approaches are more effective than others? (Which ones/ which type?)
- How does the teacher relate to students' motivation to learn an L2?
- Is there a metaphor that describes your view of teaching/ a good L2 teacher?

Appendix E.2: Revised L2 Teaching Philosophy Statement

Assignment: Write a one- to two-page explanation of your beliefs about second language (L2) teaching.

What is the format/style?

- Same as before!
- 1-2 pages long, double-spaced
- 12-point Times New Roman, one-inch margins
- Use first person.
- Try to be specific (give examples; avoid clichés).

- You can refer to things you have studied in AL classes, but you don't need to use a lot of jargon or technical terms. (This is not a research paper!)
- Make it reflective and personal.

What do I include?

You can still include answers to some of the questions below. However, **please reflect back on what you wrote after study abroad and write about what you observe**. Have any of your ideas changed? Has your teaching experience made any of your beliefs stronger?

- How do you think L2 learning occurs?
- How do you envision yourself as a teacher? / What is the teacher's role in the classroom?
- How can your teaching facilitate student learning?
- What kind of environment will you try to create in the classroom? Why?
- What do you want students to learn? How do you know if students are learning?
- Do you think some methods/approaches are more effective than others? (Which ones/ which type?)
- How does the teacher relate to students' motivation to learn an L2?
- Is there a metaphor that describes your view of teaching/ a good L2 teacher?

Appendix F: Semi-structured Interview Protocols

Appendix F.1: Pre-course Interview Protocol

During this interview, please do not use any names or share information that can identify other people.

Intro/Warm-up

- Have you ever been to Mexico before?
- Have you participated in a study abroad program before?
    - What was the focus?
    - What did you enjoy about the program?
    - What did you take away/learn from the program?

Goals for the TEFL Study Abroad Course

- What are you hoping to learn from the course?
- What do you think some of the benefits of study abroad for a TEFL course might be?
- Do you think the TEFL study abroad program could present any particular challenges?
- On the questionnaire, you chose XXXXX and XXXXX as reasons you want to participate in the program. Is there anything else that motivates you to want to go on this program in particular?
- What expectations do you have for the trip?
- What are you looking forward to?
- Do you have any concerns about the trip or teaching?
- On the questionnaire, you said that your career goals include XXXXX. How will this program help you achieve those goals?
- (If teaching abroad is a goal): Where would you like to teach?

Master's students:

- Have you taken/Are you planning to take the teaching practicum course (AL 8900)?
    - If so: What are some things you learned during Practicum? Why did you choose to take this course (study abroad) as well?/ What do you think this course can offer you in addition to the practicum course?
    - If not: Do you think this course offers similar learning opportunities as the practicum course here at the university?

Background/Experience

For AL majors:

- Why did you choose AL as your major?
- Are you also getting your TEFL certificate? (Why?)

For TEFL certificate students:

- Why did you decide to get your TEFL certificate?

For MA students:

- Why did you decide to get your masters in applied linguistics?

Follow up on previous TEFL training, if any:

- (what it covered)
- Did your training include anything about how to design materials?
- How confident did you feel about teaching after the training?
- What skills do you think you developed in that training?

Follow up on previous language teaching/tutoring experience, if any:

- Did you enjoy teaching/tutoring?
    - What in particular did you like?
- What was challenging about your experience?
- Were you given materials to use, or could you choose your own?
- Did you use a particular method(s)/approach(es)?
    - Do you feel that it/they was/were effective?

SLA-related Views

- Why do you think SLA is required for AL majors and master's students?
- On the NA questionnaire, you said you thought it was XXXXX important for FL teachers to have knowledge of SLA. Can you explain more?

For those who haven't taken SLA:

- Are you familiar with the topics that are covered in an SLA class?
    - If not, mention examples like the critical period(s), L1 influence, thories of SLA, individual differences.
- How might knowledge of those topics help you in your current/future teaching?

For those who have taken SLA:

- What did you think of your SLA course?
- What did you like/ dislike/ appreciate?
- Are there any particular topics you found to be very interesting?
- Were there any topics you still had doubts about or found difficult?
- How can your SLA class help you in current/future teaching?

TEFL-related

- Do you think it's important for an EFL teacher to be familiar with a variety of approaches/methods?

For those who haven't taken TEFL 1 (or 2)/Approaches:

- What are some of the things about teaching EFL that you feel like you want/need to learn?

For those who have taken TEFL 1/Approaches:

- What are some of the topics in TEFL 1/Approaches that stood out?
- Do you remember any methods/approaches that seemed effective for L2 learning or that you would like to use as a teacher?

For those who have taken TEFL 2:

- What did you learn from doing microteaching and watching others teach?

For those who have taken TEFL 1 (and 2)/Approaches:

- What are some things about TEFL that you still want/need to learn?

TBLT-related

- On the NA questionnaire, you said you were XXXXX familiar with task-based language teaching. If you had to define a task in your own words, what would you say?
- How would you judge whether some materials are better than others?
- Have you had a chance to design your own instructional materials in the past?

Think about materials you've prepared or used in language classes you've taken, or think about preparing materials for the upcoming Mexico trip:

- What seems to be the most important factor in determining what makes materials effective?
- How do you decide to set up various interactions among/between students?
- How do you view the teacher's role in setting up/implementing an activity?
    - How do you imagine yourself interacting with your students?
    - Can you describe the teacher's role in one or two words?

Closing

- Is there anything else you'd like to share with me or ask me before we finish?

Appendix F.2: Predeparture Interview Protocol

During this interview, please do not use any names or share information that can identify other people.

General Preparedness

- How do you feel about the upcoming teaching on the program?
    - Do you feel ready?
    - Do you have any concerns?

Predeparture Class Meetings

- What information did you gain from the pre-departure sessions?
- We talked quite a bit about different methods and approaches.
    - Do you feel like you have a good understanding of the differences between TBLT, CLT, and PPP?
    - What benefits or challenges stood out about CLT?
    - What benefits or challenges stood out about PPP?
- We also talked quite a bit about tasks.
    - Can you define a task in your own words?
- In your first interview, you said that you understood tasks to be XXX. Has your understanding of tasks changed over the past two months?
- What benefits do you see to using tasks? Challenges?
    - In regard to ESL vs. EFL?
    - What about for different groups of learners (e.g., age, proficiency)?
    - Are you planning to use them?
- Did you do one or two task-based microteachings?
    - How did it/they go?
    - Did you get any useful feedback?
- Tell me a little about the task-based lesson plan you brought to class last week.

    - Did you get any useful feedback about it?
- Are you planning to do many task-based lessons in Mexico?
    - Why (not)?
- In your first interview, you said you saw the role of the teacher as XXX. Has your opinion changed at all?
- What was the most useful thing you took away from the pre-departure sessions?

Ask: homestay vs hotel; mention interviews while abroad + video recording

Closing

- Do you have any questions for me?

Appendix F.3: SA Week 1 Interview Protocol

During this interview, please do not use any names or share information that can identify other people.

General Feedback—First Week

- How has the trip been so far?
- How have your lessons been going?
- What have you enjoyed the most?
- What have you enjoyed about teaching so far?
- What has been challenging about the first week of teaching?
- Have you made many modifications to your original lesson plans?
    - What type of changes?
    - Why?
- Have there been any unexpected moments/ surprising teaching moments?

"We're going to look at some specific moments from your lessons yesterday. I'm interested in learning about what you were thinking during that lesson. I'll stop the video at some points and ask what you were thinking at that time. I'd like you try to remember what you were thinking then, not what you think about it now. Feel free to stop the video if you see any moments that you'd like to share how you felt about. Is it clear what we're going to do? Basically, I'd like you to tell me what was going through your mind while you were teaching."

- What were you thinking right then?
- Do you remember anything else about what you were thinking at that moment?

SA Week 1 Teaching

- What (if any) concepts that we covered during the predeparture meetings did you try to address when designing and implementing this week's lessons? / (How would you describe your approach in this week's lessons?)

TBLT-related Questions

- Have you used any tasks in your lessons this week?
    - How did they go?

- Tell me about one of them. [Note: If time, ask about another task.]
    - Why would you say this was a task?
    - What was the main focus of the task? / Was there a non-linguistic goal?
    - Did the students achieve the (non-linguistic) outcome?
    - Do you feel your materials were effective?
    - How would you describe your role when using tasks?
- Have you used other approaches/methods (PPP, CLT)? / Have you done many activities or exercises that were not tasks?
    - What was the goal(s) of those activities?
        - Did students achieve the goal(s)?
- If you haven't used any/many tasks yet, do you plan on doing so?

- What observations/assessments from your lessons would you make about:
    - interaction patterns?
    - materials?
    - instructions?
- How would you describe your role in the classroom? Do you think it varies based on the type of activities or tasks the students are doing?

Closing/ Looking Ahead

- Is there anything else you have observed in your teaching or been thinking about related to the topics we've been discussing?
- Do you plan to make any modifications to next week's lesson plans based on your experience this week? (materials or approach)
- What are your goals for (teaching) next week?

Appendix F.4: SA Week 2 Interview Protocol

During this interview, please do not use any names or share information that can identify other people.

General Feedback

- How did your lessons go (How are your lessons going) in Week 2?
- What did you enjoy (What have you been enjoying) about teaching this week?
- What was (has been) challenging this week?
- Last week, you said your goal for Week 2 was XXX. Do you feel like you achieved (are succeeding in achieving) that goal?
- Were there (Have there been) any surprising or unexpected teaching moments this week?

"Now we're going to look at some moments from yesterday's lesson. Like before, I'm interested in what you were thinking at the time, not what you think about it now. I will show some moments, but feel free to pause the video if you'd like to share something.

- What were you thinking right then?
- Do you remember anything else about what you were thinking at that moment?

SA Week 2 Teaching

- Last week you described your approach as XXX. Would you say it has changed or stayed the same in Week 2?

TBLT-related Questions

- Have you used many tasks in your lessons this week?
    - How did they go?
- Tell me about one of them.
    - Why would you say this was a task?
    - What was the main focus of the task?/ Was there a non-linguistic goal?
    - Did the students achieve the (non-linguistic) outcome?
    - Do you feel your materials were effective?
    - How would you describe your role during this task?
- Have you noticed any differences in your use of tasks last week and this week?

- Last week you mentioned you were making modifications to your lesson plans.
    - What did you change (have you changed) this week?
    - Did your modifications make (Have your modifications made) a difference?
        - amount of English production?
        - student engagement?
    - Do you think things went (are going) better, worse, the same?
- Have you used other approaches (PPP, CLT) this week? / Have you done many activities or exercises that were not tasks?
    - What was the goal(s) of those activities?
        - Did students achieve the goal(s)?
    - How do you feel about those activities/lessons compared to those that were task-based?
- What observations/assessments from your lessons this week would you make about:
    - interaction patterns?
    - materials?
    - instruction-giving?
- Last week you described your role in the classroom as XXX. Do you think it has changed at all, or would you describe it any differently? Why?

Overall Goals/Closing

- Is there anything else you have observed in your teaching related to the topics we've been discussing?
- Is there anything else you have noticed or thought about that you would like to share?

Appendix F.5: Post-SA Interview Protocol

During this interview, please do not use any names or share information that can identify other people.

General Feedback

- Do you remember what your goals were for SA? (Can you tell me what they were?)
    - Do you feel like you met those goals?
        - Why (not)?
- Do you remember what your expectations were for the trip? (Remind if necessary.)
    - Were your expectations met?
        - Why (not)?
- What was the most rewarding moment?
- Did anything surprise you overall?
    - How so?
- What was the most challenging moment?
- Tell me a little about how you spent your time on the trip, outside of being at school.
- Are you in touch with your host family? OR: Did you make any connections with local people while you were in Mexico?
- Is there anything you wish you had done differently during SA?

Perceived Benefits of SA

- What do you think the value of SA for TEFL is?
    - How is it different from taking a TEFL/Approaches course at GSU here in Atlanta?
    - Are there benefits to the SA TEFL course that you wouldn't receive in a domestic teacher training course?
    - Are there challenges to the SA TEFL course that you might not have faced in a domestic teacher training course?
- What component or components were the most helpful for your growth as a teacher?
    - Consider the predeparture meetings, microteaching, creating and getting feedback on lesson plans, teaching in Mexico, daily feedback sessions, cultural experiences.
- What links do you see between the predeparture class sessions and your teaching practice on SA?
- What makes a SA TEFL course worthwhile (unique/helpful)? Would you recommend it to a friend? (Why?)
- Some people think that two weeks of teaching are too little for teachers to grow very much. What do you think about this comment?

Approach and TBLT-related Questions

- In your opinion, to what extent did you utilize any information that you learned during predeparture meetings during SA?
- How would you define a task now?
- To what extent did you implement tasks?
- Why did you decide to use tasks/ use a mixture of tasks and communicative activities/ (modify question based on response to previous question)?

For those who used a fair number of tasks:

- Overall, do you feel that using tasks was successful?
    - What aspects of those lessons did you feel good about?

        - (prompt if needed: student interaction, language production, independent learning, effective materials)
- If did a mix: How do you feel about task-based lessons as compared to other lessons?
- Do you think you will use tasks in your future teaching?
- Do you feel that tasks were appropriate for the age group and the context in which you taught?

If they did not do much that was task-based:

- What do you think were the main reasons you did not do more lessons that were task-based?
- What would you say the main approach/focus of your lessons was?
    - (Do you feel that your lessons were primarily focused on getting students to communicate in English, or were they structured differently? CLT or PPP? Much lecture? Etc.)
- What aspects of your lessons do you feel were successful (e.g., student interaction, language production, independent learning, effective materials)?

Role of Teacher

- At this point, what do you feel like the role or roles of the teacher are or should be?
- Did your experience teaching in Mexico shape your opinion? (How?)

Overall Goals

- In your first interview, you said that you thought this program would help you reach your career goals by XXX. Do you still feel that is true?
- Has this trip changed your outlook on:
    - teaching approaches?
    - the use of tasks?
    - EFL teaching in general?
- What plans do you have for future teaching?

Closing

- Are you in touch with your host family? (if didn't ask before)
- Were you a floater in a different age group? What insights did you gain from what you observed?
- What was your biggest take-away from the trip?
- In what area do you think you grew the most?
- What is one area that you think you still want/need to grow in?
- Is there anything else you have reflected on or thought about related to your experience on SA that you would like to share?

Appendix F. 6: Delayed Post-SA Interview Protocol 1

During this interview, please do not use any names or share information that can identify other people.

Warm-up

- How have you been since I saw you in July?
- Have you been in touch with anyone you met in Mexico this summer?
- Are there any memories from study abroad that stand out in particular?

Current Classes

- Tell me about the classes you are teaching now/ the tutoring you are doing.
    - Where are you teaching/tutoring?
    - What type of lessons are you teaching/tutoring?
    - How many classes are you teaching?
    - How often do classes meet?
    - What curriculum are you following?
    - What materials are you using? Do you (have the freedom to) develop your own materials?
- Tell me about the students you are teaching now.
    - Ages
    - Levels
- What have you been enjoying about teaching/tutoring lately?
- What has been challenging about teaching/ tutoring lately?
- Has anything surprised you about teaching this course (these courses)

Questions related to Teaching Approach

How would you describe your approach to teaching this semester?
Has your study abroad experience impacted your lesson planning or approach to teaching? How?
Have you used any tasks in your lessons recently?

If yes:

- How did they go?
- Tell me about one of them. [Note: If time, ask about another task.]
    - Why would you say this was a task? (How would you define a task today?)
    - What was the main focus of the task? / Was there a non-linguistic goal?
    - Did the students achieve the (non-linguistic) outcome?
    - Do you feel your materials were effective?
    - How would you describe your role when using tasks?

If no:

- If you haven't used any/many tasks yet, why haven't you? Do you plan on doing so?
- How do you feel about using tasks now compared to on study abroad?

Other Approaches

- Have you used other approaches (PPP, CLT)? / Have you done many activities or exercises that were not tasks?
    - What was the goal(s) of those activities?
        - Did students achieve the goal(s)?
- How do you feel about those activities/lessons compared to those that were task-based/used tasks?

Teaching in general

- What observations/assessments from your lessons would you make about:
  - interaction patterns?
  - materials?
  - instructions?
- How would you describe your role in the classroom? Do you think it varies based on the type of activities or tasks the students are doing? Do you think it is similar or different from the way you taught in Mexico?

Stimulated Recall

"Now we're going to look at some moments from yesterday's lesson. Like before, I'm interested in what you were thinking at the time, not what you think about it now. I will show some moments, but feel free to pause the video if you'd like to share something.

- What were you thinking right then?
- Do you remember anything else about what you were thinking at that moment?

Reflecting on/Making links to SA

- How does your current teaching compare to teaching on SA this summer?
  - Do you notice any differences now that you are at home as opposed to teaching in a foreign culture?
  - Do you notice any differences teaching in an ESL environment rather than EFL?
- Do you think study abroad has influenced the way you teach?
  - Has your teaching experience on SA affected your choices regarding materials/activities/etc.? How so?
  - Are there any concepts from the predeparture meetings that you still try to incorporate in your teaching? (Which ones?)
- Do you think study abroad affected your philosophy about teaching?

Closing/ Looking Ahead

- What are your goals for teaching for the rest of this semester?
- Before study abroad, you said your career goals were XXX. Have your goals changed at all?
- Is there anything else you have observed in your teaching lately related to these topics?

Appendix F.7: Delayed Post-SA Interview Protocol 2

During this interview, please do not use any names or share information that can identify other people.

Warm-up

- How has teaching been going during the past month or so (since we last met)?
- Last time we met, you said your goals for the rest of this semester were XXX. How has that been going?

Stimulated Recall

"Now we're going to look at some moments from yesterday's lesson. Like before, I'm interested in what you were thinking at the time, not what you think about it now. I will show some moments, but feel free to pause the video if you'd like to share something.

- What were you thinking right then?
- Do you remember anything else about what you were thinking at that moment?

Current Classes

- Tell me about the classes you are teaching now/ the tutoring you are doing. (confirm basic details, e.g., oral fluency for IEP levels 1 & 2/ one-on-one tutoring)
    - What type of lessons are you teaching/tutoring?
    - Are you still following the same curriculum?
    - Tell me about some of the materials you have been using? (self-designed or from a book, etc.)
- What have you been enjoying about teaching/tutoring lately?
- What has been challenging about teaching/ tutoring lately?

Has anything surprised you about teaching lately?

Questions related to Teaching Approach

- When we last met, you described your approach to teaching this semester as XXX. Has that changed in any way?
- Have you used any tasks in your lessons recently?

If yes:

- How did they go?
- Tell me about one of them. [Note: If time, ask about another task.]
    - Why would you say this was a task? (How would you define a task today?)
    - What was the main focus of the task? / Was there a non-linguistic goal?
    - Did the students achieve the (non-linguistic) outcome?
    - Do you feel your materials were effective?
    - How would you describe your role when using tasks?
- Have you been using other approaches/methods (PPP, CLT)? / Have you done many activities or exercises that were not tasks?
    - What was the goal(s) of those activities?
        - Did students achieve the goal(s)?
        - Do you think the materials were effective?
    - How do you feel about those activities/lessons compared to those that were task-based/used tasks?

If no:

- If you haven't used any/many tasks yet, why haven't you? Do you plan on doing so?
- How do you feel about using tasks now compared to on study abroad?

Teaching in general

- What observations/assessments from your lessons would you make about:
    - interaction patterns?
    - materials?

    - instructions?
- In your last interview, you described your role as XXX. Would you add or change anything to that description?
    - Do you think it varies based on the type of activities or tasks the students are doing?
    - Do you think it is similar or different from the way you taught in Mexico?

Reflecting on/Making links to Study Abroad

- Have you continued to notice any differences teaching here compared to this summer on study abroad?
    - What are some reasons for those differences (ESL vs EFL, age, level)?
- You mentioned that your study abroad experience impacted your lesson planning/ approach to teaching in this way: XXX. Have you noticed any other ways it has influenced your teaching?
- Does your study abroad experiences still influence your choices regarding materials/activities/etc. in any way? How so?
- Are there any concepts from the predeparture meetings that you still try to incorporate in your teaching? (Which ones?)
- How would you say your teaching philosophy has changed or developed since this summer?
- Are you taking any teaching or language-learning-related courses this semester? How have your SA experiences impact your studying/learning process?

Closing/ Looking Ahead

- You had said your main goal for study abroad was XXX. Now that a semester has passed since you returned, has your perception of the effectiveness of SA changed?
- What are your plans for teaching next semester or next year?
- You have talked about your career goals being XXX. Do you think your most recent teaching/tutoring experience has influenced those goals in any way?
- Is there anything else you have observed in your teaching lately related to these topics?
- Do you have plans to see/communicate with your host family?
- Now, with some distance from the experience, what would you say are your biggest take-aways?

Appendix F.8: Delayed Post-SA Interview Protocol (for participants not teaching or tutoring)

Note: These interviews were conducted at the time of the Delayed Post 2 interviews, but these participants had only one delayed post interview.

During this interview, please do not use any names or share information that can identify other people.

Warm-up

- How have you been since I saw you in July?

- Have you been in touch with anyone you met in Mexico this summer?

Reflecting on SA and Teaching

- If you think back to study abroad, what memories stand out about the experience in general?
- What memories stand out about teaching?
    - What were some of the more challenging aspects of teaching in Mexico?
    - What parts of teaching did you enjoy?
- Tell me about the approach you took to teaching in Mexico.
    - What worked well?
    - What areas would you still like to improve in?
- Do you think your study abroad experience influenced your beliefs, or your philosophy, about teaching?

Reflecting on the Predeparture part of the Course

- What aspects of the predeparture course still stand out in your mind?
- Which parts of the predeparture course were most helpful when you got to Mexico?
- Was there anything about teaching that you weren't expecting, or that surprised you?
- If you were going to be teaching next semester…
    - What elements of the predeparture course material would you try to incorporate?
    - What else that you learned from teaching would you implement?
    - Is there anything you would do differently from the way you taught in Mexico?
    - What role or roles would you take as a teacher?
        - Would this be the same as in Mexico, or different?
- How would you define a task today?

Closing/ Looking Ahead

- Are you taking any teaching or language-learning-related courses this semester? How have your SA experiences impact your studying/learning process?
- You had said your main goal for study abroad was XXX. Now that a semester has passed since you returned, has your perception of the effectiveness of SA changed?
- Do you have any plans for teaching or tutoring in the near future?
- Do you think your study abroad experience will impact your approach to teaching?
    - How? (Ways of interacting with students? Materials? Classroom management? The way you present material to students? Types of activities?)
- Before study abroad, you said your career goals were XXX. Have your goals changed at all?
- Now, with some distance from the experience, what would you say are your biggest take-aways?

Appendix G: Stimulated Recall Interview Protocol

Adapted from Gass and Mackey (2000)

"In this interview, I'm interested in finding out what you were thinking while you were teaching yesterday. I know what you said and did, because that's in the video, but I'd also like to know what was going through your mind while you were teaching."

"So now we're going to watch parts of the video, and I want you try to remember what you were thinking then, not what you think about it now."

Put laptop close to participant. Show where pause button is. Say: "I want you to stop the video whenever you remember what you were thinking. I'll also stop the tape from time to time and ask you to think back and tell me what was going through your mind."

Ask if there are questions about procedure. Ask, "Is it clear what we're doing? I want to know what you were thinking while you were teaching."

Have participant try using pause button.

Possible answers to possible questions:
— they can stop it as often as they want
— we don't have to take turns

Begin video. Pause after beginning of first activity/task and ask, "What were you thinking right then?" After answer, wait few seconds and ask, "Do you remember anything else about what you were thinking at that moment?"

Make sure to pause after the beginning of both tasks and non-task activities.

If participant starts to talk without pausing tape, pause tape for her, then wait for her to un-pause it. If she doesn't, wait for a few seconds of silence, then ask, "Do you remember anything else about what you were thinking at that moment?"

If participant gives an explanation for a choice in activity/task, try to maintain orientation to time of production, for example, "were you thinking that at the time?"

Ask similar follow-up questions even if participant pauses tape and discusses things not related to research questions (e.g., classroom management, timing). Emphasize thoughts during activity (not interpretation now or later in the activity).

Ask teachers what they were thinking in the moment if/when:

- They deviated from their lesson plan. (I will ask for a copy of their lesson plan close to time.)
- They changed student interaction groupings.
- They were monitoring students doing tasks/activities.

- Students were reporting their task outcome(s) to the class.
- They intervened/ offered corrective feedback or focus on form in other ways.
- At the end of a task.

Appendix H: Focus Group Interview Protocol

The following are suggested questions to ask the group. However, the interview leader may choose to modify the order of the questions depending on the flow of the conversation. He/she may elect to ask follow-up questions or not, as needed, or to allow the group to discuss other topics if they seem to be of interest to the group and pertinent to the research project.

What Stood Out

1. What are some good memories you have of teaching on SA?
2. What were some of the biggest challenges you faced while teaching on SA?

Tasks/Activities/Approach

3. What activities or tasks worked well in your classes?
    a. Which ones got students producing a lot of English?
    b. Which ones did students seem to enjoy?
    c. Which ones were easy to manage?
4. Did you alter your approach or your lessons while abroad (compared to the way you expected to teach prior to departure)?
    a. Why? (What made you make changes?)
    b. What kinds of changes did you make?
    c. Do you think the changes were successful?
5. What types of tasks or activities do you think you will use in the future?

Impact of the Program

6. In 10 years from now, how do you think you will describe the SA trip?
    a. Will it make an impact on your life?
7. Would you recommend this study abroad program to your friends?
    a. Why (not)?
8. Is there anything you wish you had done differently?
9. If you were leading the course/SA trip, what (if anything) would you change?

Appendix I: Analytic Rubric for Evaluating Tasks/Activities

Characteristic	0 (not at all)	1 (partly)	2 (fully)
Primary focus on meaning	Language use may be more focused on form than on meaning; there could be little or no genuine communication in the activity/task; the use of language in the activity/task may resemble drilling more than actual communication. If students have some choice in their answers/ responses, their choices are likely to be arbitrary for the purpose of playing a game, as opposed to representing their true preferences or a genuine answer based on reality. The teacher may emphasize or insist that students use specific forms.	Students use the TL during the activity/task to exchange information, but use may be somewhat limited/ constrained/ formulaic. For example, students could be using language to complete interactions or answer questions in which their choices are limited, but they still have more freedom in their answers/responses as compared to drilling a set form.	Students must convey/interpret a message in order to complete the activity/task. Communication is 'genuine'; for example, students might be asking questions to which they truly want/need to know the answer, as opposed to practicing asking/answering a question in order to learn the form. Students are free to use any/all of the linguistic resources at their disposition; specific forms may have been covered previously (i.e., it could be a focused lesson), but students are not directed to use a specific form in a specific moment/sentence/etc.; or, they would have opportunities to expand on that language (i.e., it is not a drill).
Real-world parallel	The type of language used in the activity/task has little or no relationship to language students would use in classes or in real-world interactions. Context could be artificially created for the sake of the activity/task.	There is a similarity to language students would use in the real-world or in academic contexts, but it may not be very strong. Or, the language used in the activity/task could have real-world applications, while the context of the activity/game may not be very realistic (e.g., a game with unrealistic conditions or very limited scope of language production). Similarly, the language	There is a similarity to real-world language use in the actual language needed to complete the activity/task or the type of language used to complete the activity/task. Materials and/or context of the activity/task should be at least somewhat authentic/realistic.

Characteristic	0 (not at all)	1 (partly)	2 (fully)
		could be realistic, but the materials are not authentic or are highly controlled.	
Non-linguistic outcome	The activity/task does not have an outcome other than practicing/using the TL. An example could be completing a chart that is artificially created (e.g., filling out -ed/-ing endings for verbs)--while there is a final product (a completed chart), it is purely linguistic in nature (i.e., viewing language as an object), and the product is for academic purposes only. Another example is an activity which is game-like but does not have a clear endpoint/objective/winner and is designed exclusively to give learners opportunities to practice the L1.	The task/activity has an outcome, such as winning a game, but it may be partially designed around having students practice/use the TL. For example: playing Jeopardy has a clearer endpoint/objective than a game that is played merely until a certain amount of time has elapsed; however, it does not have as clear of a final 'product'/outcome as writing an email.	The principal outcome of the activity/task is something other than use of the TL. This could be something tangible/concrete, such as a brochure or an email, or intangible, such as a group decision based on given criteria. Completing a chart could 'earn' 2 points if it resembles something you would do in the real world, such as filling out an online form or an official document, and there is a real-world/functional use of the outcome (also because this is a non-language-focused outcome).
Target language use opportunities	The activity/task provides few or no opportunities for students to practice producing (writing/speaking) and/or receiving (listening to/reading) the TL.	The activity/task provides some opportunities for students to practice producing (writing/speaking) and/or receiving (listening to/reading) the TL. Opportunities may be limited due to the mode of implementation of the activity/task (e.g., if it is heavily teacher-led, it might not provide as many opportunities as it could if it were set up differently).	The activity/task provides ample opportunities for students to practice producing (writing/speaking) and/or receiving (listening to/reading) the TL.

Appendix J: Codes and Themes Related to Research Question 2

Theme: Approach to L2 Teaching

Pattern Code	Related first-cycle codes
Approach to interaction patterns	consider individual differences (age, confidence, comfort level, proficiency) do peer work if beneficial for students try to give students individual attention vary interaction patterns
Approach to materials	add a creative or personal touch consider proficiency (make materials not too easy, not too hard) don't rely on worksheets (or materials in general) too much experimenting with materials incorporate technology introduce materials strategically (can be distracting) make materials engaging need (to plan) sufficient material use crayons, markers, whiteboard with YLs use materials to help structure lessons use realia (or physical elements)
Goals or responsibilities of a good L2 teacher	adapt lesson to each class consider individual differences, personal factors engage your students focus on meaning-avoid unnecessary corrections give clear presentations & instructions make it personal make tasks or class goal-oriented maximize speaking time organize classes thematically teach functional language use a variety of media

Pattern Code	Related first-cycle codes
Good language teaching...	doesn't have to present grammar explicitly engages students' interest exposes learners to a range of varieties of the L2 goes beyond grammar incorporates culture involves all learners involves assessment is fun, natural, creative is immersive promotes all skills promotes creativity promotes language as a bridge between cultures promotes learner autonomy promotes meaningful communication provides opportunities to practice the L2
A good L2 teacher…	has experienced teaching approaches is a language learner is flexible is not overly emotional knows students' L1

Pattern Code	Related first-cycle codes
Role of the teacher	assessor authority figure creator of setting for meaningful communication creator of supportive environment encourager-motivator-engager facilitator-guide friend-friendly-approachable instructor-language advisor manager observer-monitor organizer-provider of resources participant-team player role depends on the context, age role model source of knowledge
Student- vs teacher-centered classroom	classes became more student-led during study abroad need planning, scaffolding so lessons can be student-led student-teacher balance depends (on age, activity, context) student-teacher balance different from experience, expectations student-teacher partnership (balance responsibility, interests) students should play an important role (student-centered classroom is best)

Theme: EFL Methods and Approaches

Sub-theme	Pattern code	Related first-cycle codes
Choice of approach	CLT or TBLT (overlap)	
	Not just one approach	approach depends on age and level approach depends on context, learning goals eclectic or hybrid approach is best experimenting with approaches prioritize goals over following a method
	PPP not in so many words	
	PPP with tasks for production stage	
	TBLT and reasons for preference	like research-based aspect of TBLT like structure of TBLT lessons SA convinced me TBLT is best approach TBLT = best approach for Mexico TBLT let me measure students' progress would use task-based approach in future
	TBLT complemented with another approach	TBLT + a more explicit grammar-focused approach TBLT + CLT TBLT + games
	teach as I was taught	
	teach the way I 'should'	
CLT	Beliefs about CLT-benefits	CLT can help you become conversational CLT provides opportunities to use the TL communicative activities are fun
	Beliefs about CLT-challenges/limitations	activities without an end goal are less successful CLT better for more advanced students motivating students could be difficult
	Understanding of CLT	

Sub-theme	Pattern code	Related first-cycle codes
PPP	Beliefs about PPP-benefits	PPP can benefit, grammar, spelling, vocab PPP can help learners develop accuracy PPP can teach the basics PPP phases make assessment easy
	Beliefs about PPP-challenges/limitations	effectiveness of PPP depends on teacher hard to engage ss through PPP PPP doesn't teach you to communicate PPP format could be monotonous
	Understanding of PPP	
TBLT	Beliefs about task implementation	different types of tasks have different applicability during-task phase should have high learner involvement EFL definition of task has to be more flexible than ESL modeling helpful in pre-task new information given in-task can overwhelm learners post-task presentations are motivating task completion is the most important thing
	Beliefs about TBLT-benefits	easy to assess learners using tasks non-linguistic outcome is motivating students understand how target structures can be used tasks are engaging tasks can be used to target different skills (W, S, R, L) tasks create context for language use TBLT benefits students' productive skills TBLT can lower affective filter, increase learners' confidence TBLT can meet students' particular needs TBLT can promote creativity TBLT is authentic, applicable to real life TBLT is interactive, provides opportunities to use the TL TBLT promotes learner autonomy

Sub-theme	Pattern code	Related first-cycle codes
	Beliefs about TBLT-challenges/limitations	assessment might be difficult designing appropriate tasks for age and proficiency level is challenging designing engaging tasks is difficult developing authentic tasks is challenging giving clear directions for tasks is challenging R and W may lag behind other skill development students may have gaps in understandings of forms TBLT harder with individuals, small classes TBLT less effective for less motivated or shyer students TBLT less effective in (E)FL environment than (E)SL TBLT may become monotonous
	Reflections on my task design and implementation	my design and use of tasks my use of task stages
	Understanding of 'task'	definition of 'task' understanding of task phases
	Understanding of TBLT	definition of TBLT focus is on meaning (not form) language used to complete tasks is not restricted syllabus = theme- or topic-based tasks = the backbone of TBLT classes tasks should be ordered by increasing difficulty TBLT = learn by doing TBLT requires careful syllabus planning TBLT should incorporate students' needs Variations of task-based approaches

Appendix K: Codes and Themes Related to Research Questions 3 and 4

Theme: How I Learned

Pattern code	First-cycle codes
Intense nature of SA teacher training [from the context/program]	find out if you like teaching implementing immediate changes intensive learn a lot in a short time see my progress
Social learning [from others]	collaborating with peers learn from observing peers learn from students learn from supervisors' feedback proud of peers
Hands-on experience [by doing]	chance to experiment (approaches, roles) experience EFL context firsthand experience in the classroom good first experience learn from mistakes learn to think on your feet opportunity to teach young learners put theory into practice teach real students
Through reflection [by reflecting]	realize teacher's influence on students realized teaching is harder than I thought reflecting after lessons

Theme: What I Learned

Pattern code	First-cycle codes
Grew into the role of teacher [about teaching—how to be]	developed a teacher persona developed a teaching philosophy gained confidence in the classroom learned how to be an authority figure learned how to be flexible learned not to expect perfection reduced my anxiety speaking in front of people widened my horizons about how to teach
How to… [about teaching—how to do]	adapt my lessons create a student-centered classroom design tasks elicit more target language engage learners improve by reflecting on lessons manage a classroom refine my teaching skills plan goal-oriented activities structure lessons
Personal growth [about myself]	challenged myself developed friendships with peers developed ties with host family, students experienced a foreign culture grew as a person (not just as a teacher) learned about myself

Theme: Impact of SA on Future Trajectories

Pattern code	First-cycle codes
Role of SA	affirmed my desire to teach
	found out I liked teaching
	gave me new research interests
	SA = a starting point
Future trajectory	possibly teach in future (not right now)
	still want to do a PhD
	want to dedicate my life to teaching
	want to go back to Mexico to teach
	want to teach EFL again
	want to teach in the same type of school
	want to teach students of a different age