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University of Southampton

Faculty of Social Sciences

School of Education

**The 'Good Language Teacher'; An Exploration of how Preservice Teachers in Chile
develop their Professional Identity through the practicum.**

by

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Abstract

Faculty of Social Sciences

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The ‘Good Language Teacher’; An Exploration of how Preservice Teachers in Chile develop their Professional Identity through the practicum.

by

Priscila Andrea Riffo Salgado

This qualitative research explored how a group of nine preservice teachers (PSTs) from an English language teaching (ELT) programme in Chile navigated their professional identities throughout their last-stage practicum. By adopting a sociocultural approach, where the *good language teacher* (henceforth GLT) concept is understood as PSTs professional identities, this study shows how PSTs encountered a series of challenges during this period that resulted in them indicating what aspects of their professional identity they consented to, and how they were shaped through a combination of personal lived experiences and trajectories, framed within a particular social context.

A variety of conceptualisations about the GLT have been offered from researchers’ points of view, language teacher educators, and pupils in recent years, attempting to identify the desirable characteristics of the GLT. However, little is known about the understanding of the GLT from the PSTs’ point of view. By exploring how PSTs shape this concept through the practicum, light could be shed regarding how to improve the teaching practice, as teacher identity and practice are closely related (Barkhuizen and Mendieta, 2020).

The data generated from this case study, through semistructured interviews, lesson observations, stimulated recall interviews, and focus groups, showed that despite PSTs conceiving the practicum as a valuable learning experience to learn to teach, the practicum offers them scarce opportunities to do so. One of the reasons identified is that the school’s and the university’s understanding of the GLT do not always correlate. While the university promotes communicative ways to teach English, school practices showed to continue to be very traditional, focusing more

on passive skills of the language. At the same time, this research shows how the way in which PSTs perceive pupils may have an impact on the teaching of English in a more inclusive way.

In terms of the current national ELT policy, this research suggests that framing the teaching of English within a more local and contextualised pedagogy could benefit its understanding and implementation in contexts that are very deprived or vulnerable. At the same time, it is expected to better inform language teacher education programmes and teacher educators of the mismatches and power issues experienced during the practicum for PSTs, which tend to result in them adopting coping and complying behaviour that impacts on their professional identity formation.

Keywords: *TEFL, Good Language Teacher, Preservice Teachers, Teacher Education, Language Teacher Education, English language Teaching Policy, SENs in TEFL, Inclusion in ELT, Language Teacher Beliefs, Language Teacher Identity.*

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Research Thesis: Declaration of Authorship

Research Thesis: Declaration of Authorship

Print name: Priscila Andrea Riffo Salgado

Title of thesis: The 'Good Language Teacher'; An Exploration of how Preservice Teachers in Chile develop their Professional Identity through the practicum.

I declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission.

Signature:Date:14/09/2023

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Definitions and Abbreviations

ADHD.....	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
ASD.....	Autistic Spectrum Disorder
CLT.....	Communicative Language Teacher
CMO.....	Minimum compulsory content
CPEIP	Pedagogic training, research and investigation centre
EFL.....	English as a foreign language
END	Diagnostic national evaluation for preservice teachers/Evaluación nacional docente
ELT.....	English Language Teaching
EOD	English Open Doors programme
ERGO.....	Ethics and Research Governance Online
JUNAEB	National Council for School Assistance and Benefits/Junta Nacional de Auxilio Escolar y Becas.
KET	Key English test (Cambridge examination)
LOCE.....	Constitutional and Organic Educational Law
LGE.....	General Law of Education
LTE.....	Language Teacher Education
Mineduc.....	Ministry of Education
NEST.....	Native English Speaking Teacher
NNEST	Non-native English Speaking Teacher
TEFL.....	Teaching of English as a foreign language.
PEI	Institutional Educational Project
PIE	School integration project
SEN.....	Special Educational Needs
SENAME	National Service for minors/ Servicio Nacional de menores
SEREMI.....	Ministerial regional service

SIMCE.....	Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación/ System for the
.....	Measurement of Quality in Education
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLTE.....	Second Language Teacher Education.
TE	Teacher Education
TEFL.....	Teacher of English as a foreign language
UTP.....	Technical pedagogical office

Chapter 1 Exploring the good language teacher (GLT) in the Chilean context

1.1 Background to the study

The English language has achieved unprecedented dominance as the *lingua franca* (the language of science, technology, music, film and media, finance, international business and diplomacy), as it is believed that the knowledge of this language could benefit nations economically in a globalised market (McKay, 2003; Matear, 2008; Ormeño, 2009; Abrahams and Farias, 2010). According to Krachu (1992), 'expanding circle' countries such as Chile tend to introduce English as a foreign language (EFL) in educational contexts, despite this language not having a 'native' or 'colonial' status, in order to communicate with the inner circle (countries like the USA, where English is a native language) and outer circle countries for the reasons aforementioned.

During Pinochet's dictatorship (1973-1990), the educational system underwent significant changes. This occurred in two ways; first, by imposing this regime, supported by the military forces, with extreme violations of human rights to those citizens whose ideas challenged the imposed economic system between 1973 to 1981 (Walsh, 2013). Second, there was an implementation of strong neoliberal policies, at the same time that authoritarian university regulations were established (Simbürger and Donoso, 2020). These events have positioned Chile as the "first laboratory for radical free-market experiments" (Bresnahan, 2003, p. 3).

Aligned with international standards and requirements to enter the market, the teaching and learning of English have been central to national educational policy reforms. Although teaching and learning this language became more democratic in terms of it being accessible to all students across schools, public education in particular has been impacted by the reforms imposed during the dictatorship, which are still tied to Pinochet's constitution. Therefore, the gap between those who can afford private education and those who cannot have widened, increasing social segregation. Consequently, education has rapidly begun a privatisation process through a voucher school choice system. As a result private investors have created and run subsidised schools, at the same time receiving the subsidies intended for public schools (Barahona, 2016; Romero, 2022). This privatisation process has accelerated the erosion and closing of public schools, transforming them into 'ghettos' specialised for low-income (Gonzalez, 2017)

Therefore, despite the efforts from national policy and the Ministry of Education (Mineduc) to improve the teaching of English, pupils learning of the language has not significantly improved,

showing major differences between the results obtained by private schools and the public and subsidised ones (Matear, 2008; AgenciaEducacion, 2021).

Not only has the teaching of English been imported into the country for economic reasons, but also the language teaching methodologies from 'inner circle' countries have been adopted to teach it. The national ELT policy for teaching and learning has used foreign teaching methodologies to inform EFL teachers, PSTs, and pupils' outcomes, which are outlined within international frameworks of reference and demand accountability from teachers and students based on those parameters.

Some of the reasons that could explain these decisions could also be economic, in order to show accountability to international bodies such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in order for Chile to become a developed country. Another reason may be related to the understanding of the ELT profession and the qualities a language teacher should possess, such as the belief that the gold standard for teaching English should be to speak it as an English native speaker.

Regarding accountability, the country started incorporating standards with the introduction of neoliberal policies. Currently, the country uses the *Guiding Standards for English Pedagogy* (Mineduc, 2014), which are based on international trends of teaching and learning second and foreign languages. It distinguishes two types of standards: disciplinary or subject matter knowledge; and pedagogical knowledge (See Table 1) Regarding disciplinary knowledge, this is assessed in terms of competencies and English levels established by the Common European Framework for Reference (CEFR, see Table 1). This international framework sets common grounds for the skills a learner, both teachers and pupils, of a second or foreign language (L2) should possess to be deemed to have a certain level of proficiency in the language (Council of Europe, 2022). At the same time, the acquired proficiency levels grant the L2 learner a set of skills to carry out certain tasks or get involved in certain conversational settings. In the national context, English language teachers are expected to reach a C1 or advanced level of English according to the CEFR (Mineduc, 2014) by the time they obtain their degree. Regarding the pedagogical standards, these are generic and apply to all the subjects, irrespective of their nature, across the country.

Standards shape what type of knowledge teachers should possess and how they should demonstrate that. This is known as the *teacher knowledge base* (TKB) or the set of knowledge a teacher should possess. This concept transpires from teacher education and the influential work of Shulman (1987). Having understood the teaching profession as a set of behaviours for years, studies from the area of psychology and sociology in the field of education introduced an interpretive approach to understanding the teaching profession (Freeman and Johnson, 1998;

Windschitl, 2002). In response to recent research and considering that a set of behaviours to teach is not easily transferrable from one context to another, and that teachers' mental lives play a key role on how they see themselves as teachers and create their professional identity, Freeman and Johnson (1998) called for a reconceptualisation of the language teacher knowledge base (LTKB). Their approach came to identify sociocultural aspects (such as the activity of language teaching and learning, the school and classroom contexts where teaching is practised, and the experience, and the knowledge and beliefs which practitioners hold) as relevant to consider in language teacher education (LTE). However, despite this article being influential at the time and having opened the discussion of what types of knowledge were essential to teach a foreign or second language (L2), little is yet known about the language teacher knowledge base and its development (Borg, 2003), especially in countries from the 'outer circle'.

Regarding the understanding of the ELT profession, professional preparation of language teachers has generally been drawn from disciplines such as linguistics, education, and second language acquisition. Nonetheless, in the 1990s when Richards and Nunan (1990) discussed this in their work about second language teacher education, a more systematic reflection emerged about what language teachers needed to know to do their job well. Skills have usually been identified as being competent in the subject matter and possessing pedagogical strategies to teach the subject (Pineda, 2002). In the field of language education there is a common belief that the more expert the language teacher is in the language, the better teacher they will be. This general understanding can be interpreted as a way to legitimise the idea of the native speaker as the aim which foreign language teachers should achieve in order to validate their expertise as teachers of an L2 (Gray and Block, 2012; Block, 2014). Despite a body of research showing that a native speaker is not necessarily a good language teacher, Freeman (2002, p. 1) asserted when he pointed out that "the preparation of teachers is largely animated by popular perception and belief". Thus, beliefs are important to understand PSTs professional identity formation. But not only is this important to explore from the PSTs point of view, but also to explore how some ELT beliefs can be shared collectively and how they would determine the way language teachers understand their profession.

Beliefs derive from the study of teacher cognition, which later permeated language teacher education. Borg (2003, p. 82) describes teacher cognition as the "unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching what teachers know, believe, and think". At the same time the incorporation of beliefs to the understanding of who language teachers are and what they do was supported by the shift in teaching paradigms, which began in the 1970s. Borg (2015) states that teachers' cognition is a multidimensional concept that is informed by other notions, such as beliefs, which he defines as "propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often

tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action and are resistant to change” (Borg, 2011, pp. 370–371).

It then becomes relevant to explore possible issues related to the LTKB and how sociocultural aspects play an important role in LTE and PSTs professional identity formation, especially at the last practicum stage since these PSTs would begin their roles as teachers one term following this.

At the same time, by investigating how this knowledge is socially and individually constructed in the practicum context, it could be possible to identify what sociocultural factors influence these PSTs teaching practice (Loughran, 2006).

This research project is also motivated by my own experiences as an English language learner and teacher of secondary and higher education in Chile. I am also a former student from the public and subsidised educational system, the first professional in my family, coming from the same area where this research was carried out. I have also been a language teacher within the private and subsidised Chilean educational system. My experiences, trajectories and my own professional identity formation allow me to understand how socio-cultural factors intertwine the teaching practice.

1.2 Research aims and questions.

The Good Language Learner (Naiman, 1978), a book published more than 40 years ago, became popular at the time as it provided support regarding key problems teachers experienced in the classroom based on studying processes directly and empirically. Naiman (1978) sought to discover the strategies that successful language learners applied. However, as the book concludes, despite some broad generalisations which could be made, the good language learner with particular characteristics does not exist. This book contributed to acknowledging that there are many individual ways of learning and that existing stereotypes do not apply to this matter. Similar studies have followed regarding the concept of the good language learner (such as Griffiths (2008), Kusey (2010), Nandi(2011)), while also inspiring further research into the idea of the good language teacher (such as Griffiths and Tajeddin (2020)).

Based on these studies, and my personal experience as a former English language learner and teacher, I believe that to explore the GLT it is necessary to consider the PSTs trajectories, beliefs, and the practicum as the place where the LTKB is individually and socially constructed. As Prodromou (2020) suggests, the language teacher plays multiple roles given the interrelational, material and physical circumstances. Moreover the practicum, along with sociocultural tools, allows the exploration of those interrelation, material, and physical circumstances.

This research aims to shed light on how PSTs navigate the ongoing construction of their professional identities during their last stage practicum, by exploring the concept of the GLT from their perspectives, which include individual and collective experiences. Exploring the GLT concept is related to exploring identity, or as Barkhuizen and Mendieta (2020) state, multiples identities, as PSTs are becoming teachers. Barkhuizen and Mendieta (ibid) state that identity is social, as it happens and develops with other people.

Despite this incipient interest in understanding the GLT, current literature does not offer much research concerning what a GLT should be like in contexts such as the Chilean one. The scarce existing research usually belongs to foreign language teaching contexts and often uses concepts such as 'effective' to identify this set of desirable features, or LTKB. These studies have usually been based on interviews or surveys where either TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) students or in-service teachers explain what this concept means to them (such as Borg (2003), Mullock (2003), and Metruk (2021), among others). However, there is not much systematic information on what this means to PSTs and how this translates in their teaching practice in contexts such as the practicum.

To fill in this research gap, the following questions were created,

1. What is a good language teacher in the Chilean context, as perceived by PSTs?
2. How is this conceptualisation shaped through the practicum?
3. What particular dimensions of this conceptualisation are salient and distinctive from this country?

The use of 'good' instead of 'effective' language teacher in this research is used purposefully to refer to the qualities that should help language teachers understand themselves and their contexts to perform professionally and sensibly in their teaching practice. *Effective* or *effectiveness* are words generally used in teacher education to refer to proving efficacy based on a set of standards. Although national standards are a starting point to explore the PSTs understanding of the GLT, this study is not about assessing them against those standards but exploring how, throughout the practicum, they confronted and navigated their own understanding of the GLT and how they were challenged in their conceptualisation of their professional identity.

In order to explore the concept of the GLT from the PSTs' point of view I draw upon a range of traditions, framing my research within the field of Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research as sociocultural theory (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006), where human learning is conceived as a social and dynamic activity that situates in physical and social contexts,

and distributed across people, tools and activities. These socio-cultural activities can inform on how human cognition occurs without isolating them from the social context (Johnson, 2009). The tenets of the socio-cultural perspective are drawn from the seminal work of Vygotsky (1978, 1980), and later development of his followers who have developed his theories further (such as Leont'ev (1981), Luria (1982), Lantolf (2000), Wertsch (1995)), where learning is understood as mediated through social relations, cultural artefacts and theoretical concepts. In this research there is special emphasis on the tools that serve to mediate the thinking and practice of what a GLT is. Opposite to Piaget, who stated that development occurs towards socialisation, Vygotsky (1980) thought that cognitive development occurred within social and interpersonal activities. This research explores how PSTs use the socio-cultural tools (social relations, cultural artefacts and theoretical concepts) to mediate their understanding of the *GLT*, and how this adapts and changes throughout the practicum.

Through a case study and the use of various qualitative methods (such as semi-structured interviews, lesson implementation observations, and a focus group), this research explores a particular context in-depth (Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2018), to identify what the understanding of the GLT is from the point of view of nine English as a foreign language (EFL) PSTs carrying out their last-stage practicum from a university of the south of the country. Although PSTs are the focus of this research, twelve other participants such as university supervisors, host teachers at schools and the school settings of five schools where these PSTs were distributed are also part of the study, as these participants and settings shape the sociocultural aspects of the study.

The nine PSTs that participated in this study were in the fifth year of their English pedagogy programme at a university in the south of Chile. At the same time, this university is located in the country's most deprived region, with poor scores in national primary and secondary education assessments including the English language. This practicum lasted a period of 16 weeks, and occurred during the second academic semester of 2019, where PSTs were distributed across five schools within the city from August to December that year. These schools were either public or subsidised and offered mainstream (education to pursue higher education) and vocational education (education to obtain a technical certificate before finishing secondary school).

Teacher learning experiences must consider the social, political, economic and cultural histories that are determinants of the place where teachers learn to teach (Johnson, 2009). The practicum is also a place where professional identity is formed, and a departure point to reflect on teaching (Mattsson, Eilertsen and Rorrison, 2011). Within this study, the practicum is understood as a place where PSTs learn to act wisely in their role as L2 teachers by being part of a school community. Similarly, the national, regional, and educational contexts are equally relevant to explore the GLT

concept, as institutions such as university or schools also hold shared beliefs about teaching English and possess sociocultural and historical processes that are asynchronous from the physical and sociocultural setting of the school itself (Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2006). Having said this, during the data collection process, a very spontaneous social uprising occurred in the country as a consequence of all the social inequalities that have resulted from market-free policies. This event, initiated by secondary school students, that very soon had the support of most of the national population, impacted the participants and researcher' lives. This idea will be further developed in Chapter 2, but one of the consequences was that PSTs did not attend schools for two weeks right before the term ended. This will have surely affected the PSTs experience in the practicum, as it also affected the other participants of this research.

As abovementioned, the practicum is a learning setting that is highly valued by PSTs. It is generally assumed that the practicum can allow preservice teachers to make informed decisions about their teaching practices and reflect upon them (Nguyen, 2017). However, and despite it being a highly valued component in teaching programmes, the practicum is a complex activity with multi-layers that involves different participants, settings, and actions. This has not always shown to be a space where preservice teachers are allowed to make mistakes safely. Studies about the practicum have shown that this can be a very sensitive moment for preservice teachers, where experiences are not linear and when it is difficult for themselves to identify as language teachers since they experience issues of power, among others (Dobbins, 1996; Hudson *et al.*, 2008). These issues would limit preservice teachers in building a professional identity that allows them to reflect on making suitable methodological decisions. Additionally, practitioners and scholars agree that an understanding of the educational context where English is taught as a foreign language and where external frameworks serve to legitimise and judge best practices should be examined critically to see if they correlate with the context given (Fandiño, 2013; Archanjo *et al.*, 2019). For this research, the practicum in this study is a concept, but it also becomes a particular physical space where PSTs construct and develop their understanding of the GLT. This is the setting where ultimately PSTs challenge their understanding of the GLT.

1.3 Outline of the thesis

This thesis has ten chapters. In this chapter the background purpose and research questions of the study were introduced. Chapter 2 presents a landscape of teacher education. It traces its origins, its professionalisation and de-professionalisation, and the different social and student movements that have influenced educational reforms, including the Inclusion Legislation of 2016. This chapter also presents the national English language curriculum, different ELT trends which were adopted, and English language teaching and learning standardisation.

In Chapter 3, the existing literature regarding teacher education and its different traditions are reviewed and examined. This chapter provides an understanding of what we know about the GLT, how this concept is shaped regarding standards, and the general understanding of the distinction between native and non-native language teachers.

Chapter 4 discusses aspects of the research methodology first by reminding the reader of the focus of the research and presenting the research questions more comprehensively, then the reasons to shape this research as a case study within a sociocultural theory (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006) and the methodological decisions to ensure reliability in the study are presented, given its qualitative interpretive nature. After a brief overview of the research setting, the participants, and the recruiting process, I discuss the data collection instruments selected to ensure the quality of the research. The data collected was analysed through thematic analysis, using Nvivo to organise the data. I also consider issues of ethics and explain how the piloting took place.

Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8 present the findings of the research. Each chapter is organised around a finding and the different views about it from preservice teachers, host teachers and mentors, as well as supervisors or university staff. Each chapter contains a brief conclusion, which together are more broadly discussed in Chapter 9. This research aims to portray a vivid image of the participants. Therefore, long extracts from the data have been purposefully displayed to give the reader a full sense of the participant and the issue or experience being discussed.

Chapter 5 is related to the use of the preservice teachers' practicum portfolio, lesson plan design, and how this reflective artefact becomes an accountability artefact for preservice teachers, restricting their possibilities to explore their professional identities. Chapters 6 and 7 discuss two issues preservice teachers experience when using the L2 in the classroom and promoting communicative language teaching, when provided with the selected materials and activities. Finally, Chapter 8 shows how the most recent educational reform - the Inclusion Legislation of 2016 - presents new challenges to preservice teachers when integrating students with SENs in the mainstream classroom.

Chapter 9 summarises the main themes that emerged from the findings that help to respond the research questions. Chapter 10, the final chapter, presents the final conclusions and recommendations for future studies.

This study concludes that preservice teachers begin their practicum journey with high expectations about this experience as well as experience different levels of excitement and confidence of what they have learnt in previous practicums. They initially reported to want to teach differently from practices they have observed in previous practicum experiences. However,

their practices end up being shaped mainly by the school. Being that the school was very rigid in terms of what preservice teachers can or cannot do, they showed to generally finish the practicum following the school guidelines to teach English, even though these practices did not necessarily align with the PSTs' understanding of the GLT. At this stage, preservice teachers have also learnt that they do not have much power or agency to transform the existing, more traditional, teaching practices in the classroom as they are expected to reproduce the school culture and the national curriculum. At the same time this shows that the school does not perceive PSTs as teachers or professionals, therefore it also becomes problematic for PSTs to see themselves as teachers.

To conclude, this study suggests that the national policy regarding English language teaching standards should be revised, and its suitability should be further explored regarding the various national teaching contexts. This study also shows how pedagogical content knowledge is as important as disciplinary knowledge, as without the former the latter becomes challenging to utilise in the classroom.

This study also suggests that future research could consider the views of pupils and in-service ELT teachers on the concept of the GLT in order to produce a richer understanding of what this could mean. At the same time, comparative studies among the Chilean regions would contribute to developing a better understanding of the GLT on a national scale.

The development of a local ELT pedagogy would better inform the current language policy and would allow PSTs and teachers to have more agency, giving them the opportunity to act wisely and accordingly in their teaching practices regarding their specific teaching contexts and needs.

In this chapter I have provided the study background, an overview of the Chilean ELT context and rationale for this study, the research questions, and I have mapped what you will find in the following nine chapters. Chapter 2 will present the Chilean context and will offer historical events that have impacted language teacher education policy in the country.

Chapter 2 The Chilean Context

2.1 Introduction

In order to explore how the GLT concept, as perceived by PSTs, has been socially and historically constructed it is necessary to review English language teacher (ELT) education in Chile. This chapter presents an overview of the ELT in Chile. To do so I will first briefly summarise key landmarks of teacher education in Chile. After that I will discuss the main educational reforms that have shaped the direction of teacher education and the ELT national curriculum, such as the Constitutional and Organic Educational Law (LOCE) and the General Law of Education (LGE) created after the return to democracy. These educational reforms set the starting point of a voucher-like educational system, while simultaneously positioning the English language as the dominant foreign language in Chilean primary and secondary education. The third and most current law to be discussed is the Inclusion legislation of 2016. This legislation aims to create a public non-profit and inclusive education. Following that I will present how the social uprising of 2019 emerged spontaneously among the population as the fieldwork for this research was being carried out at that time in Chile. This social movement had an impact on the research participants as well as the researcher.

After presenting teacher education in Chile, I will discuss ELT education and how the practicum and reflection have played as key elements in the ELT programmes courses in the past years. Next I will present how the system of accreditation of pedagogy programmes works, then move to the ELT national curriculum, its standardised testing, and the creation of the English Open Doors department from the Mineduc in charge of improving the teaching of English. A timeline table with different events and their impacts or changes on LTE, ELT teacher status or other relevant issues will be shown in order to present the information from this dense chapter in a systematic way.

2.2 Teacher education in Chile; past and present.

Teacher education in Chile dates back to the mid-nineteenth century, with the foundation of the first normal school in Latin America to train only male teachers in 1842 (Ávalos and Reyes, 2020). This three-year programme was advertised in the national newspaper of the time, recruiting male candidates who were required to be able to read and write, with good manners, in exchange for a small stipend. There were few prospective interested teachers; as Sarmiento (1899) explained, young, poor people did not know how to read and write. Furthermore, those with better

economic conditions who would be literate would not consider teaching an option as they saw being a schoolteacher as lowering their social condition. Despite this, 19 teachers graduated in the first promotion of the normal school. Later, in 1853, following the same structural model the operation of a normal school for women was approved in Congress, and the nuns of the Sacred Heart were assigned this mission (Labarca, 1939). Normal schools had a very distinctive role regarding teacher education in Chile. Following the tradition of the French *Ecole Normale*, and the model of the priest Jean-Baptiste de la Salle (Biblioteca Nacional de Chile, 2022), they were responsible of training primary school public schoolteachers between 1842 to 1974. The teacher identity of a *normalista* invited future prospects at a very early age, where these student teachers were living within the same community. Teachers who completed their studies in normal schools felt very proud to have been educated in that tradition and to have been a *normalista* (Ávalos and Reyes, 2020).

By 1878, a commission was sent abroad to learn about education in countries such as the United States and European countries. On its return, the commission critically contrasted the three normal schools of Chile with what they saw, particularly highlighting the lack of childhood development understanding, which affected the appropriate teaching pedagogy in areas such as a lack of reasoning in the teaching carried out in Chile (Núñez, 1883)

Letelier (1885), a former lawyer and teacher educator imbued with the German education system while he worked at the Chilean embassy in Berlin, encouraged the development of interest from the Chilean state in German pedagogical ideas, intending to improve teacher education in Chile (Ávalos, 2003). This resulted in creating a Pedagogic Institute aiming at secondary teacher education, which was an independent institution under the guidance of the University of Chile (and Reyes, 2020). A group of German professors were contracted to take on the teaching responsibilities at the Normal Schools and the Pedagogic Institute. In the latter, practical experiences (which had not been part of the training earlier) took place at the *Liceo de Aplicación*, which was assigned that purpose in 1892. Teacher students had lectures on practice elements, observed model lessons and engaged in teaching (Alarcón, 2011). Graduates from the Pedagogic Institute were referred to as 'state teachers', a prestigious title carried with pride.

It must be mentioned that most of the Chileans at the time were poor, except the elite groups. An issue of the time was that children's poverty resulted in school dropouts (Ávalos *et al.*, 2020). Thanks to a group of intellectuals and teachers who created an educational movement, there was an urgency to call for a compulsory primary education law to be passed in 1920. Salas (1910, p. 11), one of the leading spokesmen of this movement, stated that without universal primary

schooling “equality, as proclaimed in the legislation, is sarcasm and democracy, an impossible achievement.”

By the 1920s, Chile’s strong economy due to the high international price of the mineral nitrate benefited the passing of an educational reform in 1927 with significant changes (Serrano *et al.*, 2012). According to Cox and Gysling (1990) this reform, which started in 1928, encouraged schools to become educational communities that should involve the parents, along with teachers and students, and where teachers were provided with the freedom to experiment with teaching methods that did not need the approval of the newly created Ministry of Education (Mineduc). Unfortunately, the same year these changes were reversed and stopped abruptly due to the financial cost they implied and government struggles between the conservative and progressive positions of the Mineduc officials (Reyes, 2014). The following year would bring a global economic depression, which brought an end to the ideas of these new reforms in education.

By 1930, the depression of the previous year collapsed the national economy and poverty levels increased dramatically (Loyola, 2018). As the country began to promote internal economic development by substituting imports with national work, an interest in developing an education system that could tackle technical or vocational education needs. That is how in 1931, a decree reformed the primary and secondary school structure. Primary education was then divided into three cycles of two years where students could choose to 1) continue being instructed for three more years and receive a vocational certification, 2) continue with secondary education and prepare for attending university, and 3) continue to pursue secondary technical education specialising in agriculture, commerce, trade and applied arts (Loyola, 2018)

The need for technical graduates greatly increased, as did the number of technical schools across the country within the following two years (Loyola, 2018). This resulted in the need to prepare teachers for technical education and brought about the creation of the ‘Technical Pedagogical Institute’ in 1944, where teacher educators were prepared for occupations within the fields of industrial, mining and crafts. Regarding women, they were trained in commercial and technical activities (Ávalos and Reyes, 2020). Additionally, in 1954, to coordinate university work in the country, the Council of Rectors of Chilean Universities (CRUCH) was created (CRUCH, 2021). Today, this autonomous body comprises 29 primarily public universities, including private and partially private universities which have achieved national higher education standards.

By Alessandri’s (1958-1964) government, there was a 4% rise in educational investment to support compulsory primary education and access to secondary and higher education. Despite this, and the attempts to adapt education to the national needs by borrowing international ideas, education continued to be segregated. This led to key educators gathering and calling to enact an

integral education reform (Ávalos and Reyes, 2020). Under this context, newly created universities across the country started to prepare teacher staff for the new 8-year basic school level. Before this, Universidad de Chile had established regional branches in other cities offering primary and secondary teacher preparation. At the same time the Catholic University created two regional branches in the cities of Concepcion and Temuco, where they offered primary teacher education. This reform encouraged universities to engage in teacher preparation at all levels. With some tensions, such as the long-standing dichotomy between disciplinary content and educational aspects (Ávalos, 2003), the Pedagogic Institute and the newly formed higher education institutes continued to prepare secondary teachers of different disciplines. However, the Military regime led by Pinochet (1973-1989) made their own considerable changes in teacher education.

Before the military coup, Allende (1970-1973), continuing with previous ideas of enforcing teacher education in Chile, had promoted the idea of the 'National Unified School', which conceived education to be "national, unified, diversified, democratic, pluralistic, productive, integrated into the community, scientific and technological, humanistic and planned" (Epstein, 1987, p.24). Nonetheless, one of the first measures Pinochet took during his regime was to carry out a political and ideological cleansing of teachers, particularly in the programmes of social sciences and education (Núñez, 2002). Therefore, during his ruling, Pinochet, contrary to educators attempting to improve teacher education in Chile, aimed to prioritise the disciplinary subjects at the expense of the pedagogical focus (Cox and Gysling, 1990).

Among other consequences of Pinochet's reforms to education, there was a reduction in funding for universities, which until then were free for citizens and financed by the state. This resulted in self-finance and universal fees for university students (Núñez, 2002), leading to a free-market policy. According to Bresnahan (2003, p. 3), "Chile became the first laboratory for radical free-market experiments in the world."

It is not my aim to discuss neoliberalism in-depth in this research; however, as Gray and Block (2012) explain, on an international scale, in the 1970s, neoliberalism campaigned the idea that the state was a deficient economic player, so the market should be left to shape the economic and social world. The non-intervention of the state, and widespread deregulation of public services such as education, were the form to set free market mechanisms. From 1979 in Chile, a series of radical neoliberal reforms began to be implemented to transform public education into semiprivate or private education (Salinas and Fraser, 2012).

These reforms aimed to promote unfettered free-market policies and limited the state's role as a mediator of wealth and social sectors (Matear, 2008). These documents emphasised the 'freedom of choice' of the education user as a consumer rather than a citizen (Matear, 2006).

Regarding primary and secondary education, a new voucher-type government subsidy system was introduced to private and municipal schools, which encouraged the private sector to enter the marketplace and compete for government vouchers. Besides that, the state's role in the education system started to become reduced; local schools were transferred to municipal governments, meaning that the wealthier municipalities could afford the new challenge of administering schools more effectively than poorer municipalities. This measure rapidly promoted a stratification of the public school system (Carnoy and McEwan, 2003), whereby in 1981 there were three types of schools: municipal-government-funded schools, private schools subsidised by the government and fee-paying private schools (Matear, 2006). Many of these schools could apply a selection system to the student candidates wishing to enrol, where the selection could be made according to students' family background, family income, or grades from previous schools. These changes affected families with less education and low income as they had scarce access to better education, poorer grades on average, and therefore fewer or zero chances to pursue higher education due to their social condition. These policies disproportionately benefitted high-income families, while selective admission policies reinforced the social and academic selection process. As Brunner (1997) and Matear (2006) explain, more resourceful families have more opportunities to access a broader range of schools, where children are assured they would be more likely to enter university. Since then, public education has seen an impoverishing process and parents who can afford their children's education would opt for private or semiprivate education, turning public schools into "ghettos specialising in low-income families" (Gonzalez, 2017, p. 151). These reforms led progressively to major privatisation in education. By 1981, 78% of Chilean students attended public schools, whereas 15% attended private-voucher schools. By 2009, 51% of students were enrolled in private-voucher schools (Mineduc, 2009), and by 2018 53% were enrolled in the private system, against 34% who enrolled in the public system (Mineduc, 2019)

These neoliberal reforms also encouraged and allowed the private sector to run universities. Before the dictatorship, higher education was public and funded by the state, with a selective admission system with free tuition (Brunner, 2000; Matear, 2006). Consequently, by 2010 80% of Chilean students were enrolled in private universities (Meller, 2011). This privatisation scheme led to an increase in tuition and finance cost. By 2011, 85% of the higher education investment came from family resources, while public funds covered only 15% (OECD, 2011). These educational reforms shaped the features of a state policy, where the state responsibility for education was

limited to supervising, regulating the system and controlling the curriculum and decision making development (Ávalos and Reyes, 2020).

However, the most detrimental reform that affected teacher education in the 1980s was that teacher education programmes were downgraded to a 'non-university' label. With this, non-university institutions, known as 'professional institutes', could open teacher education programmes, and in this way began the privatisation of teacher education which exploded by the 1990s (Ávalos and Reyes, 2020). This transformation legitimised teacher education as a technical activity rather than a professional one (Núñez, 2002). This also lowered the quality of education provided to teachers and the social status of the teaching profession. Ávalos (2003) states that this devaluation was also reflected in lowering the teachers' salaries, which impacted secondary school students pursuing a teaching degree; between 1981 and 1990, there was a 55% decrease in new student teachers (Avalos, 2002). This situation caused a shortage of primary and secondary education teachers that urgently needed to be addressed. Thus, just before Pinochet ended his regime in 1990, teacher education programmes were reinstated as higher education courses by an enacted educational law. This meant that teacher education courses were again only granted by higher institutions.

To cover the need for teachers at the time, distance-learning courses were ran along with courses from private universities. According to Ávalos (2003), these forms of teaching by private institutions had little capacity to provide education quality, as there were no appropriate facilities or quality teacher educators. Students applying to teacher education programmes were registered with the lowest scores on the yearly standardised test for university admission PSU- *Prueba de Selección Universitaria* (University admission test). Moreover, some private universities did not require any minimum score from the PSU (Cabezas and Claro, 2011). All these issues continued to confirm the devaluation of the teacher profession.

As a way to re-professionalise teacher education, in 2003 a process of voluntary teacher education accreditation began at the same time that online programmes ended (Ávalos, 2014). This system of accreditation, which I will explain further in section 2.5.2, following neoliberal trends of international education, has placed a set of educational policies that aim to ensure teacher education quality and focus primarily on supporting, regulating tokens and control (Ávalos, 2014). These accreditation processes also impacted how education was delivered, and new educational reforms needed to be created.

2.3 Educational Reforms and students' social movements

As aforementioned, education in Chile adopted a state policy which became widely centralised with a uniform national curriculum. By implementing educational reforms, such as the *Ley Organica Constitucional de Enseñanza* (Constitutional and Organic Educational Law, LOCE) in 1990 and then the *Ley General de Educación* (General Law of Education, LGE) in 2009, there is an aim to on the one hand decentralise the decisions and regulation of education from entities located only in the capital city of Chile, and on the other hand increasing the efficacy, quality and equality of the educational process. Teaching philosophy was rethought and new management systems, including administrative and financial aspects, were developed.

The main underlying principle of the LOCE was to establish the minimum compulsory contents for every level primary and secondary education through a national curriculum and programmes for every subject. Despite this every school could still have the autonomy to implement their curriculum, considering the general national achievements, called Minimum compulsory contents, previous approval from the Mineduc.

Along with the announcement of this law, English became the only mandatory foreign language to be taught as demanded by the Mineduc (1990), from Year 5 in primary education until Year 12 of secondary education. That means that students have a total of eight years of English as a foreign language (EFL) during their primary and secondary instruction. The underlying reason supporting this decision is that English was seen as a tool to access the globalised world of communications, technology and especially business (Cox, 2003; Block, 2018). After establishing the English language as the dominant foreign language, human and monetary investment, in combination with amendments in public documents from the Mineduc has been made to improve the teaching of EFL in Chile (Cox, 2003; McKay, 2003; Matear, 2008; Cox, Meckes and Bascopé, 2010), such as the English Open Doors programme, which I will refer to later in this chapter.

In 2007, during the first term of the then-president of Chile, Michelle Bachelet sent a project to the Senate to pass a new educational law which came to replace the LOCE; named *Ley General de Educación* (General Educational Law, henceforth LGE), in 2009. This occurred after secondary education students demonstrated at a national level in 2006. Consequently, many schools stopped functioning normally for around three months as secondary education students took over schools. This was known as the *Revolución Pinguina*; the Penguins' revolution, as the school students' uniforms resembled penguins (Bureau, 2019; Phillips, 2019). The students' demands were highly connected to the neoliberal reforms in education that were carried out during the dictatorship and which students experienced the consequences of. At that time, students demonstrated to demand free travel passes on public transport and waiving the university

admission test (PSU) fee. The longer-term demands included abolishing the LOCE, which eventually was reformed by the General Educational Law (LGE), and the end of municipalisation of subsidised education.

As an amendment of the LOCE, the LGE involved modifications in the admission process, curriculum design and the official acknowledgement of educational institutions. The LGE aimed to terminate different kinds of selective processes schools used to possess, such as the ones mentioned above (e.g. family's social background). Additionally, the LGE introduced different ways of assessment for pedagogical improvement (LeyChile, 2009), and the beginning of a *Carrera Docente* (Continuous professional development, henceforth CPD)

The *Revolución Pinguina* of 2006 emerged due to the friction that educational reforms were presenting in the population, especially among secondary school students who wanted to pursue higher education. This issue became a topic of discussion in the political sphere and showed the population's general discontent about the current educational policies. It also highlighted how education needed to stop being mainly private and start being free to access for Chileans. However, the students' demonstrations did not cease until the massive 2011 Chilean student movement.

The 2011 Chilean student movement was one of Latin America's biggest and most original social mobilisations of the time (Taylor, 2011). Led by university students and supported by secondary education students, it emerged as a way of rejecting a 'new deal' in Education that Sebastian Pinera proposed in his first term (2010-2014), which made the public resources distribution in education more dependable on performance indicators, private and public universities compete for the resources. By the time this new deal was revealed, students of Universidad Central, a private university in Santiago, were already demonstrating to denounce that despite the fact that the LGE did not allow for-profit education, this university did not respect this norm (Cummings, 2015). This practice was just one of many other universities finding loopholes in the LGE to operate in this way (Mönckeberg, 2005). These events were determinant for the two major public universities of the country, Universidad de Chile and Universidad Católica de Chile, to lead the rejection of the government proposal and call to organise a national mobilisation against it. The demands of students included equity in higher education and more funding for public universities. In addition, secondary school students added their own demands, which were in line with the ones from the *Revolución Pinguina* (Salinas and Fraser, 2012). These demonstrations lasted for a large part of 2011. However, Pinera's administration offered partial solutions rather than substantial ones, such as more scholarships for students with lower incomes and a reduction of the student's loan interest rate (Maltrain, 2011). Nonetheless, the students' movement rejected

these measures, as they did not touch the market policy (EMOL, 2011). Although these demands were not entirely resolved in 2011, in 2012, the Chilean Congress passed a larger budget for education and some changes that might not have been considered without the demonstrations, such as scholarships for 40% of the most vulnerable students (Lustig, Mizala and Silva, 2012). Despite this, the market policy remained untouched, and scholarships just looked like a temporary fix to the situation.

With this tense environment in the educational area, Michelle Bachelet had a challenging second term where she was expected to tackle these issues. This was the historical time when she presented the Inclusion Legislation of 2016.

2.3.1 The Inclusion Legislation of 2016; A new reform in Education

The Ley de Inclusión Escolar 20,845 (Inclusion legislation of 2016) was designed and promulgated under the second turn of Michelle Bachelet's government (2014-2018). As a consequence of the students' national demands mentioned above, this legislation aims to reform the national educational system by promoting social, ethnic, economic, and religious inclusion and promoting values such as pluralism and respect for one another and civil and democratic values (Mineduc, 2017)

This law aims to eradicate the selection system in schools by three main principles; 1) End of discrimination through a selection process; 2) End of co-payment (voucher-system), and 3) End of profiting in public education. From the moment this law was promulgated, educational institutions have a period of 10 years to transition to the end of profiting in education progressively. In other words, some schools that work with a voucher system need to decide to become private or are currently being run by a *Corporación* (Corporate organisation), with state funds, and allegedly non-profit, as all the money the state provides for a *corporación* should not generate income but should be invested in the educational establishment. Currently, a *corporación* can be in charge of one or many subsidised schools across the country. As it occurred with the LGE, education profit continues as school managers or *corporaciones* continue to find loopholes within the Inclusion legislation of 2016. Time will tell if this ends after the transition of schools and the end of subsidised ones.

The underlying principles of the inclusion legislation are grounded on the tenets of the concept of inclusion, intending to offer an egalitarian education to every student, despite their social or cognitive ability or need. Consequently, students with special educational needs (SENs) now have the right to be in mainstream classrooms. Unfortunately, despite many schools claiming to be inclusive by welcoming the *Proyecto de Integración Escolar* (School Integration project), and thus

receiving extra voucher-funds from the state to provide equal learning opportunities to SENs students (Romero, 2022), in reality have not always been appropriately well managed.

The School Integration project (PIE) used to be optional for schools before passing the Inclusion Legislation of 2016. In the case of school adherence, they needed to have SEN teachers, and SEN students were usually taken outside of the mainstream classroom to work with the SEN teachers in separate classrooms. In many school subjects, including the EFL, SEN students were exempted (e.g. those with dyslexia), and their grades record was not affected by those exempted subjects.

The promulgation of the Inclusion legislation of 2016 changed the management of this project in schools, as now every school that obtains state funds has to include the PIE programme. Schools now have a PIE staff that usually consists of a social worker, a psychologist, and an occupational therapist, all separate from the SEN teachers, and every mainstream class is allowed to have up to five students with SENs (Mineduc, 2019). Additionally, PIE is an educational strategy with an inclusive approach. Having said this and considering that the concept of inclusion aims not to label students, the PIE still classifies students according to their special needs into temporary and permanent ones. Under this project, a SEN student is one that, based on their characteristics, or contextual or individual personal differences, presents some barriers that hinder their educational process (Mineduc, 2019).

Among the permanent needs (PSENs) are auditory impairment, visual impairment, intellectual disability, autism, dysphasia, and multiple incapability (e.g., deaf, visually impaired). Regarding transitory special needs (TSENs), there are attention deficit disorder (ADD), language disorder, learning disorder, low cognitive, and low adaptative levels (Mineduc, 2019, p. 22).

Despite the efforts of the Inclusion Legislation of 2016, which is still a recently implemented reform to education, it has shown that it has in fact widened the gap in education between the public and the private sector. Additionally, it has not yet been proved that the PIE tackles inclusion in mainstream schools, considering this legislation has not considered training the teachers of the different subjects who encounter an array of SEN students and, at the same time, need to be able to provide equal learning opportunities to large classes like the ones in Chile (e.g., 45 students per class). Due to the lack of training about SENs, issues when working with SEN students have not been exempted in the EFL classroom. The main reason is that SEN teachers have not yet been instructed to work under the principles of this law. Therefore, despite SEN teachers trying to support all subjects, they are only well informed to support mainly language and maths subjects. On the other hand, pedagogy programmes are just reformulating the addition of modules where SENs and inclusion will be reviewed. On the other hand, there might be reformulations on the SEN teacher education programmes to assist with other subjects.

Despite some changes in education, reaching higher education in Chile without going into debt continues to be an issue. Education continues to be demanded as free and of quality by the national population, and in fact it was one of the main demands of the social uprising that was to happen in October 2019.

2.3.2 The 2019 social uprising

This research is partly in line with the sociology of education and understanding of learning and teaching as from a sociocultural approach. Therefore, it is relevant to mention the socio-political and historical environment that framed the data collection for this study.

The social uprising of 2019 emerged as a spontaneous social movement by mid-October as a result of the inequalities and Chilean class stratification, which could also be attributed to the inequalities in education and later job opportunities. Once again, secondary students took the lead around the announcement of a raise of approximately 30p in the metro fare for Santiago. Students organised through social media during the week of the 14th to October 18th, calling for a massive fare evasion, with the slogan *“Evade, don’t pay, another way of fighting”*. Although 30p might not seem to be a big raise, the Chilean minimum wage does not exceed £400, and this country is one of the most expensive to live in Latin America. Additionally, with the introduction of neoliberal reforms, basic rights, such as health and education, are majorly privatised. Some Chilean studies have portrayed this society as mostly a middle-class society. However, by UK standards, the middle class in Chile would correspond to the working class (Leyton and Rojas, 2017).

The massive evasions grew rapidly in the city's main central tube stations, with the tacit support of tube passengers who followed students in the evasion. On October 17th, the police brutally attacked students and passengers in the tube, mainly in Santiago's city centre (Phillips, 2019). Some tube stations started to burn simultaneously. Demonstrations began and quickly spread across the country, becoming national in scope. The population ignored the imposed martial law and continued demonstrating despite their lives being at risk.

This strong movement which continued to grow rapidly and where the population of all ages engaged up until the spread of Covid-19 and lockdown in Chile in 2020, was not only due to the tube fare rise, but an array of situations that have affected Chileans as a result of the implementation of neoliberal policies in humans' fundamental rights. Among the issues were the second term of Sebastian Pinera (2018-2022) and state institutions that presented low credibility and legitimacy. Then, social issues that include Mapuche discrimination, the precarious pension system, gender inequality, and issues of water and territory (Garcés, 2019). These events

overlapped with the data collection process. It is not easy to present a systematic review of the number of issues that caused this movement, mainly because they are tied to the current national constitution, which was created and passed just before Pinochet left his mandate. However, during that time the lives of Chileans were affected socially and emotionally.

The Araucanía region, where the data was collected, has long been known for the territorial dispute that the Mapuche people, one of the indigenous groups with bigger population in the country, have had for centuries. Araucania concentrates a territorial conflict, also coined by media as 'Mapuche conflict' due to the tensions that have emerged from the demands of Mapuche lands and mega-extractivist projects that affect Mapuche communities (De la Maza, 2014). Therefore, police violence is not new to this area, especially in Araucania, where the police has received special training in countries with police forces that fight drug cartel issues in the *Guerrillas* (armed paramilitary groups) to fight the indigenous communities. Only under the second ruling of Pinera three Mapuche people died for reasons that are still unclear (BBC, 2018).

Today, as a consequence of human rights violations during demonstrations, it is known that more than 400 Chilean people have presented ocular damage, 372 of whom had ocular trauma and 33 whose organ exploded or was lost. According to the National Institute of Human Rights (INDH, 2020), the total number of injured people on January 15th 2020, was 3,694. Those numbers could be higher still when taking into account people who did not press charges.

Due to this social movement, the government had no choice but to provide Chilean citizens with the right to vote for a referendum to decide if they wanted to write a new constitution in democracy. In 2020 October, 78% of the Chilean population voted in favour of a new constitution. As a result of this referendum, in May 2021 there were elections for choosing who the *constituyentes* (people democratically elected to write the new constitution) were going to be. The outcome of this election was 155 delegates who mainly belonged to the left wing or were running independently. Elisa Loncon, a Mapuche woman, teacher of EFL from Universidad de la Frontera in Temuco, master of linguistics from Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana de Mexico, PhD in Humanities from the University of Leiden, and in Literature from Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, was chosen to be the first leader of this constitutional process (Lara, 2021).

During most of the pandemic, and with the justification to stop the spread of the Covid-19 virus, Chile was on a national curfew up until the end of September 2021. That meant that armed police patrolled streets and controlled citizens, who were allowed two weekly permits for up to two hours (i.e., going to the supermarket, pharmacy, etc.).

Had the Constitution draft been approved by the Chilean citizens by September 4th, 2022, this would have been the first gender parity constitution in the world, and in the case of Chile, with the active participation of indigenous peoples (Miller, 2021). Nonetheless, on September 4th, the constitution draft was rejected by 62% of the population. As people still voted in favour of a different constitution, the process would start all over again, taking longer than anticipated. It would be difficult to explain how this social uprising has transformed Chilean society, and it is extremely difficult to attempt to predict what would be the way forward. However, given the social movements that have emerged, if the change for a new constitution does not happen, it is likely that another social movement may emerge within the next six or seven years.

2.4 English Language Teacher Education in Chile

After having presented teacher education in Chile, educational reforms and educational and social movements, I will present the landscape of ELT in Chile and how the practicum has gained currency in the past decades.

Chile's first form of Language teacher education dates to the Pedagogic Institute's opening in 1889. Later, in 1930 Universidad de Concepción established a school of education that prepared secondary language teachers for Spanish, French and English (U de Concepción, 1930). English pedagogy used to be a three or four-year programme, and it contained subjects related to the English language and pedagogical and educational subjects. This programme model did not change much during the 20th century. The teaching model responded to behaviourist ways of teaching, and despite CLT becoming a trend in ELT in the 1970s, this did not impact the conceptualisation and teaching methodologies of ELT until later in the late 1990s as a result of the LOCE (Larenas and Díaz, 2012).

As mentioned in 2.3, the English language became the dominant language in schools as a result of economic globalisation and the penetration of international companies in Chile, where English was seen as a tool for commercial exchange (McKay, 2003; Matear, 2008; Ormeño, 2009; Abrahams and Farias, 2010).

According to (Martin and Rosas-Maldonado, 2019), the current English language teacher education programme structure has an array of modules distributed throughout the programme's four or five years. There are general education modules, English and linguistics, and language teaching modules. Additionally, a series of school-based experiences include observation at the early stages of the programme. Furthermore, programmes include a full-time school placement or last-stage practicum during the final year or semester of the programme.

2.4.1 The practicum as part of the English language pedagogy programmes.

Despite attempts to offer student-teachers practical experiences during their programme in the early years of teacher education in Chile (See 2.2), this stopped once the military regime took over and emphasised disciplinary knowledge over pedagogical content knowledge. Only in the late 1990s was the field or practicum experience introduced as mandatory in the country.

Before 2005, and under a purely applied linguistic curriculum for the formation of teachers, the practicum was only one-semester. In 2005, under the mandate of the by-then-current minister of education Sergio Bitar, a committee of 46 universities from the public and private sector with teaching pedagogy programmes met and created *an Informe Comision Sobre Formacion Inicial Docente* (Initial teacher training formation committee) (Mineduc, 2005). Representatives of education, faculty deans, programme leaders and department directors were part of this committee. These representatives drew guidelines to strengthen teacher formation, especially about how the practicum had to be structured from then on, with a unified criterion on issues such as improving the quality of education and overcoming inequality. Additionally, an important aim was to emphasise the pedagogic aspect of the teaching profession.

There was also a particular emphasis on relating the pedagogy programmes with the school context. Among the issues identified in this report were that teacher educators did not have much experience or relation with the school content and neither then had knowledge about the national curricula and educational policies. Some of these issues have been resolved, such as teacher educators being familiar with the national curricula. However as (Barahona, 2019) draws attention in her study related to the supervisory role in the practicum in Chile, many supervisors, usually teacher educators, are still unfamiliar with the school context. Another issue identified in this report was the lack of connection between the discipline of the pedagogy programme and the pedagogic knowledge, whereby they were taught one completely separately from the other.

Currently in English pedagogy programmes, despite their course structure remaining hybrid - keeping some applied science components, but at the same time, adding the school-based practice and reflection about practices (Barahona, 2016) - a better connection can be identified in them; however this remains an issue in the national context. The ITTFC (Mineduc, 2005) suggested more school-based practices to improve this connection. Ten universities, part of this report committee, reformulated their pedagogy programmes, including a significant school practical component. This report also drew attention to the schoolteacher or mentor and how their role was not much considered. It was suggested to improve the relationship between the schoolteacher and the university. Additionally, it was suggested to provide some incentive to the

schoolteacher to make their work something acknowledged. Besides, it was pointed out that the school had a key role in the PSTs' formation.

Nowadays, PSTs have more practicums where they interact with the school setting, wherein in some cases they start as early as year two of the programme (Schuster, Tagle and Jara, 2012). These practicums, usually referred to as progressive practicums, range from observation to actual teaching. According to Barahona (2016), PSTs begin their practicums as marginal members of the school community who can become full members of the community as teachers with adequate support and tools. However as of today there is still no centralised support for the practicum; the placement of PSTs in school is a random process, lacking systematic collaborative work between the school and the university (Barahona, 2016; Archanjo, Barahona and Finardi, 2019). Furthermore, up to today the role of the mentor appears to be uncertain in the practicum and is still not an active component in PSTs education.

Different models of school-based practice, which I will explain in detail in Chapter 3, have been implemented in Chile to offer PSTs some school-based experience within their curriculum (Barahona, 2016). This usually involves a placement where PSTs take on most of the classroom teacher's responsibilities, such as preparing lessons, materials, or other duties of this nature (Larenas and Díaz, 2012; Barahona, 2014). This experience usually takes one semester and lasts approximately 16 weeks. The practicum gives opportunities to apply the knowledge gained during the teaching with real students, teachers, and current curricula in a 'real-like' setting (Williams, 2009). In the national context, PSTs are usually supported by a university teacher educator who acts as a supervisor, and sometimes an experienced teacher working in the school who acts as a mentor. So far, the mentoring model applied or promoted in English Pedagogy programmes remains uncertain, although Barahona (2019) suggests that the supervisory type of supervision prevails. Based on national students' curricula, where it is established that the student should be critical (Mineduc, 2018), a reflective model meshes well with the idea of forming teachers that can promote critical thinking in the classroom. Usually the promotion of the reflective component in the PSTs' practicum is done through reflective journals (Farrell, 2019), which are generally assessed, as it is in the case of the programme where research was carried out. However it does not seem to be enough, as when PSTs are assessed in the National Diagnostic Assessment of Initial Education formation (See 2.4.2) they report the lowest scores in terms of their reflective thinking.

The practicum mentoring process is organised between universities and schools, where the university provides a supervisor, and a teacher from the school is in charge of the mentoring. The specific roles of the supervisor and the mentor are not fully clear yet and are ambiguously

articulated in the official national educational policies. Diaz Larenas *et al* (2013) , in their study about mentoring processes in Chile, outline that the Mineduc does not provide an institutional mentoring programme which makes this process unsystematic and ineffective at times.

In the university where the research took place there were supervisors from the university and the schools' teachers in charge of the PSTs class, known as host teachers, as they host these PSTs, and they do not have a mentoring role with the PST. In other cases, a mentor was granted that title as they had undertaken a mentoring course that was run by the university for three years. This was possible due to state funding existing at the time. This mentoring programme was offered to EFL teachers working in schools and some teacher educators from the programme (Schuster, Tagle and Jara, 2012). Once the funding was no longer provided, the mentoring programme ended. There are still some school mentors who work with the university. Mentors' roles comply with a supervisory and host teacher role.

2.4.2 Accreditation of higher education programmes

Regarding adjustments in higher education as a result of the educational reforms, requirements for tertiary education institutions to be acknowledged as official became more prevalent and different processes have become more rigorous. Currently public and private universities can get accredited through a process carried out by the National Accreditation Committee (CNA). According to the CAN (CnaChile, 2021) accreditation, which was progressively introduced in 2003, consists of an external evaluation process that autonomous universities must undertake when having programmes considered “mandatory accreditation”, and among these are pedagogy programmes. There are two accreditation assessments: the institutional one and the individual programme accreditation. The first one seeks to certify that the institutional project is being carried out accordingly and that the self-regulation and assurance of the quality of the institutions are being taken care of. Regarding the programmes' accreditation: this process seeks to certify their quality concerning the purposes of the programme and the criteria stated by the academic and professional community. The law of higher education (Mineduc, 2006) established that mandatory accreditation must be finished by 2020 for universities to continue having such programmes open. Having the programmes accredited, among other benefits, guarantees students who want to enrol in those programmes access to a state fund to study. Institutional accreditations last up to seven years, whereas programmes accreditation can last up to 10 years. The number of years granted would depend on the criteria met in the assessment. Nonetheless, the validity of a degree is not withdrawn if a programme is not accredited.

Apart from the pedagogy programmes having to be accredited mandatorily, in all the pedagogy programmes students have to sit for an assessment in their fourth year. This assessment is called *Evaluación Nacional Diagnostica de Formación Inicial Docente* (National Diagnostic Assessment of Initial Education formation, from now on, END). This test assesses Pedagogical content and disciplinary content standards (Mineduc, 2021). Additionally, the pedagogy programme students from this study take the C1 Advanced English test from Cambridge University (See Table 1) where proficiency in English is tested.

2.5 English Language Teaching National Curriculum

The national ELT curriculum has been under constant change since 1998. At that time the curriculum emphasised developing the receptive skills of the language and incorporating group work. Communicative language teaching (CLT) was also suggested as a methodological approach (McKay, 2003). The programmes were structured to assign 40% of the total teaching hours to reading comprehension, 40% to listening comprehension and 20% to speaking and writing skills (Mineduc, 1999). In 2009 the Mineduc made some adjustments, although the same goals of the previous curriculum were kept, and the learning of English continued to be considered a tool to access information, knowledge and technology and to be competent in a globalised world (Mineduc, 2009). This curriculum places the learning of the four English language skills equally, where the learner is expected to participate in different communicative situations to account for each skill.

Additionally, vocabulary study was added. Its contents and objectives align with the CEFR (See Table 1) as it has been the framework adopted by most countries where English teaching is practised in the outer circle (Kamhi-Stein, Díaz Maggioli and De Oliveira, 2017). According to these international standards, the English language level of students finishing primary education should be A2 (year 8), and B1 by the end of secondary education (year 12)

Table 1. Common Reference Levels: global scale

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of learned standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for options and plans.
Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Source: Council of Europe. Council for Cultural Co-operation. Education Committee. Modern Languages Division (2001, p. 24)

The Chilean ELT curriculum is compressed into two national documents: *Bases curriculares* (Curricular Bases) and *Programa de Estudios* (Study programmes). The latter is divided into two documents: one from year 7 to year 10, and the other from year 11 to year 12. The curricular bases (Mineduc, 2015) present the mandatory students' learning outcomes that students should reach during their primary and secondary education. On the other hand, the Study Programmes suggest organising the learning outcomes in the yearly syllabus. Study programmes are optional for schools to use as long as they achieve the learning outcomes stated in the Curricular Bases.

2.5.1 Standardised testing in English language teaching and learning

As a result of the educational reforms which now demanded more accountability from educational institutions (See 2.4), the Mineduc has established a series of standards for teacher

education. Regarding general teacher education guidelines, the national authorities presented the *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* (Mineduc, 2008) (Domains of Framework for Good teaching), which was created to assess teacher-students' performance in primary and secondary education. This framework has an array of criteria and indicators that teachers should be able to demonstrate upon completing their programmes. The domains to assess teacher students are divided into four, and each domain has five or six indicators (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. Domains of Framework for Good Teaching

<p>Domain A: Preparation of Teaching</p> <p>Domain B: Creation of an appropriate learning environment</p> <p>Domain C: Teaching for the learning of all students</p> <p>Domain D: Professional responsibilities</p>

Source: Mineduc, 2008. My translation

According to the Mineduc (2008), the four domains encompass different aspects related to the full cycle of teaching. Domain A is the disciplinary area, Domain B is related to knowledge about learning and development of students and knowledge of learning styles, Domain C is to do with the teaching process and creating learning situations that are of interest to the students), and Domain D focuses on the social and educational basis of the teaching profession, which involves a reflective relationship with colleagues, the school, the community and educational system.

In 2014, as a way to respond to what different participants of the educational system have requested to strengthen the quality and equity of the formative process of teachers, and in line with the university accreditation system, Mineduc and CPEIP presented the *Estándares Orientadores para Carreras de Pedagogía en Inglés* (Guiding standards for English Pedagogy) (Mineduc, 2014). These standards are divided into disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge, explicitly describing what these future teachers must know, how to teach, and which professional attitudes these teacher-learners should develop (See Figure 2). Along with this, there are guidelines to follow up on the achieved aims of formative processes. These standards align with the modifications made in the LGE, and the curricular Bases.

Regarding disciplinary standards, the teaching of English is drawn under the tenets of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, plus the collaboration of other approaches that emphasise communication. The learning of the four skills is encouraged to be taught in an integrated way. In order to achieve this, these standards emphasise the importance of reading, the process of writing, the development of learning strategies, the role of grammar, vocabulary,

and the use of ICT strategies. All of this is in alignment with international standards and contextualised topics.

These ten standards are grouped into the following topics: knowing how to communicate in English, the knowledge and skills to implement English teacher learning, the inclusion of cultural aspects that provide context, the use of physical and virtual resources for teaching English, understanding assessments, continuous professional development, and active participation in learning communities. The current version reads as follows:

Figure 2. Guiding Standards for English Pedagogy

The future teacher,

Standard 1: Understands the constitutive components of the English language and how they work and applies this knowledge to the development of English language communicative skills of their students.

Standard 2: Understands the importance of developing listening and reading comprehension and multimodality, putting this knowledge into practice as a cornerstone of the teaching-learning process.

Standard 3: Understands the importance of developing students' oral and written skills, putting this knowledge into practice as a cornerstone of the teaching-learning process.

Standard 4: Understands the importance of the integrated development of their students' communicative skills, putting this knowledge into practice as a cornerstone of the teaching-learning process.

Standard 5: Understands that assessment is a process co-dependent to the teaching and learning, informing students of achievements regarding the national curriculum and allowing modifications in the teaching practice.

Standard 6: Communicates accurately and fluently in English at C1 level (CEFR).

Standard 7: Masters foreign language teaching theories that allow them to select and apply the most effective methodological approaches and suitable strategies for the teaching and learning process.

Standard 8: Designs, selects or adapts suitable physical or virtual resources suitable for the teaching and learning of a foreign language.

Standard 9: Understands the importance of knowing and integrating the diversity of their own culture and of the English-speaking cultures or any other culture that can be accessed through the knowledge of English by contextualising this L2 teaching and learning process.

Standard 10: Acknowledges the importance of actively participating in continuous professional development opportunities and reflecting on their pedagogical practices with peers.

Source: (Mineduc, 2014); my translation.

Pedagogical standards, on the other hand, encompass the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for graduates of pedagogy programs, regardless of their subject of teaching.

In Chile, national English language assessment in secondary education began in 2004 with University of Cambridge ESOL examinations (Mineduc, 2004). This test was applied in 299 primary schools and aimed for students to reach an A1 level or 'Breakthrough' (See Table 1). As the results showed to be remarkably low, Cambridge ESOL examinations had to create two lower levels; 'Lower Breakthrough' and 'Pre Breakthrough' (Matear, 2008). In 2008 the same exam was applied to students in year 12. The test aimed for students to reach an A1 level, but results were low, leading to the introduction of lower proficiency levels (Matear, 2008). Reassessments in 2008 showed only slight improvements (Abrahams and Silva Rios, 2017).

In 2010, the Ministry of Education (Mineduc) introduced the Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación (Quality in Education Reference system, henceforth SIMCE) to assess national student performance in the English language subject. As opposed to these two subjects, the English SIMCE has used different international exams to measure students' levels of English, following the CEFR. The test chosen in 2010 was the TOEIC Bridge (Test of English for International Communication). This test positioned learners from a beginner to a pre-intermediate level of English. The official webpage states that this test aims to provide a certification of English for 'working or social purposes' (TOEIC, 2021). It consists of two sections: Reading and Listening Comprehension, each with 50 questions. The results position the examinee in a level of English according to their competencies. In 2021, the Key English Test (KET) from Cambridge University Press was used. This test focuses on level A2 of the CEFR and certifies the learner can use every day English at a basic level (Cambridge Assessment English, 2022) This exam covers the four language skills; Reading and Writing, Listening and Speaking, as well as knowledge of Grammar and Vocabulary. Although this test has a speaking section, this part was withdrawn from the test and not assessed. This presents to be arbitrary if the emphasis is placed on developing a more communicative teaching and learning of the L2.

Comparing SIMCE results, there was little difference between 2010 and 2012, with public schools consistently scoring lower than private ones (AgenciaEducacion, 2011; Agencia de la Calidad de la Educacion, 2012; Abrahams and Silva Rios, 2017).

Several factors contribute to these disparities. Stakeholders point to English teachers' focus on grammar, use of Spanish in teaching, and low proficiency in the L2, along with students' low motivation and limited exposure to English outside the classroom (Mineduc, 2019). Romero (2022) argues that social and economic factors also play a significant role. Private schools offer more English instruction hours, better resources, and qualified teachers, while public schools face resource constraints (Meckes and Bascope, 2012).

These results underscore a wide gap between private and public education in ELT in Chile. Despite English becoming mainstream in public education in the 1990s, access to learning it remains an issue. To support ELT practices and teachers, the English Open Doors unit was established in 2003.

2.5.2 English Open Doors Programme

To offer more opportunities to EFL teachers, teacher-students and school students, especially from the public sector, the Mineduc decided to create the English Open Doors (EOD) department in 2003. The EOD is an autonomous department created to design, implement and evaluate English teaching policies and concrete projects for ELT. In line with measuring students' levels of English and as a way to find alternative paths to achieve international standards, it is also in charge of increasing the quality of English language education in the country based on the standards set by the CEFR. The two English language SIMCE assessments showed that most students' scores were mainly low English levels (A2 and below), while a significant percentage of the higher scores were from private and bilingual schools (Mineduc, 2019). After these outcomes, the EOD programme concluded that the teacher's role is key for the success of English learners' students (OECD, 2011), implying that the better the command of the L2 EFL teachers had, the more likely it seemed that students would obtain better results. However, this might be an intuitive conclusion if the student's socio-economic level and cultural background are not considered factors that may impact the student's learning.

In order to support language teachers in developing their role and meeting international standards and expectations, some measures have been implemented to assist them. Some of these actions include 1) teacher training courses; 2) local English teacher's networks, 3) the provision of an English native speaker in schools, 4) free English textbooks and audio sources for all levels of English at school; 5) debate contests; 6) public speaking; 7) summer camps. There is also an international exchange program for PSTs and in-service teachers (Mineduc, 2013). Additionally, from 2014 an EFL teacher must graduate from the programme accrediting a C1 or advanced level of English. Before that, teachers were requested to accredit a B2.

Although local teachers receive the EOD initiatives well, Romero (2022) states that there has been some criticism in four aspects. These are 1) the low number of activities organised for teachers in the public sector, 2) the great focus placed on standardised tests scores, 3) the language policy and classroom implementation gap (Glas, 2008), and 4) the fact that English has turned into a commodity within the language system, where the ones who can pay can learn (Matear, 2008).

2.6 Chapter synthesis

This dense chapter has presented an overview of teacher education, the evolution of language teacher education, and the socio-political issues surrounding education policy reform in Chile. Some events that have accelerated these reforms are closely related to social movements led by secondary and higher education students, which the general population has also supported. Likewise, the 2019 social movement was initiated by secondary education students. However, it would still be problematic to attempt to predict the changes in education this movement would lead to.

Table 2 summarises the information presented and shows how some events impacted teacher education and language teacher education.

Table 2. Synthesis of Teacher Education, Language Teacher Education and Education Policy in Chile

Year	Event	Impact on LTE, ELT, Teacher status, and other relevant issues to teachers.
1842	Creation of Normal Schools	First normal School in Latin America to teach primary education. Only for male candidates.
1853	Creation of Normal Schools for females	Run by the Nuns of Sacred Heart
1889	Creation of Language teacher education programme for secondary education	First form of professional Language teacher education for secondary education in Chile. Run by the Pedagogic Institute.
1892	First form of practicum in Chile	After German ideas of education were incorporated into teacher education, the practicum becomes a component of it. Liceo de Aplicación was the first secondary school used for this purpose.
1920	Compulsory Primary Education law	Primary education become mandatory in Chile in order to reduce students' dropout.
1930	Universidad de Concepcion establishes school of education for secondary education teachers for Spanish, French and English.	Universidad de Concepcion establishes school of education for secondary education teachers for Spanish, French and English.
1954	Creation of the Council of Rectors of Chilean Universities (CRUCH)	Conglomerate of national universities, public, partially private and private, that have demonstrated and achieved higher national standards.

1973-1989	Pinochet's military dictatorship and creation of a neoliberal constitution before the referendum to go back to a democratic ruling system.	Ideological cleansing in teacher education programmes in the country. Deprofessionalisation of the teaching profession, and progressive reduction of agency due to establishing strict standards. Teacher lose their status by becoming more technicians than professionals. Teachers reach precarious and poor payment conditions. End of normal schools. The pedagogic institute becomes part of Universidad de Chile.
1989	Due to low interest in people to become teachers given the precarious conditions, Pinochet decided to take teacher education programmes back to university.	Reprofesionalisation of Teacher education.
	Implementation of a voucher system education in primary and secondary education	Massive creation of subsidised schools.
1990	Constitutional and Organic Educational Law, LOCE	National curriculum minimum compulsory contents are set.
	Return to democracy, although this does not stop the introduction of neoliberal reforms.	Explosion of marketisation and privatisation of education.
	Reforms to Language Teacher Education that align with international standards	English language becomes the mandatory foreign language to teach in primary and secondary education. The focus of English language programme still based on passive skills.
1998	Modifications to the English language national programme.	CLT is adopted more strongly, leading to the incorporation of production activities. However, passive skills such as reading, and writing still are a big part of the national syllabus.
2003	Piloting of University accreditation system by the CAN.	Standardisation of higher education, including Language teacher education programmes.
2004	First English Language standardised test applied in secondary schools across the country	Cambridge tests are used to assess primary school students. Results were incredibly low that Cambridge ESOL examinations creates two levels lower than A1.
2005	A committee of 46 national universities meet to discuss and create an Initial teacher training formation.	The gathering and discussions generated in this committee suggest incorporating more practicum experiences into Teacher Education programmes
	New modifications to the English language national programme.	LTE programmes begin to be redesigned by universities, in order to cover the English language standards and the practicum component. This redesigning leads to moving from an applied linguistics approach to teaching to a more hybrid programme. This means that the language component remains strong, however, practicum experiences are incorporated. CLT and Task-based activities revolve around this curriculum.

2006	Social movement: Penguin revolution.	Secondary students demonstrate massively across the country. University students follow. Secondary students' demands are closely related to the privatisation of education. As an example, one of their demands is to waive the fee for the University selection test. At the same time, students demand a reform to education in order to guarantee it is of free access and of quality. This sets the beginning of rethinking education in a more inclusive way.
2009	LGE (General Education Law)	Educational law that replaces the LOCE. This reform has changes regarding students' admission processes and curriculum design. It aims to terminate the schools' selection process. Continuous professional development assessment for teachers begins.
	English Language teaching curriculum changed	The curriculum adopts a communicative and task-based approach, promoting the learning of the four skills of the language.
2010	2 nd English Language national test in secondary education	TOEIC bridge test is applied in secondary schools. The results showed to be similar to the ones from the ones of 2004. The trend continued to show that students from private schools obtained better results than those from private or semiprivate schools.
2011	Chilean university students' movement.	This movement was a response of the measures taken by Pinera's government in terms of a new deal to enact the LGE. Pinera's government made the public resources in education more dependable on performance indicators. As a result, universities had to start competing for resources.
2012	University students take these educational demands to OECD representatives	Pinera implements measures to provide more funding to universities were partially done. However, these measures did not touch the market policies.
2016	<i>Ley de Inclusión Escolar</i> / Inclusion legislation reform	Reform to education that promotes social, ethnic, economic, and religious inclusion. At the same time, it promotes democratic and pluralistic values. This reform aims to terminate with profit in education and a selection process. At the same time, it aims to terminate with semiprivate schools that obtain vouchers from the state.
2017	Teacher's evaluation	Enforcement of standards to assure the teaching quality. Teachers need to be assessed at some point in their careers. There are four milestones that can be reached along the career. Teachers' salary increases when they reach these milestones.

2.7 Conclusion

It can be concluded that being a teacher in Chile has always had a low status, except just before the dictatorship when teachers graduated as "state teachers" and were taking an active part in teaching decisions. It can also be noted that Chile has always admired and been willing to adopt foreign teaching ideas, to use them and implement them in the local context.

Additionally, it can be noted how education in Chile continues to be segregated. Such is the example of the English subject and how the learning outcomes are clearly different when

comparing the public and private education outcomes. This social inequality may be enforced by neoliberal reforms in education, which have affected the access to an education of quality for all and justified the reduction of the state budget in education.

In this chapter, I have presented an overview of the Chilean teacher education focusing on the education of English language teachers. I provided a historical account of teacher education and its different conceptualisations from its beginnings. I have also discussed and presented the educational reforms and movements that were key to these reforms. Besides, I presented an account of the social uprising of 2019, as this occurred when the fieldwork was being carried out. I discussed the case of English language teacher education, referred to as English pedagogy, and how the practicum has gained relevance for ELT teacher education. In addition to this, I presented the different processes of standardisation ELT teacher education has been subjected to. I have also discussed the ELT national curriculum, the standardised testing system school students have gone through, and measures such as the EOD to support and improve the learning of students' English.

In the next chapter I explore the literature around language teacher education, which will illuminate this research in terms of how the concept of the GLT, as perceived by PSTs, is built through their teaching experiences in the practicum.

Chapter 3 Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I presented the landscape of ELT in Chile and the different educational traditions and reforms that have shaped the teaching of English in the country. Having provided this information, and in order to frame my research study about the GLT as perceived by PSTs, it is necessary to present the literature pertaining to Language Teacher Education (LTE). Until recently, applied linguistics was the core of language teacher education, as language teaching has been a key focus of applied linguistics. However, educational theory and practice have become part of this concept, developing early in the 1990s by Richards and Nunan (1990). These authors refer to language teacher education as the professional development of language teachers.

In this chapter, and linking what has been discussed in the previous chapter, I will present an overview of the international mainstream models of LTE. These are the craftwork or apprenticeship, applied science, and the reflective practitioner models. I will discuss how these models have gained currency over the past decades and their underpinning rationales, to then move to Language Teaching methodologies. Although not widely discussed in the literature of LTE, it is relevant to present the Competency-Based Language model, considering that LTE has become highly standardised in the past years and measured according to competencies. Not only that, but also considering the Communicative language teacher (CLT) approach is based on competencies.

After that, in order to understand how the concept of the GLT is framed and constructed by PSTs from a sociocultural perspective, I will present how by following current international language teaching policies LTE has gone through a process of standardisation to establish common grounds on what to expect from language teachers, and how this should be demonstrated in their teaching practice. This standardisation process has usually divided the language teacher's knowledge into pedagogical content knowledge and disciplinary knowledge. Regarding the latter, the standards are framed within the CEFR (See Chapter 2) to prove knowledge of the L2, although the CEFR is also commonly used to measure language learners' knowledge.

In light of what research has shown, various factors can either benefit or hinder the teacher's performance. Two significant concepts need to be presented to have a deeper understanding of this, as teachers lead individual lives where past experiences and trajectories are embedded. Therefore, teachers' beliefs and professional identity will be discussed to show how critical these two concepts are when learning to teach a language.

After that, I will present and describe key points and constraints of the practicum, such as PSTs attempting to teach the way they have learnt during their own formal education, namely the theory, and confronting it with the school context, namely, the reality. The practicum will raise the long-existing theory and practice gap issue.

In order to explore the gap between theory and practice, I will discuss and elaborate on the concept of dilemmas, understood as any everyday challenging decision PSTs have to make when teaching. This concept contributes to the understanding and exploration of PSTs experiences and how they build the concept of the GLT.

3.2 Language Teacher education

The term Second Language Teacher Education, coined by Richards and Nunan (1990), is used to cover the preparation, training and education of language teachers while giving recognition to the profession (Richards & Rodgers 2001). Since then, a wide range of terms have emerged to refer and to discuss the type of education language student-teachers receive, and at which stage of their career.

In this tradition of preparing language teachers, there has been a distinction between 'teacher training', which generally refers to a transference of skills from the trainer to the trainee (e.g. CELTA, DELTA courses), whereas 'teacher education' includes a deeper familiarisation with the foundations of language teaching (Pachler and Paran, 2013). These language teachers' education programmes tend to take from three to five years in many parts of the world, such as the Chilean pedagogy programmes (See Chapter 2). Therefore, I will use language teacher education (LTE) instead of teacher training, as the nature of the programme where PSTs carried out their practicum and where fieldwork was done suits the specifications of LTE better.

Teacher education includes not only PST education, which is undergraduate education, but also initial teacher training or education, where teachers can be called in-service teachers (Grenfell *et al.*, 2017), or as Farrell and Baecher (2017) call them, 'novice teachers'. Although these different separations exist at different stages in LTE literature, Farrell (2016) argues that teachers' professional learning follows a trajectory where the essential remains the same for either preservice teachers or in-service teachers. Either teacher training or teacher education programmes have grounded their teacher preparation in different traditions through the years, from those that have stressed knowledge transmission to more constructive experiential ways of understanding teaching. These traditions are known as models.

Models of LTE, which can be understood as "a way of thinking, a way of rationalising about a complex process or of presenting it schematically" (Deyrich and Stunnel, 2014, p. 85), have responded to different times in history regarding the teacher qualities and expertise, which at the same time have adapted to the learners needs. Some of these needs may be of social, national or governmental nature.

Models have responded as mediator instruments that work as a basis for teaching decision-making (Morgan and Morrison, 1999). According to Wallace (1991), three major models have been used widely in ELT: the Craft, Craftwork or Apprenticeship model, the Applied Linguistics, Applied science, or Applied Theorist model, and the Reflective Practitioner model. These models remain open to adapting and evolving according to the context and needs. In addition to those models, there is the Competency-based language teaching model, which will also be discussed in this section. This model becomes attainable to discuss as the CLT approach shares common grounds with this model.

Despite these models having gained currency at specific points in history, it is currently challenging to find LTE programmes that follow just one model. The regular trend is that programmes take some components from the four different models, and design a type of hybrid model, such as the ELT national programme in Chile (See 2.5)

3.2.1 The craftwork or apprenticeship model

This model set its foundations on observation and imitation of the experienced teacher, trying to learn teachers' 'good habits' (Grenfell, 2013). Also known as 'sitting with Nellie's, as the training consists of "sitting on the job, watching others and absorbing what they do, and so becoming slowly into the skills of a craft" (Grenfell, 1997, p. 29), in this model PSTs are encouraged to spend extended periods in the school context to gain experiential knowledge and engage in teaching by imitating their teacher mentor's behaviour (Deyrich and Stunnel, 2014), who is seen as the expert (Wallace, 1991). However, the downside of this model is that the apprentice could also pick up the bad teaching habits, or practices that may not match a different context. Additionally, this model assumes that what has worked in a specific classroom, with certain spatial and contextual issues, can suit any other classroom setting. In this regard, some scholars have refuted the idea that teaching could have a reductionist view by being compared to a craft (Myron Atkin, 1967; Stenhouse, 1975).

This model was widely popular during the 1970s, as it matched behaviourists views of teaching. Although this teaching view can be beneficial during the PSTs practicum, it may not be enough to provide an experience where PSTs can test other ways of teaching than the ones they are

observing. This view may disregard the importance of scientific knowledge and research-based theories. On the other hand, gaining experience from observing an expert teacher could be problematic if one definition of *expert* was to be provided.

3.2.2 The applied linguistics, applied science, or applied theorist model.

This has been the most traditionally used model in LTE (Wallace, 1991; Grenfell, 2013) and perhaps still the most prevalent model underlying teacher education. This model is used in LTE programmes where English language teaching and applied linguistics are the core of the curriculum and promotes that learning is acquired by applying the theoretical content in the school context. For this model, the practice is 'instrumental' (Wallace, 1991), which assumes that appropriately acquired scientific knowledge would translate into any classroom setting. From this model view, teaching works as scientific laws do; the practitioner just needs to apply the right *formula or combination* to acquire the expected learning. However, neither the practical knowledge acquired nor the contextual settings are addressed as variables for translating the theory into practice, accentuating this divide between the two (Wright, 2010). As in the apprenticeship model, this approach disregards teachers' mental lives and personal experiences, and the fact that the school setting can also influence the teaching practice. Therefore, the downfall of this model is that it tends to overgeneralise teaching principles and the foundations behind them, expecting them to work from the western world to any place it is adopted (Hayes, 2009). Consequently this model has not been able to offer solutions to various issues teacher professionals face in the classroom (Wright, 2010).

When in the late 1980s, Shulman (1987) suggested and discussed that teachers had mental lives that needed to be considered as a variable of their teaching practices, the applied linguistics model became somehow discredited as the idea of learning to teach as a socially constructed activity gained more credibility with the categories of teacher's knowledge presented by this author.

3.2.3 The reflective practitioner models.

In line with what Shuman (1987) suggested, this model's underlying idea is that teachers' professional competence develops through reflection on their own practice (Bailey, 1997) and that the teacher is continuously learning through the reflection of their actions.

Since Schon (1983) presented his seminal work, *The Reflective Practitioner* and the concepts of reflection 'on action' and 'in action', many conceptualisations of what a reflective practitioner should be emerged in fields such as psychology, philosophy and education. However, there has

not yet been a general consensus on this topic. Having said this, my intention is not to state a definition of what a reflective practitioner should be but to present similarities that build this concept in the LTE field.

Although this word implies complexity, there are some convergent concepts from different fields. Firstly, reflection occurs when reflecting upon success or failure in the classroom to find out what happened that made the class good one or bad. Through practice and reflection, the practitioner develops professional competence (Dewey, 1903; Schon, 1983; Wallace, 1991; Farrell, 2018).

One of the converging ideas is that there must be practice involved for reflection to happen. Dewey (1933) was the first to present this idea in the education field, highlighting the importance of experience to add thinking to the teachers' actions. He linked reflection to personal beliefs, which, according to him, played an important role when scrutinising teaching ideas. Later, Schon (1983) emphasised the 'professional place' for reflection. In line with the practical component, Wallace (1991), who has dedicated his research to reflection in LTE, argues that for reflection to happen, there must be two types of knowledge: the received knowledge and the experiential knowledge. Additionally, Dewey (1933), Day (1993), and Farrell (2018) emphasise that dialogue with others is a way to promote reflection. Negotiation of ideas and discussion of them is necessary to promote reflection.

Second, another idea that intersects reflection's various definitions is that there are levels of reflection, ranging from a technical level to a critical one. Generally, authors have classified these into three to five levels. Dewey (1933) described them as 'terms of thought'; Schon (1983) as 'reflection on action' and 'reflection in action'; Farrell (2018) incorporated a technical rationality previous to the ones described by Schon (1983); Hatton and Smith (1995), on the other hand, added two more higher levels, incorporating 'Reflection for action' and 'action research'. All these authors also agree that for reaching a critical level of reflection, the technical type of reflection should be managed by PSTs, and higher levels of reflection begin to build on the lower ones. In other words, the different levels of reflection do not work separately but intertwine to reach higher ones. Nonetheless, the final aim remains the same; to reach a critical level of reflection to produce changes in the practice.

Third, Calderhead (1989) and later Dewey (1933) converged on assuming there was a system of beliefs behind reflection; this has been the main reason why defining reflection is problematic. Calderhead (1989) emphasised the importance of three categories of research for reflection in teacher education: 'research on teachers and student teachers' cognition'; 'research on teacher's knowledge'; and 'research on teacher training context'. These three categories of research have set the foundations for most teacher education programmes that include a practical component,

considering the training context and practice as components to promote reflection. However, in some cases, it has been reported that the practicum could hinder the reflection process.

According to Nguyen (2017), in a study carried out with Vietnamese PSTs, she identified that PSTs might find themselves being scrutinised about their practice by mentor teachers, struggling to pass the practicum course, and trying to fit in the school context by using traditional ways of teaching.

3.2.4 The Competency-based language Teaching model

The Competency-based Language Teaching model (CBLT) emerged from the Competency-Based Education (CBE) movement. The CBE emerged in the 1970s as a way for schools and educational establishments to show accountability for educational goals by measurable descriptions of knowledge, skills and behaviours (Schenck, 1978; Docking, 1994).

The CBLT, applying the principles of the CBE, places particular focus on the outcomes or outputs of language programmes' learning, such as what learners are supposed to do with the language learnt, irrespective of how they learnt it (Richards and Nunan, 1990). This model started gaining currency by the 1970s, especially in adult teaching. By the 1990s, it was widespread and became very popular as the "standards" movement became very strong (Ball, 2012), and led the discussion of LTE and how to measure learning (Shepard *et al.*, 1993).

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), the CBLT model adopts a functional and interactional perspective of language because language is understood as a medium of interaction and communication for people with specific goals. However, this model has been criticised as measuring learning with a set of standards can be understood as a behaviourist model (Grenfell and Harris, 2017), similar to the apprenticeship model, which had already proved to be deficient in teacher training. Nonetheless, CBLT has been used as a framework for teaching languages where learners have specific needs and roles where their language skills can be predicted or determined. This view of the language, which can be analysed in parts and subparts, meshes well with the Communicative Language Teacher (CLT) approach. This approach emerged when Hymes (1972) introduced the idea of communicative competence and that language was understood as a tool to carry out performative tasks.

At that point, there was an understanding that there were two dimensions within language teaching; what we use the language for, also referred to as functions, and how we teach it.

In the following section, I will refer to the CLT, along with the grammar translation method, as these have been the two most popular approaches to teaching English in secondary education in Chile.

3.2.5 Section synthesis

In this section, I have presented the most common and widely used models to LTE. In order to present this information in a more systematised way, Table 3 presents the four models and includes information such as years when they were created, characteristics and rationale to be used, and results.

Table 3. Models of Language Teacher Education

Teaching model	Relevance	Rationale to be used	Outcomes
Craftwork or apprenticeship model	Popular in the 1970s, as it aligned with behaviourist ways of teaching at the time.	Knowledge as a future teacher was gained through observing other <i>expert</i> teachers and through repeating those same behaviours in any teaching context.	Refuted by some scholars as the view of the teaching profession is reductionist. This teaching model disregards the importance of scientific knowledge and theories of research and teaching.
Applied linguistics, Applied Science or applied theorist model	The most traditional model used after the craftwork model. Still a prevalent model in language teacher education	Scientific knowledge gained during a language teacher programme would translate into an informed and well performed practice in the classroom.	Although it is still highly used in LTE programmes, especially regarding the language component, it disregards contextual issues classrooms may present for teachers. It also disregards that teachers have mental lives that are used to make judgement of the context and help them process the scientific knowledge.

The reflective practitioner model	<p>Although this model is not generally applied on its own in LTE programmes, some components of it are used as the practicum component has become a trend in LTE, and with that reflection.</p>	<p>Emerges as a result of a new way of thinking in education, more inclined to a constructive way of teaching and learning, where personal experiences and mental lives become relevant to be able to reflect upon teaching practices.</p>	<p>Most LTE programmes around the world have incorporated a reflective component, usually linked to the practice. However, there is still no agreement of what being a reflective teacher is, as the conceptualisation of it becomes problematic.</p>
The Competency-based language teaching model	<p>Emerged in the 1970s as a way for schools to show accountability, but it became popular in the 1990s with the 'standards movement'.</p> <p>It meshed well with the CLT approach to teaching, which understands the learning of the language as competencies.</p>	<p>In the 1990s many countries adopted the teaching of English as a foreign or second language. Linked to international standards that were created to measure the learning of the language, this model fit in order to measure the language competencies.</p>	<p>English is considered a tool to interact with others and to achieve certain goals.</p> <p>It has been pointed out that this model can see the language as only instrumental, and behaviourist.</p>

3.3 Language Teaching approaches and methods

There are different approaches used in LTE. For this study, I will focus on the grammar-translation method and the CLT approach, as these two have generally been adopted in the Chilean context by language teachers.

When discussing ELT, there are many methods and approaches discussed in literature (Liao, 2000b; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Harmer, 2003) and there are clear definitions for each of these concepts, although others may use them interchangeably. Before moving forward, I will make a distinction between the concepts of 'method' and 'approach'. Concerning the differences between them, Liao (2000a, p. 1) argues that "an approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching". In other words, an approach grounds the theory and provides general guidelines in

language teaching-learning process, where a wide range of techniques can be utilised to achieve this approach's purpose. On the other hand, Richards and Rodgers (2001) identify that a method relates to fixed teaching systems served by certain techniques and practices. Therefore, the concept of 'approach' could be understood as a broader concept than a 'method', and many methods and techniques can be used in an approach (Ibid). Having said this, the Grammar-Translation method (GTM), and the method and the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach will be discussed, including their main features. Both have been the most commonly used and promoted in Chile during recent decades according to research and national programmes (Villarroel, 1997; Farias, 2000; McKay, 2003). CLT in this research is considered an approach, as an array of methods can be used to teach under its view and understanding of the language (Littlewood, 2007; Spada, 2007). GTM will be considered a method because its nature leads to specific activities and classroom dynamics (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

3.3.1 Grammar-Translation method

This method is inspired by the traditional approaches used in teaching classical languages (e.g., Latin). GTM uses the L1 as a medium of instruction, and it is not expected that the learner would have to use the L2 in communicative contexts. The main aims of this method are that students can understand and read literature in an L2 and, in this way, develop their mental discipline. The detailed analysis of grammar rules and translating sentences and texts are one of the most recurrent practices. Therefore, language accuracy is significant for this approach, and grammar is taught deductively by presenting and practising the rules. Passive skills, such as reading and writing skills are the most promoted under this approach, along with textbooks that revolve around grammar and vocabulary contents.

This method was widely used and accepted in language teaching communities. The main reason for its popularity is that at the time, the understanding of grammatical rules and the development of passive skills, such as reading comprehension, were more important. However, that changed with new shifts in education and globalisation. As a result, productive skills became more relevant to teach in ELT. This method was widely used and accepted in language teaching communities. The main reason for its popularity is that at the time, the understanding of grammatical rules and the development of passive skills, such as reading comprehension, were more important.

By the 1980s, certain methodologists proscribed this method (Krashen, 1981). Larsen-Freeman (1989) reported that despite this position being criticised by other scholars (e.g., Long (1991)), grammar took a more moderate position for the ones advocating for CLT. Despite the GTM being criticised by some, many EFL teachers around the globe prefer this method, as it is the way they

themselves learnt English, it makes teachers feel more in control of the classroom, and grammar for these teachers can be considered fundamental to learn another language (Richards and Rodgers, 2001)

3.3.2 Communicative Language Teaching approach

Allen and Widdowson (1974) argued that this approach defines language as "the rules of use as well as rules of grammar". The CLT approach has become a dominant model since the 1980s (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004). Due to economic reasons, many countries want their population to communicate effectively in English.

CLT emerged from the sociolinguistics field. Noam Chomsky set the foundations of CLT when in the 1960s, he talked about linguistic competence and performance in *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (Chomsky, 1965), where he discussed the need for a generative grammar. He stated that this grammar should reflect the speaker's competence and show the creative aspect of linguistic ability. These concepts created a different awareness of the language, where not only form was important, but function took a more important interest. Hymes (1972) then incorporated the concept of function into language. Continuing with performance and function, Wilkins (1976) thought of a notional syllabus to complement the teaching of this approach.

Sociolinguistics thought the language could produce functions, and then the field of education added the component of how to teach from a CLT approach, by helping students to eventually produce the L2.

CLT became a trendy and influential approach as it meshed well with the shift from behavioural theories to constructivist ones in teaching and learning. With this shift, interaction in learning becomes more relevant. Consequently, this aligns with the idea of developing a communicative competence and is strengthened by the importance standards have gained. However, CLT has presented to be problematic to implement in the classroom, as it has been challenging to describe it methodologically and to create a set of main components that scholars, teacher educators, and teachers agree on; therefore, its implementation has caused disputes (Bax, 2003; Harmer, 2003; Mangubhai *et al.*, 2007; Spada, 2007).

Jacobs and Farrell (2003) argued, based on research of the existent literature at the time, that there were eight main changes in teaching under the CLT approach, which are; learner autonomy, the social nature of learning, curricular integration, focus on meaning, diversity, thinking skills, alternative assessment, and teachers as co-learners. These different changes can be adopted in a stronger or lighter version under the approach. However, this new paradigm brought a whole new

rethinking of the understanding of the language, language functions, reasons to teach it, and how to teach it. This view of teaching the language is also in line with constructivists theories of learning.

The most divisive issue between adopting a hard version of CLT or a light one is the emphasis and importance on teaching grammar; for some, CLT should not include teaching grammar at all. For others, grammar plays a more important role in learning how to communicate. Johnson and Brumfit (1979) pointed out that in order to learn a language, students need to have the chance to learn it by using it. However, despite the disputes over how much grammar needs to be taught, the central idea of CLT is that students can progressively be able to produce language for communicative functions and goals.

This approach emphasises certain activities that are learner-centred, pedagogical task-based, and place a significant focus on function rather than form (Brown, 2000). Therefore, activities such as conversation, dialogues, role plays, simulations, and debates are common under this approach in order to promote communication.

Despite the use of CLT being highly recommended in most LTE spheres, teachers do not tend to put into practice one single method since they have their own beliefs about the teaching practice, while at the same time their contextual circumstances can be constraining to carry out communicative tasks most of the time. As Harmer (2003, p. 291) pointed out, every teacher “is the product of their culture, their training, their learning, and their experiences” One thing that is scarcely discussed in literature is the issues the implementation of this approach could bring depending on the contextual place to be implemented, as teachers are challenged to teach English in ways that are new to them (Fleming, Bangou and Fellus, 2011).

3.3.3 Section synthesis.

Having provided a flavour of LTE by presenting the language teaching models that are most widely used in secondary education in Chile, the CLT approach and the grammar-translation method, the discussion needs to move forward to how, having all this theoretical knowledge, a better understanding of which qualities could support language teachers in their teaching performance could be elaborated.

In order to present a clearer contrast between the CLT approach and the Grammar-translation method, Table 4 compares both:

Table 4. Comparative table of Grammar Translation Method and Communicative Language Teaching Approach

Teaching approach or method	Relevance	Rationale to be used	Outcomes
Grammar-translation method	Widely used method before the 1990s.	There was a need to read in other languages	It is expected that by learning the grammatical rules of a language, students can master it better. However, this method has shown that it is not always the case.
Communicative language teaching approach	Began to be heavily popularised in the 1990s.	Under the rationale of a globalised society, there is a need to communicate in English, mainly for economic reasons	Students learn English through using it in different communicative contexts. The emphasis is not so much on the form, but on the performance of the language function.

3.4 Towards an understanding of the *good language teacher*

As stated in the introductory chapter of this research, it is not the aim of this investigation to offer a recipe or a list of qualities or behaviours on how to be a good language teacher but to offer a comprehensive understanding of how PSTs build this concept during the practicum, and how they enact this understanding in the classroom. In the following section I will present the literature relevant to generate an understanding of what a GLT is.

As aforementioned in 3.2, until the 1970s, the study of teacher education had its tenets under behaviourist theories, where the GLT concept was understood a set of behaviours. After the 1970s, developments in cognitive psychology, the recognition that teachers played an important role in shaping educational practices, and the growing acknowledgement of limitations in quantifying teachers' behaviours led to a need for understanding the classroom and generated a tradition of descriptive and interpretative accounts of the classroom. This originated what we know now as teacher cognition: to understand teachers' mental processes regarding their teaching practice. Under the concept of cognition, there was an attempt to explore the

unobservable dimensions of teaching (Borg, 2015). However, these ideas had emerged earlier in the 1960s. Some common factors, such as development in psychology, emphasised the influence of thinking on behaviour. This placed special attention on teachers' mental lives, leading to the recognition that teachers played an active role in shaping educational processes. By the mid-1890s, some scholars began to point out that the way teachers planned their work was also shaped by their previous experiences as students (Lortie, 1975), their personal practical knowledge (Connely and Clandinin, 1988), and their beliefs and values.

In his proposal about teachers' knowledge, Shulman (1987) aligns with the shift in education from a behaviourist point of view to a constructive one. This author identified the teacher's knowledge as *subject matter*, *pedagogical content*, and *curricular knowledge*. These new notions also supported that teacher learning is also a social construction. By then, the idea of learning to teach as a socially constructed activity gained more credibility. Freeman and Johnson (1998) called for a reconceptualisation of the language teacher knowledge base, under the tenets that teachers are not 'empty vessels' and that they are central to the understanding and improving of ELT, which meshes well with the understanding of teachers' mental lives, and that their teaching practices as teachers regarding their trajectories and beliefs are key (Borg, 2003).

Borg (2015, p. 54) states that teachers' cognition is an "inclusive term to embrace the complexity of teachers' mental lives"; teachers' cognition is a multidimensional concept that is informed by other notions, such as beliefs, which he defines as "propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action and are resistant to change (Borg, 2011, pp. 370–371)

When researching the cognition of PST language teachers, Borg (2015) identified some relevant themes that emerged from this concept; the influence of prior learning experience, PSTs' beliefs about language teaching, cognition concerning practicum experiences, and PSTs instructional decision making and practical knowledge.

To sum up, language teacher education is expected to have two distinctive types of knowledge. These are disciplinary, or subject matter knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge. These types of knowledge have emerged from the discussion of what is known as The Knowledge Base of Language Teacher Education. However, this concept has been in dispute for more than 30 years. Nonetheless, this knowledge base has mainly been dominated by disciplinary knowledge, where the mastery of the English language takes special relevance.

3.4.1 Standardising LTE and the concept of the good language teacher

Although the incorporation of cognition into language teacher education was a response to the realisation that a set of behaviours was not enough to measure how good a language teacher can be, the fact that CLT was considered as part of a more significant, more constructivist-oriented shift in language teacher education, came to reintroduce behaviours as competences as a way to standardise LTE.

By the mid-1990s, with the progressive introduction of neoliberal reforms in many parts of the world (Ball, 2012), there was a major turn back to the CBLT model as it meshed well with the idea that achieving a set of observable behaviours can prove the good qualities of a teacher. These measurable behaviours were now called competencies (Freeman, 2002). According to Verloop *et al.* (2001), students' achievement could improve by measuring teaching behaviours, which are reflected in students' scores. Additionally, this information can serve to train teachers concerning these desirable behaviours.

One example of standardisation is the U.K. in late 1980s, where there was a political campaign to discredit teachers as they were gaining too much agency and blamed for the raising of counterculture groups in the country; new policies in education were rethought, where not much space for teachers' individual agency was allowed (Ball, 2012). New ways of assessing teachers and students were created too. This example portrays the main issue with standardising to measure and test teacher education and learning; teachers lose agency as they need to follow a national curriculum.

As described in Chapter 2, Chile went through a similar process of de-professionalisation of teachers, where accountability also emerged as the new way to measure them. This is not different from the teaching of English, especially as this is the language of economy, trading, and globalisation. Therefore, international ways to standardise it and test it emerged.

3.4.1.1 Disciplinary or subject-matter knowledge.

According to Freeman (2017) subject matter knowledge, in this case the mastery of the English language and its constituents, is one of the most important types of knowledge English language teachers are expected to have. This common thinking has led to a division between native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) in the ELT world.

According to Block (2014), there is an underlying belief that NS are better teachers than NNS because they have better knowledge of the language and, therefore, teaching methodologies. Holliday (2006) calls this 'native-speakerism', which is defined as:

"a pervasive ideology within ELT, characterised by the belief that *native-speaker* teachers represent a 'Western culture' from which spring the ideals both of the English language and the English language teaching methodology" (p.386).

It can be accounted that this may be one of the reasons why the Applied Linguistics model has strongly persisted in ELT programmes; despite an extensive body of research that argues that it is practically a myth that an NS would necessarily be a better teacher, this belief is still very predominant in English and non-English speaking countries (Gray and Block, 2012; Block, 2014; Banfi, 2017).

The ideas that the more accurate the language teacher and the greater their mastery of the English language is the better the teacher will be, are also grounded on the significant emphasis placed on these skills when assessing PSTs and in-service teachers with standardised tests, as well as the emphasis the language skills are given in many university language teacher programmes.

Despite recently incorporating the school-based practice and reflective components, language teacher education programmes focusing on the English language (L2) skills are still very predominant in many parts of the world, especially when the teacher is a NNS. In Chile, English Language and English grammar tend to be the main courses in these programmes, largely due the fact that most students that start an English pedagogy programme lack a basic level of English (Abrahams and Farias, 2010; Barahona, 2016). Abrahams and Silva Rios (2017), who discussed the challenges in EFL teacher preparation in Chile, strongly believe that the preservice programme provides most teaching skills, meaning the linguistic skills the CEFR can measure. In this statement, the relevance that is placed on the linguistic features of future teachers reflects how important this is to define how prepared an EFL teacher is to teach the language over the pedagogical content knowledge.

As a way to legitimise the knowledge of non-native EFL teachers, the Common European Framework for Reference and Assessment (CEFR) has considered the way to prove the language teacher's subject-matter knowledge, namely the knowledge of the English language (See Chapter 2). The CEFR was created in Europe, and it draws its tenets from the European language portfolio (ELP). According to Little (2002), the aim of this portfolio originated in the 1990s, with the idea of designing a European system for second/foreign language learning by adults and a commitment from different countries in Europe to cultural exchange and promoting learner autonomy. This framework rapidly spread across Europe and other parts of the world as it could be used as a 'standards-based assessment' (Fulcher and Davidson, 2007). The CEFR aimed at promoting and facilitating cooperation among educational institutions in different countries within the European

Union, providing a sound basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications, assisting learners, teachers, course designers, examining bodies and educational administrators to situate and coordinate their effort (Grenfell, 2013).

Although the CEFR has been criticised for being used in outer or expanding circles of English (Kachru, 1992) - as it could lead to misinterpretation given the lack of contextual understanding from these countries (Kramsch, 1986) - and for reducing 'diversity and experimentation' in language pedagogy (Davies, 2008), Chile adopted this framework with the introduction of the EOD programme (See 2.5.1). This adoption occurred by the time English became the mandatory foreign language in all schools. However, this framework has been adopted without questioning or evaluating its implications for the national context. In this country, the use of the CEFR can be accounted as a way of introducing foreign methodologies to the country and a way to obtain help in the teaching of English from institutions such as the British Council or the United States Embassy. Thus, this measure seems to be more strategically political than educationally informed.

PSTs who do not meet the expected outcomes of the CEFR (C1) in Chile may equally start working as qualified teachers in the educational system. This is not the case in Ecuador, where in 2014 teachers were assessed with a TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) examination. Out of the 4,500 teachers assessed, 2% obtained a B2, which qualifies them to teach in schools. This resulted in a set of initiatives to improve EFL teachers' English levels. One of these initiatives promoted that those teachers who met the B2 requirement could replace the ones who did not meet the expected standards, resulting in the redundancy of those teachers (Kuhlman *et al.*, 2017)

Considering the constraints this assessment brings to non-native language teachers, Miranda and Echeverry (2011) suggest that the Colombian system, which in some ways could be similar to the Chilean or Ecuadorian one, should focus more on improving local contexts than incorporating international standards like the CEFR. In line with this, Torres- Martinez (2009) argues that the government plans according to international policies and forgets about local contexts. European and Latin American contexts differ, i.e., when considering reasons for being bilingual, educational systems or mobility factors, and resources to travel abroad. Therefore, these differences should be considered when teaching the language.

It should also be pointed out that, despite the new trends on LTE promoting the CLT to teach and learn English, the tests that are related to proving the language proficiency have a significant focus on the grammar and vocabulary of the language, i.e., Cambridge English tests, TOEFL, IELTS.

3.4.1.2 Pedagogical knowledge.

Pedagogical content knowledge has generally been fed by the ideas of teacher education. It started gaining currency initially with the work of Shulman (1987) and his notion of 'pedagogical content knowledge', which comprised the integration of content and pedagogical knowledge, and later with the research of Borg (2003), on teacher cognition, as the behavioural line of action became questioned since it lost sight of the complexity of the teacher's behaviour by not considering their mental lives (Verloop, Van Driel and Meijer, 2001)

During the shift of paradigms in teacher education, Freeman and Johnson (1998) called for a reconceptualising the knowledge base in ELT, where the social context of the learning to teach is positioned as relevant. This issue was discussed widely in LTE. However, there have not been many substantial changes in the way teachers are trained, measured and assessed. Nonetheless, due to the attempts to reconceptualise LTE, school-based practice as experiential learning has been incorporated to most language teaching programmes, as well as the reflective component.

Although the standardisation of LTE has contributed to finding common grounds on what a GLT should be, the achievement of these types of knowledge would not necessarily correspond to what a GLT is. Early studies on the GLT (See Girard (1977), Prodromou (1991) Prodromou (1991), Brosh (1996)) had already shed light on other characteristics, such as personal characteristics, teachers' attitudes, and looking friendly that may also impact on the learning of students, that could be as important as the knowledge of and command of the L2. Literature reports that characteristics such as being friendly, using games and humour (Borg, 2006), personality (Witcher *et al.*, 2003), and encouraging students to be independent are among the most valued ones.

In general, the standardisation of pedagogical content knowledge would group behaviours and attitudes a language teacher should have, grounded under the tenets of learner-centred constructivist learning, where the teacher is seen as a mediator of the learning process.

Possessing the pedagogical content knowledge and the disciplinary knowledge is one thing. However, when it comes to operationalising this knowledge in the classroom, teacher students present differences, which can make them more or less successful than other peers. As Borg (2003, 2015) has pointed out, cognition is one crucial aspect to consider how teachers' mental lives influence how they operationalise their knowledge. In line with this, two notions seem to become relevant to understand and make better, well-informed decisions when teaching. One of these notions is teachers' beliefs and teachers' professional identity.

3.4.2 Language teachers' beliefs.

Beliefs have long been an important aspect in the learning and teaching of LTE (Peacock, 2001; Phipps, 2009; Borg, 2011), and a primary goal to study. Although it has been reported that they do not change rapidly, there can be a positive influence on PSTs' cognition from the teaching programme experiences, the LTE models, the interactions on the programme, the relationship among the participants, and the emotional conditions under which LTE is carried out.

According to Wallace (1991), when students enrol in a teaching programme they already possess certain beliefs about teaching. Lortie (1975) suggested that this occurred during what he called the apprenticeship of observation during teacher-students time as learners. Beliefs can be understood as cognitive structures that represent feelings of certainty that people hold regarding the meaning of a specific context (Hamilton, Stroessner and Driscoll, 1994). Therefore, these structures act as a filter for the incoming information the person is about to process. In this way the individual is able to analyse, classify, and interpret this new information.

Additionally Hamilton, Stroessner and Driscoll (1994) explain that cognitively speaking, beliefs would be coherent explanation systems that would allow the person to understand social events experienced. In an attempt to explore the concept of beliefs in teacher education, Pajares (1992) summarised his findings into sixteen main points. Among those points, he concluded that teachers' beliefs could eventually influence their behaviour in the classroom (Abelson, 1979; Brown and Cooney, 1982; Bandura, 1986; Clark and Peterson, 1986). Additionally, he found that belief structures are connected to more central beliefs (Kitchener, 1986; Peterman, 1991) and that beliefs tend to hold in adulthood, even after people have been scientifically given the correct explanations to reject those beliefs (Abelson, 1979; Lewis, 1990).

Marcelo García (2002) argues that three experiential categories would impact the construction of beliefs. These are personal experiences, formal knowledge experiences, and school and classroom experiences. Personal experiences would be how PSTs learned or meaningful learning situations; this accounts for the previous experiences before formal training (Brown, 2004). Formal knowledge would be the formal instruction received in formal settings, such as the instruction received at university, and classroom experiences would be what PSTs experience in the practicum. Despite beliefs usually remaining and resisting transformation, PSTs could still change or modify their teaching beliefs upon reflecting on their own practices or new teaching experiences that emerge from the teaching practice.

This is where reflection plays a relevant role in changing beliefs. Although some authors differ on how the different levels of reflection (See 3.2.3) could or could not influence the transformation

of beliefs, it is clear that reflection is necessary for teachers' identity construction. According to Lewin and Stuart (2003), it is necessary to practice the teaching activity for reflection to happen. These authors' survey of initial teacher education in several developing and transitional countries reaches the same broad conclusions: the learning experience of student teachers should be the focus of reform in initial teacher education (Wright, 2010).

Although the reflective component in most teacher education programmes has gained currency in order to modify pre-existing beliefs linked to traditional theories of LTE, there is evidence that they do not change much during this period. In a longitudinal 3-year study carried out with Greek PSTs, Mattheoudakis (2007) reported that these LTE PSTs' existing beliefs did not change much, even after the school-based practice. This author attributes this to the PSTs' need to stick to the central curriculum, which sometimes cannot be completely related to the LTE programme. In addition to this, during the school-based practice there can be a lack of opportunities for reflection with the supervisor or mentor, which can also affect the outcomes. Nonetheless, this study showed that some beliefs could be identified, especially in procedural knowledge courses. Therefore, it could be argued that in programmes with more experiential and constructivist learning experiences, there may be a significant impact in shifting student teachers' (STs) beliefs. This author also concluded that STs' initial beliefs about the importance of grammar and vocabulary remained strong in her participants. On the other hand, some studies show that LTE can impact language teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2011).

Beliefs are closely related to language teachers' professional identity, which is the second relevant notion to discuss when it comes to attempting to understand the concept of the GLT

3.4.3 Language teacher professional identity

The teacher's identity has been widely researched in teacher education in the past three decades, as it is considered an important tool for understanding and studying issues of theory and practice in teacher education (Gee, 2000).

According to Hall and Du Gay (1996) the identity concept evolved from the eighteenth century into a concept that involves a more sociological understanding, considering the current social and geographical mobility. He states that "identity is formed in the 'interaction' between self and society" (1996, p. 276). In line with this, Weedon (2004) states that identities could be assumed to be the product of social, cultural, or institution instantiation. In turn, Hall *et al.* (2002) establish that identity is a social construction that reflects each individual's social, historical, and political context. Thus, social, historical and even political contexts play a role in personal identity (Gray and Block, 2012). In this respect, just until recently, social class was

not considered part of identity; however, Gray and Block (2012) argue that including this aspect to identity can be linked to society's material and economic base. Akbari (2008) argues that the international academic discourse is often unaware of the realities of teachers living in other parts of the world, such as Iran. As one of the language teachers researched, who reported to work extensive hours and been poorly paid, putting bread in the table for his family was his priority, enacting with the identity of a social transformer as this role would only jeopardise their precarious means of subsistence. In the same vein, Block, Gray and Holborow (2012) have stated that minimally qualified language teachers in the global commercial sector work in very casualised conditions. Sayer points out that class identity is different from other identities:

“Low-income people are not disadvantaged primarily because others fail to value their identity and misrecognise and undervalue their cultural goods, or indeed because they are stigmatised, though all these things make their situation worse; rather they are disadvantaged primarily because they lack the means to live in ways which they, as well as others, value”.

Defining a teacher's identity is problematic. In this study when I use professional identity or teacher's identity I would be referring to the same concept, which in this case both are linked to the practical pedagogical choices and decisions that frame a teacher's identity. This does not mean that the personal identity of PSTs can be put aside. However, the main focus would be on professional identity. In order to understand the experiences of PSTs it is necessary to consider those different aspects of identity that interact in order for each PST to create their own teacher identity (Brown and Miller, 2006). Malderez *et.al.* (2007), who carried out long-term research to explore PSTs motivations, preconceptions and expectations of teaching and learning to teach at the early experience of their programme, found that teachers from past and present shape teacher's identity, the relationships with significant others in teaching, the relevance of the teaching programme, and the emotional dimension of the programme. Malderez *et.al.* (2007) suggested training that could model reflective processes and closer relationships in training. She also suggested that LTE programme structure needed to have enough theory to inform practical teaching experiences.

However, it needs to be pointed out that research has also shown that, as professional identity is inherent to people performing teaching but is at the same time socially constructed, teachers need to consent to an identity when becoming a teacher. Morton (2018) reported that, especially when becoming a language teacher, there may be many compromises the PSTs do not want to commit to as they are against their personal identity or beliefs. Considering

becoming a teacher is recognised by others (e.g., the state, teacher educators, schools, students) and inhabited by the teacher as an individual, during induction to the job the teacher could experience “a kind of ontological upheaval which is frequently painful” (Morton, 2018, p.20). Considering standardisation in education has been the trend since the 1990s, the nature of the teacher’s professional identity is greatly already determined by educational policies.

However, identity has proven to be a helpful concept when exploring changes of the self and the negotiation of a long-term investment in new subject positions. Britzman (2012) reported that her participants survived the early stages of the teaching practice by not accepting to inhabit an identity they believed were being forced to assume. This study showed how PSTs tend to fight and reject their professional identities when they feel they are being forced to assume roles they have not yet negotiated for themselves.

Apart from the national policy, which shapes language teachers' identity significantly, in the case of PSTs the context to negotiate their professional identities could be even more complex as they are being assessed by the schoolteacher, mentor or university supervisor. It is very common that the schoolteachers and the university supervisors may have different points of view in teaching (Grossman, Smagorinsky and Valencia, 1999), which would exacerbate the PSTs issues when negotiating their professional identity.

In addition to that, one particular characteristic is distinctive in language teacher education: being or not a native speaker of the language. The knowledge of the language becomes extremely influential in terms of building professional identities.

3.4.3.1 Non-native teacher's identity.

There is an extensive body of research about the NS and NNS identities. This is partly for the reasons discussed in which the mastery and knowledge of the language have validated language teachers as teachers. This belief persists even though most of the interactions using English nowadays are not between NNSs (Jenkins, 2002). Brown and Miller (2006) claim that the acceptance and spread of this belief rely mainly on educational institutions which promote a standard language ideology, which marginalises NNSs.

On a similar note, in the Chilean context the fact of using international exams aiming for the foreign language teachers to be as proficient as native teachers by being measured using the CEFR framework, and expecting graduate teachers to obtain a C1, may also be accounted for the value that is given to the proficiency factor. In the case of Latin America, studies in countries such as Chile (Barahona, 2016), Colombia (Viáfara, 2016), Brazil (Denardi, de Souza Machado and Camilotti, 2017), and Mexico (Mora, Trejo and Roux, 2014) have revealed that the PST’s identity

conflicts and feel diminished because they cannot reach the 'native-like' accent or proficiency. These diminishing feelings affect PSTs' professional confidence. However, the same research reports no fears are expressed with regards to their teaching methodology. It is usually thought that NNS teachers possess a better understanding of the grammar of the L2 (Viafara, 2016). There is no intention in stating that NNS teachers may not present difficulties in the methodological area. However, the critical issue is how the PSTs proficiency level takes all the importance around their teaching practices, so they may be unable to explore other areas such as the pedagogical ones, which causes a problematic relationship between the subject content knowledge and the pedagogical knowledge of language teachers.

One way of assisting in building a professional identity gradually is through the school-based practice or practicum. In Chapter 2, I presented how Chile, based on international trends, has adopted different ways to offer PSTs school-based practice. In the following section, I will discuss how the practicum has begun to be implemented worldwide for the teaching of English.

3.5 The practicum

Apart from the university, another setting where teachers learn to teach is in the school. The school and its context are directly related to the implications of the LTE curriculum as a teacher knowledge base, and teacher learning experiences must consider the social, political, economic and cultural histories that are determinant of the place where teachers learn to teach (Johnson, 2009).

The school-based experiences may be found integrated within LTE programmes in different ways. These experiences range from the type of indirect learning, such as researching school documents, experiencing teacher educators as models, or from microteaching to direct classroom-based learning environments such as teaching as practicum, or action research (Legutke and Ditfurth, 2009).

From the school-based experiences aforementioned, microteaching has been taken out of some programmes, as considered behaviourist. However, other programmes adopt it, adding the component of reflection (Farrell(2008). In line with this, reflection has been a component in many LTE programmes that have incorporated school-based practices, especially the practicum. This component is considered one of the most important during teacher formation (Farrell, 2001; Crookes, 2003) and is highly valued by PSTs (Bullough Jr, 2002) as they claim they get familiarised with the school, teachers, students and current curricula. The practicum sits on the direct classroom-based learning environment (Legutke and Ditfurth, 2009) as it is usually understood as an authentic setting (Ngyyen, 2017) for practising (i.e., observing real students, getting

familiarised with the curricula), although it could be argued that despite the opportunities the school-based practice could offer, it is still an artificial setting for the practical experience of teaching. Despite this, the practicum places the PSTs as central participants of a community, where knowledge is used, developed, and mediated through the teaching practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991). In line with this, Pennycook (2004) sees the practicum as the place to consolidate the new knowledge from the programme with personal history and the realities of a teaching setting. This is an initial chance for teachers to engage in social practices and shape their views of teaching and practice. From the point of view of Lave and Wenger (1991), PSTs start this experience from a peripheral position, and with support and appropriate tools they eventually become full members of the school community.

It is assumed that the practicum can allow PSTs to make informed decisions about their teaching practices and reflect upon them. However, despite it being a highly valued component of teaching programmes, it is a complex activity with multi-layers that involves different participants, settings, and actions (R. Dobbins, 1996; Mattsson, Eilertsen and Rorrison, 2011).

Despite the practicum being considered as a place where PSTs learn to teach, and how it highly valued by them, it has been argued that the practicum does not necessarily mean that PSTs will be better prepared (Nguyen, 2017) since not all the school-based experiences are always educative or as ideal as expected (Dobbins, 1996). The learning to teach does not occur spontaneously during the practicum. Some of the issues that emerge during this process can be the lack of clarity of the supervisor and mentor's roles during the practicum (Barahona, 2019). In a 4-year research carried out by Dobbins (1996, p. 60), who investigated the final practicum of Australian teacher trainees, PSTs recounted their experience as going through a variety of "contradictory messages, incongruous expectations and a plethora of emotions". She also pointed out that PSTs claimed to feel depowered from their role as a teacher, and that the school and the university mainly controlled them. There is constant friction: on the one hand having prescriptive requirements by the university, while on the other hand the school has its own expectations about PSTs, with the two sides not always being in alignment with each other. In the study mentioned above, the PSTs who participated claimed to feel in a low status compared to the schoolteachers. This study revealed that most PSTs tended to change their practices learned at university and accepted the ones the mentor imposed. Additionally, most of this PSTs' behaviour is aggravated by their lack of practical experience. In their study with novice teachers, Tochon and Munby (1993) identified that novice teachers, who could have a similar experience to that of PSTs, are much more rigid in the way they plan their lessons. That is, it presents to be difficult for them to adapt their lesson based on the contextual circumstances encountered in the classroom.

In a more recent case study conducted in Chile by Barahona (2019), it was observed that teacher educators in their role of supervisors in different universities, mostly hired as free-lance, reported not having had an induction to perform that role. Additionally, most of them had not had much school experience themselves. Moreover, Barahona reports that national language teaching programmes are not very clear on the role of the supervisor and what is needed to perform it. In general, these supervisors performed many tasks that the university did not explicitly require for them and adopted a more directive supervision style since it was unclear how to take a more mediative role, where reflection and collaborative work could be performed. In regards to this, Burns, Jacobs and Diane (2016), suggest that supervisors should have tasks as of pastoral care and professional development, which would eventually lead to critical reflection and collaborative work (Dobbins, 1996), but that they generally continue to have a role of evaluators and quality assurance.

Regarding the schoolteacher (in this study referred to as host teacher) or mentor, some of the issues PSTs have reported are their lack of support (Zeichner, 2010). This is related to the mentors seeing themselves mainly as a model to follow, rather than a mediator (Sundli, 2007). In many cases, a lack of coherence between a programmes' curriculum frameworks and the practicum can be found, causing a separation between the school context and what has been learnt at university (Legutke *et al.*, 2009). (Nguyen, 2017) In the Chilean context, the concept of mentoring has been discussed but there is no clear agreement on the concept or way to operationalise it (Barahona, 2016). Some features of mentoring can be observed; however no one has the role of 'mentor' during the Chilean practicum for PSTs. The host teacher may be asked to adopt some mentoring duties, but their role is not very relevant during the practicum.

In any case, some authors have tried to emphasise that the practicum should be considered as the starting point of a learning journey, and professional development (Groundwater-Smith *et al.*, 1996; R. Dobbins, 1996; Goodfellow and Sumsion, 2000; Hastings, 2010) supports the idea that learning to teach is an ongoing activity (Johnson, 2006). However, most of the time PSTs do not feel or experience this as a learning journey. They rather experience it as a placement full of doubts and expectations from others (Dobbins, 1996). Motivation from PSTs has been reported to decrease when they face a reality they do not feel professionally prepared to confront, and when they lack support in the induction to this setting (Farrell, 2007; Barahmeh, 2016; Alamri, 2018). In addition to this, PSTs can have the feeling that their profession is seen from a utilitarian perspective (Dobbins, 1994), understanding that after reaching milestones and passing tests, they will be over it. Additionally, Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) proved that several notions and educational concepts that were developed in the teacher education programme of PSTs were

'washed out' during the field experiences. This leads to one of the main issues still unresolved in LTE: the issue of the difference between theory and practice.

3.6 Theory and practice in Language teacher education

More than a hundred years ago, Dewey (1933) already identified the issue between theory and practice as a critical one. When a body of psychological and pedagogical knowledge emerged by the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, education became more scientific (Korthagen, 2001). LTE models, such as the applied science (See 3.3), emphasised the delivery efficacy, and failing in teaching was considered to be a failure in acquiring what was taught in the programme. This view overlooked teachers' mental lives and the social, cultural, and historical contexts where they learn (Shulman, 1987; Borg, 2003).

However, after realising this was not enough for teachers to perform appropriately as such, new discoveries from psychology contributed to teacher education, such as the sociocultural theory. Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist, was the first modern psychologist who suggested how culture becomes part of each person's nature (Vygotsky, 1978). His sociocultural theory has been extremely influential in education and in LTE. This stance has led to a reconceptualisation of language teaching and learning regarding school practice through the years. At the same time, it has highlighted the importance of the social, cultural, and historical dimensions present in the teacher learners' settings where they learn to teach (Grossman, Smagorinsky and Valencia, 1999; Johnson, 2006, 2009; Gray and Block, 2012). Lantolf (2004) argues that the Vygotskian cultural-historical psychology, which is usually called sociocultural theory in the field of applied linguistics can offer a framework that can be used to investigate cognition systematically, without leaving the social context aside. As Lantolf (2004:30-31) explains:

"...despite the label *sociocultural* the theory is not a theory of the social or of the cultural aspect of human existence...it is, rather, ...a theory of mind...that recognises the central role that social relationships and culturally constructed artifacts play in organising uniquely human forms of thinking" (Sociocultural Theory and the Genesis of Second Language Development"

Introducing the sociocultural perspective in language teacher education found a convergence point with the reflective model. This turn interconnects well with constructivist education ideas and legitimises the emphasis on reflection about the prior knowledge teacher-learners bring based on their previous learning and teaching experiences into LTE programmes (Johnson, 2006). At the same time, Johnson (ibid) addresses the importance of considering the broad social and political context where LTE takes place and its influence in the teaching practice.

However, the issue of theory and practice has long been identified and it still seems difficult for language teacher education programmes to address it. The contradictions PSTs encounter between the theory (namely what they learnt at university about LTE) and the practice (namely their school-based practice) is one of the issues that leads to a number of teacher's dilemmas.

3.7 Dilemmas in Language teacher education

Billig *et al.* (1988), explored dilemmas from a social psychology perspective. He pointed out that the constraint of the dilemma itself does not only account for the unfavourability of the result. These authors call these constraints 'ideological dilemmas', where human thinking is understood as dilemmatic and inherently social. In line with this, one constraint they notice is the fact that commonly social psychologists have generally restricted their attention to individual choice-making when referring to dilemmas, reducing the complexity of a dilemma by not incorporating the social dilemmatic aspect of them. These authors argue that some dilemmatic aspects of thinking involve the leading system of beliefs and values accepted by the society where this dilemma occurs.

Usually traditional and more progressive ideas are confronted in education, namely teacher centre, transmission-oriented ideas, student-centred, constructivist-oriented ideas, etc. In LTE, in practical terms, this can be understood as the gap between more grammar-oriented views of the teaching of English and approaches that promote the learning of English through communicative settings, namely CLT or task-based learning. Therefore it can be problematic for teachers to adhere to a different teaching theory or position on education, only based on the argument that it would be better for their experience (Bennett and Jordan, 1975). In reality teachers must accomplish the practical tasks of teaching, which require them to carry out this activity with underlying practical constraints (i.e. physical resources, number of students, time constraints, set syllabi). Generally, despite these practical constraints, due to standardisation there are clear ways or ideologies on how to teach and what to teach in order to comply with certain outcomes.

The issue of traditional views (behaviourism) of teaching and more progressive ones (constructivism) creates dilemmas for language teachers when confronted with the school context. In the particular case of LTE, one constraining issue, especially for NNS teachers, seems to be a strong belief that as long as a language teacher has a proficient level of English, it grants them success when teaching.

In this study, a dilemma would be aligned with Grenfell's definition as "those dichotomies of thought and action that are never really resolved" (Grenfell, 1996, p. 227). This perspective also

takes into account what Billig *et al.* (1988) state: that dilemmas include a social dilemmatic aspect, where the individual system of beliefs plays a role in making individual decisions.

In an attempt to analyse theoretical constructivism in practice, Windschitl (2002) created a framework of dilemmas to elucidate them as this overarching paradigm has presented difficulties in being implemented as a more progressive view of teaching. He categorises these dilemmas into four; conceptual, pedagogical, cultural, and political.

Regarding conceptual dilemmas, Windschitl (2002) argues that the degree of understanding of the concept of constructivism presents to be problematic for teachers. Being that constructivism is a theory of learning and not of teaching, where teachers have reported not to have many chances to enact with this theory and transform it into a practical way, it presents to be challenging for teachers to break the traditional educational models they were instructed with. In a study carried out by Oakes *et al.* (2000) in the United States with 16 schools to explore the shift of educational reform, it was shown that despite efforts done to succeed in this, policymakers, educators, and parents still hold traditional ideas of teaching as the transmission of knowledge and learning as receiving it.

Windschitl (2002) states that pedagogical dilemmas are those related to developing new perspectives of instructional expertise, although he acknowledges that this even presents to be problematic for experienced practitioners. One main issue is that even the 'progressive teachers' might not be far from the more traditional practices (Newmann, Marks and Gamoran, 1996). In the case of LTE, one pedagogical dilemma could be related to the attempts of educational policies to promote the teaching of English from a more communicative way, with approaches such as CLT, or task-based models; however, in most cases, traditional ways of teaching, which are more related to grammar, and the learning of passive skills of the language over productive ones persist.

Another issue that Windschitl (2002) identifies is that, following constructivist ways of teaching, the way lessons are carried out have to be completed rethought as the reason to make certain decisions in relation to this are often not very clear, therefore they do not accomplish their purpose. However, most importantly, it seems that there is no deeper understanding of the rationale to choose certain activities within the lesson. Such an issue related to this is organising group works or pair work expecting to facilitate support strategies to students' understanding. Within this type of organisation, there are implications such as the more advanced student could help bridging the understanding of the less advanced student. However, for this to happen, and considering students have been socialised into traditional ways of learning, teachers must develop strategies in order to socialise students into these new ways of working (Hatano and Inagaki,

1991). Another challenge for teachers within pedagogical dilemmas is that they need to clearly understand how knowledge can be created within the discipline being taught (Windschitl, 2002). As Shulman (1987) indicated, in order for constructivist ways of teaching to support problem-solving, the teacher must be familiar with the principles underlying a topic and an array of ways in which students can explore these principles.

Moving on to cultural dilemmas, Windschitl (2002) establishes that these dilemmas are related to understanding the classroom as a culture. Issues related to these dilemmas are framed within the concept of culture and how teachers contribute to and are influenced by the classroom culture (Brunner, 1997; Mehan, 1997). The school culture may be related to what behaviours and attitudes are encouraged and what is not in a classroom, and what systems of values are modelled or rewarded (Bravmann *et al.*, 2000). However, research and common experience have proved that the dominant culture in schools is coping and compliance, where teachers are in control of the intellectual activity in order to offer exposure to the uniform curriculum and also in order to maintain discipline in the classroom. At the same time, students adopt a more passive role of observers and receivers of knowledge.

In order to face these challenges, Windschitl (2002) suggests that teachers need to overcome their own obstacles which are their personal experiences and histories as learners. Most teachers have been taught in a more traditional fashion of teachings, such as teacher-centred instruction, fact-based subject matter, and drill and practice (Tobin, 1993), and ultimately this shapes their behaviour as teachers. This way of teaching leads to separation and demotivation from students when teachers show to be unaware of students' interests and life experiences, and they fail to build local knowledge. Gutierrez, Ryles and Larson (1995) reported that teachers tend to use an instructional script based on their cultural frame, which can be problematic if it is the only frame to build and plan activities. Patterns of communication can also be problematic if teachers are unaware of ethnic and racial minorities (Lee and Anderson, 1993). Ladson-Billings, G. (1994) suggests that a more culturally relevant pedagogy could be built based on cultural bases, discourse patterns, and understanding of schooling.

Finally, Windschitl (2002) discusses political dilemmas. He relates these dilemmas to confronting controversy. This type of dilemma stems from standardised education and how by teachers attempting to achieve the minimum competencies of students, pedagogy to promote deeper understanding is actively discouraged by the national policy. This has also been shown to hinder the self-inquiry of teachers about their own practices (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Therefore some understanding that emerges from more progressive ways of teaching does not align with the local standards (Windschitl, 2002).

Exploring the teacher's dilemmas can shed light on the everyday constraints PSTs and in-service EFL teachers face when teaching.

3.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have presented an account of LTE, by discussing the traditional models to teach PSTs and popular approaches and methods to teach English. Additionally, I have discussed an approximation of the understanding of the *GLT*, the implications of standardising LTE and how this can cause issues when PSTs negotiate their professional identities. Within this standardisation, I identify the subject matter and pedagogical knowledge that help shape this concept of a good language teacher. I face this knowledge with two critical issues that impact the embracing of teaching theories: the teacher's beliefs and identity. Finally, I have presented the practicum as the place where most PSTs and teachers feel there is a gap between the theory and the practice and how this leads to dilemmas.

In the following chapter, I will present the research methodology and design for this study, relevant information of the type of data I collected to carry out this study and how it was analysed.

Chapter 4 Research design and methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research questions, the design and a description of the methodology used to explore the shaping of the concept of the *GLT* in the Chilean context from the point of view of nine PSTs who were carrying out their last stage practicum (henceforth, practicum) as part of their five-year English pedagogy programme.

This chapter begins by discussing the research questions presented in Chapter 2 more in-depth. After that I will justify using qualitative methodology, where the research takes the form of a case study. Then I will present the research context by offering the two main settings where PSTs mediate their practicum experiences, and that are part of this case study. One of the settings is the institutional context, represented by the English language pedagogy programme at a university, along with teacher educators who are part of this mediated process, including supervisors, the programme leader and an elite interviewee from the Faculty of Education. The second setting is the five schools that served for PSTs to carry out the practicum, where along with the sociocultural representation of what the concept of school could involve for the participants, host teachers, mentors, and school students were part of this setting. Next I will present the participants to continue with the research methods and the different data collection instruments used. After that I will explain how the data was analysed with the methods selected. Finally I will discuss how ethics was approached and how the piloting of the methods was conducted.

4.2 What is a *good language teacher* in the Chilean context?

In Chapter 1, I introduced that the aim of this research was to explore how PSTs generate the concept of the *GLT*, which is linked to their professional identity formation, and how this concept is confronted with the school reality during their practicum. This research poses an overarching question, followed by two secondary questions.

1. What is a *good language teacher* in the Chilean context, as perceived by preservice teachers?

To investigate how PSTs explore and build their professional identity throughout the practicum and the concept of the *GLT*, this study supports the idea that identities comprise each individual's social, historical, and political context (Hall, 2002). Considering that this concept has a social and a

psychological aspect, this question aims to understand the interphase between these two. The two other questions come to contribute to answering the overarching one.

2. How is this conceptualisation shaped throughout the practicum?

This question attempts to understand how this conceptualisation changes or adapts to the social experiences PSTs go through during their practicum, the PSTs' individual understanding of their experiences, as well as the expectations others have from them.

3. What particular dimensions of this conceptualisation are salient and distinctive from this country?

This question aims to contribute to the understanding the particularities of the national context when teaching English. By understanding our national context, and how the GLT concept is built by participants, based on the different needs encountered in the teaching context policymakers could be benefited from having a broader understanding of the ELT teaching needs and how to approach them.

4.3 Research Methodology

Literature suggests that qualitative analysis is the best way to explore these questions (Stenbacka, 2001). Qualitative research follows a naturalistic approach, as is the case of this research, whereby in exploring the PSTs' conceptualisation of the *GLT* there is no intention in manipulating this phenomenon of interest (Patton, 2002) but to provide findings from a real-world setting where the "phenomenon of interest unfolds naturally" (Patton, 2002, p. 39). Following an interpretive approach in research, there is the implicit assumption that more than one reality is possible and that the shaping of each of these realities is constructed by the people who participate in it, along with the social and historical surroundings (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008).

The data collection instruments used in this research, which included interviews, lesson implementations observation, stimulated recall interviews, and a focus group, align with this naturalistic interpretative paradigm. In addition to that, to offer an 'adequate description' of the social phenomena in qualitative studies (Silverman, 1985), qualitative tradition has been extensively informed by two main approaches that respond to providing an adequate scientific explanation. One of these approaches is interactionism, related to the interpretation of meaning (Gerhardt, 1994), while the second is ethnography, which is concerned with society's social relations and what is observable and reportable. In order to address a description of the social phenomena of the practicum in mediating the shaping of the GLT concept, this research uses these two approaches.

To Eisner(1991), a good qualitative study would assist in the researcher in understanding a situation that otherwise could be unknowable or confusing. Therefore, exploring how the GLT concept shapes and transforms through the practicum under a qualitative stance, from an interactionist and ethnographically informed perspective, provides meaningful insight into how this process occurs and the forces that constrain the PSTs' building their professional identities.

Malinowski, a Polish/English anthropologist, while under arrest in the Trobian Islands of Melanesia during the first world war, learned the local language and culture and wrote a document which reported nuances of local meaning arising from the everyday life he observed (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008). This activity became the hallmark for ethnographic and anthropological research, as it highlighted the importance of participant observation as the ethnographic researcher is able to appreciate complex points of view of those they are studying.

Ethnography is considered a practice to study colonised groups of people, how they behave and explain their behaviour (Smith, 2021). Therefore, ethnographies attempt to have a deeper understanding of a group of people within a society, however with particular power dynamics between the researcher and the groups of people studied. Denzin and Lincoln (2008) state that this is still a coloniser technique and as such needs to be decolonised. Despite this, ethnographies have become popular in social sciences because interest in studying society has grown (Silverman, 2011). As a Chilean, *mestiza* (Spanish empire term to classify a person of combined European and Indigenous American ancestry, and used to categorise ethnic/racial casts), brought up and educated formally and informally in a formerly colonised country, my decision to carry out this research in an ethnographically oriented way is to present the reader with a *reality* that may be distant to their own, with enough understanding of the group of people I am researching, and the sociocultural context that shapes the lives of the participants. For the purposes of this research, the understanding of the sociocultural is that of Lantolf (2004, p.30-31), that states it is a “theory of mind (...) that recognizes the central role that social relationships and culturally constructed artifacts play in organising uniquely human forms of thinking”.

Defining ethnography has been problematic in literature, as there are many definitions and points of view about it. Some scholars understand this concept as a philosophical paradigm, while others consider it an instrument that can be used by a researcher when appropriate (Silverman, 2011). There will be no attempt to discuss these controversies; however, in this research ethnography is used as an instrument to explore this particular reality. Scholars agree that the concept of ethnography comprises three main terms. Those are case studies, fieldwork, and participant observation (Silverman, 2011). This study is framed within a case study, where there is no intention to transform the reality being observed.

Case studies have been a dominant approach within qualitative research in education (Merriam, 1998). Their origins emerge from anthropology, sociology, and psychology and are used in various disciplines (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative research theorists have highlighted that a case study is not a methodology but a tradition of research (Merriam, 2009; Simons, 2014; Yin, 2018). In other words, case studies are not defined by methods employed in investigating a phenomenon but by the case study particularities. In simple words, a case study is “an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system” (Merriam, 2009, p.40). According to Casanave (2015), a bounded system is a delimited unit of analysis with which the phenomenon is investigated, and it is fundamental for the researcher to provide depth and detail in their description of the case, at the same time that they should offer a thorough knowledge of the context where the case is situated. Otherwise, there may be a chance of not interpreting the particularities of such a case.

An argument that lies at the heart of case studies, despite the ontological stances, is that they concentrate on the experiential knowledge, “experiential knowledge of the case and close attention to the influence of its social, political, and other contexts” (Stake, 2005, p. 444). A case study focuses on the particularities, not generalisations (Stake 1995, Thomas, 2018, Yin, 2018). In light of this, my interest in using a case study is not to make generalisations from this study to the broader population of EFL PSTs in Chile or elsewhere, but to understand the complexities of these PSTs engaging with an array of challenges found in the practicum. By resolving these challenges, PSTs started shaping their professional identities and aligning with qualities they considered a GLT should have. Having said this, case studies can still be used for creating analytical generalisations (Casanave, 2015; Yin, 2018). As Yin (2018) states, experiments can be generalised to draw on theoretical propositions; therefore, cases can be used to generate theory.

In order to identify a case, Yin (2018) suggests considering at least two steps: defining the case and bounding it. For Yin, a case can be considered an individual person, as classic case studies have done (e.g., Bromley (1986)). In this research, the case study involves all the participants, with a particular focus on PSTs' experiences. Additionally, the English pedagogy programme and the five schools where PSTs carried out their last-stage practicum are also considered part of the case. The settings where the practicum occurs provide relevant information about the contextual issues that PSTs experience in order to shape their GLT concept. Regarding participant observation, I did some form of observation by the time I was allowed access to schools where the PSTs were allocated. Some of the places where observation occurred were school corridors, classrooms, and teachers' rooms. Furthermore, I had access to see and record two lesson implementations per PST. These experiences gave me a sense of the school culture, the type of students attending, and everyday school issues. The video recordings also helped me recall different events that I might

not have captured in the moment. According to Silverman (2011), as opposed to 'grab-it-and-run' methodologies (i.e., surveys, document analysis), fieldwork emphasises the researcher's presence in the field. Despite not following every PST during their complete practicum, I spent considerable time in each school with them. It was not only that I attended schools to record their lessons but also to interview them and other participants at different times and days. Schools were also my first approximation to PSTs. I could also be in other physical spaces and experience different school events, such as break times for students and teachers. During some of these breaks, I socialised with other teachers, the concierge, the teacher assistants, and even other students from the lessons observed or those playing near the offices where I conducted some interviews.

Additionally, I offered car rides to some PSTs to their homes or the city centre for the ones who were allocated far from it, and some interviews were carried out in my home, as the location was in the city centre, and it proved more comfortable for PSTs than going to a café for example. This allowed them to feel they were in more neutral territory when narrating some issues from the school. One of the participants, who had previously been my school student, invited me to her home to carry out one of the interviews. All these situations, such as PSTs meeting me at my home for interviews or me going to theirs, was in the spirit of facilitating this process for them. At that time I could access a car and could reach places more easily, compared to students who usually use public transport, which may not always be the most reliable way of transport in the city. There was no intention in making PSTs use their resources to meet me, considering they do not get paid for carrying out the practicum and must pay for transport and materials used at school when not provided by them.

Besides that, as half of this process occurred during a social uprising, common spaces that could have been used were not always available and moving within the city centre was not always safe, as demonstrations and police brutality were occurring daily. However, I did not merge into the school culture or different activities occurring there as one of them. Every participant knew I was the researcher or teacher. This does not mean the participants did not relax at some points during the term: behaving as they would usually do, without paying much attention to me being there. However, and despite many of the PSTs opening up to me and even revealing profound feelings and constraints during the interviews, they all kept treating me as *usted* (a formal, hierarchical way to refer to as "you" in Spanish), but they still felt they could trust me to be confidential with school issues that they did not share with the host teachers, mentors or supervisors. I have worked as a teacher and language teacher educator for over 10 years. I have knowledge of PSTs' characteristics and students. For this research, it was fundamental that PSTs could trust me so I could obtain the closest real experiences from them during interviews. I could understand PSTs were having some struggles during this experience, so indirectly, I attempted to be the person

they could feel they could open up to about this process. Reassuring them of their anonymity and avoiding judgement during the interviews helped build trust during this process. I also sometimes provided pedagogical advice when they asked for it. The conversations that occurred spontaneously during the car rides are not part of this research, but they were relevant to getting to know PSTs better and for them to feel more comfortable with me. On the other hand, all interviews, whether carried out at the assigned school or another place, were always recorded.

This research aims to understand how PSTs build the concept of the *GLT* during the transition from the university to the school context in their practicum. PSTs are challenged to put their theoretical understanding of the *GLT* into practice and how this conceptualisation is reflected in shaping their practices and building their identities as teachers. It must be acknowledged that attempting to define the temporal conditions under which the concept of the *GLT* is built is problematic, as, despite the data being collected under a particular period, PSTs have probably started their undergraduate programme with a pre-existent concept based on their primary and secondary education experiences. The *GLT* concept may have transformed or adapted during their undergraduate education. However, this research has no accounts of the previous years of their formation but what PSTs or other participants narrated in interviews or informal conversations. Yin (2018) points out this as a limitation, as on some occasions, a case study's temporal and spatial conditions can sometimes not be well defined. Having said this, I intend to reduce this limitation by considering that participants mediate their learning and understanding of the concept of the *GLT* as an ongoing activity; therefore, it is adaptable.

As the researcher, I was immersed in this investigation setting and became, somehow, an instrument of the research along with the rest of the data collection instruments. I have to acknowledge that my position in this research adopted different identities; I saw myself as an EFL secondary education teacher who worked in schools for around seven years, and over three years in higher education, as a former student in both a public primary school and a subsidised high-performance secondary school. I also saw myself as an English Pedagogy undergraduate student, as a PhD student, and as Priscila, the woman who was born in this same town where research was carried out and studied in the same university where data was collected and where many of the PST's supervisors had also been mine. Someone who saw physical spaces, objects or school dynamics that took her back to her school years during her childhood and adolescence and related her experiences to what she observed during the data collection process. I cannot specifically say that these different identities acted separately or if I always identified which identities were being triggered in the data collection, as they were often interrelated. What prompted these identities was mainly what I observed, what I heard, or how I could relate to the

PSTs experiences through the abovementioned identities. Those stories, how I position myself in this research, and my observations and judgement of the world shape this investigation.

4.4 Research Setting

Two settings are involved in this case study; the university where PSTs were finishing their five-year teacher education programme and the five schools where nine PSTs were completing their practicum.

4.4.1 The University

The university is located in the south of Chile and belongs to the CRUCH (See 2.2), which grants this institution certain prestige and tradition. In 1959 this organisation provided university teaching diplomas with the aid and support of the Pontifical Catholic University of Chile. By 1972, it was acknowledged as a branch of this university to become autonomous in 1991. Since then, it has been run by the city's Catholic Bishopric. This university has a long tradition of teacher education programmes. In fact, the English pedagogy programme was one of the first to open in the country. Incidentally, the English pedagogy programme was closed in 1996 to be reopened in 2002 due to the public's low interest in studying teaching programmes in the 1990s.

As presented in Chapter 2 and supported by the programme leader's personal experience in the SSI, the salaries for teachers back then were extremely precarious.

"It was very unattractive to be a teacher as you barely made a living after you finished the degree. (...) Some of them (colleagues) were parents, and we had to collect money among the other teachers so they could eat, pay the rent, etc." (SSI, 317-321)

Additionally, many PSTs back then did not feel they possessed the skills to work in schools as their programme was based on the applied science model, which did not promote any form of school-based practice until the programme's final year. This meant PSTs attended a programme primarily focused on learning the English language and its constituents, but many PSTs dropped out of the programme as soon as they had their first encounter with schools.

The decision to reopen the programme was made in response to the high national demand for learning English, and the strong emphasis the Minister of education of the time, Sergio Bitar, had placed on the ambitious idea of transforming Chile into a bilingual country by 2010. I was one of the student-teachers enrolling when the English pedagogy programme reopened in 2002.

As stated by the programme leader in her interview, a former student from the programme before its closure in 1996, the most significant difference in the programme designs between the

past and present lies in the inclusion of progressive practicums from the second year onwards and its articulation with the modules of didactic courses. These courses focus on EFL teaching and learning areas, such as teaching the four skills, vocabulary and pronunciation. Another significant difference is that this programme is influenced and responds to the current trends in language teacher education, where there is more emphasis on considering learning both as a cognitive process and as a social experience, where the learners' own experiences are pivotal in their teaching practices, and where reflection can influence a more adaptable and innovative teacher. Following Wallace's (1991) reflective model, the course programme comprises a reflection-oriented and competency-based approach. Among the subjects PSTs take are English language, linguistics, discourse analysis, public policy, educational psychology, and a strong practicum component starting in the second year (See Appendix A, on page 193 for an overview of the course).

As with the majority of higher education programmes in Chile, each academic year is organised into two terms: March to July and August to December. I collected data during the second term in 2019. By the time of the data collection, the programme modules were offered only once per year and on-campus only. If a student-teacher were to fail a module, they would not be allowed to resubmit. Instead, they had to retake the module the following year. It is a characteristic that student teachers who fail different courses might take more than the expected five years to complete their degree. This was the case for various study participants, who, in some cases, had started the course in 2009.

Concerning the university programme staff, in order to be members of the university staff, teacher educators (TEs) must at least hold an ELT area master's degree. Therefore, all the teacher educators hold a MA, and some also hold doctoral degrees. The staff were mainly focused on delivering lessons and marking assignments. However, some were involved in teacher or language teacher education research. They also have different types of contracts, including indefinite, fixed term and zero-hour contracts. Usually, TEs with fixed-term contracts are assigned some hours for research, whereas the TEs under zero-hour contracts are hired every semester and paid only for the months they teach regarding teaching, preparation, and marking hours. Zero-hour contracts are very common for TEs working in universities.

This university programme was chosen for the research because, unlike other EFL teaching programmes, it has placed a particular emphasis on school-based practice and this component is key to this research. This has provided PSTs with biannual progressive practicums from the programme's second year. That means that PSTs have been familiar with the school context and learners in five previous peer practicums. Another more practical reason is that I graduated from

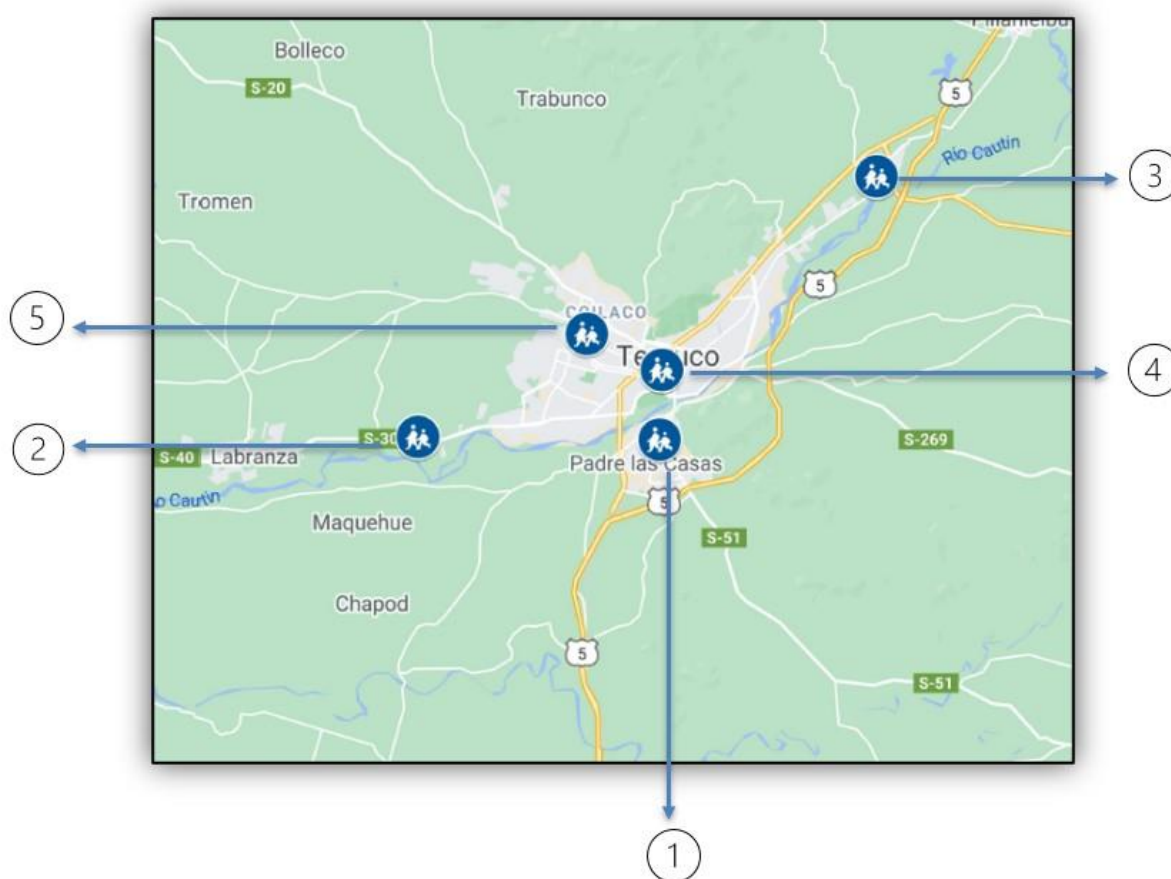
this English pedagogy programme. Therefore, despite two major revisions of the course programme, I was reasonably familiar with it. I also knew many of the TEs and the programme leader who supported the data collection.

4.4.2 The Schools

Since the pivotal interest of this research is to provide a comprehensive understanding of how these PSTs build their concept of the *GLT* throughout their practicum, it was relevant to have access to their lesson implementations. After getting permission from the programme leader, the initial approach to the participants was through the schools where PSTs would carry out their practicum.

Figure 3. Geographic location of Preservice teachers' school placement

The five schools were located in the city of Temuco. This is a city and commune capital city of the



Cautin Province and the Araucania Region in the south of Chile, with a population of 232, 528 inhabitants according to the 2020 census. Temuco is 670 kilometres far from Santiago. This city grew out of a fort of the same name established in 1881 during Chile's invasion of Araucanía. Temuco lies in the middle of the historic Araucania, a traditional land that used to belong to the indigenous Mapuche people.

The schools were distributed in different parts of the city (See Figure 3). School 4 is located in the city centre, School 5 is a middle-class neighbourhood of the city, and the other three were about half an hour away from the city centre by public transport. Schools 1, 2 and 3 concentrated a high number of vulnerable students, from which two were public, and one was subsidised (See Table 5). According to the Mineduc and the Junaeb (National Council for School Assistance and Benefits), the concept of vulnerable students explains a dynamic condition resulting from various risk factors occurring in the student's lives. These risk factors can be evidenced in someone's life regarding high or low social, economic, psychological, cultural, environmental, and biological risks (JUNAEB, 2005). Consequently, this condition of vulnerability could become a disadvantage compared to other families, schools, and communities. Some students have already committed felonies in this type of school or been in the SENAME (National Service for minors). These students usually belong to families with different social difficulties (e.g., domestic violence, drug addictions) and generally live in very deprived contexts and precarious positions of all kinds.

Schools 4 and 5 are subsidised schools. These are privately managed but publicly funded with a voucher system (See Chapter 2). These schools can be considered middle-class schools, although the conceptualisation of a middle-class in Chile usually describes what the UK would refer to as working-class (Leyton and Rojas, 2017). Schools 1 to 3 and 5 offered primary education, apart from secondary education. These schools ranged from 700 to 1,200 students (including primary education). Two of these schools offered vocational and mainstream preparation that mainly focused on preparing students to pursue an undergraduate programme at university.

Table 5. Preservice teacher's school's placement

School ¹	School number	Type of school	Location	Type of education
1 Fray Bartolomé School	Sch1	Subsidised	Padre las Casas	Mainstream and vocational
2 Liceo Paulo Freire	Sch2	Subsidised	Labranza	Mainstream
3 Agricultural school	Sch3	Public	Cajón	Mainstream and vocational
4 Liceo Marcela Paz	Sch4	Public	Centre of Temuco	Mainstream

¹Pseudonyms

5	Milan School	Sch5	Subsidised	Temuco	Mainstream
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These schools followed the national curriculum either based on the curricular basis or the textbooks that the Mineduc provides to all publicly fully or partially funded schools.

4.5 The Participants

A total of 22 individuals participated in this study. In addition to the nine PSTs, others who played a pivotal role in the PST's practicum, including host teachers, mentors, supervisors, the programme leader and an elite participant from the university, all contributed to the research data.

Nine out of 22 PSTs doing their practicum during the second semester of 2019 volunteered to be part of this research. The PSTs were aged between 23 and 29 and enrolled in the programme between 2009 and 2015. Pamela, Josie, and Robert previously studied another programme they did not finish and then decided to study English pedagogy. Rose had enrolled in this programme in 2009, dropped it for some years to take a full-time job, and then decided to return and finish her degree as a teacher. The other five decided to become teachers right after finishing their secondary education. Six had failed some modules from the programme in pursuing their degree, which delayed them from doing their practicum. Most of these PSTs came from a low-middle socioeconomic background and had completed their secondary education at a public or subsidised school in Temuco, or other small towns surrounding the city, such as Villarrica, Pitrufrquen, Lautaro, and Traiguen. Robert completed his secondary education in a public school in Puerto Aysén, where he was originally from. Pamela, who could be considered upper-middle-class compared to her peers, had completed her primary and secondary education at a private school in Temuco. Table 6 presents the PSTs, age range, start year of their undergraduate programme and the course programme model they were following.

Table 6. Preservice teachers' information

	Name ²	Gender	Age	Year of entry to the programme	Course programme ³	Preservice teacher number	School number
1	Rose	Female	29	2009	1	PST1	Sch1
2	Josie	Female	27	2012	2	PST2	Sch1

² Pseudonyms

³ This refers to the amendments of the course programme since its reopening in 2002. By the time of the data collected there were PSTs following three different course programmes.

3	Pamela	Female	26	2015	3	PST3	Sch2
4	Robert	Male	29	2014	2	PST4	Sch2
5	Norah	Female	23	2014	2	PST5	Sch2
6	Carina	Female	25	2013	2	PST6	Sch3
7	Susan	Female	26	2012	2	PST7	Sch3
8	Frank	Male	23	2015	3	PST8	Sch4
9	Beatriz	Female	24	2015	3	PST9	Sch5

Rose and Josie were sent to Fray Bartolomé school. Pia was Rose's mentor and Josie's supervisor. Josie also had a host teacher, Christopher. Pamela, Robert and Norah were placed in Sch2, where everyone had a different host teacher ⁴, and two of them, Robert and Norah, shared the same supervisor. Carina and Susan were sent to Sch3. They both had the same mentor. Frank was sent to Sch4 and Beatriz to Sch5, with them both having a host teacher and a supervisor. Of the nine PSTs, seven were women, and two were men. From the five supervisors and two mentors, they were all females. Three of the five host teachers were men, and the other two were women. Table 7 shows the distribution of the participants per school, and Table 8. presents the PSTs profile details.

Table 7. Participant distribution across schools

School	School number	Preservice teacher(s)	Supervisor(s) ⁵	Supervisor number ⁶	Mentor	Mentor number	Host teacher/Host teachers	Host teacher number
1) Fray Bartolomé School	Sch1	Rose Josie	Pia	M1	Pia	M1	Christopher	HT1
2) Liceo Paulo Freire	Sch2	Robert	Gala	S1	-	-	Amy	HT2
		Norah Pamela	Cynthia	S2	-	-	Clarence Miss Ríos	HT3 HT4
3) Agricultural school	Sch3	Carina Susan	-	-	Giannina	M2	-	-

⁴In this school, one host teacher, Miss Ríos, did not want to be part of this research. Therefore, her description and interactions with PSTs are based on observation and what the preservice teacher reported.

⁵ Pseudonyms

⁶ In case the supervisor is a mentor as well, they will be enumerated as mentors.

4) Liceo Marcela Paz	Sch4	Frank	Cynthia	S2	-	-	Christian	HT5
5) Milan school	Sch5	Beatriz	Lily Lydia	S3 S4	-	-	Claire	HT6

Table 8. Preservice teachers' profiles

Rose (PST1)	
Age	29
School	Fray Bartolomé School (Sch1)
Class	Year 10
Hours taught weekly	4
Number of students	20
SEN students	Seven
Mentor	Pia (M1)
Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher	
<p>Rose completed her education in her hometown, Traiguen (95 km away from Temuco). She always wanted to study pedagogy, or something related to education. But she opted for English pedagogy because she felt influenced by an EFL teacher she had in secondary school, someone she describes as accessible with all students, irrespective of how they did in the subject, or the ones she got on well with; <i>"I remember it was common that she was with us in the breaks, talking to some girls,[...] so we saw her as accessible, and we trusted her to ask her things that did not necessarily have to do with English. That was important for us because she was different to the other teachers"</i> (SSI2, 20-27). Rose affirms that with this teacher, they worked on grammar, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension, and that she even knew more English than other university peers when she started the programme. What Rose tries to imitate from this teacher is caring about students; <i>"I've also learnt that external issues can affect students' learning. So, if they don't have an adequate place to study at home, it's gonna be more difficult for them to learn. It's the same with family support. So, I'm always interested in knowing all those things from students"</i> (SSI, 36-40)</p>	
Personal Construction of the Good Language Teacher	
<p>For Rose, a GLT can be someone able to adapt; "there are many things that can happen (in the classroom); from not having the technological resources at hand to teach the lesson, and that are essential to do it, to not having the adequate number of students to carry out an activity I've planned. And those are things we cannot always control, so I think that being able to adapt is essential" (SSI1, 115-118). Rose also thinks that communicating well, whether in the L1 or L2, using the right words is also important, especially when giving instructions. Another characteristic a GLT should have been to be tolerant. As a last characteristic, Rose states that having a good command of the L2 is important too, along with having a variety of methodologies, such as participation, group work, and collaborative work methodologies in order to be able to vary activities but keeping the lesson objective. Based on this description, Rose reflects about some characteristics she would like to have as an EFL teacher; <i>"I'd like to NEVER LOSE the vocation, I'd always like to have that will to teach my students."</i> (SSI1, 289-290)</p>	
Josie (PST2)	
Age	27
School	Sch1
Class	Year 9
Hours taught weekly	4

Number of students	24
SEN students	Seven (2 with hearing loss)
Mentor	Pia (M1)

Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher

Josie studied in a town near Temuco called Lautaro (31 kilometres from Temuco). She studied English pedagogy as she has always liked English. She first enrolled in the university to complete a translator degree, but then she decided to change internally to English pedagogy. With the progressive practicums, she had a taste of the teaching experience, and she began to enjoy teaching.

Unlike many of the other preservice teachers, Josie claims she does not remember much about her from her primary or secondary school English teacher. What she remembers is that they learnt the *verb to be* in many different ways for a long time. So, according to her, she never teaches how she learnt, as she does not recall how she was taught. Regarding the university programme, she does not remember much of what she learnt at university either; *“I have some notions, and I can’t relate those notions with the theory, but maybe I am using the theory”* (SSI1, 73-75). I ask her how she incorporates the theory into the practice if she does not remember much. She says that she does it innately. She says that her liking or not liking a class has to do with students' attitude, and how committed they can be to learning; *“if students don’t have an interest in the subject, you can do anything, but they will still not pay attention to you. Because nowadays students don’t care about anything”* (SSI1, 94-97).

Personal Construction of the Good Language Teacher

Josie thinks that as a teacher, one shouldn't be so inflexible, or behave defensively with students, as they can feel left aside. At the same time, a teacher should not let students do whatever they want, as they could take advantage. Josie says she is very spontaneous about teaching, but she thinks that a GLT must know the L2 well, although she does not consider this to be the most important quality; *“There has to be a balance; I can’t use 100% of English in the classroom because my students won’t understand. And I can’t speak it either. So, it’s hard to find this balance between being a buena onda (cool) teacher, but being strict at the same time you use as much English as possible”* (SSI1, 66-70).

Pamela (PST3)

Age	26
School	Liceo Paulo Freire/ Sch2
Class	Year 9
Hours taught weekly	5
Number of students	34
SEN students	No SEN students in this class
Supervisor	Cynthia (S2)
Host teacher	Miss Rios (HT4)

Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher

Pamela completed all her primary and secondary education in a small, family-like private English school from Temuco. This school was managed by an English man and his wife, both educators, whom the South American Missionary Society had called in 1914 to found this school in Temuco. Back then, this school received foreign language speaker students (especially English speakers), as the main goals of this school were teaching subjects in English, and the practice of sports, such as cricket and hockey, among others. With time, this school ended up being managed by a private university of the city. Although this school is not bilingual anymore, Pamela learnt English since she was a child in this place with no more than 600 students in total (from playground to secondary education); *“I was used to listening to the*

EFL teachers to teach in English. I think that by using English language, you can contextualise the lesson too. It is like, “we are in the English class; let’s try to use English” (SRI1, 90-92)

Pamela has two more siblings, worked at a pub on weekends at the time, was living with her parents, and was ready to leave Chile to Australia at the end of her practicum. She had gotten a work and travel visa and was prepared to do any type of job, not necessarily teaching. Becoming a teacher for Pamela was not in her plans; she first studied nursery for one year, and social work for one term, and when she realised, she did not like any of these, she thought about becoming an EFL teacher.

“It was not easy for me to study English pedagogy. They told me (her family), “what were you good at school?”, and I liked English. I liked English, but I didn’t want to become a teacher. I denied being a teacher. But I was between that and translation. I said to myself – “I prefer to study English pedagogy; I will learn at least...”-, I don’t know, it was more for the English language that I decided to study this programme. And I enrolled in the programme, although not very motivated. It was not easy for me the first years. And, later, I started enjoying it...I started enjoying the teaching. I started going to the practicums, then I started enjoying the programme more and more. And now, I like the programme. I am happy” (SSI1, lines 6-17)

Personal Construction of Good Language Teacher

For Pamela, being a GLT in Chile varies and depends on the context; *“mainly, a good teacher needs to be a motivating person that motivates their students. There must be a balance between being close to them, being humane, and at the same time you must be mano dura* (tough). You have to keep the order in the classroom, they have to respect you, and see you as an authority” (SSI2, 120-144).* She also thinks that the EFL teacher needs to know the English language very well, because one cannot teach something one does not know: *“I would place knowing English as the second most important thing, because you can have all the qualities of being a good leader, you can have control of the classroom, but if you teach them nonsense staff? You lose credibility as a teacher” (SSI1, 78-85)*

Robert (PST4)

Age	29
School	Liceo Paulo Freire/ Sch2
Class	Year 10
Hours taught weekly	5
Number of students	36
SEN students	Not reported in the Description of Reality. Reported in interviews: “eight to ten” (SRI1 Robert, 220)
Supervisor	Gala (S1)
Host teacher	Amy (HT2)

Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher

Robert, originally from the Aysen province (867.1 km away from Temuco), studied translation in the same university for a year, before deciding to become an EFL teacher; he realised that translation was not what he wanted to do with the English language. The language was his primary motivation to become an EFL teacher. But at the same time, he wanted to be able to have a “stable” job, as he mentioned, with health insurance and with a retirement pension, things that as a freelance translator cannot be of easy access in Chile. He also mentioned that his aim when becoming a professional was to teach at university, “with people who are there because they really want to learn” (SSI1, lines 22-23).

Robert completed his secondary education in a public school in Puerto Natales, so he had to move from his parents’ house at a very young age to study. In Temuco, he lived with his mom and younger brother and was working part-time at the time he was doing his practicum.

Personal Construction of the Good Language Teacher

For Robert, a GLT should know their students since it is a basis for the learners to be motivated, and a GLT should also have knowledge of the English language in all the areas;

grammar and skills. But especially Robert thought the conditions for teaching had to be different to what he had seen; the number of students had to be reduced, because otherwise **“even if you try really hard, you won’t be able to control them (students)”** (SSI, 157). He claims that having fewer students in the classroom is better since the lessons can be more personalised in terms of the feedback provided. He also mentioned that there could be more hours of English a week in the national curriculum. All in all, when asked this question, he focused on the conditions that needed to change in the system in order to teach, rather than what characteristics a GLT should have, based on the factual reality. Apparently, without the conditions mentioned, he did not see a way of being a GLT.

Norah (PST5)

Age	23
School	Liceo Paulo Freire/ Sch2
Class	Year 10
Hours taught weekly	5
Number of students	41
SEN students	Not reported in Description of Reality
Supervisor	Gala (S1)
Host teacher	Clarence (HT3)

Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher

Norah completed her secondary education in Temuco's biggest scientific humanist public secondary school. The secondary students of this high school and the teachers have generally participated actively in the different secondary education demonstrations, such as the *Penguin Revolution*, being this school the place where many local political leaders have emerged. After she finished secondary education, she applied for the English pedagogy programme, because she mainly liked the English language. But she also felt inspired to become an EFL teacher by an English teacher she had primary school, apart from her dad loving English language, and always showing her music in this language. Although that teacher did not teach her much English, or she does not recall her being very didactic, she liked that the teacher paid special attention to her and cared about her wellbeing.

Completing her programme has not always been easy; there was a point she experienced depression. She remembers this was a sad time for her, where she cried all the time to the point it was difficult for her to continue attending lectures at university. The programme leader arranged for her to get a psychologist appointment through the university. She attended for a term but would like to continue going once she gets a job and can afford it. Norah has two younger siblings and lives with her mother, but she sees her father almost every day, because he works in a retail shop where she works part time too. None of her parents are professionals; Norah's dad had done all sorts of jobs *“my dad used to sell Super8 bars (chocolate bars) on the buses when he was a child”* (SSI2, 221). But he has mostly worked in sales in retail. Norah's mom works in sales too. Because Norah's dad wanted to study but he was never given the opportunity, it is very important for him that she could get a university degree.

Personal Construction of the Good Language Teacher

Norah expressed a GLT needed to be proactive, **“for example when I ran the interest survey with students, they mentioned they would like to do more original stuff. Not the typical reading or writing activities”** (SSI1, 133-137); use different resources, do more innovative things in the classroom and needed to speak more in English, as well as make the learners speak.

Carina (PST6)

Age	25
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School	Agricultural School / Sch 3
Class	Year 10
Hours taught weekly	4
Number of students	23 students
SEN students	2 students
Mentor	Giannina (M2)
Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher	
<p>Carina chose to become a TEFL because of one teacher in particular. Carina recalls her lessons were more dynamic than others, and she liked that; <i>“before it was like- we are going to review the verb To Be, subject plus complement-and you don’t pay attention to those things cause it’s like maths (...) I liked that we could use the language, record videos, so we worked but not following a pattern”</i> (SSI1, 10-16).</p> <p>In the SSI, Carina trusts me to tell me she had an unpleasant practicum experience the previous term, which she ended up dropping. In this practicum she says <i>“I feel more relieved and without the burden. Now it’s a whole new experience, and the mentor treats us well”</i> (SSI1, 391-392). Carina says that in the previous practicum, the mentor asked her to do extra things that did not have to do with her practicum, and that she couldn’t do what she had to do to comply with these extra activities. She stayed there for two months and a half; <i>“I didn’t want to continue. I told myself it was only a bad experience, and that I would do it the next term”</i> (SSI1, 409-410). She discussed this decision with the programme leader, and she had to go to a psychologist that could certify that Carina was mentally well to continue with another practicum; <i>“I felt bad, because it was my university, my programme, I think they should have protected me”</i> (SSI2, 423). Carina felt that the way the university managed that issue implied they did not believe in her traumatic experience.</p>	
Personal Construction of the Good Language Teacher	
<p>Carina says that a GLT is <i>“someone who can comply with the Domains of framework for good teaching, someone able to contextualise students (...) try to explain to them that some things are different in an English-speaking country (...) try to culturise them (...) and try to expose them to communicative activities”</i> (SSI1 274-280). She says that based on her progressive practicums, she has mainly seen English taught in a grammatical way. She thinks this way is easier for students; <i>“students think I just have to complete this and then I’ll get a seven”</i> (SSI1, 292-293). But she says she has also seen that when students are exposed to more communicative activities they participate more. She also considers a GLT should be someone who cares about their students, an understanding teacher. In relation to the command of the English language, Carina thinks a GLT should have a balance between the pedagogical content and the L2 content; <i>“if a teacher has a good level of English, but they don’t know how to teach, then students won’t learn”</i> (SSI1, 314-315).</p>	
Susan (PST7)	
Age	26
School	Agricultural School / Sch 3
Class	Year 10
Hours taught weekly	4
Number of students	23 students
SEN students	2 students
Mentor	Giannina (M2)
Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher	
<p>Susan says she decided to become a TEFL as she had an English teacher in years 11 and 12 who motivated them, took them to the English lab; <i>“we used to sing, we did a lot of fun activities,</i></p>	

like we do at university” (SSI1, 13-15). This teacher motivated her to become someone whom students could feel comfortable having around, irrespective of their performance. Susan has done progressive practicums in primary and secondary education, although she prefers secondary education. She says that through the critical comments she has written over the years, she has identified some weaknesses, such as the command of the L2; “I failed English language in the first term of the programme. It was very difficult for me to speak, so teaching speaking is very challenging for me (...)” (SSI1, 113-115), and classroom management. Susan says that at university they are usually referred to books from Marzano or Harmer to pick on some teaching strategies, but that what she values the most is what she can learn from host teachers at school, “because they already know the students. So I think that through their information, I’ve also picked on strategies to work with students” (SSI1, 132-135).

Personal Construction of the *Good Language Teacher*

Susan thinks that a GLT should have a good command of the language; **“the domain and mastery of the language to start with; credibility is linked to knowing the language. We don’t have to know everything, (...). But sometimes, things like grammar need preparation. You also have to prepare your lessons accurately, otherwise students would notice”** (SSI1, 233-239). Susan also considers the humane side of the teacher is also important, **“Irrespective of the subject you teach, you need to know students”** (SSI1, 251). Carina thinks it should not be difficult to get to know students, although she is aware that it is not something that can be done in a short period of time.

She also highlights that a GLT is an array of different things, and she is still in the quest of those things. She thinks that Miss Giannina is a good referent of an EFL teacher; **“she is very respected and also loved by students, because she has all these characteristics. She is close to students, she knows them, she presents the English subject as valuable. So, she can be a good example of what an EFL teacher should be like”** (SSI1, 267-70). Carina implies that experience can also provide you with these characteristics of a GLT; **“I think it has to do with vocation, how much you like it, and how much you want to get involved with students”** (SSI1, 272).

Frank (PST8)

Age	23
School	Liceo Marcela Paz/Sch4
Class	Year 8
Hours taught weekly	4
Number of students	31 students
SEN students	4 students
Supervisor	Cynthia (S2)
Host teacher	Christian (HT5)

Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher

Frank studied in a priest-led catholic school in Pitrufulquen (a town 37 kms away from Temuco), and becoming an EFL teacher came to him as something served on a platter. He claims this was the only opportunity he had to pursue higher education, considering he did not have the economic resources to afford it; **“I got a scholarship, a preparation course, granted by this university through the school I was studying in. I had to attend university every Saturday for a year, and I had to pass three courses: self-management, maths, and Spanish language. If I passed those subjects, I could study a programme at university for free”** (SSI1, 4-8)

This preparation course offered by the university is not only created to attract pedagogy programmes students. However, Frank decided to study English pedagogy as he had always liked the English language, which he learnt outside of the school by mainly watching series in the L2. He acknowledges he did not like the pedagogy at the beginning of the programme, but by the beginning of the first progressive practicum he enjoyed teaching a bit more.

Personal Construction of the *Good Language Teacher*

For Frank, being a GLT in the Chilean context meant being a leader to guide the students in their learning process. According to Frank, a teacher is not someone who just transfers knowledge but someone who guides their construction of knowledge. An EFL teacher in this context should also be practical, as he explains that English is a foreign language that is not even related to the Latin-American culture, and, therefore, not of interest to students. Hence, **“a teacher must be able to motivate students to learn skills that they are not used to, and in a context that doesn’t support its learning”** (SSI1, 53-55)

Beatriz (PST9)

Age	24
School	Milan School /Sch5
Class	Year 11
Hours taught weekly	3
Number of students	40
SEN students	Year 11 at this school does not have PIE programme.
Supervisor	Lily (S3) and Lydia (S4)
Host teacher	Claire (HT6)

Trajectory and motives to become an EFL Teacher

Before Beatriz became an EFL teacher, she studied Translation at the same university. Her grandmother and great-grandmother were teachers, while her dad is a construction engineer, and her mom is a housewife. She doesn’t think the fact her grandmothers were teachers had an influence on her choosing to become one. At first, she was not very decisive as an uncle who is also a teacher told her not to pursue this career as the pay was not good enough. After being part of the translation programme, and thanks to her dad supporting her, she decided to drop the Translation programme and begin to study English pedagogy.

Among her reasons for this decision, one of them was the English language was a language which was easy to learn for her since she was little. She believes this has to do with the inspiring and didactic teachers during her primary education; *“I had such good foundations in primary education, that I didn’t need to continue studying (English) in-depth in secondary school. We had seen it all”* (SSI1, 17-19).

She is very happy with her decision of becoming a teacher; **“(…) now I’m very happy I decided to study pedagogy. If I hadn’t changed (programmes), I would have never been to the States, I’d never had the chances I’ve had. Anyway, as a teacher you have more opportunities than a translator”** (SSI2, lines 90-92). As Beatriz was an outstanding student from the programme, she got an internship from the Mineduc and the PIAP programme to do a semester abroad in the United States, in 2018.

Personal Construction of the *Good Language Teacher*

Beatriz thinks that to be a GLT in the Chilean context, it is very important to be aware and know the students' reality, especially in secondary education. She thinks this way as for her when starting teaching in secondary education the students' knowledge of the language can be very uneven. Regarding the L2 competency, she considers that it is relevant as **“there can be a student who may know more (English) than the teacher and have better language skills. In that case, it could be frustrating for the teacher, as they won’t feel they have the necessary tools or the ability to teach that class”** (SSI, lines 551-554). She identifies that in the case of other subjects, teachers teach the lesson using the L1, therefore, the focus of their lessons is on the content they teach, but in the case of an EFL teacher needs to know the content and prove it by the language skills they possess.

All in all, at the beginning of her practicum, Beatriz identified four main features a GLT should have; to know the students’ reality, to know the students’ level of English, to possess good methodology that will allow good development of the lesson, and to have a good command of the L2.

PSTs encountered the complexities of being and becoming a teacher throughout the semester. We did not imagine that apart from the usual issues of the practicum, by October that year, we would be facing the beginning of a very critical moment in the history of Chile after the return to democracy; the social uprising (See 2.3.2). This also brought its own issues into the PSTs practicum, the school context, and beyond.

This is the moment to state that the PSTs have a pivotal position in this research since it is how they engage with the learning to teach and build a concept of the *GLT* during their practicum, which leads to building their teacher identity, which inspires this study. Nevertheless, by giving them a central position, I do not intend to undervalue the insightful contributions made by the other participants, who are also part of this process, and who provided significant information and understanding for this study.

4.5.1 Recruiting Participants

I started planning the data collection instruments in mid-January 2019, when I presented them for ethical approval through ERGO (Ethics and Research Governance Online) at the University of Southampton. After receiving ethical approval, I approached the programme leader by email in March of that year, who requested detailed information about the study. After the programme leader presented this information in one of the English pedagogy programme staff meetings, and the members agreed to allow me to carry out this research, I was informed I could contact PSTs.

When I arrived in Temuco in August 2019, I approached the programme leader and the practicum coordinator in person, who provided me with the necessary information to help begin to look for participants. The practicum coordinator, Lily (initially Beatriz's supervisor) advised me on the schools I could contact that would allow me to record the PSTs' lesson implementations. As mentioned in Chapter 2, schools in Chile are not obliged to let PSTs carry out their practicums or progressive practicums; they voluntarily receive them. This made the task of requesting schools' permission to enter the PSTs classrooms a delicate matter. Since this petition, which could be taken as being disrespectful or crossing the line by the school, could have meant the closure of a practicum centre for PSTs. This negative response could have put my whole data collection process at stake.

In addition to following Lily's advice to contact the schools she recommended, I contacted schools through snowballing using the contacts of teachers I had previously worked with and knew worked as practicum centres. I spent two to three weeks sending emails to the schools, telephoning schools, and arranging meetings with the school principal or the Technical Pedagogical Office (UTP) coordinator to get permission to enter schools. In those meetings, I

explained the data collection procedure and presented the opt-out letters for students regarding lesson observation and video recording, highlighting that the main focus of the study was not them but PSTs.

4.5.1.1 Preservice Teachers

Once schools had given permission to record PSTs' lessons, I met the head of the English department in each school and then the host teachers. If they all had already agreed, I then could contact the PSTs and ask them if they wanted to be part of this study. From these five schools, 10 out of 11 PSTs were willing to volunteer as participants in this research. However, one of the 10 had falsified information and consequently did not end up contributing to the research.

4.5.1.2 Host teachers and mentors

I knew some of the host teachers from when I completed my undergraduate programme at the same university. They belonged to different generations, but since the programme had just reopened when I enrolled in 2002, we were still a small community that had at least spent one day at the same conference or a programme or university extra-academic activity. They were willing to help me and encouraged PSTs to do so. Three host teachers and two mentors were part of the fieldwork. As explained earlier, the host teachers were the teachers in charge of the PSTs' class, while the mentor was a teacher working at school, in charge of the PSTs' class but complying with the functions of a supervisor.

4.5.1.3 Supervisors and other university-related participants

As I completed my English pedagogy programme at this university, I knew the supervisors, except for Lily, the practicum coordinator. I also knew the programme leader and an elite interviewee from the Faculty of Education. A total of four supervisors participated in this study; three of them were working full-time, and one worked part-time for the university. As one supervisor was on medical leave at the beginning of the semester, another replaced her in her supervisory duties with Beatriz. Therefore, two supervisors supervised Beatriz at different times of the practicum.

4.6 Data Collection instruments

Various instruments were used to collect the data during that semester to obtain a broad and rich view of the PSTs' understanding of the *GLT*. From August 2019 to December 2019, I conducted a total of 40 semi-structured interviews and 18 stimulated recall interviews, the latter on two PSTs' observations and lessons video recordings during the semester per each of them. I also conducted one focus group with seven of the nine PSTs at the end of the practicum. Additionally, I was given

six supervisory meeting recordings from supervisors or preservice teachers. I also collected some documents from the university, such as the Practicum guidelines and PSTs portfolios. The portfolio is a digital document PSTs need to complete regarding the different duties they have at school and their reflections on their lesson's implementations. This digital folder is organised around the Domains of Framework for Good Teaching (Mineduc, 2008).

Additionally, I collected official documents from the Mineduc, such as the Curricular Basis, the *Guiding Standards for English Pedagogy* and the *Domains of Framework for Good Teaching* (See 2.5.1). Table 9 summarises the contributions of each participant in this study.

Table 9. Summary of each participant's data collection instruments

Participants	SSIs	Observations	Stimulated recall interviews	Feedback meetings	Focus group	Portfolios	Documents
PSTs	18	18	18	6		9	
Supervisors	8						
Mentors	4						
Host teacher	10						
7 PSTs (focus group)					1		
Online documents						9	3

The data collection instruments presented aimed to gather data that offered different angles of the researched subject; what a GLT should be like as perceived by PSTs. This array of evidence allowed me to triangulate the different data sources emerging from the different instruments and participants. This enabled me to reduce systematised biases in the study, which gave it greater rigour.

4.6.1 Semistructured Interviews

Qualitative interviews are certain conversations or speech events that are used to explore the interviewee's experiences and interpretations (Hatch, 2002). By interviewing, the researcher intends to discover how the interviewee perceives reality and the meaning of their experience (Spradley, 1979). One of the main benefits of interviews is that the researcher can elicit and understand what is in someone else's mind (Patton, 2002). However, for this to occur, the researcher has to be skilful and sensitive enough to retrieve this information since interviewees

might be reluctant to share their thoughts (Hatch, 2002). However, and considering its limitations, I decided to use semi-structured interviews for my research, since they offer “depth, nuance, complexity and roundness in data” (Mason, 2002, p. 65) to construct social expansions and arguments. The semi-structured interviews aimed to achieve two goals: to follow the line of inquiry and persuade and lead the interviewee to answer the questions relevant to the study, whilst utilising non-threatening questions for the interviewee.

Additionally, considering the exploratory character of the semistructured interviews, they allowed me to elaborate on spontaneous comments made by the participants. The interviews were conducted face to face and audio recorded. They allowed the emergence of direct communication between the interviewees and myself. In line with this, and to show the influence of semi-structured interviews, Denzin *et al.* (2008a) point out that these communication spaces allow participants to negotiate texts where issues of power, gender, race and class intersect. Through the interviews, I learned how different social and contextual issues at school intersected the PSTs’ understanding of being a language teacher, moulding and shaping their conceptualisation of the *GLT*. (Mason,2002).

Two semi-structured interviews were conducted with each of the PSTs, the five host teachers, and two mentors in charge of the STs allocated in five schools. One of the interviews was conducted at the beginning, and another one about the end of the practicum process. The programme leader, who facilitated access to the participants, also provided one semi-structured interview at around the end of the data collection process. At the same time, and due to the contingency of the social uprising (See 2.3.2) that hit Chile in October 2019, an elite participant from the university also provided a semi-structured interview.

The interviews and the focus group were conducted in Spanish as it was the participants' and researcher’s native language (L1). The underpinning reason for doing this is that participants might not have had the necessary skills to communicate as fluently in the L2 as in their native language; thus, the data obtained might have been reduced or poor in quality compared to what I could obtain the L1. Conducting interviews in L2 could have caused issues for both sides of the conversation, whether with participants understanding questions or me comprehending answers (Mackey and Gass, 2017). This rationale applies to the whole data collection process.

4.6.2 PSTs’ direct observation and Stimulated Recall Interviews

Part of this study was to observe PSTs implementing two lessons with their class throughout the semester. Research about the classroom started growing in the 1970s, primarily when approaches derived from sociology and ethnography began to be used and where interactions with one

another were considered relevant (Hammersley, 1990). From an interactionist point of view, classroom observation does not look to restrict itself only to observable behaviour, but rather “the central aim has been to discover the assumptions, rules, strategies, etc., which underlie and produce classroom interaction” (Hammersley, 1990, p. 3). Despite moments when I was at school using other physical spaces than the classroom, I did not carry out participant observation as Yin (2018) described. In other words, I mostly acted as a passive observer. The only times I might not have been a passive observer was when PSTs asked me for advice while interviewing them. The type of observation that suits this case study is direct observation. Direct observation can be helpful as another source of evidence when carrying out case studies (Morgan *et al.*, 2017).

Considered as the gold standard among the qualitative data collection methods (Murphy and Dingwall, 2007), direct observation, unlike participant one, allows the observer to avoid self-reported accounts. Additionally, this type of observation allows unveiling insights that are not always accessible from other data collection methods (Morgan *et al.*, 2017). In this study, direct formal observation was carried out to understand what PSTs did in the classroom and contrast that with the understanding of the *GLT* in SSIs (Silverman, 1985). Additionally, the SRIs applied after the observations gave this research a deeper understanding of the cognitive reasons that PSTs used to support their actions in the lessons’ implementations. Although direct observation can avoid self-reported accounts, some of the disadvantages are that only two of the PSTs lessons’ implementations were observed during the 16 estimated weeks of their practicum. This may mean that despite these instruments offering an understanding of the classroom interaction, this understanding may be limited and at the same time distorted by what was not observed in the other weeks. Additionally, as I video recorded the lessons' implementations, this might have caused the usual behaviour of the PSTs and pupils to differ from when there was no camera and no observer in the classroom.

Despite the social uprising, observing two of the PSTs’ lessons implementations were completed as planned, although the gap between one lesson and the other was longer than anticipated. For the observation, I agreed on dates and times that suited PSTs. On observation days, I generally had to wait outside schools for PSTs to pick me up there and go into the classroom. I usually arrived around 20 minutes early to have enough time to get to the classroom and set up the video camera. Sometimes I had to wait inside the school entrance hall while students played during their break until the PST arrived. I often had to avoid the footballs with which students were playing.

In most cases, PSTs introduced me to the class, and in a few cases, some pupils asked me questions. Most of the time, they ignored me. They called me *profe* (informal for teacher) if they

referred to me. As an observer, I also must acknowledge that since I am also a language teacher, I sometimes questioned the PSTs' decisions in relation to some activities, procedures, and how they intended to address the lesson's objectives. I do not attempt to say I am a better language teacher than any of these PSTs, as from experience I understand that being successful at teaching implies an array of different factors. With this disclosure, I only attempt to be honest and, as I have explained earlier, show how my different identities were also part of this data collection process.

Video stimulated recall interviews (SRI) were used to contribute to the direct observation of the lessons' implementations. This introspective method involves "the replay of videotape or audiotape of a teacher's lesson in order to stimulate a commentary upon the teacher's thought processes at the time" (Calderhead, 1981, p. 211). Video stimulated recall interviews fit in this research as a data collection instrument as the main aim in using it was to recall, report and identify thoughts that occurred during the lesson implementation, as a way to understand at a cognitive level why PSTs made certain decisions during the lesson observation, as well as beliefs that served as the rationale for the participants' decisions. This activity contributed to a rounded appreciation of the PSTs' classroom behaviour organically, including the PSTs' aims, goals, and intentions. In addition to this, other external forces that underlie the PSTs' actions could be explored.

After every lesson observation, the SRI was conducted no longer than 48 hours later to avoid reliability and data weakness. To be more precise, in most cases the SRIs were carried out the same day, right after the lesson implementation. Following the types of prompts and thoughts accessed in the SRIs, suggested by Henderson *et al.* (2006), I used the video recording as an artefact to prepare questions for the interview, although the preparation of the interview was done mainly while observing the PSTs lesson's implementations. When carrying out the PSTs SRIs, I asked them questions about the whole lesson implementation and specific questions related to specific activities, quotes, or behaviours. On occasions, earlier teaching experiences were recalled and shared in order to compare the decision-making for the particular one observed. As the SRIs were carried out very soon after the lesson implementation, PSTs mostly remembered the situations we discussed. However, there were some cases where PSTs had not remembered certain events. In those cases, I used the recording to show them the specific time or made use of notes I took during the lesson implementation.

In order to explore the understanding of the GLT by PSTs applied in their teaching practices, the SRIs were approached firstly by using an adapted version of Valcárcel and Verdú (1995) model scheme for the L2 classroom (See Appendix B, p. 194). However, while piloting and implementing

the SRIs, some aspects, such as the organisation of the classroom, were disregarded as in most cases PSTs set up the classroom in a traditional way, that is to say the teacher in the front and students' seats and tables looking at the front where the board is. It must be noted that in some cases there was no other way to organise the classroom due to space constraints, or in the case of Rose, where she was in a classroom that did not have individual tables but long tables, where four students could be fit in each of them. In other cases, such as with Frank, he organised the lesson using a horseshoe, but the delivery of the lesson continued to have the same dynamic as a traditional classroom set-up.

While observing and recording, I took notes and followed the university lesson plan organisation (See Figure 7). Thus, I paid attention to the lesson objective and pre, while and post-activities carried out in relation to the lesson objective. At the same time, attention was placed on the materials used for the lesson implementation, the activities chosen, and the different emergent dynamics, such as relations among students or with the PST and host teacher (if in the classroom). For an example of the SRIs created in an earlier analysis, please see Appendix C (p. 196)

By using direct observation and SRIs, I developed a deeper understanding of the actions that occurred in the lessons' implementations and explored the underpinning reasons or beliefs that supported the PSTs' decisions in the classroom.

4.6.3 Focus Group

The focus group (FG) was not initially part of the data collection instruments. However, after noticing emerging topics that repeatedly appeared during the data collection process, the need to do a focus group to explore these topics emerged. Seven of the nine PSTs participated in this focus group, which was conducted right after PSTs finished their practicum and received their final university module grades

Focus groups are another valuable tool for collecting qualitative data as they allowed the researcher to explore communal human interaction. At the same time, they emphasise the multivocality of the participants' beliefs and their experiences and attitudes concerning a particular issue. Additionally, and in order to explore the themes that emerged during this data collection process, focus groups prompt interaction among members, which creates a synergised environment where the participants' beliefs, opinions and experiences can be compared and contrasted (Flick, 2014; Denscombe, 2017). Following Denscombe's (2017) definition, a focus group consists of a small group of people (between six to nine) who are grouped to explore attitudes, perceptions and feelings and ideas about a certain topic through the help of a moderator. One of the aims of this focus group was to discuss issues where PSTs did not feel too

confident to expand individually, but within a small community, the focus group allowed them to feel freer to explore these issues. This aligns with Kitzinger (1995), who states that focus groups can be used to unveil people's understanding and experiences about issues and the reasons underpinning these patterns of thinking. Unlike a group interview, a focus group stresses the interactivity of the participants and collective attitudes that emerge from these groups (Gibbs, 2012).

Following Dawson, Manderson and Tallo (1993) and Morgan's (1997) recommendations, my role as a moderator of this focus group was to organise, conduct, and control the process. As suggested by these authors, a moderator needs to be non-judgemental about the participants' responses, open-minded, have good listening, leadership and organisational skills, and be sensitive to the participants' needs. This was reflected by facilitating the emerging discussion, encouraging more shy participants to express their opinions, and preventing domination or inhibiting comments from participants.

I used a list of 15 open-ended questions to conduct this session (See Appendix D, p. 201). However, these questions served as a guide as other questions naturally emerged. Additionally, other intended questions were responded naturally by the participants' discussion. The focus group was audio-recorded, and the transcription continued to have the pseudonyms used in the SSIs interviews.

4.7 Analysis

In this study I used different approaches to analyse and make sense of the data. The analysis began during the data collection process while carrying out interviews and observing PSTs. The following points present how the data was approached, how thematic analysis was carried out, and how the data will be presented.

4.7.1 Transcriptions, translation keys and trustworthiness

Atkinson and Heritage (1984), emphasise that producing and using transcriptions are research activities on their own and should not be only seen as a technique for analysis. Although there is not yet a universal format for transcription that can suit all the types of qualitative data collection, transcriptions should systematically assist researchers in organising textual data, regardless of the analytical technique used (McLellan, MacQueen and Neidig, 2003). In fact, transcribing is more than a technical process. In my experience, when transcribing the interviews, I could remember places and situations and recall the moment of the interview that contributed to the interpretation of both forms of data; those who were more predictable based on the existing

literature, and those who emerged. Transcribing the interviews also helped identify the different themes that emerged in the interactions. Despite this not being an easy or swift procedure, looking at the data once transcribed more than once assisted me in distancing myself from the data. Patton (2002) establishes that the researcher should make decisions when transcribing to select what will be transcribed, such as reducing the data when beginning the transcription. With this in mind, I followed McLellan, MacQueen and Neidia's (2003) suggestion of transcribing the entire audio recording whilst attempting to provide a verbatim account of them. This level of transcription complements the level of analysis intended (Drisko, 1997), as this research aims to explore the values, beliefs, or experiences of individuals or groups of individuals in depth in order to identify how they develop their professional identities. As pointed out in [4.6](#), the interviews and focus group were conducted in Spanish as this is the native language of the participants and researcher. Transcriptions were also done in the L1. For the purposes of presenting the data in a comprehensive way in this research, only the chunks of data chosen to be representative of this research's findings were translated into English. At the same time, I disclosed in [4.3](#) that during the data collection process I adopted different identities, therefore how I positioned myself in the research and thereafter observations and judgement of the world also shape this research. Despite this, the fact that I was the person collecting the data, in a context known to me as a former primary, secondary and higher education student, and then as a language teacher and teacher educator are factors that somehow support my interpretations of the data, where my aim was always to convey the meanings of the participants' experiences (Ho, Holloway and Stenhouse, 2019). According to Ho, Holloway and Stenhouse (ibid), one of the issues may be the challenge to find equivalents in language while translating. As a speaker of both Spanish and English, I have linguistic awareness of this issue. In cases where I considered meaning could be missed when translated, I kept the original words of Chilean Spanish, the same as I do too along the thesis. Every expression or word that is in the original language has an explanation in parenthesis for clarification. At the same time, I reviewed that my interpretation was clear for English speakers, but also for Chilean English language teachers' colleagues. A total of five other people peer reviewed my translations and contributed to make it more understandable and reliable.

On the other hand, me being within the context of the participants and data generated should not only be considered as a limitation, as there are some advantages in this process. Acknowledging that in qualitative research the findings are to be considered somehow constructed by the researcher (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008; King and Horrocks, 2010), according to Van Nes *et.al* (2010), the translation process could generate an intimate understanding of the participants experiences and what they meant to participants. At the same time, being the researcher and translator can

allow awareness and sensitisation of the researcher of cultural nuances, bringing the researcher closer to meaning and concept equivalence when both translating and analysing data (Temple and Young, 2004). Lastly, this technique can help minimising the risk of exposing the participants personal experiences (Ho, Holloway and Stenhouse, 2019). Every interview has an ID header with basic information about the participant, such as the type of interview, name, and date where the interview was carried out. Before entering them in Nvivo, each type of participant (i.e., PSTs, supervisors, etc.) has a different colour font: PSTs-black; host teacher- green; mentors-purple; supervisors and other members of the university blue. This was done in order to have a visual differentiation of the participants when a theme emerged. In order to offer confidentiality to the participants, their names have been replaced by pseudonyms. A pseudonym has also replaced the names of the schools and the university named. Additionally, I created a transcription Key, seen in Figure 4, and abbreviations of the data sources, which can be seen in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4. Transcription Key

PST:	Preservice teacher
PG:	Profesor guía
S:	Supervisor
PL:	Programme leader
EI:	Elite interviewee
I:	Interviewer
M:	Hybrid (mentor)

(...)	Unintelligible
[...]	Overlapping speech
...	More than 3 seconds of silence
CAPITAL	Stressed words
' '	English words
<u>Underlined</u>	Spanish idiom or expression

Figure 5. Data Sources

SSI:	Semi-structured interview
SSI1:	Semi-structured interview 1
SSI2:	Semi-structured interview 2
SRI1:	Stimulated recall interview 1
SRI2:	Stimulated recall interview 2
LO1:	Lesson observation 1
LO2:	Lesson observation 2
FG:	Focus group

MF: Meeting feedback (numbered if more than one per participant, i.e, MF1, MF2, etc)
 VR1: Video Recording 1
 VR2: Video Recording 2

4.7.2 Approaching the data

As described earlier, as the researcher I also shape this research. Researching naturalistic enquiry involves doing fieldwork that places the researcher in close contact with the participants and their problems. This raises questions regarding how the researcher positions themselves cognitively and emotionally toward the participants. Patton (2002) suggests the phrase 'emphatic neutrality', which means that there must be a middle ground between getting too involved and remaining too distant. Taking either of these directions too strongly could judge or reduce understanding of the studied issue.

In order to reach emphatic neutrality and attempt to represent my participants' voices, there has been particular attention placed on how to treat and analyse the data, however, acknowledging that my voice would also be theirs. For this reason, I considered and practised different approaches to the data.

Firstly, after transcribing the interviews, I took a set of six interviews and carried out three cycles of analysis (Saldaña, 2015) using different data analysis techniques and the qualitative data analysis software Nvivo. This first approach to the data was made deductively, and I attempted to find similar themes that emerged for PSTs during the practicum and interpret such issues from the point of view of other participants. There was a fourth attempt where I aimed to classify the different topics inductively and deductively. At this point, thematic analysis seemed like a sensible way to analyse the data.

4.7.3 Coding

Having incorporated the sociocultural theory as part of the theoretical framework, this study acknowledges that learning to teach and identity construction are individually and socially constructed phenomena. Identity is found to be shaped and reshaped through participation in a community of practice (Wenger, 1998; Packer and Goicoechea, 2000), and where actions and thoughts are shaped and reshaped by sociocultural tools (Vygotsky, 1963). These tools are, 1) Cultural artefacts and activities (e.g. textbooks), 2) Cultural concepts (theories exposed to in teacher training programmes and higher education institutions), and 3) Social relations (relations with temporary and significant others and (Johnson and Golombek, 2003; Johnson, 2009). The coding was achieved by identifying different tools that preservice teachers used to mediate the

learning to teach English and their professional identity formation. Within these three big categories, other categories emerged while analysing the data (See Appendix E, p. 219) Finally, these subcategories were organised as four main findings, which are presented in 4.7.4.

4.7.4 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis has been a problematic concept to define (Spencer *et al.*, 2014). Patton (2002, p. 453) defines it as “any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings”. To understand how PSTs shape their professional identities during the practicum, thematic analysis proved to be pertinent in presenting “rich and detailed, yet complex account[s] of data” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 78). Additionally, thematic analysis allows linking an array of participants’ concepts and opinions and comparing these with data gathered in different situations and times during the data collection process (Marks and Yardley, 2004) as was the case in this study.

Firstly, to carry out thematic analysis, it is necessary to define the patterns or themes of interest to be discussed. Usually, the early stages of discovering patterns, themes and categories with qualitative data are through inductive analysis (Patton, 2002). According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), this is called ‘open coding’ (p. 223), to emphasise that the researcher is being open to the data at this point. Once the patterns or themes have been identified through inductive analysis, there usually comes a confirmatory stage through deductive analysis (Patton, 2002) which certifies that the themes are effectively linked to the data. For this research, I followed the thematic analysis model of Miles and Huberman (1994), which consists of three stages or streams: data reduction, data display, and data conclusion-drawing/verifying. These stages are explained below.

The data was collected over one academic term in 2019. Having transcribed all the data, I transferred the data to Nvivo, where I began the reduction phase. Data reduction is related to coding. Coding in thematic analysis is linked to making connections between different parts of the data (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Before coding, the interviews were read and listened to more than once to find similar emergent themes among participants.

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the second main step is data display. These authors emphasise that this step cannot be separated from data reduction, as it complements the former. Data display aims to make sense of the data that has been collected. This stage proved challenging for me, a novice researcher, due to the amount of data collected and the variety of themes that emerged. Displaying the data as sets of quotes, even considering the benefits that thematic analysis offers, seemed not enough to do justice to the participants’ accounts of their

experiences through their practicum, especially considering a suitable way to present the dilemmas they faced in the process of building their professional identities.

Even though thematic analysis offered me a comprehensive process to identify cross-references between the themes and the whole data (Hayes, 1997), this approach has been criticised for undermining contexts and differences among individual accounts (Ayres, Kavanaugh and Knafl, 2003). By coding and decoding the data, there may be a chance that the 'local web of causality' (Miles and Huberman, 1994., p.151) results are threatened. Therefore there is a risk of losing the individual stories of people (Chui, Mott and Maxwell, 2012). In order to avoid doing this, I distanced myself from the data for some time, and read only the interviews without Nvivo coding, in order to reduce possible bias.

Table 10 shows a timeline of the research carried out and the different steps taken along the way during the data collection.

Table 10. Research timeline

2019	Research timeline
January-March	- Ethical approval ERGO and data collection instruments design.
March	- First approach to university setting. The programme leader is contacted by email to request permission to conduct research in that university.
March	- English pedagogy programme staff authorises the conducting of research.
June	- Semistructured interviews piloting. Online interviews. Piloting carried out with preservice teachers from the same university but in year 3 of the programme, and with teacher educators who had worked as supervisors.
August	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Second approach to university setting: Face-to-face meetings with the programme leader and practicum coordinator to discuss how to approach participants. - Schools are contacted through UTP or the Head of the English department to invite PSTs to participate and be able to record their lessons implementations. - PSTs are invited to participate in the research project. - Supervisors, schoolteachers and mentors working with the participant PSTs are invited to participate in this research. - Stimulated recall interviews piloting. Piloting is carried out at a university and a school that is not part of the research.
September-October	- School students from PSTs classes are informed about the research and are given the opt-out letters for their parents to sign.

	- Application of semistructured Interview 1 to PSTs, supervisors, mentors and host teachers. Beginning of analysis process (observing, taking notes or emergent topics)
October-November	- Video recording of lesson implementations and stimulated Recall Interviews 1 and 2 with preservice teachers. - Collection of meeting recordings (PSTs-supervisors/mentors/host teachers).
October-December	- Semistructured interview 2 is conducted with PSTs, supervisors, mentors and host teachers.
September-December	- Beginning of data transcription and identification of topics that emerged from data (Second approach to the data)
November	- Semistructured interview with the programme leader
December	- Interview with an elite participant
December	- Focus group with seven PSTs.
2020	
January-August	- Transcription of all the data - Pilot analysis with six interviews from different participants and find similar themes.
September-December	- Analysis of the data based on the previous approaches to the data along the study.
2021	
January-July	- Data analysis - Coding of themes
July-January 2022	- Identification and grouping of findings

4.7.5 Presentation of the findings

From a sociocultural perspective to LTE, these findings emerge as some of the tools that were used during the practicum for PSTs to operationalise the GLT concept. The following are the themes elicited during the data analysis:

- The use of the portfolio and lesson plan design as a reflective tool to explore Good Language Teacher practices.
- The use of the target language in the classroom as a tool to demonstrate being a Good Language teacher.
- Enacting the Communicative Language teaching approach as a tool to be a Good Language Teacher.

- Being an Inclusive Language Teacher; caring for students' diversity as a tool to enact a *Good Language Teacher* identity.

Each of these themes will be presented as a chapter, where supporting data from PSTs, host teachers and mentors and university-related people will be presented and discussed. Later in the discussion section, I will present the main themes that emerged from the findings and answer the research questions.

4.8 Ethics

This research aimed to approach PSTs doing their practicum and explore how they build their concept of the *GLT*, and how their experiences around it shape their teachers' identities. To obtain the data that best fits this qualitative case study, interviews, stimulated recall interviews, observation, and a focus group were carried out. These instruments implied some ethical issues.

To avoid breaching any participants' rights, an ERGO application was submitted in February 2019 (See Appendix F, p. 220). This application was accepted in March 2019. Afterwards, another ERGO was submitted to carry out extra interviews and the focus group. This application received approval in December 2019.

To ensure participants' confidentiality, some key actions were shared and discussed with them. The key actions were: 1) To request the necessary permissions from the university involved and make explicit that the participation in it was voluntary; 2) To inform the participants beforehand about their involvement in this research, providing them confirmation of confidentiality and anonymity, and; 3) To maintain the safety and integrity of participants at all times.

The data collection instruments, along with participant information sheets, consent letters and opt-out letters, can be found in Appendix F

4.9 Piloting

The SSIs were piloted from June to the beginning of August 2019. To do this, I contacted PSTs from the same university at which I would carry out my research, carrying out progressive practicums. Some teacher educators who had previously worked as supervisors were also part of this piloting. The SSIs were piloted remotely at the beginning while I was still in the UK; in June, I piloted the interviews with PSTs and a supervisor through Skype. Arriving in Chile, there were two stimulated recall interviews piloted. The teachers who were interviewed and recorded participated voluntarily and were aware this was part of the piloting process. Two more SSIs were

piloted, one with a PST and another with a supervisor. Concerning the SRIs, these were piloted at a school in Vilcún, and another at a university in Temuco.

Having done the piloting, some possible issues for the data collection emerged. However, there was time to rethink how to approach the interview participants. For instance, there were some issues about how to formulate questions, and the questions were rethought and improved. In the case of the SRIs piloted, which were carried out with a novice teacher in her first year as a teacher, and with a 10-year veteran teacher, the novice felt especially threatened with the questions 'why', or 'what were you thinking when you did such thing?'. This gave me insight into possible feelings PSTs would experience while carrying out the SRIs, as they could feel judged. In such cases, I told them that I was not there to assess or judge them and only wanted to understand what they were thinking for research purposes.

Either way, piloting the instruments allowed me to foresee any potential procedural issues, such as following protocols, the time the interviews could take, or testing questions that may be threatening or ambiguous (Baker, 1994). In turn, piloting was important to test the questions and to practice interviewing. Having done this, I next had to consider how to keep a record of the interviews, what to take with me, where to interview, etc. (Van Teijlingen *et al.*, 2001). Additionally, as a novice researcher, piloting offered me greater perspective of the work that was ahead (Holloway, 1997).

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to present the research questions and describe the methodological approaches undertaken to explore the understanding of the *GLT* for the Chilean context with nine PSTs carrying out their practicum. This study is understood as a case study where nine PSTs from an English pedagogy programme in a university in the country are distributed within five schools to carry out their practicum.

Regarding the methods used in qualitative studies, I argue for the use of semi structured interviews, PSTs direct observation and stimulated recall interviews, and one focus group. National policy documents and PSTs' portfolios are also used to enrich the information provided by the participants. I also discussed how I decided to carry out thematic analysis and how it was organised.

In the following chapters, from 5 to 8, I will present the research findings.

Chapter 5 The use of the portfolio and lesson plan design as a reflective tool to explore *Good Language Teacher practices.*

In the field of education, portfolios have been widely used in order to assess process learning (French, 1992; Barton and Collins, 1993; Doolittle, 1994). Most recently, they have been incorporated as part of practice-based placements in teacher education programmes, as literature reports, they can be a useful tool to promote PSTs' reflection (Farrell, 2002; Mansvelder-Longayroux, Beijaard and Verloop, 2007).

Generally, portfolios can be understood as a purposeful collection of the teacher students that demonstrate their efforts, progress, and achievement in one or more areas (Paulson and Paulson, 1991; Arter and Spandel, 1992; Niguidula, 1993; Leeman-Conley, 1998). Some of the advantages of using portfolios for the practicum have been reported to be that PSTs can support enhancing their personal and collective knowledge and learning during learning experiences such as the practicum (Cáceres, Chamoso and Azcárate, 2010). However, portfolios could also simply be used as a tool to assess final products, not considering the learning-to-teach process. Thus, it needs to be considered that portfolios alone would not be enough to guarantee that students' reflection reaches higher levels that can actually bring about transformation of practices. As Chamoso and Cáceres (2010) argue, most PSTs only describe teaching elements in the practicum; however they do not achieve high levels of reflection. This supports other findings in LTE where PSTs reflection level usually reaches a technical level, and on only a few occasions have higher levels of reflection been observed (Farrell, 2002, 2018; Mansvelder-Longayroux, Beijaard and Verloop, 2007). In the case of Chile, the END (See 2.4) also reports that the reflection registers the lowest score among EFL teaching programmes. Even when the results show that this university is above the average range of reflection, it is still a slight difference only. Additionally, the conditions by which many PSTs carry out their practicum are constrained by the context and power issues they experience when attempting to implement teaching practices that could be more teacher centred.

In this programme, PSTs use the Rules and Regulations document (See Appendix G, p. 221) to comply with the requirements of the practicum. This document is a comprehensive guide that consists of four distinct sections. The first section introduces the concept of the practicum and outlines its general objectives. It provides a clear definition of the practicum and sets the overall goals that participants are expected to achieve. The second section delves into the structure and organization of the practicum. This section covers crucial aspects such as school placement,

detailing the specific educational institutions where preservice teachers will be assigned. Additionally, it highlights the important bodies within the school to which preservice teachers need to be accountable. The third section focuses on the requirements necessary for undertaking the practicum and provides guidance on the enrolment process. It specifies certain prerequisites that must be fulfilled, including the successful completion of all previous modules or coursework. Lastly, the document's final section addresses special considerations that may arise during the practicum, and acknowledges the existence of unique circumstances that might require additional attention or accommodations to ensure a successful experience for all participants.

As part of the practicum, PSTs had to complete a digitally based portfolio for the university. According to the practicum Rules and Regulations document the portfolio is one of the assessment tools used to evaluate the initial teaching performance regarding the Domains of Framework for Good Teaching and Guiding Standards for English Pedagogy (See Chapter 2). The portfolio compiles evidence and completion of tasks from PSTs during the practicum and assesses them in both a formative and summative manner. The portfolio entries completion is worth 40% of the PSTs practicum final mark, whereas another 40% of the PSTs final mark comes from the supervisors regarding the lesson's implementations, and 20% corresponds to the assessment of the host teacher. When the PSTs have a mentor, they assess as both a supervisor and a host teacher (60%).

The portfolio is divided into five sections: *Description of the context*, where PSTs must present a detailed account of the school and the class they will be teaching; *English language Workplan*, a section where PSTs need to evidence the design and implementation of ten lessons during the semester. There is also an assessment form for the lesson implementation in this section and a supervision rating scale used by supervisors to provide formative feedback and assess PSTs. The third section is related to the Class council Workplan which PSTs need to cover, as well as parents' meetings. The fourth section is an action research project that had been made part of the portfolio that year, and it consisted of a project PSTs had to create to improve the learning of English in students based on a necessity they identified at school. However, this section was hardly covered due to the social uprising, and besides that, participants reported to have little understanding of this activity. As mentioned earlier, this section had just been introduced that term, and there were many doubts in terms of how to carry out that section, from supervisors and PSTs. Some of the PSTs did not even have the time to plan or implement it. The fifth section is related to an assessment rubric that needs to be filled by different people at school, i.e., UTP, principal, etc. (For a detailed account of the portfolio structure, please see Appendix D, p. 201).

This chapter will focus on findings related to two parts of the portfolio relevant to English language teaching: the *Description of the context* and the *English language workplan*. There are

two items within the language Workplan section: the lesson plan design and the worksheet, as the resources which PSTs used most of the time. This section will present findings related to the lesson plan design as the worksheet will be covered separately shortly in another finding. The third area to cover is the feedback PSTs obtained as formative and summative assessments during the practicum and how the assessment played a significant role in developing the portfolio.

The entry *Description of the context* attempts to gather from schools the following information found in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Description of the context in practicum portfolio

I Description of the Context		
1) Knowing my school and my students		
a) Identification		
School name: RBD: Dependency: Vulnerability rate: Number of Students: Administrator:	Principal's, UTP's and Inspector's Names: Electronic mails: Address: Telephone number: Main class:	English teacher's name: Council class teacher's name: Electronic mails: School Project: Mission and Vision. Other projects and activities:
2) Knowing my students, description of the Main class. It must include:		
- Class, - Number of students, - Age range, - English class performance in terms of concepts (MB very good, B good, S Sufficient, I insufficient) by term or annual. - General academic average of the class by term or annual. - Class book discipline records:	- Students characteristics according to the personnel opinions (Teachers, Advisors, Psychologist, Special Needs Educator, and others) that attend to the class in general and to particular students. - Students characteristics according to theory (cognitive, moral, emotional, biological and social development) stating a relation between theory and observed reality. - Relevant health information.	
3) Diagnostic assessment of reading, listening, writing and speaking with quantitative and/or qualitative analysis.		
4) Learning styles test with quantitative and/or qualitative analysis.		
5) Interest surveys (English class and council class) with quantitative and/or qualitative analysis.		

This Description of the context is in line with the *Domains of Framework for Good Teaching*, Facet A, which is Preparation of Teaching (See Chapter 2). This Facet is about the PST organising the contents to teach, taking into consideration students' ways of learning and their previous knowledge. Therefore, it is expected from the university that PSTs know their students' knowledge of the language, interests, and different learning needs.

During this period, PSTs were inducted and contextualised about the school setting where they were carrying out their last practicum. As Figure 5.1 shows, PSTs were expected to provide an extensive overview of the school context where they were going to do the practicum. Additionally, PSTs were required to get familiar with and observe the daily dynamics of the classroom and school for the first two weeks of their practicum. In this Diagnostic stage, PSTs met

and negotiated with the host teacher or mentor on how they would distribute the twenty weekly hours they had to spend at school, plus the fifteen they would spend planning, preparing their lessons, attending a weekly meeting with their supervisors, and completing the other entries of the portfolio. PSTs would also determine which one their main course would be, and which will be for co-teaching. Also, it was decided if they would have to carry out any extracurricular workshops with students or be part of any extra activity the school has in the schedule (e.g., English language festival).

In this entry, PSTs also register those students who were part of the School Integration project (PIE). In line with that, it is requested in the portfolio and encouraged by the university supervisor that PSTs find out how the English lessons are structured by the language teacher and what teaching approaches are predominant. Additionally, PSTs should check the class book record to find the students grades in the subject, and any negative or positive records about students concerning their behaviour or achievements in different subjects. They are also requested to do a learner's interest survey, a learning styles survey, and an English language entry test. All of this is in order to consider these variables when planning the lessons, choosing the topics, selecting types of activities, organising the classroom or collaborative work.

Most PSTs considered that the portfolio was a good tool to work within the practicum, such is the case of Frank (Sch4), who voiced,

I think that it is very useful (the portfolio), because it comprises all the documents we will be using, and we can keep a record of them. For example, the lesson plans, the PowerPoints we will be using, the worksheets, the Description of the context, and the interest survey. And with the last one, I can create the lessons. (...) I believe that there is a record that you can see afterwards and say "oh, maybe I could have done this better, or maybe I can use this for another lesson in the future". (SS1, 199-205)

Apart from what Frank described, Susan (Sch3) found that the portfolio, especially the section related to reflection after lessons implementations, also encouraged them to reflect upon their practices,

"And ultimately, I believe that's the most useful thing; to think of concrete actions that can help us improve. (...) So, it (portfolio) makes you think, I did this on this occasion, how am I'm going to do it next time? This encourages me to reflect, I couldn't reflect upon my practice otherwise" (SS1, 391-401)

The second section of the portfolio was the *English Language Workplan*, where the lesson design and the resources were embedded.

The lesson plan structure can be seen in Figure 7.

Figure 7. Lesson plan structure design. Course programme model 1-2

Lesson Plan			
Teacher Candidate:	Name of the lesson:	Time:	
Grade Level:	Unit/Topic:	Date:	
Number of students:			
Skills:			
Objectives:			
Contents:			
Type of texts:	Communicative function(s):	Key Vocabulary:	Grammar:
Identification of prior knowledge:			
Activities			
Resources			
Assessment			

As mentioned earlier, PSTs had to attach ten lesson plans in the portfolio, from which they were assessed formatively in five, and the other five were assessed summatively. In terms of resources, PSTs often used the board, the data show, PowerPoint presentations, and worksheets.

5.1 Preservice teachers

As evidenced earlier in this chapter, PSTs agreed that the portfolio was a valuable tool for the practicum process. Frank (Sch4) explained that thanks to the information collected in the Description of the context with the learning styles survey, he could discover most students had a kinesthetic and visual learning style. For example, Frank explained that when introducing new vocabulary, the host teacher provided students with the word in English and then wrote the translation on the board in Spanish, but based on this information, he decided to work with

vocabulary differently from his host teacher and use images to present the vocabulary in the LO1 instead. His reasoning was,

“Because...I think that, well, the students are kinesthetic, but also the results (from the surveys applied) report that they are as kinesthetic as they are visual, or auditive [learners]...so, in this case, I used images, so they could link the vocabulary within a visual context, where they can remember the image, and from the image, they can remember the concept, in spite of teaching vocab in an isolated way, with no context” (SRI1, 70-75)

Based on his observations of HT5, Frank decided to do something different based on his understanding of what a GLT should do when teaching vocabulary.

In Sch1, Rose (Sch1) identified the lesson plan design within the portfolio as a guide to organise her lesson. She voiced that with the lesson plan, she has incorporated knowledge about planning,

“It makes me think that I will not do this or that in the following lesson implementation. For example, when creating the lesson objective, how can I actually include what I REALLY WANT TO ACHIEVE? Before, I used to put the means to achieve the aims instead of the aim in my lesson plan” (SSI1, 302-307)

Rose’s case differs from the other preservice teachers, as she followed the course programme 1 (See Appendix A, p. 193), where PSTs used to do two semesters of practicum, one in primary education and one in secondary education. Therefore, this semester she was completing the second half of her practicum and had generated some learning from the previous one. In the excerpt presented, she explains how during the previous practicum, she had learnt to create objectives for a lesson plan, which was something she felt confused about until the previous semester.

For Carina (Sch3), the portfolio served as a template to follow the completion steps of the different procedures,

“All of the lessons have the same components; warm-up, then we do the while, and all of that (...) We aim to incorporate all the skills (...) I think that is assessed in the rubric. Now that I’m doing the Description of the context, I am following the rubric, so I don’t miss any score” (SSI1, 118-131)

Carina showed her concern about her not wanting to miss score from what she was expected to do in the portfolio sections, so she was aware of completing all the information requested.

However, when it came to incorporating the information she collected more practically in the classroom, she did not remember what she had collected. Regarding knowing students, when Carina (Sch3) was asked about why she did not allow two students to go to the toilet during the LO1, she stated,

PST: Miss Giannina said they could not go. (...) They have been suspended and started fights, OUTSIDE, not in my class, and well...I haven't read their record sheet. But yes, Miss Giannina told me they are not allowed to go out. (SRI1, 813-820)

Despite the time of induction and her having to check the students' records as part of her Description of the context completion, Carina did not relate the knowledge she was meant to consider knowing why these students were not allowed to leave the classroom. She just followed what the mentor told her without further questioning this measure.

Additionally, readers will be able to see various examples in Chapter 8, where despite gathering information regarding SENs' students, PSTs could not incorporate that knowledge into their lessons' implementations. However some of them, such as Rose (Sch1) and Susan (Sch3), did. It must also be noted that, in the lesson plan design, there was no entry to complete about students with SEN and how they were going to be addressed during the lesson implementation.

Nonetheless, in some cases the information collected could be reflected in practical matters in the lessons' implementations. Due to her personal characteristics, Susan developed sympathy for her students very quickly, which could be evidenced in her lessons' implementations. Despite her class reality being very similar to Carina's as they were in the same school, Susan could engage students in her lessons due to her using the knowledge of the students she collected in the Description of the reality and to do follow-up of certain students who were more at risk than others. For instance, in the LO1, I observed how she greeted a student because it was his birthday. The student was very surprised that Susan knew about this and seemed very happy about it (VR1_3, 25':52''-26':16''). Susan was monitoring students who were writing an autobiography, and when she approached this student and said,

*"Happy birthday! Today we have a birthday classmate, guys, it's Victor!
Students: yes, we already sang the happy birthday song to him!
Savka: yes? That's good!
Miss, how did you know?
Savka: I just know!"*

When I asked Savka about this, she said,

"I know the students' birthdays because I wrote that down at the beginning of the practicum, and since this is my class, in the English subject and in class council, I learnt their birthdays. (...) I don't know them (birthdays) by heart, but I constantly check before a lesson. I think they like that, like they feel I consider them.(...)" (SRI1, 126-136).

Susan and I also talked about one of her students who had issues with drug consumption. She was aware of this situation, which is why she decided not to push this student to work, but she constantly checked on him during the course of the lessons. During the LO1, I was sitting down

very close to him, taking notes and recording the lesson, and this student, whom I will call Bruno, was lying on the table for most of the lesson. He looked tired and disconnected from what was happening in the classroom. At some point, he asked me questions such as who I was and what I was doing, but always with his head on the table, as it looked like he was under the effect of drugs. Susan told me she kept in touch with Bruno's mom about anything that happened at school by WhatsApp (i.e., he skipped lessons or the day he climbed up the wall to leave school), and Susan had investigated Bruno's issues; therefore, she had gathered information on how to deal with him in the classroom under these circumstances. Susan had also kept in touch with Bruno's headteacher, who helped her by advising her on what to do,

"Bruno HATES BEING AT SCHOOL. I don't push him. His headteacher has told me that I shouldn't push him but that I should encourage him to have good values. So today I focused on that, on asking him if he was OK, instead of pushing him to finish the worksheet" (SRI1, 144-154).

During this lesson, Susan implemented other practices that showed she was familiar with her other students, such as monitoring them where they were completing the worksheet's activities. In that lesson, Susan wanted students to finish the lesson by writing an autobiography and she showed them one that she had created herself. She explained,

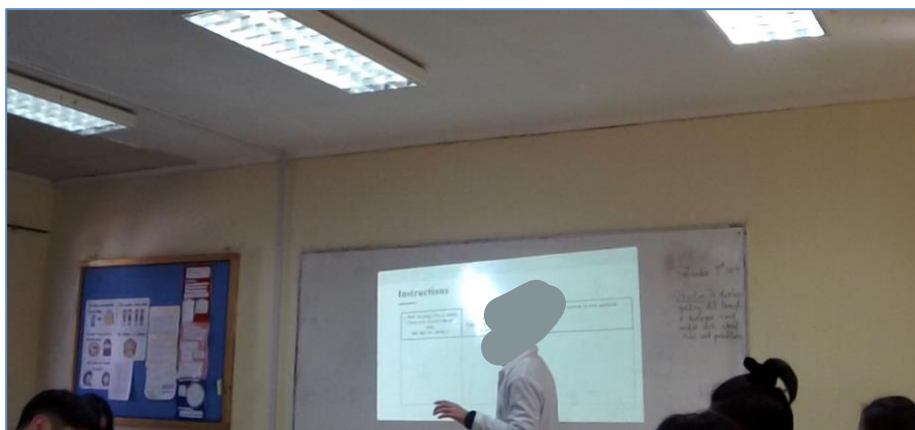
"Because they need to see a visual representation of the things they have to do. Otherwise, they don't do it. For instance, I had to create a poster myself in the posters activities and show it to them. Otherwise, they start like, teacher I don't know how to start..." (SRI1, 237-240)

In a similar situation, Robert (Sch2) struggled with students completing a post-production activity (See Figure 8 and Figure 9). Robert explains this activity would serve to complete an assessed oral report. He decided to use the L1 to explain this activity so, according to him, this way it was clear for everyone. He explained all the stages of the activity, and then he provided an example. Then he gave 25 minutes to students to do this activity on their own. It was noticeable that students did not know what to do, as it seemed they found the activity too challenging, or they felt they were not being monitored, so they started doing something else.

When discussing the possible issues for students not completing the chart where they had to write questions using the modal verbs *have to* or *must*, and the possible reasons why they started getting distracted, I mentioned that it was possible that students might not have felt so confident about writing questions with this structure. To that, he voiced,

"I didn't reinforce them in that moment, I just gave them an example of how the work needed to be done. But I didn't reinforce the content, because, allegedly, it is something they know, it is content that has already been taught, but it looks like (he giggles), they don't. (...) Then, I would have to reinforce everything in the end, and that cannot be done, because of time" (SRI1, 54-63)

Figure 8. Robert's Instructions for Production Activity



Robert was aware that students' levels of English were low. However, when teaching a content such as modals of obligation, he seemed not to have reflected about how to teach content that was required to know previously in order to understand this other content. It was not only that students were not confident enough to write questions using those modal verbs but also that the activity seemed too long for the learners and for some, frustrating. Therefore, they started to lose attention gradually, to the point that the class ended, and most of the students had not finished the activity, nor did Robert have the time to provide general feedback or do a closing of the activity.

Figure 9. Lesson observation 1- Robert

Worksheet Unit 7		
Name: _____ Grade: _____ Date: _____		
Objective: To develop speaking skills through a dialogue using modal verbs about rules and prohibitions.		
I. Complete the chart with the information requested.		
1. YOU are going to be an athlete. Choose your favorite Olympic sport. Tell <i>why</i> you choose it.	2. Write three (3) questions explaining: What do you have to/must do as an athlete?	3. Write <i>creative</i> answers to your questions.
	1.	1.
	2.	2.
	3.	3.

When asked what could have been done differently, Robert pointed out that maybe dividing the activity into sections would have given him more control over what the learners were doing. He

concluded that the speaking activity was going to be taken out, so the students would only work on the written activity the following lesson.

Figure 10. Extract from Robert's reflection LO1

My main weakness in this session was linked with giving instructions. I mean, it was comprehensive and coherent with the activities and the procedure that students had to follow. However, it could be better and more effective due to some students asked me several times to repeat the instructions or asked what they had to do. First, I had to be able to raise my voice in order for everyone could listen to me. Scrivener (2005) gives five steps in which one can improve giving instructions, and one step says to create the environment for the instruction beforehand to avoid chitchats, noises, and interruptions when I speak. This strategy proves its effectiveness in my weakness because I did not wait for students to be completely silent to speak and that concludes on saying repetitive times the instructions, losing time for them to work on the task, and to move to other activities in the class. In this sense, instructions and goals for the class could improve positively in the following session at putting into practice this strategy (C1); the effectiveness of the time could be more adequate for the activities prepared and could produce a more fluent class (C5). Additionally, the monitoring time could be completely focused on providing feedback and answering doubts instead of repeating instructions or doubts about the information that they did not pay attention to.

However, when looking at Robert's reflection about this situation, he focused on how he provided the instructions, and specially Domain C (See Figure 1) not considering his students' experiences and possibly frustrations about carrying out an activity like this. This can be portrayed in an extract of the reflection based on this lesson. To see the full reflection document, please see Appendix I (p. 243).

The reflection extract on Figure 10 shows how aware PSTs are about aligning this to the Domains of Framework for Good Teaching, possibly leaving aside issues that could be more contextually meaningful for them to explore in terms of learning to teach an L2.

Opposite to Susan, despite identifying that the student's level of English was low, Robert did not consider this when attempting to introduce new grammar structures and how he could have planned a lesson where his students could engage in this activity. Additionally, it did not seem that the supervisor advised this PST on this, or it might have been the case that the lesson plan's procedural explanation was unclear, as he provided students with around 25 minutes to carry out this activity on their own.

Pamela evaluated the lesson plan design and said,

"I think there are too many steps to follow for a lesson, especially when it is one of 45 minutes. (...) In the end, you end up filling the lesson plan template cause you have to do it, but what if, for example, there wasn't enough time for students to present a dialogue, you could start the following lesson with that...and then continue teaching the contents. But as everything is so structured, there is no time for us to make mistakes, and in a class with thirty-something students...there will be mistakes or things that didn't come up as planned. (...) Maybe the lesson plan could be more like a general plan, but not in detail" (SRI1, 489-500)

In this extract, what Pamela expressed resonates with what other PSTs voiced, which is that their understanding of the lesson plan structure was isolated lessons to be implemented within 45 or 90 minutes (the time lessons last in Chile). This made PSTs plan, not considering they could continue with the lesson implementation in another lesson and having the urge to finish on time with the completion of all the activities, irrespective of student learning happening or not. This translated into teaching one content in one lesson and moving to another content in the following lesson.

By the time of the LO2 and regarding incorporating the information gathered in the Description of Reality, some PSTs started incorporating that knowledge slightly, others continued improving, and others continued not considering the information collected in the Description of the context to plan their lessons.

In the SRI2, Beatriz (Sch5) reported similar feelings to the ones Pamela experienced in the SRI1, Beatriz showing to be in disagreement with the lesson plan design. She expressed she did not like it.

"..., because it's always the same. There always has to be a pre, a while and a post. There always has to be a reading or a listening activity. What I hate the most, is that there cannot be a continuation of what you've done in the previous lesson. I can't continue with this lesson in the next session as I have to implement a different one. So, I've often wanted to expand that content, to do something better. (...) I'd love a lesson where you can continue in the next one with the same contents, with the same grammar to put it in a way, but to cover it thoroughly. Also, that thing of showing key words obligatory, things could be done in a different way" (SRI2, 385-396)

Just as Pamela did, Beatriz got frustrated as she felt that the lesson plan put her in a box and that dictated how much time she had to take to teach the contents and how.

Frank (Sch4) thought he had included the students' learning styles and mentioned this repeatedly across the interviews; activities for the students to move were not evidenced in the lessons observed. Most of the activities he selected were basically related to reading and listening comprehension, where at the end of the activities, students were expected to produce a written piece. Concerning this, when asked in the SRI2 why he asked students to write, he said that it was

a personal achievement he wanted to reach with students since in the entry test (which was a KET type of test) he applied, only four students could produce a piece of writing at that level.

Every year during the formal instruction of the programme, Frank has been tested in the midterms of English language competency with a Cambridge test. At the same time, school students have been nationally tested with tests of this kind as well. Since the university's approach to teaching English, shaped by the national policies guidelines, is to teach the prospective teachers to teach the English language communicatively using the CEFR, it seemed reasonable for Frank to assess the students' level of English with a test of this kind (in this case a KET one), and at the same time intend to develop the written skill in the same way as he must have been encouraged at university.

The idea of encouraging students to write was more a personal achievement for Frank rather than an activity in alignment with the students' interests. Therefore, although writing is one of the four English language skills, this is not based on the interest survey Frank carried out; neither is this skill necessarily developed by using kinestheasic skills.

Beatriz (Sch5) claimed that she incorporated students' previous knowledge in her lessons. In the LO2, I observed how she reviewed some exercises from the worksheet she created and asked different students to write their answers on the board. She explained,

"Many of them are kinaesthetic; therefore, it is a good opportunity for them to move, and they enjoy participating in activities where they can move. I know it because I have seen that they cannot be sitting down for a long time; they start talking from one side to the other and taking out their phone. They get distracted. That's why I try to look for the naughtiest students in that sense, and I try to find something they can do during the class, so they can also feel they participate in it." (SRI2, 6-7)

Beatriz used the information collected to prevent certain misbehaviour and distractions from students in the class, which at the same time allowed her to feel in *control* of the class.

There is also an occasion in which Beatriz uses the song "*We are the world*" for a lesson warm-up, as she was introducing the topic of volunteering abroad,

"I know many of them like music in English, so I played We are the World, which was a song used for a campaign to fight hunger in Ethiopia and then I gathered students in groups of four. I gave them a sheet of paper and they divided it into four parts. So, they assigned roles to every member of the group, and I played a song. The first member had to draw or write something about that song (...) Then they exchanged roles, and the following student did the same, but with a different song. They enjoyed that activity very much, because I used songs that I knew they liked, as I've known them for a while now, I know which musical preferences they have, and I could tell they were engaged and motivated because it was not something they'd typically do in the English lesson" (SSI2, 142-152)

Since Beatriz identified her students' likes as she had paid attention to what type of music they

listened to, she could use that as part of a lesson, and she identified that students were more engaged and motivated than other times.

During the LOs and SRIs, PSTs reported that time management was an issue for them and that they had a special awareness about this matter, as finishing on time is part of the lesson implementation assessment. PSTs distributed the time to be assigned in the activities within the lesson plan. Moreover, supervisors expected PSTs to finish the lesson implementation within their time for the lesson, which could have been a single slot of 45 minutes or two slots of 90 minutes.

In line with what Pamela and Beatriz expressed about completing the lesson plan for the sake of it, meaning that sometimes they did not understand if it was meaningful to plan something so structured for short periods of time, Josie (Sch1) expressed how presenting the objectives of the lesson was something she did not find valuable to go through during her lesson implementation. In the SRI2, Josie did not present the lesson's objectives. She said,

"I never did it actually (...) I consider it irrelevant" (SRI2, 30-32)

In that same LO2 Josie had to go through the content she had worked with the previous lesson, as teacher Christopher (HT1) realised the content had not been clear to the class. In the LO2 she made students complete some exercises and then moved to the following exercise without providing feedback to students. I asked her if she had forgotten to do this, she said,

"When I saw students were already on the following activity, I remembered, but it was too late (...) to late to go back to the other exercise because they were already doing something else, and I DESPISE that people interrupt me because I lose focus.

I: So, when they go through their notes at home, they won't know if they answered correctly or not...

Josie: Yes, I made a mistake; I know (...) I forgot to bring the lesson plan printed, that's why I think I forgot. I don't do that all the time." (SRI2, 112-126)

Despite Josie having used the lesson plan in the progressive practicums and during the practicum, she still struggled to follow the lesson implementation steps. Most importantly, she did not seem to understand the rationale behind the different steps, as even though she remembered students were not provided with feedback as she said, she made the decision to not do so. Therefore, the students' learning process was not favoured by Josie's behaviour.

Contrary to Pamela and Beatriz, Susan generated a different understanding of how the lesson could be divided, as there were times when Susan continued with the unfinished activities in the following lesson. This is exemplified by a time students did not have enough time to present a dialogue; though she did a closing of the lesson and said,

"I have never wondered why I do a closing, but I think it's part of the activities. We have to show students the lesson has ended. And if we haven't finished, we can say that we will finish next class" (SRI1,276-283)

Susan, the same as Josie, after all the progressive practicums, was still not sure of the rationale behind every step taken in the lesson plan, such as doing a closing. In line with this, Josie (Sch1) did not seem to have a clear idea of why she had to follow certain procedures in the lesson plan, such as the lesson's objectives.

"I do it as it is the protocol. Allegedly, students need to know what they will achieve at the end of the lesson" (SRI1, 4-6)

In relation to knowing students, I asked Carina about three students who noticeably knew more English than their classmates and who in the LO1 caused them to end up getting distracted and distracting the other students. One of them too complained about the activities being too simple. I asked her if she has thought of planning something a bit different for them. She said,

"I haven't considered it because at least, from those two, Felix never complains. I would have to make an activity differently only for them, and the others can feel bad as they don't know as much as these three" (SRI1, 168-174)

In this case, Carina did not consider making minor changes, such as speaking more to those students in English or asking them to expand more in certain activities than others. Her focus regarding these students was not placed on them learning further, but on them not interfering with the normal course of her lessons' implementations.

In the case of Rose, and as she had developed some learning from the previous practicum, it was not difficult for her to start doing adjustments to the lesson plan and its worksheet:

"I finished just on time, as I have been taking activities out of the lesson. In the first lesson plan, I reached half of the lesson implementation (...) But now that I know the students more, I just leave the essential bits. One activity to demonstrate general comprehension (of text or listening), and one of specific information, so we can finish on time" (SRI1, 50-56)

Despite PSTs considering the portfolio helpful in reflecting and modifying their teaching practices, many disagreed and argued that they reflected upon their practices due to this reflection entry but not necessarily in the way specified by the portfolio. This can be exemplified by part of the discussion generated in the FG,

Pamela: "Reflection is very important to modify things from your lesson or improve aspects of your practice. But the type of reflection I did was usually a mental one after the lesson, where I thought what to consider for the next lesson, so I don't do it or do the same (activity) cause students liked it. But maybe that is not so much reflected in the reflections I handed in in the portfolio, where you basically pay attention to cite the right authors, and sometimes you even know what the supervisors want to read. (...) So, reflection is important, but maybe not the way we present it in the portfolio".

Frank: "I agree with Pamela. Reflection is something you do cause you want to; it is not real that someone demands you to do so because of a mark. It is the case you reflect at the same time

YOU DO THINGS. And I don't think theory is necessary to improve certain aspects. Maybe it's more to do with knowing yourself more or listening to feedback from other teachers that can help you improve". (FG, 769-788)

These PSTs did not agree with the type of reflection requested in the portfolio, as in some cases they could not relate the issues they experienced in the classroom to the reflection needed to be completed in the portfolio. Therefore, it was hard for them to relate those experiences to the facets of the Domains of Framework for Good Teaching, when the English language was not the centre of the discussion, although many of those facets are related to demonstrating pedagogical content knowledge. It could be assumed that PSTs lacked more knowledge of the pedagogical content knowledge rather than the disciplinary knowledge. Additionally, the fact that there is reflection included in the portfolio as part of the lessons implementations transformed this reflection into a prescription rather than a reflective process.

Through the data presented, it can be read how the assessment components of the portfolio were more important for PSTs than building knowledge from the practicum in order to learn to teach. Nevertheless, it was not the case that PSTs did not want to learn, but that supervisors and mentors focused on developing and completing the portfolio, as it will be exemplified shortly.

Regarding the action research section just introduced as part of the portfolio that year, PSTs voiced that neither they nor their mentors or supervisors had much information on how to complete that in practical terms, as Beatriz (Sch5), and Frank (Sch4) voiced,

Beatriz: "That project was 15% of the portfolio mark. It was like an action research type of project."

Frank: "Not even host teachers knew how to assess it; there weren't steps to follow it...I couldn't implement it in the end, and my host teachers didn't assess it."

Beatriz: "Allegedly, the UTP office had to assess it, but they were never part of the creation of the project, so they had no idea on how to assess it. In the end, my supervisor told me my host teacher could assess it. (...) And then supervisors asked the programme leader if host teachers could assess it...but no communication at all (between school and university)." (FG, 258-285)

The UTP unit does not get involved with PSTs' performance. They usually checked that PSTs set dates for students' tests and that the supervisor or mentor has revised the materials used. The fact that the university suggested that the UTP office would assess PSTs shows how the university is disconnected from everything happening at schools where PSTs are placed.

This disconnection issue was also demonstrated in a situation experienced by Pamela along her practicum. This incident occurred just a week earlier than the social uprising, which is something Pamela ended up being thankful about as she could have some weeks off from the practicum; Pamela had to hand in a test a week before its application for the head of the English department to revise it, and then this test was sent to UTP for final approval. She recalled:

"I handed in a test that was not approved by my supervisor, a procedure that was not very clear for me either. When I handed it in, the head of the department told me I was not following the tests school format. Although somehow, I followed it, because I wrote the objectives, I divided the test among grammar, vocabulary, reading and listening. But the teachers (from the department) told me it was wrong, because the objectives weren't written appropriately. Then, they found out my supervisor hadn't revised the test, and they got a bit upset. So, they told me off and told me that that couldn't be, that the supervisor had to revise the tests, that the test would have to be postponed then. Basically, they told me I messed up big time. And then they stood up behind me while I was using the teachers staff room computer. And they were like "change this", "move that". I was under so much pressure, that I wanted to type the verb BREAK, and I ended up typing BRAKE, because my hands were trembling in that moment. Then I printed the test again. The teachers were like, "you still need to fix this", "how have you not fixed that yet?", and all of that. And on top of everything, the head of the department, Teacher Amy (HT2), repeated all the time she had to leave at 5. Then she asked me if I had to modify any tests (PIE), to what I said that I didn't have PIE students. HT2 made me look at an information they put on the bulletin board YESTERDAY! And there were two students, who weren't from the PIE programme, but needed modifications in tests. So, I said I would make one straightaway, and I printed it in a legal-size paper, because that's what I saw other teachers did. But HT2 told me that was not the way to do it. So, I asked her where I could find the format, and she said, "but you have to request it to your host teacher, we have a format on a CD". Robert (PST4) told me he copied that information, when he was given a hardware to get the school attendance format. But he did it in a hidden way, because he was never given that information either. So, he sent me the screenshots for the format. I told HT2 that I didn't know there was a format. She told me off again, she told me I always had to ask, and I said yes to everything. I told her that I would finish the tests at home and take them the following day early in the morning for her to check them. At that moment, I felt like breaking into tears. I felt...like, ANGER, and anxiety, and that everything was my fault. And on top of everything, my supervisor had a medical leave, I hadn't seen her like in two weeks. I wasn't even having meetings with her! And Miss Ríos (HT4) mentioned in the teachers' WhatsApp that this was not the first time my supervisor (S2) didn't revise my things. I just said I wasn't informed about it, that I should have asked because then it was gonna become a gossip, and I was gonna be in trouble. They were gonna say, "Pamela said...". Always bowing my head! Then, HT2 left. I grabbed my things to go home and finish the test. I put one foot outside the school, and I started crying, but not because I was sad; I was frustrated. I was angry. I arrived home, I organised the test with the format; I checked it many times, so it didn't have ANY mistake. The following day I handed in the test, and it was OK. But, obviously, I didn't even wanna be IN the staff room. I didn't even wanna see the person from the copy machine. I finished my day, and in the last teaching block, I was going back to the staff room with HT4, and she asked me what had happened the day before. I explained to her...and she acknowledged that the differentiated tests issue was her fault because the information had just been given the previous day, so she forgot to tell me. I told HT4 not to worry, but I told her that I felt left alone in that moment, very lonely. I hadn't seen my supervisor, and I wasn't getting any support from the school either, I told her that I am still learning. So, in the end, for everyone, I was the full responsible of the situation. HT4 apologised, but I don't think she explained anything to HT2. Anyway, I don't care! If they lower my grade, I don't care. Now I just have to continue doing things well, and show myself more willing to help, so they soon forget about that" (SRI2, 70-133)

Pamela's example reflects other difficult moments the three PSTs from this school (Sch2) experienced. This school had various protocols and was very strict about them. However, due to misinformation like the one presented, PSTs felt no support from the university to navigate these issues. Despite the university portfolio having a section for assessment and another regarding

relating to the peers at school and becoming part of the community, these were not as emphasised as the design of lesson plans, implementations, and the reflection section.

5.2 Host teachers and mentors

Mentors' assessment was worth 60% of the portfolio. Whereas host teachers did not greatly get involved with the procedural work of the portfolio, except when they needed information concerning assessment deadlines. This is when the portfolio impacted the administrative issues of the school.

Claire (HT6) expressed not feeling comfortable about the portfolio rubrics to assess PSTs, and she somehow understood the portfolio as some of the PSTs did, which was not being able to implement a continuation in their lessons' implementations:

"I feel everything is super structured. The rationale of the lesson plan is totally valid and practical, and it's very useful if you understand it. But sometimes PSTs are focused on the lesson implementation, and they lose understanding of what it is like to teach a whole unit of contents and what it's like to link the lessons that relate to that unit. (...) And the topics that need to be structured around the unit and the competencies and contents they need to include. They do not seem to grab full understanding of that in a term, like the big picture of the class" (SSI2, 566-576)

Claire portrayed what other host teachers thought about how the lesson plan design resulted in significantly prescribed lessons' implementations. At the same time, this also echoed how constrained PSTs felt about the lesson plan's and implementation, as was the case with Beatriz and Pamela.

Pia (M1), commented on the reflection section within the portfolio:

"I think PSTs reflections are more useful depending on how much they really want to improve and become better. Because at this point, no one will judge them on their decisions. I'm neither their secondary schoolteacher nor their mom to tell them what to do or what not to do. They should realise how useful reflecting upon their practices could be for them. Otherwise, consequences will come when they start working. I've found out with the years that those PSTs who were not receptive about suggestions for improving their work are the ones who have more issues in their work career" (SSI2, 234-244)

Two key issues emerged from the excerpt: reflection would not be meaningful for PSTs' practice or change of practice unless they really want to embrace different areas of the language teacher identity. This echoes some of the PSTs' comments regarding the reflection section in the portfolio and how they did not find it necessarily a good way to modify their practices unless they really generated a meaningful understanding of how helpful adopting alternative practices in the classroom could be. The second key idea that emerges from this quote is how Pia implies that reflection in PSTs needs to be guided or oriented by mentors. In other words, Pia would

understand PSTs reflection if they listen to her suggestions and incorporate them, irrespective of whether a reflective process occurred in a briefing meeting or something similar.

However when asked about supervisory or mentor roles, participants carrying out this task claimed that they promoted a more 'pastoral' approach to students. To exemplify some of the answers, I will present Pia again. When asked in the SSI1 what the role of the mentor was and how she encouraged reflection in her student teachers, she said,

"At uni, we as former preservice teachers were not used to reflecting upon our practices so much (meaning she learnt to guide this process during the mentoring programme). So, in the meetings I have with my mentees, I ask them questions in a sort of indirect way; I use metacognition. I ask them questions such as, how did you do in the lesson? How did you feel? Do you think you performed well or not so well? How could you improve? So, I guide the reflection for them" (SSI1, 407-411)

Nonetheless, regarding the portfolio in the FM between Pia and Rose (Sch1), it can only be identified that the conversation is about achieving the number of lesson implementations requested in the portfolio.

"The university is going to be flexible about it, but not at school. We can't be flexible about anything here. And you depend totally on the school" (FM, 393-408)

Pia discussed how Rose would not finish the number of lesson implementations as the university advised the PSTs not to attend schools for two weeks during the social uprising peak of demonstrations. This meeting does not identify encouragement to reflect on previous practices. The meeting is only about Rose's deadlines and administrative work to complete, especially considering the social uprising gap for PSTs and how Pia thought PSTs did not comply with the teachers' duties,

"It didn't seem professional to me that PSTs missed lessons during the social uprising, because we give them classes and contents need to be revised. We have to continue coming to school, why not them? I understand the concern from the university that PSTs may be harmed, but this also teaches them that if anything happens, they can just skip work. It's not like that in reality. I told PSTs that when you are working it's not like that. If there is a war and you have to work, you have to work, and that's it. My colleagues and I had to go through demonstrations, tear gas, barricades, but we still made it. So, we don't think that was a good measure from the university".(SSI2, Pia, 338-352)

Giannina (M2), from Sch3 considered the information gathered in the portfolio very relevant. However, she expressed how many times PSTs overlooked that information,

"I told PSTs that they gather a lot of information they should then apply in their lesson plans and implementations. It's not filling in with information for the sake of it, they need to put the pieces together (...) If you know that your students are visual learners, then APPLY THAT. But PSTs end up using only the worksheet. So, it's like they don't understand the rationale of a portfolio. (...) A portfolio can be so rich in terms of how much valuable information you can gather" (SSI2, 327-334)

Giannina portrayed how somehow the lesson plan design constrained PSTs' practices and restricted the lesson plan to the use of the worksheet as the resource to implement a lesson. Apparently, this led to disregarding students' interests and preferences in learning. To this, she also added,

"I think the university sometimes only has one way of seeing things. Maybe the programme could collect the information PSTs collect from portfolios. They could even use them to show school realities to other practicum students." (SSI2, 483-489)

Giannina was aware that one of the most challenging experiences for PSTs was the clash between the university, namely theory and how they had to adjust to the reality of the school in order to put into practice what they had learnt. And maybe more than that, PSTs struggled with roles they seemed not to have been made aware of by the university. She voiced,

"These PSTs have a strong focus on the teaching of English, and they do not consider much the class council sessions. I know that is only 45 minutes a week, but it is a huge weakness I have always told the practicum coordinator; the university does not prepare these PSTs to take over the role of head teachers. The university focuses on the teaching of the language, and all of that, but not on this (...)" (SSI2, 42-47)

This excerpt could be interpreted as the university, through the use of the portfolio, placing a special focus on the disciplinary knowledge of PSTs. This can be identified through the PSTs emphasising the lesson plan design and the corresponding worksheet within the portfolio. These tools should contribute to the development of PSTs' reflection skills and ultimately to their practices. However, the practice component or lesson implementation does not seem as important as these other two. Additionally, when it comes to the reflection section, PSTs need to write after their lesson implementation; although the aim is to develop a more critical practice, PSTs identify this section as a prescriptive activity that needs to be completed, and what is more, completed in a way that supervisors want to read (See FG, 769-788 p.116-117). Thus, this section would not necessarily contribute to them modifying their current practices.

5.3 Supervisors

Similar to the FM between Pia and Rose, in the FM between Frank (Sch4) and his supervisor Cynthia (S2) it was identified that most of it is focused on completing the portfolio to be better assessed:

"Add the results of the entry KET tests because that would increase your score, and you would get a better mark in the description of the context" (FM, 53-56)

This portrays again how there is not much difference in relation to the meetings supervisors or mentors have with their PSTs. There was no moment of the meeting intended to reflect upon previous practices; although Cynthia acknowledged that the use of the portfolio within the English

pedagogy programme is not intended to be as a learning process tool and she mentioned she disagreed with that, she still used it to assess PSTs,

“Here, the portfolio is an assessment tool. And a portfolio is something you build, and that shows a timeline of your first attempt, until you reach perfection, to put it in a way. How are you going to call that a portfolio if there is only one attempt for the lesson planned? You can’t. This portfolio is just a compilation of different assessments” (SSI1, 870-875)

The portfolio being an assessment tool can be the reason why sections such as the one of reflection are taken so lightly by PSTs, and apparently also by supervisors and mentors, as PSTs’ ultimate goal is to obtain a fair mark to pass and not necessarily commit to the task entirely.

The elite interviewee (EI) understood the reflection section in the pedagogy programmes was not generating the expected outcome,

“I think there is a problem as the pedagogy national curriculum is not made to create critical teachers. In the end, teachers are curriculum performers, more than designers of it (...); they implement what is already prescribed. And also they implement the curriculum based on what teachers educators or schoolteachers tell them to do, which sometimes is not even the correct way of doing things” (SSI EI, 228-228)

The EI raised another issue: how PSTs are being trained in general on a national scale. More than the portfolio itself, and despite the reflection section being part of previous portfolios in the progressive practicums, PSTs have not significantly developed skills to be reflective about their practices.

In the same vein, the programme leader was aware that some PSTs copied and pasted similar reflections throughout the practicum; therefore, no real reflection was implied. Basically, the reflection was done as part of the portfolio requirements in order to get the assessment score. The PL also identified that with regards to that section the practicum teacher educators and supervisors had not agreed on the way they were examining PSTs reflection:

“We’ve realised that reflection is not only a problem of PSTs but also linked to teacher educators’ university formation. I mean, how many of us were taught to reflect upon our practices? How many of us are really giving reflection the importance it needs? (...) Our staff is composed of so many people that we don’t necessarily share the concepts related to our English pedagogy programme formation.” (PL, 593-607)

Two more issues intersect the low importance of reflection from PSTs; the time assigned for university supervisors and mentors to carry out a reflective process with PSTs, along with checking the completion of the different portfolio entries and assessing them. The second issue is how aligned the programme staff is concerning the understanding of the programme key concepts, which includes reflection as a key aspect. Another thing made apparent during fieldwork is that there is no particular way of doing the reflection section. To see the differences among reflections, see Appendix I.

5.4 Conclusion

In general PSTs agreed on the idea that the portfolio was useful during the practicum, as it was practical to have a record of lesson implementations in order to reflect upon those learning experiences. At the same time, many of the PSTs who participated in the study identified that being reflective is one of the characteristics of being a GLT. However, due to the way the portfolio was used and implemented by not only the PSTs but by the supervisors and mentors, and due to the emphasis on the teaching of the language from the university, PSTs tended to overlook the reflection section, prioritising other sections that were more relevant in terms of the final mark of the portfolio. Such is the case that many PSTs did not hand in reflections just until the very end of the process, completing them all in one or two days, just before the deadline.

Most participants identified the portfolio as a document with rich data which was valuable for the practicum. However, the data shows that not all PSTs developed a complete understanding of the portfolio as a rich source of information that would set guidelines for future lessons' implementations. Many of them identified the portfolio as the tool they were assessed with and completed its sections in order to pass the practicum. Since lacking a complete understanding of the rationale behind a portfolio and because the university uses it as an assessment tool, many PSTs planned their lessons regarding personal achievements, what made them feel more comfortable teaching or more in *control* of the class. Additionally, PSTs tended to plan regarding the expectations they had about their students, which tended to be lowered throughout the practicum.

Many PSTs were more concerned with finishing the lesson on time when implementing the lessons, having *control* of the students, and students not interfering with the course of the lesson. All of the above became more important than reflecting on lessons implemented in order to promote the learners learning and PSTs' learning to teach, as the data shows that PSTs, supervisors, and mentors understanding of the portfolio as more of an assessment tool rather than a process learning one.

Most issues were related to being able to use the information gathered in the *Description of the context* and operationalising that knowledge in the lesson plan and later implementation. This was also constrained by the understanding of how the lesson needed to be planned, where most participants understood that a worksheet was needed for every lesson, and that all the activities in that worksheet needed to be finished within that lesson.

Another significant issue is the reflection section, where teacher educators have not discussed common grounds on its relevancy, which may impact the emphasis or lack of emphasis given to

this section during the practicum. PST's FMs with their mentors or supervisors did not show how these participants encouraged PSTs to reflect upon their practice.

It was also observed that the biggest focus from supervisors and mentors was regarding the lesson plan and design of the worksheet to implement that lesson, rather than a focus on the implementation of that lesson. PSTs were sometimes alone in the classroom when mentors were at school. In the case of the PSTs who had supervisors, they had few formative supervisions, and even less this time due to the social uprising.

The data analysed shows that despite PSTs acknowledging that being a GLT is being a reflective teacher, the completion of the portfolio as an assessment tool becomes more relevant than generating reflection or supporting reflection. This also shows that the university places more focus on the completion of these templates rather than the PSTs teaching performance, which is something they acknowledge would like to have more feedback about.

Chapter 6 The use of the target language in the classroom as a tool to demonstrate being a Good Language teacher.

During fieldwork, most participants identified having a good command of the EFL as a mandatory characteristic to be considered a GLT. This section will present how the good command of the English language was operationalised or not in the classroom when PSTs implemented their lessons. Before unfolding how PSTs translated this idea of good command of the L2 in the classroom, a distinction needs to be made. Considering the English language teaching and learning from a CLT approach, as the one the university programme claims to adopt, the language is divided into four skills. There are the passive skills within these four skills: reading and listening comprehension, and the productive ones are writing and speaking. Despite PSTs creating their material for lesson implementations, which usually were PowerPoint slides and worksheets in English, supervisors and PSTs themselves related the good command of the L2 to using it orally as a must in their lesson implementations. Thus, from now on when referring to the good command of the L2, the reader needs to be aware that this specifically means using the oral skill in the classroom.

6.1 Preservice teachers

At the beginning of the practicum, PSTs in general agreed that there was a relation between having a good command of the L2 and being a GLT.

In this regard, Pamela (Sch2) said,

“[A good language teacher] should have a good command of the English language, because I’ve been at progressive practicums where the librarian is the English teacher, and you can’t teach something you don’t know” (SSI1; 153-155)

In this excerpt, Pamela intended to say that some schools where she did her progressive practicums did not have a qualified teacher of English, and the school chose anyone with the slightest knowledge of the L2 from school to teach the subject. This practice used to be very common at schools, especially when there was a shortage of graduated EFL teachers in the 1990s and early 2000s (See Chapter 2). I can testify that as some of my university classmates and I had the chance to work at very early stages of the programme. I started working as a teacher at the age of 19, when I was completing my second year of the programme. I worked as a substitute teacher at the same time I was doing my progressive practicum. The Mineduc would give us a

special permission to do this, given the aforementioned circumstances. However, it can be the case that this still happens, especially in schools with few students, close to rural areas or rural ones, like many around Temuco city.

Along with other characteristics, Pamela considers the disciplinary knowledge to teach English as mandatory, as she also mentions that credibility is at stake if you cannot prove you manage the language proficiently. In this respect, Susan (Sch3) has a similar view to Pamela,

“The credibility [as a teacher] is linked to knowing the language (...), then, If you don’t demonstrate you know the L2, you lose credibility, and the student doesn’t take you seriously” (SSI1; 237-240)

Pamela and Susan believed that the knowledge of the L2 grants the PST the credentials to teach English; otherwise, if students realise or perceive that the teacher does not manage the L2, there may be a judgement that could be to the detriment of the teacher’s performance.

Beatriz (Sch5) also added that a good command of the language would guarantee the teacher would not be embarrassed by any other student who could know more than the same teacher,

“It could be the case that a student knows more [English] than the teacher, or that they have developed one of the four skills better, and that could be frustrating for the teacher... maybe the lesson would take a different direction because the teacher wouldn’t feel they have the right tools or skills to teach the lesson” (SSI1; 114-117)

In this extract, Beatriz explained how it could be the case that a PST might be teaching a student who did a semester abroad in an English-speaking country and has developed the speaking skill more than their peers, and sometimes even more than the PST. She infers that it could also be the case that the PSTs have never had an experience in an English-speaking country and could feel diminished by the student who has. This way of thinking is related to acquiring a native-like status that could give an EFLT teacher who is a NNS (Holliday, 2006; Viáfara, 2016). This applies to Beatriz as she is at Sch5, which is a subsidised school where most of the students belong to the middle class (e.g., the students’ parents are professionals and live in the wealthy area of the city)

In other words, these excerpts show how PSTs considered having a good command of the L2 entitled and guaranteed them the necessary qualifications to teach English. It is precisely this entitlement that, according to them, would provide the necessary confidence in PSTs to carry out the lesson in English.

As presented in Chapter 4, at the university where this study was conducted PSTs of the English pedagogy programme are assessed with Cambridge international exams in the Linguistic Competence courses from year 1 (see course programme, Appendix A, p. 193). They are assessed with KET and PET exams the first year, to end up being assessed with a CAE exam by the end of

the programme, where they should prove they have a C1 level of English. In the case of the participants, and according to the researcher's observations, these PSTs proved to have a C1 level of English. Otherwise, they had a B2 level, but not below that. In any case, their level of English was much more advanced than the school students. As shown in Chapter 5, after PSTs had applied entry tests in their classes, they discovered that students had significantly lower levels of English than the level they were supposed to at that stage of schooling. Most of them had levels lower than an A1 or A2. This supports what was presented in Chapter 2 about the low results in terms of learning achievement of the L2 at a national scale.

Despite PSTs having upper intermediate or, in most cases, an advanced level of English, and despite them having identified the use of English in the classroom as a practice of a *GLT*, they did not always use the L2 in the classroom. Instead, they often used Spanish for many of their lesson implementations observed.

Shortly after the LO1 observed from PSTs we discussed why they used Spanish, considering they had previously stated in the SSI1s that using the L2 was relevant to being a *GLT* and somehow showing mastery of the L2 to students would give them credibility to teach.

Rose (Sch1) explained that in her case, she prioritised finishing the lesson implementation on time, that is, completing the pre, the while and the post-lesson planned instead of teaching in English only:

"(...) Cause I've tried to teach other lessons using more English, but [doing] an activity in Spanish takes me ten minutes, and in English, it takes me 20, and these are very simple activities. So, the only way to shorten the activity and simplify it is by reducing the use of English in the classroom. (SRI1, 201-204)

This quote portrays how Rose's issue was not her knowledge of the language or the confidence to teach it by using it, but how, by using the L2, her lesson implementation would take longer. Ending her lesson on time was more important for Rose as it is part of her assessment when implementing lessons than speaking in English in the class. Although using the L2 is also assessed, but usually observed when PSTs are being supervised on-site.

In turn, Pamela did the same,

"(...) it's basically cause of a time matter that I immediately use Spanish." (SRI1 Pamela, 714-715)

In both cases, they acknowledged they knew other strategies they could use, such as mimics or body language. However, they did not trust that they could finish their lesson on time if attempting to apply these strategies since they shared the understanding that learners would not

understand in the TL, or they felt they did not have the time to experiment with other ways of teaching English where the L1 is not used.

In this respect, Carina (Sch3) said,

“If I wait for students to guess what I am saying in English, literally GUESS, they would take much more time in understanding what I am saying, and I would lose more time trying to use mimics, body language, etc” (SRI1, 215-218)

Carina explained how she decided not to use other strategies as students did not know English; that is why she stressed that she would have to wait for students to guess the meaning of the instructions or vocabulary. In this case, guessing, assisted by mimics or body language, did not imply to Carina that students might learn the language or carry out a cognitive process in developing an understanding of the L2.

Another issue that does not relate directly to the competency of the language is that in some cases, PSTs felt students were losing attention and that they could not carry out the completion of the lesson if they continued using English, as was the case of Josie (Sch1),

“I felt that if I continued talking in English, they would pay less attention than what they were already doing (...) I would like to continue teaching in English [in future lessons]. But I don’t know if they [students] would pay attention to me, and that scares me. (...) But if I speak in English, will they talk even more than when I use Spanish? That is the obstacle I see.” (SRI1; 129-135)

In the LO1, Josie began her lesson implementation using English only. She greeted students, presented the lesson’s objective, and did part of the warmup activity in English. However, students began talking and got distracted by other things going on in the classroom. Therefore Josie progressively started using Spanish until she used only Spanish by the end of the lesson.

This also happened to be the case of Frank (Sch4), who said,

“(...)I add parts in Spanish; otherwise, if I talk to them ALL THE TIME IN ENGLISH, they start losing attention” (SSI1,75-79)

Same as Josie and Carina, Frank feared that students would lose focus on the lesson, and despite having a good command of the language, the three of them reverted to Spanish to keep students focused.

In the case of Robert (Sch2), he explained that he decided to use Spanish as his class assigned was a year 10 “E”, which means it is the last class (A being the first and where more successful academically students were allocated), grouped here by their grades and behaviour;

“I can start by saying that these students have a low academic performance, and that is reflected in the English subject. Some students have failed classes, and there are students with negative comments in the book record. And there are around eight to ten students who belong to the PIE programme” (SRI1, 217-220)

This was Robert's rationale for lowering students' expectations about the learning of the TL. He said, *"it is the method that works, the most convenient, and I had to give relevant information to students"* (SRI1; 224); when I asked him why he told the students, *"so you understand"* (SRI1; 203) when he explained that activity was going to be assessed, and he started using Spanish. All PSTs preferred to provide information related to assessment, teaching grammar or worksheet completions in Spanish, as like Robert they felt that they could make sure everyone understood.

In the case of Norah (Sch2), she claimed she did not realise when she immediately translated from English to Spanish. She said:

"I think it is the easiest thing to do. You see students don't understand, and straightaway you use Spanish...instead of doing what is more difficult, like trying to use strategies" (SRI1; 188-190)

Norah acknowledged that it is the easiest thing to do for her in this class. Opposite to Robert, Norah did not justify her use of the L2 because students have a record of low performance, although they both had a class with similar characteristics (e.g., they both had students who belonged to the PIE programme)

However, though PSTs did not teach their lesson in English only, there were some attempts to use the L2 more. Pamela (Sch2) and Susan (sch3) presented to be consistent on this throughout the practicum. Pamela attempted to use more English than the rest of her peers, even compared to her other two peers who did the practicum at the same school. Although it needs to be said that her class was letter "A"; she had pupils with better grades in general and no students with SENs.

Pamela said:

"My supervisor, Cynthia, emphasises the use of the L2 a lot, and she says a good English lesson can't be in Spanish. So, the first lesson I taught students was about commands, so they can be able to understand instructions, like writing a sentence. Because I realised they didn't know the meaning of the word sentence, and they use it every day. And I have to make them used to listening to English, so when my supervisor comes, she sees they use it. Furthermore, personally, I don't know if it has to do with the theory, but I think it's good for them to listen to English as much as possible. So they can reproduce it later. (...) At least I learnt English that way. I was used to my teachers speaking English in the lessons" (SRI1, 80-92)

Pamela expressed how the way she was assessed for using the L2 made her look for ways to use English in the classroom. However at the same time her thinking, based on how she learnt English, aligned with the supervisor's assessment. So Pamela did not find using more English in the classroom difficult, as she expressed that it was the way she herself learnt English. In this case, she openly expressed that the theory is not that relevant for her, but her personal experiences about learning a foreign language and how she can relate to students in that way.

During the LO1, I could see that she used more English with some students than with others. She explains:

“Juan (...) is very good at English, so I speak in English to him all the time. For example, I asked the class to write a dialogue last week, and Juan finished very quickly, so I asked him to add more things. And he did. He has good vocabulary” SRI1, 106-110)

In this case, Pamela was able to perceive the different levels of English within the classroom, but instead of using only Spanish, as other PSTs justified doing this as everyone could understand, she adjusted the amount of English and vocabulary used with the ones who knew more English, and the ones who did not. She also encouraged students who knew more English to do a bit more than her other classmates. This is different from the approach Carina (Sch3) took when asked about how she worked with those students who knew more English (See 5.1). Her thinking was more focused on students not disrupting the lesson than them being provided with adjustments to improve their learning opportunities.

Susan (Sch3) also used more English than her practicum centre peer, Carina. This was observed especially when presenting the lesson objectives and the class rules.

“I have to present the lesson’s objectives in every lesson and remind them [students] of the rules of the class. In fact, they have started to learn the four rules of the class by heart. (...) I think it is useful, as the rules help with the students’ behaviour” (Susan, SRI1, 32-41)

Susan understood students’ level of English was low, and she considered they would not understand if the lesson was taught in English-only, as she reported:

“In my first lessons’ implementations, I taught in English only, as it is supposed to be. But students didn’t understand much. In the end, I had to talk to them in Spanish. So, now I switch between English and Spanish” (SRI1, 14-16)

Therefore, by the advice of her mentor, Giannina (M2), Susan consistently kept providing the lesson objectives and the rules of the class using English only. This advice was also given to Carina. However, she did not do the same as Susan consistently.

After the LO2, there were no significant differences regarding how Spanish was used in the classroom by PSTs, although some of them reduced its use slightly and used more English. There were particular cases where PSTs felt they could use more English, such as in the case of Susan, despite her acknowledging that students did not have a broad knowledge of the language. In all her lessons, Susan usually used a PowerPoint to show the rules of the class, as shown in Figure 11.

Figure 11. Rules of the class slide- Susan.



By the end of the practicum, Susan said,

"I think students need to have some visual aids. So, even though at the beginning [of the practicum] I might have had this utopian idea that by the end of the term students would speak more English, I still achieved that they increased their use (...) and maybe they don't use it much, they don't reply to me with complete sentences, but they understand when one uses it, they can link it to past lessons" (SSI2, 63-68)

Susan had this recognition despite learners not using the L2 orally as much as she would have liked. Nevertheless, she understood that students were still learning the language and progressing. For instance, I observed when she presented the class rules in the LO2 and asked students what each rule meant. They could identify some words, or the complete sentence, unlike the LO1. Susan also tended to bring back vocabulary previously reviewed and ask students to recall their meaning. Despite this slight progress, Susan still acknowledges she may have overused the L1 in the classroom:

"I think in some cases I overused Spanish because the topic, neither the vocabulary were not so difficult (in some lessons). But I did it. I think sometimes I overused Spanish (...) There are times in the lesson where you could use only English, but for that, we (she and her mentor) would have to sit and check out the lesson plan and pay attention to that...and I didn't do it" (SSI2; 302-310)

Susan's mentor (M2) did not identify this as an issue, nor had Susan have reflective discussions about this with her mentor or talked about ways to look for strategies that could help her increase the use of the L2 in the classroom.

“In fact, my mentor told us that the school was very different from the university when we started the practicum (...) In my progressive practicums, I did my improvement plan (plan based on lessons’ implementation reflections) based on the use of Spanish, but I have not this time” (SSI2, 298-300)

As Susan’s mentor (M2) stated that English could not be used at all times when teaching the lesson, she understood that as a fact. However, she exploited the speaking skill in particular activities the M2 explained would work.

Pamela (Sch2) continued using more English in the classroom than the first time I observed her,

“I gave them the instructions in English-only, and then I repeated them over and over, or at least 70%, like ‘first of all’, so, slowly ‘first-of-all’- primero que todo (Spanish translation). Sometimes I said, ‘so’, and they were like, what is the meaning of that? so I said, entonces (Spanish translation) ...and once I gave them the instructions in English, I asked them what they meant, and surely a couple of students would explain their meaning. I also tried to use cognates. Also, I think the use of English became more fluent for me in the end. However, I only used Spanish when it was about something important, like pending grades, so everyone understood. Furthermore, I also tried to do the warmups in English. (...) I think they began to learn because I always used the same words, so they got used to and learnt what they meant” (SSI2, 237-248)

Pamela and Susan were in very contrasting contexts: Susan’s class being a group of highly vulnerable students, some of whom arrived to the lessons under the influence of drugs and a group of students who belonged to the PIE programme. On the other hand, Pamela had a group of students from whom she did not report such issues, and neither did she have students from the PIE programme. However, in both cases, they progressed in the use of English and students’ understanding of the language progressed too by these PSTs’ consistent use of the L2 oral skill in certain parts of the lesson. Also, Pamela was noticeably better at English than Susan. In interviews, Susan reported that she had failed the English Competency I course in the first year of the programme and that this subject and Phonetics were not easy for her. On the other hand, Pamela completed her primary and secondary education in a private school, with a great emphasis on the teaching of English, which allowed her to have a much more advanced level of English from the beginning of the programme and this likely also resulted in more confidence in teaching the L2. However, these differences did not stop Susan from using the L2 in the classroom.

6.2 Host teachers and mentors

There were divided opinions about the relationship between the command of the language and being a *GLT* among host teachers and mentors at schools. For instance, Pia (M1) said,

“Well, a good language teacher should be good at English. They should have a good domain of the four skills and use them at all times, no matter the school where they are teaching, no matter the context.” (SSI, 261-263)

Pia considered that the L2 should be used at all times, irrespective of the school PSTs would be teaching or the students' level of English. However, when I observed Rose (Sch3) and Pia intervened in Rose's lesson for some reason (e.g., to help with students' behaviour), I did not see her using the L2.

On the other hand, Giannina (M2) had a different opinion. She argued that given the vulnerable context of the school, where learners generally had little knowledge of the language, to base the teaching on using only English was not always plausible, and in some cases, this could even cause resistance to learn the subject.

"Here for example, if you start giving a speech in English, they [students] start talking to you in Mapudungun (...), in the end it becomes a mess" (SSI2; 86-87)

Giannina has worked at Agricultural School (Sch3) for around twenty years and around ten years for the university as a mentor. She explained that many students came from rural areas in that school context, similar to Fray Bartolomé School (Sch1), where M1 taught. In the two schools' areas, the Mapuche population is considerably higher than in Temuco city, and *Mapuzungun (The Mapuche indigenous language)* is still spoken fluently in some of the students' homes. Therefore, a tension is caused when there is an attempt to always to use the L2 in the classroom. In this particular context, it can be noted that the L1 would be regarded as the Spanish language and that there is another language that could be the L1 for some students, which would be Mapuzungun. Irrespective of this, all students speak and write in Spanish fluently, as Spanish is the country's national language. If students knew Mapuzungun, this might be their mother tongue, although they likely learned Spanish early due to the schooling process. So, these particular students could be considered bilingual in Spanish and Mapuzungun, or even be more skilful at Spanish than Mapuzungun.

M2 commented how even parents complained when they had to incorporate Mapuzungun within the intercultural curriculum at school, which is implemented as part of the national intercultural policy when more than 80% of the students are Mapuche,

"Now the school has incorporated Mapuzungun from primary education, which is a new thing. And we have had parents who have complained because they say they prefer their children to learn English only. So, we have tried to make them understand that BOTH languages can be taught simultaneously. There is no language above the other. So, mainly those parents who don't recognise themselves as Mapuche don't like that. (...) At school, discrimination against the Mapuche has stopped. It used to happen to me when teaching that sometimes one student would tell a Mapuche one Indio, you are INDIO (disrespectful way to call an indigenous person). So I had to stop the lesson and explain that Indians are from India and that there is nothing wrong with being Mapuche, or Indian. You have to mediate as a teacher" (SSI1, 331-343)

So, although parents wanted their students to learn English instead of Mapuzungun, students adopted resistant attitudes if English was used at all times and used the Mapuzungun language to resist it. This could be a way to respond to learning a language they do not consider relevant for them and their future expectations, as well as to resist a foreign language with the consequences the introduction of a foreign language brings, as it was the way Spanish was introduced into the country.

In the case of Christian (HT5) from Liceo Marcela Paz (Sch4), he identified that he did not use the L2 as much as he could do in the classroom,

“I consider myself as someone with a good command of the language, but I don’t use it as I could. I try, though, but sometimes you have to use Spanish (...) because it’s easier to make sure I give clear instructions because of the students’ background. So I find myself using Spanglish at times, and I could find strategies to use less Spanish. Although I think the command of English is one of the most important things [to be a good language teacher], but I don’t think it’s crucial. For me, it’s more important that students lose that fear of speaking in English (...). Maybe I can pronounce it like an English native speaker or like the queen, but students don’t understand. (...) My ultimate goal is that they understand what I’m saying (...), that they can carry out an activity. Because I care about them not getting frustrated” (SS11; 306-324)

Despite HT5 acknowledging his good command of the language, he concluded he did not use it as much as he explained there were contextual issues and a lack of knowledge of the language from students. He prioritised creating a classroom environment where students did not feel threatened for not knowing or understanding the language.

Claire (HT6) was the only HT observed who always used the L2 with students. However, she did not consider this important in her interviews to be a *GLT*. Instead, she considered other skills, such as managing time or keeping up to date about new teaching methodologies, more relevant than the good command of the L2. However, it may be that she encouraged Beatriz to use more English in the lesson by her seeing that despite students did not speak much in the L2, they did understand.

6.3 Supervisors

When interviewing supervisors, they expressed how important a good command of the language was for PSTs’ performance in the classroom, as this aligns with the Guiding Standards for English Pedagogy that have set the foundations for the course programme structure.

Gala (S1) voiced:

“[A good language teacher] must also possess knowledge regarding international examinations and a good level of English. They should at least have a C1-C2 level, irrespective of whether they are teaching to kids or adults.” SS11, 246-249

Gala expanded her rationale for this idea in the following excerpt:

“Well, if I have a good level of English, I have competencies and skills to grade my language, depending on the students’ level of English. I can also express myself better; the pronunciation is clear. There would be a use of real, adequate and contextualised English in order to help students from the beginning (...)

I: So, the teacher is a model of the language?

S1: Yes, that. Also, I have seen that when a student has a better knowledge of the language, they obviously teach it better. It’s logical!” (SSI1; 87-96)

Here, S1 referred to how, in her understanding, an advanced level of English could help PSTs teach the language better and use it for real purposes in the classroom, as she mentioned. At the same time, she pointed out that the language teacher would be a language model for the students.

Lily (S3), who also happened to be the practicum coordinator from 2019, considered the command of the language important. However, for her understanding, the context was more relevant,

“Well, to start with, I think you need to be aware of the context you are working in as a teacher. And with this, I don’t mean that you have to lower or reduce the use of the L2; I mean they [PSTs] have to create a bridge between the language and students (...) you need to know about your students’ lives, (...) because many of the school students don’t listen to music in English, don’t watch films with subtitles cause they feel lazy about it, so for their future expectations and life career, English is not something that they see as it will help them (...) so, the role of the teacher is to transform the English language into something useful and meaningful” (SSI1; 471-490)

Lily reported in the SSI1 that she had worked in many school contexts, from primary education to vocational secondary schools and in vulnerable schools. She learned from those experiences that a good command of the language was important; however, it was more important to relate the English language to the students’ lives.

Despite supervisors being aware that PSTs would not carry out all of the lessons in English, they still demanded this as a requirement of the practicum. Their underpinning reason was that if PSTs were not forced to use the L2 at all times, they could easily go back to old ways of teaching once they graduated. Cynthia (S2) voiced:

“I consider that we [supervisors] have to be strong on that [encouraging PSTs to use the L2], (...) because if I don’t penalise them when they do the English lesson in Spanish, they will continue using the L1. I am very strict about that cause I know that when they start working as novice teachers, they are going to use the L1 more” (SSI2, 157-159)

This excerpt explains why Pamela (Sch2), Cynthia’s supervisee, needed students to understand her in the L2 when she was to be supervised, as otherwise, she would be penalised in the lesson implementation assessment.

In the same vein of what S2 explained, the programme leader mentioned that her staff have observed that their former PSTs, once becoming in-service teachers, reduced the use of the L2 in the classroom, and along with this, more traditional ways of teaching, namely a grammar-oriented approach, prevailed in the teaching-learning process.

“But when they [ex-PSTs] graduate from university, we have asked them to receive PSTs at the schools they are working. And our PSTs say that these in-service teachers are completely traditional teachers; they go back to teach with a focus on grammar” (SSI, 204-207)

This extract is evidence of how it can be easy for in-service teachers to return to old teaching methods once they graduate. It also shows how the use of the L2 in the classroom is linked to more progressive ways of teaching the L2, namely the CLT. Moreover, teaching with a focus on grammar is related to *old ways* of teaching, with an emphasis on the Spanish language.

6.4 Conclusion

Despite PSTs and other participants stating that having a good command of the language was essential when operationalising the lesson in spoken English only, PSTs faced an array of issues when attempting to use it, which made them make decisions that sometimes were to the detriment of the speaking in the L2 in the classroom.

Contrary to what teacher educators thought, the PSTs’ good command of the L2 did not prove to necessarily translate into a set of skills such as adjusting the L2 to the learners’ level or feeling more confident when teaching the L2. As it was in the case of Norah (Sch2), who despite possessing a good command of the language ended up translating without even realising before using any other strategies, explained that it was the easiest thing to do, or in the case of Rose (Sch1) who decided to use Spanish instead of the L2 due to time issues.

Based on the evidence, PSTs prioritised other decisions instead of only basing their teaching instruction in English. Some of their decisions were finishing the lesson on time, maintaining order in the class, and keeping students’ attention.

A discrepancy is also observed between what some host teachers and mentors do and what they say a *GLT* should be, as was the case of M1, whom I did not observe using the L2 in the classroom. At the same time, some of them openly expressed a disagreement regarding basing the lesson using only the L2. This disagreement was based on the idea that the *theory* cannot always be applied in the classroom and that it would seem that the university prepares PSTs for ideal contexts. For instance, PST4 argued that he did not use the L2 as students already came with low levels of English, and there was nothing he could do about it. Additionally, like other PSTs, using Spanish for PST4 was the easiest thing to do when students did not understand the L2.

The data collected shows that to be a GLT, and although the knowledge of the language and its command can support PSTs' construction of their professional identity, it is not a knowledge which would necessarily grant success as a language teacher. Even though PSTs possessed higher levels of English compared to their learners, many of them struggled to choose the right moments within the lesson to use the TL, the type of activities where they could take more advantage of using the L2, and the language that would be used consistently in order for learners to develop listening and speaking skills. Another relevant issue that is evidenced in this data is how PSTs had already decided that students would not understand and follow the lesson if it was taught in English only; therefore, attempts to do so were reduced and perhaps not consistent.

Chapter 7 Enacting the Communicative Language teaching approach as a tool to be a Good Language Teacher.

In line with the portfolio and lesson plan design, which should have resulted in planning lessons that promote the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach to teaching and learning English (another practice PSTs identified GLTs should adopt) the worksheet was the most widely used resource by PSTs during the practicum. The worksheet was usually divided into pre-activities, while activities, and post-activities. Pre-activities focused on introducing vocabulary and activating prior knowledge, while activities usually comprised comprehension questions based on a piece of written or oral text (See Figure 7). The post activities were concerned with introducing linguistic features and exercises that developed productive skills, such as speaking or writing. (To see a sample of PSTs worksheets, please see Appendix J, p. 246)

Contrary to what was planned and what some participants perceived; the worksheet did not often promote productive skills, rather most of the time it promoted passive skills. Apart from PSTs noticing they could not engage students with the activities from the worksheet and a number of PSTs having to use the English book the school dictated or the books from the Mineduc, the worksheet presented to be nothing more than an accountability artefact of PSTs lessons implementations and later reflections, which leads to thinking on how much theoretical understanding or agreement of understanding regarding CLT PSTs and teacher educators possess in order to link it to their teaching practice in the classroom. Some examples of accountability were that the worksheet was in some cases used to control students' behaviour or as proof that work had been completed; therefore, by showing a product to the supervisor or mentor or attaching it to the portfolio there was an assumption that learning had occurred, and it had especially occurred with an emphasis on communication, although this might have not necessarily happened.

7.1 Preservice teachers

By the time PSTs started their practicum, they had already observed a number of EFL teachers at school during their progressive practicums and former experiences as school learners, who according to them had placed more emphasis on the teaching of grammar and vocabulary than the promotion of communicative situations, as Susan voiced:

"I've never done my progressive practicum at a school where everything the Mineduc suggests is followed. It's hard that students can develop productive skills, such as speaking and writing. I haven't either seen teachers encouraging students to develop these skills. This is very difficult for them. Usually, students are better at reading (...)" (SSI1, 374-379)

Susan portrayed the experience many PSTs have had in the progressive practicums and when they were former primary and secondary education students. This is having not learnt English under a CLT approach at school or having models that can help them see how to enact the CLT in a typical Chilean school with large classes and students with different low English levels. However, since the university programme encourages the teaching of English from a communicative point of view, PSTs identified this as a GLT would do.

Regarding CLT, the first issue PSTs faced was when defining it. PSTs usually felt unsure about what it was or if this was the teaching approach that was primarily used in their lesson implementation.

Josie (Sch1) voiced:

"For me the CLT means that students can communicate, irrespective of students using the grammatical structures right or wrong, but that they can be able to communicate. I don't know what approach we are using to teach (the university and her), I'm more concerned about grammar than communication. So, they can communicate after" (SSI1, 139-143)

Josie's quote is interesting as it shows how PSTs did not know quite well how to define the CLT approach or if it was the approach the university promoted. At the same time, there is a contradiction between Josie's first statement and the second. Initially, it seemed that her primary aim would be for students to learn how to communicate despite grammatical mistakes, which could be classified as an understanding of the CLT. However, then Josie poses the importance of grammar and how she seems to think that by learning grammar students would be competent in the productive skills of the language. Although this could also be considered a more grammar-oriented understanding of the CLT, the way both aims operate can be seen as contradictory in this quote.

In order to enact the CLT in the classroom, PSTs believed the structure of the worksheet provided promoted the development of CLT. Some of the reasons were that there were pre, while, and post activities. It seemed most PSTs understood that the worksheet promoted meaningful learning based on past experiences, and at the same time the structure of the lesson promoted the CLT. However, it was evidenced that in occasions it seemed like PSTs lacked theoretical knowledge to support the pedagogical decisions -with an CTL approach- of the chosen lesson, material and activities. It seemed PSTs understood that they always had to use the same structure in order for a lesson to be CLT oriented, which sometimes caused learners to feel bored about the same lesson structure.

This is echoed in the following excerpt:

"To me, CLT is an approach where it is expected that students can communicate; it doesn't matter if they are accurate. (...) Grammar is also integrated, but it is taught in an indirect way. Concerning that, my students tell me lessons are boring because they always have the same structure; an input and an output, the pre, while and post" (SSI2, Frank, 100-103)

Frank was constrained about the template they had to follow and claimed this made the lessons boring. In this respect, Carina also thought the worksheet was boring,

*"If I didn't have to follow the lesson plan, I would try to do more activities that could be more dynamic. Because for example, students like working with pieces of cardboard and focus on working on things like that. But we can't do that all the time.
I: But you can include pieces of cardboard in the lesson plan, can't you?
C: I mean THE PROCESS of working with cardboard. Because students get bored that we start with the lesson, and it's always like, the rules of the class, the keywords, and then students are like...here comes more of the same; the pre, the while and the post" (SSI2, 160-169)*

Carina's extract portrays how PSTs understand that the lesson plan translates into using the worksheet, and that the use of the worksheet translates in the use of the CLT approach.

As students found the sequence of the lesson boring, PSTs in the end cared more about putting pressure on students to finish the lesson on time rather than promoting CLT activities or reflecting on underlying issues of students finding the content and sequence of the lesson boring, so they didn't engage with the learning process. I asked Robert (Sch2) about a student who arrived late in the LO1, and much later informed Robert he did not have the worksheet everyone was working with, as this was delivered at the beginning of the lesson. As a result of that, this student decided not to do anything and not ask Robert for the worksheet to work.

"I feel that students should be motivated to learn. I don't feel that I should be motivating them constantly. It's not like I don't like them or something like that. But if you want to learn, you need to have a different attitude. I try to put them in groups or sit them with a partner so they can motivate themselves" (SRI2, 98-103)

Robert did not identify that those students not being motivated was an issue for implementing the lesson, but his interest was in students completing the worksheet. Additionally, Robert did not reflect on his ability as a professional to change the students' motivations, but he gave that responsibility to other students when he mentioned that he groups students so they can motivate each other. In any case, group work and pair work are part of the constructive views of teaching and CLT methodology, but in this case these strategies were used to shy away from the responsibility to motivate learners and instead transfer the responsibility to other students. In order to revert the students' lack of motivation, it was common that PSTs threatened students by telling them the worksheet would be assessed or gave students tokens such as bonus scores they could use in future tests.

In Norah's LO1, some students asked her for a bonus score to complete the worksheet,

"Every lesson, students ask if we can give them some bonus score if they finish the worksheet. EVERY LESSON! I sometimes grade them (worksheets) as cumulative grades. Their thinking is if you don't give me something, I won't do the worksheet. But I think it has to do with them being teenagers" (SRI1, 155-162)

Norah believed students asking for external rewards was an age issue. She had to negotiate and grade the worksheets as cumulative work. There would be a certain control over students completing the worksheet activities by marking students.

Another challenge PSTs found was that students did not like writing much. Therefore, the worksheet and PowerPoint helped PSTs shorten the time students would use for the different activities. An example of this is when Pamela in the LO2 let students take pictures of what she was presenting in the PowerPoint:

"So, I showed the PowerPoint to both classes and told them to take pictures so they can finish it (the activity) at home" (Pamela, SRI2, 269-270)

Another finding that can also be read along with some of the data presented is how the worksheet as a learning resource hindered PSTs' reflection about the lessons' implementations and the rationale to carry out certain activities, supposedly to encourage the use of productive skills. This extract from Carina's SSI2 (386-399) exemplifies this:

*C: To me, CLT is that students can be able to communicate in an oral and in a written way.
I: Is grammar more important in that context?
C: Not to me. To me, it's more important that students know what they want to say, rather than write it. Because they can improve by using the language.
I: OK, so you work with a linguistic topic?
C: I don't know.
I: You don't know or you don't do it? Because every time you teach a lesson, you have to work with grammar.
C: Yes, because they (university) ask us to do that.
I: But if you didn't have to do it, you wouldn't teach grammar?
C: Maybe I would teach what students need for the activity.
I: Isn't that what you do?
C: giggles.*

By the very end of the practicum, Carina was unsure about the theory behind her practice. When asked what CLT was for her, she did not know, and based on some keywords I provided she could elaborate. However, this excerpt shows how by designing a lesson plan and after a worksheet, Carina overlooked the rationale of how to work with learning outcomes and why she is reinforcing certain linguistic aspects to encourage productive skills. This extract does not clarify if Carina considered CLT had nothing to do with grammar, although then she acknowledged that students needed some learning of the grammar in order to produce English in an oral or written way. This excerpt also shows how CLT has more to do with speaking the language than writing for her.

Apart from the worksheet, there were scarce cases where PSTs used other settings or other resources to teach the language communicatively. Pamela used the English lab to implement a lesson. However, she experienced some issues. The Internet signal was weak in that school, and students could not download a Google form that she wanted them to complete,

"I thought, I did everything right, but now this happened. I'm not friends with technology. I mostly use PowerPoint presentations. So, when I saw that students couldn't receive the form, I didn't know what to do" (SRI1, 413-419)

Pamela portrayed what many PSTs experienced when they attempted to use the school WiFi; they realised the WiFi quality was good enough for all students to participate actively in an activity based around that. There were some WiFi blindspots in some schools, or they simply had a generally bad connection. Pamela did not feel like she could do lesson implementations more focused on CLT, as her host teacher (HT2) liked to teach more grammar. Despite Pamela moving to a different setting, that lesson implementation encouraged the use of past tenses and written production:

Ok, my lesson was designed to consolidate the teaching of the verb to be; it was the last lesson of that unit. And I took the students to the computer lab, where they had to work with a web page, doing some exercises and then, they had to copy them in their notebook. Then they sent me this to my email, and that activity was worth it a 10% of their test, which will assess all the units." (SRI1, 5-12)

This excerpt shows that despite Pamela changing settings and not using a worksheet, she still focused on teaching grammar instead of the functions of the language. This decision might be partially understood by the fact that Pamela's host teacher had a strong focus on grammar and vocabulary. She explained that this way of teaching constrained her from what her supervisor expected from her, but she concluded:

"Sometimes you know that the lesson is not of the students' interest, you know that the activities you are carrying out won't maybe be...meaningful for them. But it is an activity that you know you'll have students under control, and they will finish it (SSI1, 67-71)

Despite Pamela's trajectory to learn English would place her on a more communicative approach spectrum, Pamela acknowledged how she was thinking of carrying out the completion of sentences and dictation at the end of the lesson, as it was the way students were used to, and they would be under control. However, Pamela expressed how she would have liked to be more CLT-oriented:

"I would've loved to focus on the oral production and communicative approach, but time played against us (PSTs). And I'm not gonna blame that regular lessons didn't occur for a month. (...) But when I become a real teacher, I would like to plan activities so students can have daily topic conversations. Because we are reviewing a unit called "Staying safe", so how to use the lifejacket or the helmet, so...that topic is not like an everyday topic." (Pamela, SSI2, 326-334)

Despite Pamela using English more than her peers and attempting to do communicative activities, she struggled to relate the contents to daily activities for students. She was meant to use the book parents have to buy. Although these students, living primarily in rural areas, probably cycled and could wear a helmet, Pamela felt restricted; however, at the same time, she did not look for ways to mediate this content and transform it into a more contextualised topic.

As in the case of Pamela, many PSTs did not have much autonomy regarding the resources to use. Norah was doing an extensive reading activity and used a book that the department decided on for that class.

"The English department chose this text. My supervisor was against it because the level of the book is too high; it has present perfect even. On top of that, the book is boring, but they told me I had to use it anyway" (SRI2, 176-181)

In the case of Beatriz (Sch5), even though she took risks to try other activities that were not worksheet-oriented, she still felt reluctant to use other strategies when advised,

"My supervisor told me not to show the keywords in the PowerPoint. She told me to use pieces of cardboard and that's how I showed the keywords. The host teacher loved it, but I don't think the students enjoyed that. (...) The other thing I was suggested to do was to ask students to mimic the keywords and that the rest of the students could find out. But I didn't do it cause, honestly, they struggle to elaborate a sentence, I don't think they could find meanings of words out of mimic. They won't understand and then everything is going to be a mess." (SRI2, 400-411)

In this quote, it can be seen how Beatriz, despite most of her students having an adequate level of English and being used to the host teacher (HT6) speaking in English to them, she still had low expectations from students. Instead of modifying the mimics activity to make it achievable, she preferred not to try it. She also highlighted that she wanted to avoid misbehaviour in the classroom. Therefore, it could be assumed that the typical resources such as PowerPoint and worksheets made PSTs feel more in control of the lesson implementation. In any case, she decided to use pieces of cardboard, which could be similar to displaying key works in a PowerPoint presentation. The idea of saving time and being in control could have also influenced Beatriz's decision to present vocabulary about illnesses translated from English to Spanish (See Figure 12).

Figure 12. Extract from LO2 worksheet, Beatriz

Health problems vocabulary:

health	salud
illness	enfermedad (en general)
disease	enfermedad (específica)
asthma	asma
chickenpox	varicela
smallpox	viruela
heart attack	infarto
heart disease	cardiopatía
hepatitis	hepatitis
ulcer	úlcera
flu	gripe
mumps	papera
wound	herida (por un arma)
injury	herida
blood	sangre
injection	inyección
medicine	medicina
pill	pastilla, píldora
prescription	receta médica
vaccine	vacuna
painful	doloroso
painless	indoloro
bandage	venda
band aid	tirita, curita
crutch	muleta
plaster	yeso
wheelchair	silla de ruedas

When asked about this, she replied,

"I did this mostly as I know many students don't use dictionaries and lack vocabulary. So with this, they could learn new words and then have the translation. Vocabulary is not much about theory, it's more to do with using it" (SRI, 341-438)

Again, this shows that the structure of the lesson is not providing the foundations to use the CLT. Therefore, as many school participants mentioned, PSTs should have more flexibility in terms of how they structure the lesson.

Despite Beatriz claiming she knows other ways to introduce vocabulary which are more communicative, and that vocabulary is more about using it, students did not have to use that list to do any of those exercises in the exercises that come after that list (See Appendix K, 246). Here,

it can be seen how a more grammar-translation method continues to be ingrained in PSTs in most of the activities they decide to use in lesson implementations. Although this material is reviewed by supervisors and mentors, these activities are not reflected upon. This also reinforces the idea that the worksheet does not necessarily promote CLT-oriented activities.

7.2 Host teachers and mentors

Host teachers did not get involved in how PSTs planned their lessons. They did make sure that the contents were aligned with the yearly school plan and the national curriculum. For host teachers, what was important was that the PSTs taught the lessons on time, assessed students according to the calendar, and completed other administrative issues in a timely fashion.

In terms of teaching approaches, Amy (HT2), from Sch2, identified her teaching as a mix of different approaches:

"I mix (approaches) because I have to teach grammar in some lessons. And I use the communicative approach for reading comprehension or listening or the creation of a product assessment related to the reading or listening. There are also oral projects and small presentations regarding the class level. Some dialogues require a template, so students can work with the contents that have been taught, then they practice and present it in front of the class" (SS1, 270-275).

Amy discussed how she apparently used the CLT and the grammar-translation method in this extract. However, even with the promotion of CLT activities, it can be observed that the development of productive skills is very guided when Amy said that they create templates so students can complete the missing parts, likely with grammatical and vocabulary based content.

Clarence (HT4) had been working for around a year and a half in Sch2. When asked if he promoted the CLT, he said:

"I'm trying little by little. It is complex, as students are not so used to a CLT approach, so I have been incorporating changes, but little by little. I have not yet taken the risk of doing major transformations. But I believe I will do major changes with time" (SS1, 403-407)

Clarence showed how he identified that students were more used to learning with a focus on grammar, and not much communicative activities. He also shows how even for him, with around five years of experience in various contexts, implementing the CLT approach to teaching and learning cannot be done suddenly or drastically, as students are more used to learning grammar. As Clarence states, CLT takes time to be implemented and then practised by PSTs. However, PSTs understand that they should see results almost immediately.

For Christian (HT5), Frank (Sch4) could have taken more risks in his lesson implementations. However, he understood that most of what Frank did in the classroom was what he had learnt at university, where Christian had also completed the English pedagogy programme:

“I think Frank needs to pull out from the regular teaching paradigm. Because he still works with the worksheet as it was the ONLY STRUCTURE. And that is because we learn that way, using the university lesson plan with the same worksheet template. And in real life, many times we don’t use a worksheet and we don’t have to follow a lesson format. Especially these days that we’ve noticed we need a different type of education” (SSI2, 105-112)

This supported what Giannina expressed when providing her opinion about the portfolio, and the lesson plan dictating the use of the worksheet (See Chapter 5.2, Giannina, p. 120).

At the time of Christian's SSI2 interview, he was very reflective about all the events experienced after the social uprising. Sch4 was the only one where democratic processes occurred at the time of the social uprising peak. This school was located in the city centre of the city, and most demonstrations occurred nearby. Therefore, in order to safeguard students, this school was closed for around a month. Right before the school had to close students called for an assembly, they went on a peaceful strike during the morning and they proposed to do *cabildos* (councils), where usually history teachers could explain things such as what a constitution is and about human rights; things students did not know at the time. Students also voted; they learnt how to vote. The school respected the decisions as the processes were carried out democratically, and most students were involved and very organised.

After returning to school, the school had to adapt the students’ schedules and ended the year with a more *informal* way of teaching (e.g. reduction of hours in the classroom, handing in reports instead of being assessed with tests). This showed Christian that students could learn and participate actively in this process without being supervised as long as what they were working on seemed interesting. He reflected:

“We have to rethink the ways of teaching because they are out of fashion. That’s why students don’t feel engaged as they should. With the social uprising, we have given more autonomy to students, and maybe not all of them have responded in the same way, but most of them, it was like seeing university students. The students focused on one activity, prioritised their duties, then looked for us when they had doubts. So that made us question our ways of teaching. We weren’t thinking about this before the social uprising because we were in the norm, in the system, replicating the ways we’ve been taught...”(SSI2, 130-143)

7.3 Supervisors

Regarding supervisors, Lily (S3) explained her understanding of CLT,

“To me, it would be that students learn the language by interacting with each other, more than learning grammatical structures and a lot of vocabulary. The important thing is that students can communicate, it doesn’t matter if they make mistakes, but gringos will understand anyway,

even if the student conjugates the verb in a wrong way” (SSI1, 743-750)

Lily supervised Beatriz (Sch5) during the LO1 implementation. Therefore, based on what she said she understood as CLT, it is surprising that she had not mentioned anything about introducing vocabulary by presenting a list in English and Spanish, with no purpose of carrying out any activity of the worksheet.

The programme leader, who admitted having been educated as a language teacher under an applied linguistics model, explained how when she started working, her initial belief was that students would learn how to produce the skills of the English language by teaching them grammar extensively:

“I don’t know why I created this idea in my mind that students with solid grammar foundations would be more competent to perform in the productive skills. Basically, for me, grammar was so important that, almost by miracle, it helps you develop the four skills of the language. So, when I started working, I started teaching grammar to students. After reviewing basic grammatical structures, I thought students were ready to write. But it wasn’t the case. I forgot I couldn’t even do that in secondary school. And students who enter the English Pedagogy programme also forget. And some of them enter the programme with levels of English as low as primary education students. Between primary and secondary education, students have 12 years of English language education which has a very insignificant impact in terms of their knowledge of the language. Around 50% of them enter the programme with an A2 level and we have to make them reach a C1 level within five years. We’ve observed the PSTs’ experience as former school learners impact them in terms of their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. Then when they go back to teach to school, they replicate what is more comfortable for them” (PL, SSI, 149-186)

This narration could shed light on why PSTs end up teaching in more traditional ways, as it is the ways they learnt English as former students of primary and secondary education, although they did not learn much. However, this also raises the question of how CTL is understood by TE and the university programme.

When the programme leader explained how the programme was structured and how the teaching and learning were assessed when the programme was reopened in 2002, she explained that the university followed a competency-based teaching model. In the case of the programme, the English language modules contribute to developing English language skills. The CEFR is also used to ensure this framework's levels are achieved. On the other hand, pedagogical competencies revolve around the teaching modules.

“According to me, CLT’s focus is on developing communicative competencies. Within communicative competencies, there are a number of other competencies (...) The development of the four skills, learning the language in a contextualised way, meaningful learning, based on the students’ needs, based on a function. Our programme was not that communicative at the beginning. But, for instance, now we even try to teach the grammar modules, from a communicative point of view” (PL, 445-462)

Following the programme guidelines, the programme leader offers a more comprehensive

understanding of the CLT. For instance, she mentioned functions which were not mentioned by other participants previously.

Then she also referred to reflection,

“A lot of what we do in the programme is to encourage reflection processes, because how is it possible that as a teacher you can’t justify the decisions you make in the classroom (...). In terms of professional competence, we work guided by a reflective framework. In my mind, I recall Wallace. So we can assume that every student already knows how to teach English before they even start the programme. So, during the practicum, the theoretical knowledge learnt in the didactic courses, is nourished by the practicum process through reflection about the practice. A didactic teacher educator is a supervisor, so she reviews the lesson plan and the implementation that she guided and provides feedback. And that experiential knowledge is fed by the theory that informs PSTs on the decisions to make.” (PL, 548-571)

However, after asking PSTs about their various methodological choices and how they received feedback from supervisors and mentors, it is unclear if reflection (or the reflection promoted by the university programme) impacted PSTs decisions and choices to be more communicative in their lesson implementations.

7.4 Conclusion

PSTs understood that a GLT would promote the learning of English from a communicative point of view. Similarly, they understood that the lesson plan and the resulting worksheet were tools to enact the CLT in the classroom. However, it was observed that PSTs' activities chosen to develop the CLT in the classroom usually led to spending more time on passive skills on the language, rather than the communicative ones. The time assigned for productive skills was very limited and guided by specific grammatical structures that needed to be followed and completed within the lesson implementation.

During the practicum, the resources that PSTs used the most were the worksheet and PowerPoint presentations. There were rare occasions where they used other settings, such as the computer lab, or decided to use other resources different from the two mentioned. Some of the reasons for these decisions may be related to having control over students, instead of focusing on the teaching-learning process. However, the grammar-translation method still prevailed when PSTs attempted to use other resources or settings.

PSTs blamed the worksheet as the one to blame when students did not engage in the lesson, claiming that learners were too used to the worksheet structure. However, PSTs chose the contents and activities to present to the supervisor or mentor. It also seemed as if the worksheet used in the classroom hindered the PSTs' reflection process, as once it was accepted by the supervisor or mentor, there seemed to be no further contemplation about the implementation.

Although the programme attempts to emphasise PSTs reflecting on their practices, the data collected portrays how by the completion of a portfolio and the development of a lesson plan and worksheet, the reflection PSTs carry out does not seem enough to make them analyse their practices and reflect on how and if they are incorporating the CLT approach in the activities they select and adapt to promote the CLT, and most importantly, why they make the methodological decisions they do. In conclusion, PSTs understand the use of the worksheet translates into enacting the CLT, however the worksheet structure does not assure that.

Chapter 8 Being an Inclusive Language Teacher; caring for students' diversity as a tool to enact a Good Language Teacher identity.

One practice of GLTs which PSTs identified was, in their words, to care about students. This could be understood as being inclusive of their students' needs. One of the ways this feature could be observed to be enacted was through the Inclusion Legislation of 2016 which advocates for educational environments that can offer similar learning opportunities to all students (See 2.3.1). While PSTs were undertaking their practicums, they encountered some challenges in enacting the Inclusion Legislation of 2016 in the ELT classroom. The most tangible way to see this was through students PSTs had in their class identified as having special educational needs (SENs), who belonged to the School Integration Programme (PIE). As explained in Chapter 2, the Inclusion Legislation of 2016 was passed and started to be implemented in schools across Chile in 2017. Before this, the PIE existed in some schools that optionally opted to have it; however, students with SENs worked in a classroom apart from the mainstream classroom. Some schools did not have PIE staff; therefore, they did not welcome students with SENs. This was the case of Clarence (HT4) when he did a progressive practicum in primary education as a PST:

"[In that primary school], there was a student, Jonathan⁷, who put much effort into the lessons. I remember I noticed he had dyslexia; the letters turned the other way around for him. But he was good at English; he understood if you spoke to him. He was someone that could understand English in other ways [other than by reading or writing]. I asked him if he had any support from the school, but he replied that he didn't. He had failed two years already, and I found out that he worked in a fast-food truck after school and didn't get any help from anyone. I don't remember what I told him then, but I remember I arrived home to cry..." (SS1, lines 131-143)

This excerpt portrays how students with SENs in Chile were not being assisted and not considered with their differences or disabilities when learning a foreign language or other subjects. They would just be considered to have the same skills as the mainstream class and, therefore would be expected to go through the same learning and assessment processes.

In order to make a more egalitarian education system, the Inclusion Legislation of 2016 makes it mandatory that all Chilean schools receiving funding from the state have PIE staff that assists the students with SENs in being part of the mainstream classroom, including in the English language subject. Despite the Inclusion legislation of 2016 aiming to end with discriminatory processes of selection, by promoting social, economic, ethnic, and religious inclusion (Mineduc,2017), the PIE

⁷ This student has been anonymised with a pseudonym.

official documents (Mineduc, 2019) still conceptualise students with disabilities as students with special educational needs. PIE defines these students as

“...students whose characteristics or individual or contextual differences (familiar, social, cultural or others), the student may face certain barriers that hinder or make their learning process more difficult...” (Mineduc, 2019, p.9)

As UNESCO (2005) highlighted, using the ‘integration’ concept is already problematic as it implies putting a label on students, which is already an exclusive measure. Accordingly, using terminology such as special educational needs has also presented to be problematic for similar reasons. That is why, from now on, to refer to students lacking inclusion, I will use the term students with disabilities.

In line with this, those students considered vulnerable would also need to be considered to be included, as they may be at risk due to their socio-economic status, psychological, cultural, environmental or biological environment. Both the definition of students with SENs provided in the PIE and the definition of student in a vulnerable state from JUNAEB (2005) align with the sociocultural approach this study takes and how to explore the different difficulties identified when enacting inclusive practices in the ELT mainstream classroom.

This legislation, as with other inclusive international policies, expects teachers across subjects to implement reasonable adjustments. Article 1 of this legislation (Mineduc, 2017) establishes that:

"Schools must provide the necessary support and accommodations to ensure that all students, especially those with disabilities or special educational needs, have access to the curriculum and can participate fully in all aspects of school life."

This includes reasonable accommodations and modifications to the physical environment, teaching methods, and assessment procedures, among others. In summary, Article 26 of the Law on Inclusive Education establishes the requirement for schools to provide reasonable adjustments and accommodations to ensure that all students have equal access to education, regardless of their abilities or disabilities.

In the deprived contexts where PSTs carried out their practicum, the implementation of this legislation was exempted from an array of issues. Some of them included schoolteachers not *believing* in inclusion, not having appropriate support from PIE staff to adapt materials or processes in the classroom or claiming not to have enough time to include students with disabilities. As a result, it was not observed that this legislation achieved including all students. On the contrary, the way it was enacted proved to be exclusionary.

I will present some of the issues participant PSTs experienced when attempting to use inclusive practices in the lessons' implementations and the teaching-learning process. The first approach PSTs had for these students was to complete the *Description of the Context* of their portfolio (See Figure 6). PSTs had to identify students with disabilities, either permanent or non-permanent and report that. This was during the two-week induction they had at the beginning of the term. Depending on the school, PSTs received complete information, and on occasions, the school may have withheld information from PSTs, as they said this was confidential information. Students with disabilities were generally identified as students who belong to the PIE programme. Therefore, some participants use this term to refer to these students as well.

8.1 Preservice teachers

From all of the PSTs observed, only one had support from the PIE staff in the classroom. In the case of the other PSTs, they only obtained help from the PIE staff if they asked for it, and this help was mainly administrative (e.g., modifying the original tests for students with disabilities). At the beginning of the practicum, PSTs had already identified working with students with disabilities in the main classroom as an issue. Such is the case of Frank (Sch5); for whom one of his students was on the Autistic spectrum disorder (thereafter, ASD), at least two students had attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), and one student presented a mild intellectual impairment. Unlike the other four schools observed, someone from the PIE staff assisted the student with ASD in the classroom at all times. When observing the lessons implementations, he was standing by the side of the ASD student during the whole lesson. When I observed the lessons, I could see the SEN teacher was mainly there to support the student on the spectrum in terms of behaviour (make sure she was sitting like the other classmates) or support her emotionally if she had a breakdown, as he did not know English. Frank expressed that despite having help in the classroom, he did not feel prepared to work with students with disabilities,

"I think that I lack some pedagogical knowledge in terms of disabilities. I don't think I have the competencies to deal with students with disabilities. And now, with the Inclusion Legislation, the university has not added this component to the programme as it should be. Now I have a student with ASD and others with ADHD, and I don't know how to deal with them" (SS11, 36-39)

Frank felt uncomfortable being in charge of students with disabilities as he did not feel he had the competencies. Additionally, before the national implementation of the Inclusion legislation, assistant teachers had been educated to assist in the subjects of Spanish language and Maths. Therefore, the assistant teacher lacked disciplinary knowledge of the subject to support in the learning process of students with disabilities. This could explain why Frank did not feel supported despite a SEN teacher in the classroom.

In the case of Pamela (Sch2), although she did not have students from the PIE, she showed some concerns about inclusion issues. Regarding the knowledge she has about the PIE project, she voiced:

"Theoretically, we know what SEN means, we know what the PIE is, what students are part of this programme, but nothing else. Especially now that there are so many transgender students and all of that. I asked my host teacher about it, and she said there are several students who are transitioning. For example, I asked her how they do it to go to the toilet. She said she didn't know. So, it's like no one talks about it" (SS11, 176-187)

It was not only in Pamela's class that students were transitioning, but also in other classes, such as Nora's. Despite transgender students not being part of the PIE, they would still need to be included according to Inclusion legislation of 2016. This showed how the school culture tends to homogenise students not only in terms of their cognitive abilities but also in terms of gender. It must be noted that the PIE project is part of the Inclusion Legislation, which seeks that all students have access to and a right to education in Chile without receiving any type of discrimination. The law of gender identity is recent in Chile as well; it was passed in 2018 and allows individuals over the age of 14 to legally change their name and gender marker on official documents to match their gender identity. The law also allows minors under the age of 14 to change their name and gender marker with the consent of their legal representative(s) and a mental health professional. The law also prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender identity in education and other areas. Overall, the law on gender identity in Chile aims to promote the human rights and dignity of transgender and gender-nonconforming individuals, and to ensure their full inclusion and participation in society.

However, some teachers and school staff in general still do not accept this and do not follow the national policy. From that point of view, it may have been contingent for Pamela to comment on transgender students.

In this respect, Norah reported having a transgender student in her class and how her supervisors due to religious beliefs did not *believe* that transgender students could exist. As her supervisor had taught in that school (Sch2) until the previous year, Norah mentioned how she proudly reported to keep on calling this student for his birth name instead of the name he wanted to be addressed:

"At school we can call this student by his chosen name, Marcus⁸. But my supervisor, HT2, told me that she had taught Marcus the previous year and that because of her religious beliefs she called him Maria⁹, her given name. And she told me this super proudly, I called her Maria, because she understood that I didn't agree with the way she thought. So, HT2 thought that because of what

⁸ This student has been anonymised with a pseudonym.

⁹ This student has been anonymised with a pseudonym.

she thought she could disrespect a human being. And you can see he is not comfortable being addressed as a woman; he dresses like a man, he has short hair, speaks like a man, because HE WANTS TO BE A MAN, and if you call him Maria, he would obviously feel bad. But she was very proud of her behaviour. I don't understand how someone can feel good about making someone else feel bad. Especially considering all the social pressure and how difficult it must have been for him to embrace his identity, and then that a teacher tells you, no you are a woman" (SSI2, 525-536)

This is an example of how despite the presence of relevant legislation, the enactment of it is in the hands of the school staff, and how very often conservative beliefs against inclusion persist and dominate the school context.

After the LO1, I could see how PSTs faced having students with disabilities in the classroom differently; however, they all had some extent of difficulty. In the LO1, Rose (Sch1) had an issue with a student who was not working and behaved disruptively for most of the session. Byron¹⁰ was playing with his classmate, and then in the middle of an explanation Rose was giving, he stood next to the teacher at the front where the board was to charge his phone. Rose gave him a speech about respect and how he could not do whatever he wanted in the lesson, while he sat down, pretending he did not hear her.

"You two at least have some respect. We've talked about this before. We discussed the rules of the class at the beginning. You cannot just stand up and do whatever you want. You should at least ask for permission" (VR1, 25:00)

In the SRI1, Rose explained that Byron is part of the PIE and has a permanent intellectual impairment. Before implementing the PIE as it is now, he was taken out of the classroom and worked separately from his classmates. However, now, he has to be in the mainstream classroom with everyone. Rose understands that due to his disability, Byron can be disruptive at times. She also developed certain extra compassion towards this student as she realised that he did not receive any support from his family at home.

By the end of the lesson, while she was monitoring the class, Rose approached Byron, and both had a conversation. I asked her in the SRI1 what they were talking about. Rose explained that she was asking him about a letter that would be assessed as a cumulative grade and that he did not do as he was absent in a previous lesson:

"I told him that day [another day] that it was his responsibility to bring the letter, to what he agreed. But he did not bring the letter again (she laughs). So I asked him about it, he said- 'no, miss I didn't bring it. The thing is that I tried, but I couldn't write it'-. So I asked him why he didn't bring me his attempt, so I could believe he tried and help him with his issues. -'Because if you don't show me [the letter], I don't know what's difficult for you and how to help you'-. So he agreed to bring it, next class. I told him to bring it as it is, to bring whatever he can do. So, sometimes I have mixed feelings with Byron because I make an effort so he can progress as he

¹⁰ This student has been anonymised with a pseudonym

has shown some interest sometimes. Even in this lesson, he asked some things, and he participated. He even answered correctly. But I think he needs a lot of support, and maybe with support, he would have a better performance" (SRI1, 566-579).

Rose explains how she feels Byron is not receiving help at home, which was information she gathered from the English teacher and staff, so his social environment makes learning even more challenging for him.

Rose couldn't gather information from the PIE staff when she approached their office. She said:

"We don't have any support from the PIE staff because the support goes to the Maths and Spanish Language subjects, and out of 18 students in my class, there are seven who belong to the PIE " (SRI1, 382-384)

This was the case in four schools, including Sch1; the help provided was directed to Maths and Spanish language only.

Josie (Sch1) had two students in her class with hearing impairments; one who was totally deaf and one with considerable hearing loss. These students usually sat down together and communicated with each other through sign language. I did not observe that they spent time with other students, as it seemed the other students did not know sign language, nor did Josie. When I asked Josie how she approached the teaching of English with these students, she replied,

"I don't know. Teacher Christopher takes them out of the classroom" (SRI1, 57).

Josie spent the whole term with these students, and her host teacher took these students out of the classroom for the English lesson. Although Pia (M1) suggested that Josie sought assistance from the PIE staff, she relied on Christopher (HT1) being in charge of these students and their teaching and did not feel they were her responsibility. Despite the fact that these students should now have remained in the mainstream classroom, they were taken out. On the other hand, Josie and the way the lesson was designed did not offer an inclusive learning environment to these students. When I asked Beatriz (Sch5), about a student who was not working in the LO1, she said,

"He has a disability I think it is ADHD, but the school said they can't provide me further information, but that he had some issues the last semester" (SRI1, 239-241).

Beatriz also explained that the student was very creative;

"When it comes to manual activities, he presents the best works, but when it is about writing, he doesn't do it (...) I try to make sure he works, but he can't focus for too long on the same activity cause of his disability. However, he is very respectful, but when it is work time, he is somewhere else" (SRI1, 243-246)

After the LO2, the issues PSTs faced did not change much, although some managed to implement some strategies to include students with disabilities in the teaching-learning process of the L2.

In the case of Josie, she acknowledged that at that point, she had stopped paying much attention to these students:

"Something negative about my lesson implementation is that I didn't pay much attention to the PIE students. I don't make any effort [for them to learn] anymore...because they never work. For example, Jhon, Danielle¹¹. Maybe I don't consider them..." (SRI2, 16-20)

At some point, Josie felt responsible, but at the same time, she felt it was these students' responsibility to follow and engage in the lesson, not hers. Josie further believed that her students' lack of attention was independent of how she planned and implemented her lessons. Carina (Sch3), despite having collected the information regarding the students with disabilities, was not so sure about the number of students that were registered as such or who they were. She reported:

"I have a student who never works in class, neither he learns...and there are others with disabilities in the class. So, there are different levels [of English] within the same class. (...) I don't remember which the students with disabilities are, but I've noticed that they engage more if they have a worksheet with pictures and colours. I've also noticed that some of them might be hyperactive, as they need to be moving around..." (SRI1, 40-49)

Carina does not seem to have paid much attention to these students, apart from identifying them to complete the portfolio, and predicting the ones who get bored may have a disability. However, the same as Josie, they identified that not learning or not engaging in the learning process relied on the students, and they did not have a part in the learning process of these students. Also, in both cases, I could see other students not identified as with disabilities who did not work or did not pay attention, as they did not feel engaged with the lesson either.

In the case of Frank, he continued to have views against the PIE and the Inclusion Legislation of 2016 and he continued not to include students with disabilities in his lessons, mainly the student on the spectrum. He stated:

"I mean, she is on the autistic spectrum...I don't know. Sometimes she cries, sometimes she laughs alone. Sometimes she leaves the classroom whenever she wants. And I don't know how to deal with her and with her problem, with her disability, if you can call it that way. I think I don't have the skills to teach her, and I don't think I make any effort either (...) I think the time is an issue, and I don't know if I agree with the inclusion legislation(...) Because I think that (...) including students that cannot learn due to different disabilities and who don't even have the foundations of the language, it's not productive (...) I think that grouping students according to their level would be better (...) I agree with the inclusion, but not in the classroom, not concerning teaching a discipline. I agree with social inclusion, socio-affective inclusion, and a student with disabilities being in contact with other people, I think it is positive. But that doesn't mean it is positive when it comes to teaching and learning, as in the case of English." (SRI2, 110-142)

Frank felt frustrated as he did not feel he could teach these students. This excerpt also shows how

¹¹ These students' names have been anonymised with pseudonyms.

he believed in more traditional ways of teaching, where you group students by their level of English. There is also a contradiction as he remarked that he agreed with social inclusion but did not identify the school as a place for this to happen.

Rose (Sch1) tried to incorporate some strategies in terms of relationships with students and adapting the material. I told her I had observed she managed to build a relationship that was not friendship but that showed interest in students, like when she asked Byron to bring his written attempt, and how by doing that, she showed that she cared about the student. She said that in those cases, adapting and understanding the context is key.

"I know I can't demand a PIE student to perform as well as students who sit at the front, whose parents care for them. More than assessing with unique criteria, in this case, I have to consider other aspects, other factors that impact the students' learning. And the family factor is super important" (SSI2, 172-178).

Rose thinks that being a bit older than her other PSTs' peers and having worked for four years in between while she suspended her studies helped her face these issues in the practicum more responsibly. She worked for a programme called "Un Techo para Chile" (*A roof for Chile*), which consists of a non-profit organisation that mobilises young volunteers to fight extreme poverty by building transitional housing, known as *mediaguas* in Chile, and implementing social inclusion programmes for people who live in slums;

"I was in charge of attracting volunteers and then working with them in a formative plan while in the organisation. I only worked with people from 15 to 22 years old, so somehow, I gained experience in relating to people of this age range. I know how to get to them through jokes. I know what topics they are interested in. So, I think that helped to connect with these students" (SSI2, 157-163)

Rose also valued Pia's orientation, especially concerning students with SENs;

"At university, we don't have any formation about disabilities or curricular adaptation. And in my class there were seven students from the PIE, and I didn't have a clue on how to work with them (...), and teacher Pia, without being an expert, helped me with what she knew" (SSI2, 312-318).

Rose said some of the recommendations she got from the PIE staff were supporting these students at all times, going to their seats to ensure they were working and understood.

Furthermore, to make them more autonomous, she could write the instructions in Spanish below the English instructions in the worksheets. It was not easy for Rose to talk to the PIE staff, as the assistant teachers were always busy. However, she insisted until they made some time for her.

Rose said:

"shying away and saying the university didn't prepare us is the easiest thing to do. And taking content out or lowering the test standards for them is not effective for students learning. In the end, the inclusion law becomes the exclusion law. Students don't review all the contents; they are left behind" (SSI2, 355-264).

Rose considered including students with disabilities in the L2 classroom was her responsibility as a soon-to-become teacher, irrespective of having learnt skills to cope with this at university or not. This made her proactive in trying to look for alternatives.

Josie (Sch2), also encouraged by Pia (M1) to ask for help from the PIE staff, had a more distant approach to students with disabilities. Just by the end, she reflected that she should have learnt sign language for example,

"Now I think I should do a sign language course. Because the other day, I ran into one of the deaf students on the bus, and he wanted to talk to me, and I couldn't. That made me feel terrible. I didn't feel I needed to do this because teacher Christopher took the two deaf students out of the classroom until I met one on the bus and couldn't communicate with him". (SS2, 211-223)

In the focus group, PSTs raised their conclusions about the PIE programme and how it impacted their lessons.

Josie acknowledged that her being impatient was not helpful,

"It was hard for me to work with students who, in the Chilean slang, are duros de entender (Chilean slang for slow at learning). So, it was difficult cause I needed more time to make them work. So, in the end, I assigned other students to help them and continued with the class (...) I had to explain them [PIE students] five or six times, and they understood. So I used tutors, and that helped" (FG, 709-713)

Similar to Robert (See 7.1, quote SRI2, 98-103, p.139), Josie transferred the responsibility to help these students in their learning process to other students instead.

Frank acknowledged that having a student on the autistic spectrum was challenging for him,

"I was a big challenge, but I didn't take her into account. I didn't consider her in my lessons. I didn't plan thinking of her. That girl did what she wanted. She wasn't messy, but she did other things. (...) She would often leave the classroom crying and slamming the door. And since the assistant teacher didn't know English, there was no way he could help her. I couldn't connect with her. (...) She was like having a kindergarten student in the classroom, so I don't think how I could have taught her English. I would have had to have too much time, and only with her, not in the classroom" (FG, 718-733)

Unlike Josie, Rose, who was at the same school (Sch1), felt she could teach these students:

"it was difficult to work with PIE students because we don't learn that at Uni, neither we learn curricular adaptations. So, it had more to do with me figuring out what to do. For them (students with disabilities), worksheets had to be very concrete, avoid open questions, just matching or things that take less time, where they didn't have to write much, so they didn't lose focus. Somehow, I could adapt the material, but only cause I looked for help. It's not like it's part of the work we are expected to do [from university]. (FG, 736-746)

Norah (PST5) also said she could achieve her PIE students learnt.

"I had seven students registered with disabilities. It was difficult at the beginning, as the university doesn't teach us much about inclusive practices. So, I spoke to the assistant teacher and asked for tips. So, for me, everyone was PIE. I didn't make a distinction. I treated all students equally. That helped. I also made them work in pairs, so the more advanced could explain the more disadvantaged. I monitored a lot, because once you know the group, you know which ones are good at English and don't need much support, and the ones who do" (FG, 748-758)

8.2 Host teachers and mentors

Pia (M1) explained they had a number of students at Fray Bartolomé school (Sch1) from the countryside, who had generally been previously taught in multi-level classes with low English level, and students with disabilities, due to the Inclusion Legislation of 2016. She also explained how the PIE is organised at this school,

"Here the hours of PIE teachers are assigned to Spanish language and Maths. However, we have students with cognitive disabilities in the English classroom, and we are left alone, just hoping the PIE staff can be willing to help us. We [language teachers] don't have the expertise to work with these students or adapt the material. There are students with diverse cognitive disabilities, such as deaf students, and you have to work differently with them. Unfortunately, we don't have the time, and neither the school provides some time for us to talk to the PIE staff to adapt material or tests. Just this year, a PIE teacher happened to know English and offered to help me with a deaf student in my class. Because now, deaf students have to be assessed in English too. So, five minutes before the class starts, I quickly tell her what we are doing, show her the material, and she takes the student to a PIE office and works with him. She uses the computer, Google for images, etc. We have told the principal about this, but he always says they can't hire more PIE staff. So, they demand you to be inclusive, but they don't provide you with tools so the students can really learn. The PSTs have the same issues, so I try to guide them and help them with what I know. (...) I feel sorry about the PSTs because you learn so many teaching strategies in the Didactic courses, but they didn't prepare them to work with students with disabilities. You come to school with high expectations to teach English, but if you are lucky, you might be able to use two, three strategies, and then you are on your own" (SSI1. 56-97)

This excerpt shows how the PIE is not implemented effectively to address inclusion in terms of how it is currently being run. Two issues that intersect the poor implementation of the PIE in the L2 classroom are that PSTs have not been taught in-depth to teach inclusively, and schools do not provide time for teachers to be trained on this, although some of the money assigned by the state to schools for the PIE is meant to be used for training.

It can also be seen that in the same way as it happened in Josie's classroom, Pia did not include the deaf student in the mainstream classroom, as she received help from a PIE teacher. Also, Pia highlighted that since 2018 deaf students are not exempt from being assessed in the English language as they used to be. Christopher (HT1) claimed in the interviews that he always stayed in the mainstream classroom with the students with hearing impairment. However, he took these students out the two times I observed Josie's lessons. I asked him if he encouraged Josie to work with these students, and he said,

"It's difficult to work with deaf students. Josie has never worked with them, and she doesn't know sign language. So, it's more difficult for her to communicate with them. The class, in general, has comprehension issues with basic Spanish, so English is also challenging" (SSI1, 213-217).

This was not the only time a host teacher reported that students had difficulties understanding Spanish instructions. Even though Josie had asked Christopher how to integrate these students, he claimed there was no time for that. Or that he did not have time to help her with that.

"The times were too tight for her to learn things. Deaf students are usually willing to teach you their language. If you don't understand, they write the message on a piece of paper. But if she is not around all the time working with them, it's difficult to learn it" (SSI2, 47-50).

Christopher explained how he worked with deaf students,

"I attempt that these students can learn and manage some vocabulary because that's the only thing they'll be able to develop. They don't use connectors in Spanish [sign language]. Therefore, they don't understand them in English. they don't use verb tenses either, only lexicon" (SSI1, 241-246)

Giannina (M2) and Pia (M1)'s school contexts were similar in terms of the implementation of the PIE,

"(...) we are lacking training in special needs. I don't know how to deal with a Down or Asperger student. (...), what can you do? (...). What would happen if you have an issue in the lesson with them. It's complicated. And yes, we need to get training for that. We need the system to provide us with this type of training. We have a PIE team, but they don't go with us to the classroom" (Giannina, SSI1, 75-86).

Giannina was aware of the language teachers not being trained to work with students with disabilities and how the system had not supported them with integrating these students in mainstream classrooms. However, Giannina encouraged her PSTs to ask the PIE staff for guidance. She added that she has experience with curricular adaptations regarding students with disabilities and that she also highlighted PSTs had to make a difference in how they approached those students,

"I told them [PSTs] to interview the PIE staff and get some suggestions on how to adapt the material for students. (...); from lowering the level of demand from these students to adapting activities, i.e., shortening them or using more images with them. And they achieved good results (...) I also suggested them to monitor these students more, by paying more attention to them and maybe find a student who can support them (...) But the point is that to be inclusive, we don't have to take the students with disabilities out of the classroom. Otherwise, we are not including. The idea is that no one notices this; it is not to put a tag on the student with disability. They need to be perceived as normal students, but we need to pay more attention to them. There was a student with a permanent disability who got involved completely in Susan's lessons. And that increased the student's self-esteem as well" (SSI2, 112-127)

Although Giannina mentioned she encouraged PSTs to seek assistance with the PIE staff, she acknowledged that Susan did better than Carina, as Carina *"was always very distracted, and sometimes she just didn't realise about students"* (SSI2, 23-26).

Regarding Robert's (Sch2) host teacher, Amy (HT4), in the MF1, when referring to the PIE students, she focused on the assessment rather than the teaching part. In this meeting, Amy and Robert are discussing the last assessment of the term, and Amy warned him:

"When your supervisor approves the test, by midday, you have to send it to the PIE staff so they can modify it for the PIE students" (FM, 219-222)

Amy shows her concern about the assessment, but there is no encouragement from her for Robert to seek guidance from the PIE staff for other activities related to the classroom learning rather than assessment. In the SSI2, Amy mentioned that that class had seven students from the PIE and that one of them was on the Autistic spectrum. Despite Robert reporting in the SSIs and SRIs about students with disabilities, he never mentioned having a student on the spectrum. Amy thought that Robert did not show much commitment or proactiveness to do something with the class,

"He just sent the tests to the PIE staff, but I had another PST last semester, and she went to their office and asked them for help. And maybe if I hadn't told him to send the tests, he wouldn't have done it either" (SS2, 285-292)

The case of Christian (HT5, Sch4) is different from the other schools because they do receive assistance from the PIE staff in the classroom. He said,

"The PIE staff give me feedback about the material, how I can make it more didactic, use more colours, or modify it to make it more attractive to students. Anyway, most of my activities are flexible for all students" (SSI1, 67-74)

Christian explained that he tried to reach as many students as possible with the same material. However, he did not encourage Frank to get some help from the PIE teachers and his class. This is because, as he explained in the SSI2, teachers tend to forget about students with disabilities:

"Generally, we as teachers don't do many adaptations; we forget about the students from the PIE." (SSI2, 67-74).

Concerning incorporating students with disabilities, Claire (HT6) explained that at Milan school (Sch5), the PIE runs only until year 10. However, the students in years 11 and 12 are assessed differently, but they did not belong to the PIE. Claire showed Beatriz how she did it, and from there, Beatriz took some examples to replicate. Claire explained that Beatriz did not show significant issues, as she had students with mild SENs, and therefore their adjustments were minor,

"(...) we adapt the assessments. In this case (...) the adaptations are very simple. For instance, if a test has two reading texts, then you put two reading texts, but of shorter length. If there is an open question, maybe you will transform it into a multiple-choice question (...) The quantity and level of difficulty change, but the objectives are the same" (SSI2, 284-293).

Since large adjustments did not need to be made, and since Beatriz had the support and guidance from the host teacher, these adaptations did not present to be problematic.

8.3 Supervisors and university educators

According to the elite interviewee from the university, there are many flaws in the Inclusion Legislation of 2016 and the PIE. He considers the approach schools are taking about students with disabilities as more related to the money they receive through vouchers for these students than genuinely offering a type of education that can contribute to including them in the learning process:

"The school these days is only creating functional people, as we have an over standardisation, an overmarketisation of education (...) Because all of this is related to the voucher related to students' performance. And that is related to capitalism imbricated in education, where profiting is what matters, and there is profit from the Inclusion Legislation of 2016. For instance, with the PIE project, that is stealing. (...) Because if I have a student with disabilities, if they are non-permanent, there is a voucher for that. Now, if a student is more misfortune, if they are indigenous, the school gets another voucher (...) So, if you are in a school in Tirua, or Teodoro Schmidt (rural and indigenous populated areas), a voice and speech therapist, a psychologist assesses a child, they will find out that student has at least AHDH, and maybe some language learning disability, AT LEAST! And then that student is part of the PIE (...) And how about the sociocultural aspect? Because let's say I place that psychologist in Belgrade, and I make them read a Cyrillic alphabet; they would also be diagnosed with some type of disability. I'm not saying Asperger's people don't exist. I just mean that the PIE is only seen as a business now in education." (SSI, 257-276).

This participant mentioned the sociocultural aspect not being considered, as those rural towns have high concentrations of Mapuche communities, where Mapudungun is commonly spoken at home and Mapuche people follow their people's traditions. These are also areas where *the red zone* is, as the territorial conflict between Mapuche and Chileans happens there. Schools in these areas follow a uniform curriculum that applies to the whole country. In these areas, school students experience their learning by being in contact with nature and learning from what their parents and community do. However, this is not necessarily part of the school curriculum. Every class in a school that receives funding from the state must be part of the PIE, but at the same time, the school receives extra money per student who belongs to the PIE, and each class can have up to seven registered students with disabilities. This is the number many PSTs had in their classrooms.

Cynthia (S2) mentioned that Frank (Sch4) did not tell her anything about having students with disabilities. She said she generally asked PSTs how they would work with students with disabilities if they were registered in the portfolio. I asked Cynthia what recommendations she provided to work with the student on the spectrum, and she said:

"Was there a student on the spectrum? I didn't realise. (SSI2, 231-232)

I mentioned that a PIE teacher was next to her in the classroom, wearing a white apron. She did

not perceive this dynamic and did not recall seeing the PIE teacher in the classroom when she observed Frank. Moreover, despite this being in the portfolio, either deliberately or inadvertently, she ignored it.

In the case of Gala (S1), she said that her supervisees at Liceo Paulo Freire (Sch2), Robert and Norah, did well according to the UTP office, as they were assessed by this unit and obtained the highest mark. This way of seeing how PSTs did regarding students with disabilities is slightly vague as many PSTs reported that in the assessment rubrics, there were aspects which were hard to assess as, for instance, UTP staff did not observe their lessons and they did not have much involvement in how they performed in the classroom or how they assessed the needs of students with disabilities.

According to what she observed in the lessons she assessed, Gala said that PSTs had to send tests beforehand to the PIE staff. However, she found it strange that PSTs could send the tests by WhatsApp to them. Something that, according to her, was not possible to do when she had worked as a teacher in that school until the previous year. In terms of the recommendations she provided to PSTs, she said:

"I made sure they sent the tests to the PIE staff with enough time. At some point, too at the beginning, I helped Robert with an assessment rubric (...) because my idea is not to do amendments for these students, but to adapt the material, so it is useful for all the students" (SSI2, 176-179)

The view of Gala to approach the students with disabilities was to make them part of the learning process along with the mainstream classroom students. However, at the same time, she presented to be discriminatory with the transgender student aforementioned the previous year. Possibly, she did not consider this as to be inclusive.

Lydia (S4), who supervised Beatriz (Sch5) after she returned from her medical leave, as a very personal opinion, expressed how they as teacher educators are not prepared to teach PSTs to work with SEN students, nor are they prepared to train PSTs with SEN:

"Last year, during the accreditation process, this issue was brought up by PSTs, because they don't feel they are prepared to work with students with disabilities and I, personally, feel they don't either, and I feel we as teacher educators aren't prepared to provide them with tools to face that challenge either" (SSI2, 335-339)

Lydia explained that since then, the English pedagogy programme staff has been discussing ways to improve this with the Special Educational Needs pedagogy programme at the university, and they intend to do collaborative work through some workshops.

"I know we won't solve this with workshops, but there has to be a curricular change in the programme and add the disability issues within a module. We know that! However, I think the only way is to teach our PSTs that they need to learn to make adjustments in their lessons (...). This is a big issue, but the Mineduc sometimes makes these radical decisions without preparing

the teachers first. It is not the first time they have done this, and then the poor teachers have to either sink or swim. So basically, [you teachers] survive with this new context we are giving you. But why not prepare teachers first? I feel that the Mineduc makes these decisions not considering the required processes. And they don't even consider the most important opinion; the ones of the teachers; are they prepared? Are there conditions at school to implement this?" (SSI2, 343-358)

As all participants have voiced, even if host teachers and PSTs have the best intentions to assist the needs of students, there is a lack of theoretical and procedural knowledge to achieve this. Lydia points out how the Mineduc expects that after this legislation has been passed, this can be enacted by teachers immediately without considering other contextual school issues and without considering how prepared schoolteachers are for this new challenge. Some of the challenges are to include every student in large classrooms, understanding people with disabilities and diversity in general.

8.4 Conclusion

The successful implementation of the Inclusion Legislation of 2016 and the PIE in the English language lessons of PSTs proved to be challenging. Despite some PSTs who expressed willingness to embrace inclusive teaching strategies, a lack of understanding about the PIE was prevalent, with misinformation varying depending on factors such as the school where the PSTs conducted their practicum, the class they taught, and the disabilities students had. The PSTs who were able to implement inclusive teaching strategies successfully were those who embraced caring for students as a fundamental aspect of their identity as language teachers. For instance, Rose, Norah, and Susan successfully engaged students with disabilities in the teaching-learning process by utilising various strategies, drawing from their personal characteristics and past experiences. In contrast, Frank openly expressed disbelief in inclusion, which made it difficult for him to assume responsibility for students with disabilities in the classroom. Despite complying with instructions, Frank's involvement proved problematic. Similarly, Carina and Josie's lack of attention to students with disabilities, as reported by host teachers and mentors, suggested they did not prioritise or were prone to forgetting about these students. In sum, as Rose pointed out, the Inclusion Legislation of 2016, in most cases, had the unintended consequence of excluding students with disabilities or the vulnerable ones, who were physically present in the classroom but ignored or disregarded in the teaching-learning process. In some cases, such as that of deaf students, they were not even part of the mainstream English language lesson.

Inclusive ELT is a crucial aspect of education that requires consideration for all students, regardless of their differences. While the implementation of inclusive teaching strategies for students with disabilities may present challenges, it is essential to recognise that inclusion

extends beyond just physical or cognitive disabilities. Inclusion also encompasses transgender students, students who consume drugs (See pp.109-110), Mapuche students who may face discrimination for being indigenous (See p.133), and students who have live in conflictive environments and lack support. Therefore, inclusive strategies would have to consider creating a supportive and inclusive classroom environment where all students feel valued and respected.

This study showed that PSTs who demonstrated caring attitudes towards their students, regardless of their differences, were more likely to engage students with disabilities in the learning process and achieve inclusion in the classroom.

Additionally, despite the issues of time and the lack of training school staff and PSTs reported, it is worth noting that inclusive teaching strategies did not necessarily require significant effort or resources. The Inclusion Legislation of 2016 emphasises the need for reasonable adjustments to be made for students with disabilities, and it is possible to make simple modifications to teaching practices to ensure that all students are included in the learning process. This can involve providing alternative modes of communication, using visual aids or assistive technology, or adjusting assessment methods to accommodate different learning needs.

In summary, the successful implementation of inclusive teaching strategies in English language lessons requires a deep understanding of the PIE and recognition that inclusion encompasses a broad range of social and cultural diversity. PSTs who demonstrated a caring attitude towards all students, coupled with the use of reasonable adjustments as per the Inclusion Legislation requires, can create a supportive and inclusive classroom environment where all students feel valued and respected.

Chapter 9 Findings and Discussion

9.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results presented in the previous 4 chapters, making connections with the study objectives and reviewed literature. I first present a synthesis of the findings. This synthesis is organised around three main topics: 1) The School Institution as the primary mediator of preservice teachers' understanding of the *GLT*, 2) Struggles to operationalise the CLT and the use of the target language; 3) The portfolio as an assessment and accountability artefact of Preservice teachers' teaching-learning and reflection. These are tied to the obstacles, dilemmas and achievements these PSTs experienced throughout the practicum and the role this had on those topics. The more PSTs progressed through the practicum the more they realised that knowing and caring about students weighted more than their knowledge of the language when it came to teaching the L2 and engaging students in the activities planned for lessons.

The data suggests that through this process, PSTs built the concept of the *GLT* strongly around individual characteristics and attitudes, such as being adaptable, flexible, friendly, and other qualities related to attitudes and behaviours towards students, such as knowing them, generating a rapport, encouraging students'-self confidence in learning English, among others. The analysis identifies that these characteristics PST classify as fundamental to being a *GLT* are related to relationships between PSTs and students so that PSTs can better understand their classes. At the same time, by better understanding students, PSTs reported to feel more in control of the class and ultimately feel more comfortable carrying out the lesson as they could perceive learner engagement. Additionally, initially PSTs and participants such as university supervisors positioned the knowledge and command of the English language as fundamental to be able to enact lesson implementations using the CLT approach. This may not be surprising, as literature has reported that NNESTs have always placed importance on the command of the L2 in order to validate themselves as language teachers (Borg, 2006; Farrell, 2018; Morton, 2018; Griffiths and Tajeddin, 2020). At the same time however, the national ELT policy presents a disproportionate focus on knowledge of the language compared to pedagogical content knowledge. Most PSTs realised that this did not necessarily translate into a CLT approach-based lesson or even students learning of the language during the practicum. PSTs were challenged with various other issues during their lessons implementations that stopped them from enacting their practices using a CLT approach. This presupposes that PSTs personal characteristics were key in order to enact lessons using the CLT.

By the end of the practicum, the data evidenced that PSTs reshaped the concept of the *GLT* without disregarding the knowledge of the L2. However some of them, in contrast to the focus of the national ELT policy and therefore the university programme, understood that the personal characteristics they identified at the beginning as even more relevant than the disciplinary knowledge itself. In this way, the pedagogical content knowledge gained more importance. However they did not feel very prepared in order to use these qualities and reflect them in their students learning. Additionally, administrative duties which they did not seem to be aware of became relevant as well to build a professional identity where they could be seen by others, namely future colleagues, as GLTs. PSTs started interacting with the school staff more often and spent more time at school than in any previous progressive practicum. This generated an understanding of the administrative work PSTs would have to carry out as teachers. This also allowed these PSTs to understand that the work they carry out in the classroom is not isolated from other activities within the school, and that they were ultimately part of a school community, although they rarely felt the entitlement or the *power* of a schoolteacher within their particular communities. Nevertheless, they understood that the school where they had been allocated valued certain teaching practices and disregarded others. In order to fit into these communities, PSTs tended to align to these practices, irrespective if they were or not in line with their learning in the university programme.

At least three of the school placements had a significant number of middle-class students (working class by UK standards; See Chapter 2) and coming from vulnerable contexts. Most of these students belonged to rural areas, and they faced different forms and degrees of deprivation regarding social, economic, and affective issues. For some, the safest place to be was at school, as it covered some of their basic needs such as food, a warm shelter, and relative comfort. Their vulnerabilities frequently affected motivation at school and lowered their intentions to pursue higher education. PSTs were aware that most of these students did not have expectations about going to university because they could not afford it or did not consider higher education necessary to have a better quality of life, as most parents had neither received higher education in general nor did not show interest in their children pursuing further education. This supports Brunner's (1997) statement about how poor people in Chile are part of a circle of poverty where due to their lack of education they continue making poor choices regarding the education of their children. Although all students in Chile who attend the public and subsidised system should be able to have the right to education based on equality conditions, up to this day this does not reflect the national reality.

Despite the university programme, which claims to prepare PSTs better than other universities for deprived contexts due to the strong practicum component, it seems the programme still places

more importance on PSTs learning English, by achieving a C1 level rather than on working on PSTs learning to teach the language in contexts such as this. Some of the overlooked or partially covered aspects were reflected in PSTs time management, classroom management, and rapport issues. In line with this, as opposed to what the ELT national policy permeates through the university programme, by the end of the practicum PSTs concluded that they lacked some skills that the university programme did not seem to consider as important compared to the learning of the English language, such as a focus on PSTs attitudes, beliefs, and personal characteristics. PSTs considered that these characteristics would help them develop a professional identity that could aid them understand the commonly underprivileged school contexts of the city where they carry out the practicum and later where they would most likely work.

9.2 The School Institution as the primary mediator of Preservice teachers' understanding of the *good language teacher*.

This study evidenced how strongly the schools as institutions where PSTs carried out their practicum heavily influenced their becoming as language teachers. This shaped them into soon-to-be language teachers with few opportunities to explore different ways of teaching and limited their chances to make decisions more independently and to reflect about this during the practicum. This finding agrees with those of Nguyen (2017), Dobbins (1996), and Barahona (2019) that show the practicum is not necessarily a safe space for PSTs to make mistakes, and where they usually have to navigate this experience through a variety of contradictory messages, where in the end they have to fulfil the school's and the university's expectations. In line with this, PSTs generated the understanding that reflecting on their practices was not valued by the school institution, as following the national curriculum and completing administrative tasks, such as grading students on time, were more valued behaviours there rather than generating meaningful learning with students.

Key areas where schools showed to influence of PSTs' professional identities were TEFL standardisation and accountability, shaping PSTs' school students' understanding, shaping PSTs' approaches to teaching and shaping the way PSTs understood order and control in the classroom. Interestingly, despite language PSTs struggled to teach English in vulnerable schools, the experiences of eight out of the nine PSTs as former learners during primary and secondary education were not far from these schools' realities. However, their personal trajectory as language learners within the school time seems to have been washed out during the undergraduate programme, whereas the knowledge they apparently acquired by the university seems to have been washed out by the school (Tabachnick and Zeichner, 1984).

9.2.1 TEFL standardisation and accountability to school

One emergent finding of becoming a language teacher was PSTs realising that there was administrative work they were expected to do at school. Despite having experienced the progressive practicums, it seems the university had not placed relevance on the other areas of a language teacher's work apart from teaching the L2.

This was demonstrated by some of the issues PSTs narrated as sometimes they were not aware of the protocols to follow at school, such as sending the tests to the UTP office in order for them to approve them before sending them to the printing room. Indirectly, PSTs learnt that in cases like this they had to take full responsibility and it was better to have a good attitude so that the problem would end and not backlash on the university. In other words, while PSTs were demanded to implement more progressive views of teaching in the classroom and were expected to be critical, they were also requested to mould themselves to the school where they were sent and not complain about injustice or irregularities. This double way of perceiving the school may have been confusing for PSTs. This finding correlates with what Windschitl (2002) identifies as a cultural dilemma. These dilemmas are shaped by the school culture and what they approve or disapprove of acceptable behaviours. As Mikel and Green (2000) suggest, research and common experience have proved that the dominant culture in schools is coping and compliance, and it seems this not only applies for members of the staff and schoolteachers to be in control of the intellectual activity of students, but also of the intellectual activity of PSTs.

During the practicum, host teachers showed to be mainly concerned about PSTs duties regarding the national curriculum and tracking of PSTs completing the administration tasks on time, that otherwise had to be filled in by them. Mentors adopted a similar role, although, in their dual role of host teacher and supervisor, they had to provide feedback to PSTs. However, feedback tended to be related to administrative issues rather than feedback oriented to develop PSTs' reflection about their teaching and promotion of making suitable decisions and reasonable adjustments for their students.

9.2.2 Shaping Preservice teachers' students understanding.

As explained in Chapter 5, PSTs needed to know and report the school context in the portfolio during the first two weeks of the practicum. Having gathered information about the class from different actors in their placement, PSTs had already created a preconceived idea of what the class was going to be like (i.e., messy, lazy, good or bad at English, demotivated, etc) even before entering the classroom, resulting in most of them having low expectations of their students at a very early stage of the practicum. This finding confirms what Barahona, Delaporte-Raurich and

Ibaceta-Quijanes (2021) identified in Chilean PSTs doing their practicum; and how they seem to hold the belief that students will not understand the English subject in English. This belief was likely strengthened by the contextual issues of the schools, which generally had a high number of vulnerable students.

These results support Sayer (2012), who argued that vulnerable students are at a disadvantage with other learners as low-income people become mainly disadvantaged because others fail to value their identities and undervalue their cultural significance, further exacerbating stigmatisation. This understanding of the school learners as people who would not learn an L2 limited PST's exploration of other ways of teaching and learning. This understanding of students from PST suggests that there might have been an impact on the attitudes and expectations about the outcomes of the lesson. These results are consistent with those of Abelson (1979), Brown and Cooney (1982), and Bandura (1986), systematised by Pajares (1992) and other scholars who have researched reflection, and have found out that beliefs could influence PSTs behaviour in the classroom.

The ways that the school as an institution shapes the understanding of PSTs about their students follow Lortie (1975) 's conclusion about how student teachers learning to teach is highly influenced by the apprenticeship of observation, where PSTs mainly learn how to teach through their previous experiences as learners. By observing other teachers as they teach and understanding that the teachers observed are the models to follow. Although the Inclusion legislation of 2016 aims to end discrimination, which should include stopping classifying students according to their average grades, Sch2 still distributed students according to their disabilities.

9.2.3 Shaping Preservice teachers' approaches to teaching.

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach and the use of the target language in the classroom were identified as qualities of a *GLT* by participants from the school and university. Nonetheless during the time I observed PSTs, host teachers or mentors were not observed to be consistent with what they expressed. PSTs mostly had learnt English during the twelve years between primary and secondary education with the grammar-translation method, where the learning of passive skills was reinforced (See Chapter 2). They learnt other teaching methods at university and could practice learning English from a CLT approach with university teacher educators. However, their past experiences as language learners seemed to have deeply penetrated their teaching practices. Thus, PSTs returned to more traditional teaching methods. This aligns with Malderez *et al.* (2007), who states that PSTs generate their understanding of the *good language teacher* with experiences from the past and the present.

Following Lortie (1975)'s apprenticeship of observation, it can be seen that PSTs must have been highly influenced by teachers from the past when they were former primary or secondary education students and teachers from the school, who usually carried out more traditional ways of teaching. On the other hand, the knowledge acquired during the undergraduate programme might not have been as strong in PSTs as to prevail, or their practicum experience limited their attempts to experiment with the knowledge acquired at university. However, this process reflected in the practicum needs to be understood as an adaptative reaction from PSTs to fit the school context. At the same time, these findings agree with Windschitl (2002), who argues that it may be the case that PSTs lack models to teach more constructively.

9.2.4 Shaping the way Preservice teachers understand order and control in the classroom.

As shown, PSTs presented to have several issues with classroom management strategies. At the beginning of the practicum, PSTs discursively understood the *GLT* as someone who would promote a supportive environment in the lesson and where everyone would treat each other respectfully. However, when PSTs entered the classroom and were placed in charge of the class, this idea was perceived as not feasible. This was also reflected in how the lessons were planned and applied where, despite PSTs attempting to promote learning of the language with a CLT approach, their lessons continued to be more teacher centred than student driven.

The adoption of punitive practices in some instances adopted by PSTs could be explained as the practicum being a stressful instance, and PSTs feeling unprepared to face their local context (Macías and Sánchez, 2015; Buendía-Arias, André-Arenas and Rosado-Mendinueta, 2020). As much as these PSTs wanted to teach in more progressive ways, this idea conflicted with them wanting to fit in the school context and accomplish what was expected from them from the university and the school. This correlates to similar findings from Dobbins (1996), where PSTs showed that they felt depowered by other school community members and accepted practices imposed by the school community. At the same time, this finding is contrary to that of Lave and Wenger (1991), who argued that PSTs start their practicum with peripheral participation and eventually move from that area and begin to be part of the school community. This study showed that PSTs never felt part of the school community as teachers. This mainly had to do with the different identities they were required to adopt at school; they were sometimes perceived as students and sometimes teachers by the school staff.

All in all, it seems that PSTs' lack of strategies to cope with classroom behaviour and engagement made PSTs accept and incorporate the identity of a language teacher who has to threaten students to work (i.e., giving extra scores, marking the worksheet, sending them out of the

classroom). This study confirms that once language PSTs are in the classroom, they tend to "forget or misuse the information acquired during their education" (Castellanos Jaimes, 2013, p. 198), and that they gradually end up adopting the same practices they observe (Akcan, 2016).

9.3 Struggles to operationalise the CLT and the use of the target language.

This study confirms that tensions regarding CLT (Bax, 2003; Harmer, 2003; Mangubhai *et al.*, 2007) persist in the present day. This misperception or multiple interpretations seem to firstly come from university teacher educators and permeates PSTs' understanding of the CLT. Teacher educators promoted the CLT in their discourse, but it still proved difficult for PSTs to understand and apply in classrooms. Since PSTs could not relate these practices to the school's 'non-ideal' contexts where they carried out their practicums, they struggled to operationalise the CLT. These findings are consistent with Windschitl's (2002) issue identified with constructivist views of teaching; teachers do not have many models to follow to operationalise a constructivist curriculum.

Additionally, the university seemed to strongly believe that English had to be spoken at all times to promote CLT in the classroom. Therefore, teacher educators disregarded issues such as school students not having adequate levels of English or not being used to being taught under a CLT approach. This caused the university to reject the L1 in the classroom as a way to mediate the learning with the L2. This understanding from the university programme limited a constructive discussion and reflection about how to start implementing a CLT approach with students who are more used to traditional ways of learning and how to progressively increase the level of English used in the classroom. This proves that being a NNESTs was not recognised as a positive quality. Instead, the L1 and any cognitive process that could have been carried out in order to mediate the learning of a foreign language were somehow forbidden to discuss and left unexplored.

As there was a misunderstanding of what CLT meant, when PSTs were asked what they were teaching, they often responded with the grammatical content their lesson focused on. When they explained what their lessons consisted of, they never referred to specific language functions. From these interviews, it can be understood that PSTs' interest was intuitively more focused on the forms of the language than on communicative objectives.

One of the reasons PSTs decided to use the L2 was to provide input on the language, as they claimed themselves as probably the only or one of the few inputs which students had. CLT is a model that promotes a constructive view of teaching (e.g., Learner-centred oriented). This shows

that PSTs hold a transmission teaching model (Dinh, 2019), where they believe to be the centre of the lesson. This was not only reflected by PSTs but also a belief that other participants, such as supervisors) shared. Additionally, this was evidenced by how the lessons and the worksheet were organised. However, due to this view PSTs had created of themselves as transmitters of knowledge, the lessons observed ended up being PST-centred.

Identifying the mastery of the L2 as a feature of a *good language teacher* is a long-known belief, intricated in the conception of a native speaker we, like foreign language learners, should aim towards (Borg, 2015). As pointed out in Chapter two, EFL teachers in Latin America are assessed with international English exams, framed within the Common European Framework for Reference and Assessment (CEFR), as a way to legitimise the knowledge of the English language of NNESTs. However, these PSTs realised that to implement the CLT, an adequate knowledge of the L2 was not only necessary, but other skills. Additionally, their contexts were hugely different from the ones they had seen the CLT been implemented (e.g., university programmes, foreign language classes where most students already speak English).

While the university shares the idea that an advanced command of the L2 would equal a good performance as a language teacher, some mentors and schoolteachers disregarded this idea as the practicum progressed. According to them, avoiding using the L2 was related to the school contexts being classified as vulnerable. As a result, these students' levels of English were low; according to PSTs portfolio records, they were behind the level they were expected to have according to the English language national curriculum. Additionally, PSTs reported that students did not have enough motivation to learn English, as they could not relate how the English language would benefit them in their future life projects.

In this study, the most common use of the L1 by PSTs was immediate translation. Since the L1 equivalent was usually provided almost immediately by PSTs, it might not have provided the time for students to develop cognitive processes of understanding the L2. Because of these spontaneous decisions, students may not have had the chance to give indications of comprehension before or after the translation. It can be assumed that one of the main reasons PSTs used immediate translation was to keep *control* of the lesson in two main ways. The first one is related to avoiding significant students' distractions to the normal development of the class. PSTs justified using the L1 as they thought that by using it, they could stick better to time management. At the same time, PSTs felt that students did not understand the L2, so they decided to use the L1 as a way to keep students' attention and avoid classroom management issues, which is in agreement with what literature has identified (Duff and Polio, 1990; Chambers, 1991; Polio and Duff, 1994; Macaro, 2001).

Another reason for immediate translation, and related to the previous one, could have been an impulsive reaction from PSTs, which could have been caused by fear of comprehension breakdown (Grim, 2010). Moore (1996) explains that immediate translation facilitates communication.

The findings of this study correlate with those identified in the first standardised assessment carried out in Chile (Mineduc, 2004), where it was concluded that the teachers' levels of English proficiency were associated with the students' average results. However, these findings cast some doubt on how the information obtained was compared and correlated; for instance, it is unknown if this study explored the background of these students who showed improvement in their levels of English. All the types of standardised assessment in any subject at a national context tend to show that students from the private sector perform better. Thus, these findings may also suggest that the cultural background and students' social class also influenced the students learning processes. Apart from better resources than public or semi-public schools, these students are privileged economically and socially. In this study, the decision to use the L1 suggests that it could be related to contextual pedagogical factors (Grant and Nguyen, 2017), such as the learners' low level of English. However, this practice might have also been highly reinforced by the generally low expectations that PSTs had about their students' abilities to learn English. Additionally, the L1 was generally used for practical motivations, such as communicative and pedagogical organisation and management, guidance, facilitation of exchanges, comprehension check assessment, metalinguistic explanations and reflections with learners.

Despite it taking some time, some PSTs slowly started incorporating the use of the L2 more as their practicum progressed. The most common cases were that students learnt the rules of the classroom in English, as it was the case of Susan, who, despite being in a school with a high percentage of vulnerable students, she consistently introduced the rules of the class and instructions in English until students eventually developed an understanding of them. Another example of this was Pamela, who used more English with those who knew more and asked them to do more in the activities. Pamela and Susan's consistent and progressive introduction of the L2 showed that students are able to learn the L2 when being presented to the language through shorter periods of time.

This study shows that the use of the L2 in the classroom is mainly related to PSTs' previous experiences as primary or secondary experiences as learners of the language themselves (Camacho Rico *et al.*, 2012). Even Beatriz, whose host teacher used the L2 at all times, could not modify that belief, probably due to the significance of several opposite experiences. This finding aligns with studies carried out by Barahona, Delaporte-Raurich and Ibaceta-Quijanes (2021), who

also observed similar attitudes from PSTs. This idea could have been involuntarily fed by mentors or schoolteachers when they did not use much English themselves or openly expressed that what PSTs learnt at university was very distant from the school reality.

By the end of the practicum, most PSTs tended to follow the schoolteacher or mentor model of teaching. Therefore, this study agrees with the ideas presented by Blázquez Entonado and Tagle Ochoa (2010) and Camacho Rico et al (2012), that the schools' contexts may have shaped the L1 use.

9.4 The portfolio as an assessment and accountability artefact of teaching-learning and Preservice teachers' reflection.

As explained in Chapter 3, portfolios and reflective journals are generally suggested to be used as reflection tools to recall certain situations experienced in the teaching practice. Therefore, under a reflective model approach to teacher education, the underlying reason to use portfolios during the practicum should focus on reflection based on the practice and the discussion generated from the practice with mentors or supervisors. Supervisors' and mentors' evidence of their meetings with PSTs, and the PSTs' statements revealed how little attention was placed on the reflection section of the portfolio. Instead, the portfolio's primary function proved to be an assessment and accountability tool. This assessment is clearly portrayed in the ten assessment rubrics (See Appendix H, p.224) that the portfolio comprised. Considering this view and way of operationalising the portfolio in the practicum, it is not surprising that PSTs focused on their assessment to pass the practicum rather than the learning-to-teach process itself.

One of the assessments is on reflection, where it could be observed that due to the way it is assessed, it has become a mechanical action that did not necessarily lead PSTs to resolve issues of their practice but rather present something the supervisor would like to see. The fact that the portfolio was perceived only as an assessment tool led to disregarding the reflection process, which hindered PSTs' learning from previous lessons, designing better lessons, choosing more appropriate resources, and modifying lessons depending on the students' interests.

All the sections of the portfolio were relevant and could have promoted learning through reflection of PSTs; however, it was the way it was approached by the university and Language teacher educators that reduced these learning opportunities.

9.5 Conclusion

This summary of findings analyses the obstacles and achievements PSTs experienced throughout the practicum. Some of the obstacles that hinder the enactment of the students' learning by PSTs during the practicum were related to dilemmas. As Billig *et al.* (1988) pointed out, dilemmas are not only tied to individual choices, but there is also a social dilemmatic aspect of them. PSTs are carrying out their practicums and have been instructed to teach in a certain way, which most of them agreed with at the beginning. But at the same time, they carry out a sociocultural activity within a school community, which has its own conceptualisation of the characteristics of a GLT. PSTs are not only constrained about their own beliefs, but about bigger systems of beliefs, namely the school placement and the university programme. PSTs beliefs about their classes and how they characterise their learners are also supported by the school context and the school community, such as mentors, host teachers, and other members of the staff. Additionally, beliefs such as students not being able to understand the lesson if too much English language is used are also supported by practical constraints encountered, such as physical resources, large numbers of classes, and time limits (Windschitl, 2002).

Most of these dilemmas also stem from the way ELT has been standardised in Chile. ELT programmes expect students to reach certain levels of English, which students were observed not to have. As PSTs need to follow what the school dictates, they tend to feel discouraged by what is expected from them by the national policy to achieve in such a short period of time. As a result, PSTs realise that what they have learnt and how they have been encouraged to promote learning does not meet local standards. However, PSTs who showed slightly more awareness of their students' contexts, and who were agentive in the sense that despite everything they saw and heard, they took some responsibility over their students learning, showed to have better engagement from their students. Therefore, despite that the practicum can be a valuable learning space, some aspects, such as providing PSTs with certain agency and acknowledge them as professionals who can make suitable decisions for their contexts, can make a difference in what they can achieve regarding their professional identity construction.

In this study, the role of supervisor and mentors in the practicum becomes mostly a role of evaluators and quality assurance (Dobbins, 1996). Thus, despite the practicum having the potential to support PSTs in mediating learning through the teaching practice and consolidate knowledge based on the school placement and PSTs trajectories (Pennycook, 2004), PSTs feel highly constrained and disempowered in making teaching decisions that could support the construction of their professional identities, as they felt they were either controlled by the school placement or the university.

Despite the practicum turning into a constraining place to navigate the learning to teach, many of these PSTs gained valuable knowledge and identified they felt more prepared to begin the teaching journey. However, identifying the practicum is a starting point of this learning to teach journey by the university programme and the school placement could provide safer learning opportunities for PSTs, and ultimately better prepared teachers could achieve greater learning with their students.

Chapter 10 Conclusions

10.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the research questions relating to good language teacher identity formation. The study reveals that participant PSTs constructed imagined identities of GLTs, which were challenged during their practicum in schools. The study shows that the PSTs negotiated and modified their professional identities to align with the context of their practicum experiences. The research also indicates the importance of PST perceived disciplinary knowledge at the beginning of their practicum, but during the course of this process, they identified that pedagogical content knowledge was even more necessary to respond to their contexts of teaching. Overall, this study provides insights into how preservice language teachers' professional identities develop and transform through their practicum experiences, highlighting the importance of social and institutional contexts in identity construction.

10.2 So..., what is a good language teacher?

“What is a good language teacher in the Chilean context?” was the overarching question of this research. This question intended to explore the understanding PSTs had about teaching English before they began their practicum and to map how this transformed during this time. This section will answer the three research questions regarding study findings.

10.2.1 The *good language teacher* identity, as perceived by preservice teachers.

RQ1. What is a *good language teacher*, as perceived by Preservice teachers?

This research question aimed to explore the concept of the GLT that PSTs have constructed over their formal language teacher education and how it transformed throughout their final-stage practicum. While answering this question can present to be challenging as the answer may vary from context to context, these findings could offer a framework to reflect on this question, as it points out the relevant aspects that should be considered to understand the construction of preservice language teachers' professional identities and how they develop through the practicum experience.

This study showed that PSTs tend to construct what Benson *et al.* (2013) called "imagined identities". PSTs challenged their imagined identities of the GLT in their educational contexts. Given the idealistic nature of these identities, when confronted with the school placement some

of the qualities were more feasible to perform than others. Thus, PSTs modified their behaviours in order to adjust to the context in which they were carrying out their practicum.

PSTs had to negotiate their identities and embraced the ones that aligned better with their trajectories and beliefs. These changes identified in PSTs' professional identities broadly support Morton's (2018) statement that professional identities are constantly changing, as it is the learning to teach (Freeman and Johnson, 1998). For instance, many PSTs felt that it was problematic to implement the CLT the way they perceived it had to be implemented, according to their university programme. In this respect, Harmer (2003) highlights that a teacher's identity should consider their culture, training and what they have learnt from their experiences. These findings are consistent with Buendía-Arias, André-Arenas and Rosado-Mendinueta's (2020) findings in Colombian EFL PSTs, which confirm that PSTs identity construction cannot be detached from the social and institutional contexts which these are constructed in.

Among the characteristics of a GLT, as perceived by PSTs, it was identified that qualities related to the disciplinary knowledge were considered highly relevant at the beginning of this process. These findings agree with research about NNESTs and how they and others (EFL field and students) place particular importance on the L2 proficiency to validate themselves as teachers. This supports why PSTs might have identified this as relevant at the beginning of the practicum. However, in practice, this did not actually happen.

This study also shows that due to the current national context, a GLT would possess preparedness or teacher knowledge related to working with students with disabilities. This point presented to be critical since the way this undergraduate programme is structured needs to adapt to incorporate and enact the Inclusion legislation of 2016. Language teacher educators expressed they were not prepared for this challenge, although the ones who were more committed with their context and students began to find ways to incorporate this aspect within the English pedagogy programme. Preparing PSTs for inclusion could benefit their practice; studies have shown that there is a link between the knowledge of preparedness PSTs have about SENs and their self-efficacy in carrying out inclusive practices (Nijakowska, 2019). Some of the PSTs who participated in this study showed direct or indirect beliefs against inclusion, although most reported that creating a good classroom environment was essential to being a GLT. This could be observed when PSTs ignored these students in terms of the lesson implementation, or considered adjustments only regarding these student assessments, but not their learning process. PSTs would benefit from reflecting on these beliefs and how they influenced their practice. However, for this to happen it is essential to acknowledge students with disabilities, and any other student who could be considered underprivileged, as people who have the right to education and PSTs as

professionals whose job is to teach their students. Exploring beliefs against inclusion would be relevant, as they may obstruct the enacting of inclusive practices. School institutions would also have to reinforce this area, as it seems that the funding received by the state is not being invested in students that need it. Additionally, the university programme would also need to reinforce ways to approach SEN students.

The practicum course programme included the PSTs' recording of their lessons in order to reflect and promote self-awareness of their practices. It also included a section where PSTs had to reflect based on their practices. Nonetheless, the portfolio as an assessment instrument seemed to limit meaningful reflection instances. PSTs showed not to have reached levels of reflection that can promote self-awareness of their practices or the underpinning reasons for their methodological choices. These findings support those of Borg and Sanchez (2020, p. 25) when they highlight that "teachers' self-awareness of their beliefs can be construed as an indicator of teacher quality". However, it presents to be problematic to assign a particular timeframe to generate reflection, considering the cognitive nature of this process. At the same time, it is not helpful that concept and objectives may be problematic not only for PSTs but also for language teacher educators.

By the end of the practicum, PSTs realised that to be able to teach English in the classroom, they needed to engage with students in a more socio-affective way while maintaining their role as language teachers. Although it might seem logical that PSTs struggled to find a balance between these two identities, PSTs' teaching behaviour did not present to be linear or steady but erratic. This could be understood through Zeichner, Gore and Houston's (1990) view that a 'good teacher' will not always be able to show 'good teaching', despite having the competencies or beliefs that align with a good teaching practice, as the environment surrounding the teaching activity can limit the teacher's behaviour.

Classroom management presented to be relevant regarding pedagogical content knowledge. In this respect, PSTs showed to be highly influenced by the school context and likely their former experiences as secondary school learners. The design and organisation of the lessons presented was very traditional, with students sitting down in a row, facing the board, and following the PSTs instructions. In order to keep *control* of students, PSTs experienced what Billig *et al.* (1988) and Grenfell (1995) called dilemmas; none of their choices were the most pedagogically appropriate, but they had to choose one. Thus, for example they decided to use the L1 to feel more in control of students. Despite this technique seeming to adapt a constructivist approach, in reality it is just a way to maintain control and to not take responsibility for the students learning process. This aligns with what Windschitl (2002) stated, that the methodologies in itself would not guarantee a

procedure is actually being legitimately constructivist, as there is no encouragement of mental process or discussion of information within the group.

The school context expected PSTs to be able to be in *control* of students. Therefore, they took desperate measures to validate themselves in their workplaces as teachers. However, as known by all the participants, it may not be the case that PSTs did not possess classroom management strategies but that they did not have the status of a teacher at school. Therefore, they did not have the power other teachers had.

Therefore, although the disciplinary knowledge has shown to be the focus of ELT literature on teachers' expertise and regarding their identity, and in the formation of this programme, a GLT for the Chilean context should be someone who can balance the disciplinary knowledge and the pedagogical content knowledge equally. If one of those is missing, it presents as problematic to implement the other.

PSTs struggled to balance lesson implementations between the disciplinary and pedagogical content knowledge. For instance, attitudes such as getting along with students were also considered essential to be a GLT. However, attitudes were more critical and became more relevant for some PSTs, especially those working in vulnerable contexts. Another key event that highlighted the importance of attitudes was the social uprising. Some PSTs reported supporting some students emotionally, as they had been affected in a way or another by demonstrations and the social-political context experienced during that time.

10.2.2 Preservice teachers' professional identity transformation

RQ2. How is this conceptualisation shaped throughout the practicum?

This study revealed that PSTs' concept of the GLT transformed to become a professional identity closely aligned with the context of the school, demonstrating how the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) continues to be very influential. At the beginning of the practicum, PSTs were mainly concerned about their English language performance in the classroom. During the practicum, they learned they needed to develop a variety of other roles such as headteacher, meeting parents, and being part of different school events. In the EFL classroom, some of them understood that, apart from teaching, they were also expected to manage the class book record, take the attendance, and assess students. Some PSTs were more resistant to adapting than others, especially those who showed little reflection about their practices when being interviewed. This lack of reflection influenced how PSTs engaged with students and how they limited their exploratory experiences in teaching.

As PSTs spent more time at school, and it was sometimes difficult for them to put into practice what they learnt at university (e.g., practicum courses where examples of how to teach were foreign or practice teaching by microteaching with peers), their identity transformation was more inclined to adapt in terms of what the school needed of them, rather than what they had learnt at university and how they could assist their learners best. Although the university somehow supported these practices; losing a practicum centre was more problematic for the university than the PST not being able to apply what they had learnt during the programme. It was observed that it was easier for PSTs to negotiate their identities with what they felt committed to. The identities they embraced were the ones that made sense to their personal beliefs. In other cases, their identity as teaching learners superposed their identity as language teachers. One example of this is when PSTs were more concerned about the portfolio completion rather than what they planned, or the strategies used for students to learn. To some extent, this was also supported by the supervisors and mentors.

At the beginning of the practicum, PSTs held a strong understanding that a good lesson of English should be taught in English only. This understanding comes directly from the university, which is attempting to encourage PSTs to use the L2 at all times at school. However, this sort of demagoguery of the use of the L2 limited PSTs in understanding different contexts; and at the same time, this hindered reflection about their context and how to include and adjust the contents to the particular realities where they were teaching. However, in their unequal position compared to other members of staff and in the relationships that were generated with supervisors and mentors, it was clear that PSTs felt constrained by this position.

10.2.3 The *good language teacher* identity and their role in vulnerable contexts.

RQ3. What are particular dimensions of this conceptualisation salient and distinctive of this context?

Despite literature that calls to empower EFL PSTs and teachers to be political agents of change (Johnson, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 2016), it becomes problematic to adopt a language teacher professional identity that aligns with these postulates at the same time that in many cases teachers struggle to keep their precarious jobs. Many EFL teachers from the expanding circle cannot afford to adopt political or critical identities, as this would jeopardise their already unstable economic situation (Akbari, 2008). As in the case of Chile, most teachers come from middle-class backgrounds (See Chapter 2) and are not in a privileged enough position to risk their jobs, and possibly a tradition of precariousness may impact on these teachers avoiding political issues. These results confirm those of Akbari (2008), who identified that the ELT international academic discourse seems not to be aware of other teachers' working conditions. Therefore,

these results support that adopting a certain identity or not as a teacher is related to social class (Gray and Block, 2012). A clear example of this was how schools managed the social uprising and how four out of the five schools at which the research took place decided to obfuscate the topic. These measures conflicted PSTs teachers' identities as citizens with rights and as agents of social change, and they quickly realised how the school institutions silenced this event, and they were expected to do the same.

This particular issue could be explained as what Windschitl (2002) classified as a political dilemma, understanding *political* as the exercise, conservation and reorganisation of power among students, teachers, and other members of the school institution. These dilemmas are generally encountered in constructivist ways of teaching since on the one hand this view of teaching reinforces the idea of critical thinking. However, at the same time, historically policymakers and the standards movement have sought to control the curriculum and standardise teaching rather than educate teachers to be more critical (Rogers, 1999).

Also, regarding the school context, PSTs, guided by the host teachers' and mentors' discourse and practice, realised that in vulnerable contexts students need to be treated differently, which led to PSTs ending up paying more attention to the affective needs of students at the expense of their cognitive ones. This was evidenced when PSTs lowered the students' expectations and under their interpretation be more 'understanding' of the student classification of *vulnerable*. This lowering of expectations from PSTs also had an impact on how much they attempted to teach students, and revealed how learners could be discriminated against by PSTs assuming they would not learn, based on their socio-economic condition and the conceptualisation the school staff had about these students based on the same idea. The PSTs' behaviour was also replicated with students from the PIE and them trying to cope with their needs in the classroom. In this case, most PSTs accommodated for this issue by adapting assessments and lowering these students' expectations. These findings support those of Barahona, Delaporte-Raurich and Ibaceta-Quijanes (2021) where they report that PSTs tend to lower expectations about their student during the practicum process.

In contrast, showing care proved to be positive. To this end, female PSTs of this group showed to be more aware and concerned about changing the learners' attitudes during the practicum by engaging with them in a caring attitude, compared to the male participants. Although it must be noted that the number of female PSTs participants was three times larger than the male participants.

10.3 An inclusive language teacher

As PSTs carry out their practicums and beyond as they make careers within school institutions, PSTs would benefit from a schooling context that promotes inclusion. As this study has demonstrated, the school as an institution plays an important and influential role in PSTs' development of their professional identities. However, this was not a common trend at the PSTs' placements. Despite PSTs in general coming from similar socio-economic backgrounds and having experienced primary and secondary education in similar contexts to the ones they were placed, particular awareness about the context and the reasons why learning English could face barriers seemed to have been forgotten or overlooked.

PSTs claimed they had not been trained to develop and implement inclusive practices (namely, modifying lessons for those students who were more advantaged in the knowledge of the L2, reflecting on the teaching activities learners had to carry out in the classroom in order to develop language skills and to be assessed). In general, this refers to carrying out reasonable adjustments. This was supported by supervisors, mentors and host teachers who at the same time claimed not to be prepared to train PSTs in this regard or not to have the necessary knowledge and training to implement inclusion in the classroom. This study allowed observation of lesson implementation and how students with disabilities are now part of the mainstream ELT classroom as a result of the Inclusion Legislation of 2016. However, it could be noted that PSTs who witnessed their host or mentor teachers including these students, tended to replicate this way of operating with the learners, whereas those who did not witness or were not encouraged to take action shied away from this and did not consider that they had or could do something to include those students in the classroom in order to make them part of the class as a social activity as well as a learning activity. Additionally, PSTs who simply generally cared for their students showed to be more aware of inclusion issues and felt responsible for offering a more inclusive environment to these students.

Data also transpired how other groups beyond those with disabilities faced actions that may have left them excluded. Such is the case for those students with a Mapuche background, and transgender students who were going through transition period. Most particularly, this study also showed how the fact of school students studying in a public or subsidised school with a high percentage of vulnerable students made them excluded to learn, as data similarly showed how PSTs expressed, they decided not to carry out certain communicative activities that were more student-centered as they thought students would not learn. Therefore, the Chilean context needs inclusive language teachers who understand the Chilean context, who would have to concentrate characteristics that not only can support them in the teaching of English, such as being aware of

students with disabilities, but also an awareness of the socio-economic deprivation many of these vulnerable students go through. Additionally, especially as Araucania is the area with most Mapuche population, these students would benefit from inclusive PSTs and in-service teachers with awareness of how they have historically and systematically been excluded and discriminated in school contexts, in order to promote social justice in the ELT classroom.

10.4 Contribution to knowledge and implications of this study

This thesis offers a variety of contributions to the Chilean context in the field of language teacher education, the study of the practicum in ELT, and the study of beliefs and professional identity of PSTs. The adoption of a case study approach granted an informed exploration of individual and shared beliefs about the concept of the GLT, how these beliefs are primarily formed and how they are shaped during the school-based practice. Furthermore, this study shows how enacting specific identities within the language teacher identity would encourage or disregard certain teaching practices. Therefore, this study offers new insights into exploring language teaching beliefs and identity construction from PSTs in a local context.

This study shows that PSTs are limited in exploring the beliefs they have learnt to value in the university context, and easily go back to old ways of teaching and learning. This approach allowed an understanding of how PSTs adopted certain beliefs during the undergraduate formation at university and how they intertwined with the PSTs' school experiences to transform them and adapt them to fit in the school context. The transformation of these dynamics and beliefs perpetuate traditional and hegemonic ways of teaching English, at the same time the school context strongly supports these ways of teaching English.

The contributions of this study are significant in shedding light on the complexity of PSTs professional identity transformation, and how it is shaped throughout their practicum. By examining the apprenticeship of observation, the study highlights the importance of PSTs spending time at school, as their transformation becomes more aligned with what the school needs from them, rather than what they learned at university. The study also provides insights into how PSTs negotiate their identities based on their personal beliefs and how adopting certain identities or not as a teacher is related to social class. Additionally, the study identifies the challenges that PSTs face in balancing their identity as a teaching learner with that of a language teacher, which can be helpful for teacher training programs.

The implications of this study are significant for teacher education and training programs, as the findings can be used to design programs that support PSTs in their professional identity transformation. Specifically, the study highlights the need for teacher education programs to

provide opportunities for PSTs to spend time at schools and engage in authentic teaching experiences. The study also suggests the importance of helping PSTs reflect on their personal beliefs and how they can align with their identity as a teacher. Additionally, teacher education programs can use the findings to design strategies to support PSTs in balancing their identity as a teaching learner with that of a language teacher, especially in vulnerable contexts. Finally, the study suggests the importance of addressing the political dilemmas that PSTs may face, especially in contexts where students' rights are at risk.

Additionally, this study has contributed to reporting how the inclusion legislation of 2016 being implemented in schools is not achieving its purpose in the L2 classroom. This finding is considered critical, given the current context of globalisation, migration, and where English is perceived as a language that opens doors in the Chilean context. This raises the question of why PSTs are selective about who can learn and who cannot learn English before even attempting to try different methodologies. A possible explanation is that they have not seen many inclusive practices during their former education and still do not see them in schools. Furthermore, despite existing policy documents, this legislation has not reformulated the language teaching policy. For instance, the Mineduc has not yet adapted the material for SEN students and has not provided guidelines for PSTs or language teachers to follow, which might be a significant step following the legislative reforms.

10.5 Limitations

A number of limitations in this study should be considered. As mentioned, while the study was taking place, the Chilean social uprising interrupted the PSTs practicum for around two weeks. This gap affected the regular practicum process, reducing the number of lessons they had to implement and the supervision they were initially intended to receive. Additionally, the demonstrations, and the violence witnessed by participants, the researcher and school students, affected everyone emotionally to a certain extent.

Another limitation of this study is that the samples might not be representative of all the PSTs carrying out the practicum at this university. 9 out of 22 PSTs accepted to be part of this study. Despite the invitation to participate being extended to all PSTs, there were issues such as some schools being very strict in terms of who was allowed to enter the school to conduct research. Other PSTs simply felt reluctant to participate. The sample was nationally representative of one English pedagogy programme in the south of Chile but would tend to miss other PSTs in other English pedagogy programmes. No doubt collecting information from other PSTs in other universities across the country would have enriched my findings even more and may have offered

other perspectives of other beliefs promoted in those programmes and in other schools or professional identities constructed during the practicum. However, this study offers a local perspective and contributes to Chilean language teacher education research as a whole.

Lastly, it is unfortunate that the study could not have access to the university practicum programme to analyse it in depth in terms of its objectives. An idea of what this course programme could include was made by the participants' claims, and the Rules and Regulations of the practicum (See Appendix G, p. 221).

10.6 Recommendations

Certainly, a call for a local pedagogy in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Latin America is based on the idea that language teaching and learning should be situated in the local context and culture of the learners. In other words, it recognises the importance of acknowledging and valuing the local linguistic and cultural diversity of the region. This call for a local pedagogy in ELT would be a response to the dominant approach to language teaching, which is often based on the teaching of English language standards that tend to be detached from the learners' linguistic and cultural realities. This approach tends to reproduce linguistic and cultural hierarchies that prioritise English as a global language over local languages and cultures. A local pedagogy approach, on the other hand, would emphasise the need for learners to use English as a tool to communicate within their own cultural context, and to understand and appreciate other cultures. It would promote the integration of local cultural content into the language classroom and would encourage the use of the learners' own languages as a resource for language learning.

Overall, the call for a local pedagogy in ELT in Latin America highlights the importance of situating language teaching and learning within the learners' linguistic and cultural realities, and of promoting a more inclusive and equitable approach to language education. Based on this, Kumaravadivelu's (2016) postmethod pedagogy, and Van Lier's (1996) ecological approach to teaching could contribute to the development of a local pedagogy for English language teaching in Chile. Van Lier's (1996) approach emphasises the importance of creating a language learning environment that mirrors the complexity and diversity of the real world. Kumaravadivelu's (2006) postmethod pedagogy focuses on understanding and adapting to the local context, taking into account learners' sociocultural background and educational goals. It emphasises the pedagogy of particularity, practicality, and possibility. Similarly, Van Lier's (2016) ecological approach recognises the significance of the local context and emphasizes the interconnectedness of language learning with the learners' social and cultural environment.

When it comes to creating a localised pedagogy in Chile, both approaches can work together to provide a holistic framework. The pedagogy of particularity in Kumaravadivelu's (2006) post method emphasises understanding the specific needs and challenges of Chilean learners, such as their native language interference or specific cultural perspectives. Van Lier's (1996) ecological approach complements this by emphasising the importance of integrating language learning with the learners' social and cultural realities in Chile. This can involve incorporating authentic materials, cultural references, and local contexts into the language learning process to make it more meaningful and relevant.

Furthermore, the pedagogy of practicality in Kumaravadivelu's (2006) post method aligns with Van Lier's ecological approach, which encourages the use of real-world, authentic tasks and materials. In the Chilean context, this could involve incorporating topics related to Chilean culture, history, and current events. For example, students could analyse and discuss literary works by Chilean authors, explore Chilean music or film, or engage in conversations about Chilean traditions and customs. By connecting language learning to the learners' immediate environment, both approaches promote engagement, motivation, and language acquisition.

Finally, the pedagogy of possibility in Kumaravadivelu's (2006) postmethod encourages teachers to foster creativity, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills. This aligns with Van Lier's (1996) ecological approach, which emphasises the development of learners' agency and their ability to navigate language use in various contexts. In the Chilean context, this could involve engaging students in projects that address real-world issues, such as social justice, environmental sustainability, or community engagement. Students could use English as a means of communication and collaboration to propose solutions, raise awareness, or advocate for change in their local communities.

By combining Kumaravadivelu's postmethod pedagogy with Van Lier's ecological approach, a localised pedagogy for English language teaching in Chile can be created. This pedagogy would consider the specific needs and challenges of Chilean learners while integrating authentic materials, cultural references, and real-world tasks. It would empower students to connect their language learning with their social and cultural realities and develop critical thinking, problem-solving, and cross-cultural communication skills. Ultimately, this localised pedagogy might foster a meaningful and effective English language learning experience, preparing Chilean learners for success in a globalised world. At the same time, that EFL teachers could feel more agentive to teach English.

10.7 Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the concept of the *good language teacher* in the Chilean context, as perceived by PSTs, how the school context influenced this conceptualisation, and what particular dimensions of this conceptualisation could be distinctive of this particular national context. By placing special importance on how PSTs negotiated this concept when confronted with the practicum, special attention was placed on how these PSTs' beliefs influenced them to embrace certain roles within their professional identity or presented more resistance to others. For this purpose, I adopted a case study approach to be able to explore this process in depth.

By using semi-structured interviews, lesson observations stimulated recall interviews, a focus group and revision of relevant documents, this study indicates that PSTs faced many issues related to theory and practice that may be similar to other contexts, such as ways to implement the CLT, and to what extent grammar should be taught or not and classroom management issues. Nevertheless, one factor that could explain why PSTs struggled to put into practice what they have learnt at university in this particular context may be explained by what Windschitl (2002) argued; that PSTs lack models that can show them how to teach constructively. As he discusses, even teachers who adopt more progressive ways of teaching tend to hold many practices that relate to more traditional approaches. Another relevant finding was how PSTs need to incorporate being inclusive as part of their professional identity.

Data suggests that the apprenticeship of observation is still predominant in the formation of PSTs in language teacher education. Unfortunately, most teachers at school still follow traditional ways of teaching English, which has not improved students' learning of the English subject. Therefore, this study agrees with Barahona (2019), who suggests that the university should create better communication with schools to have a mentoring programme. Not only to create better professionals but also to generate a collaborative community between the school and the university. Most importantly, this partnership could enhance the dialogue between university supervisors and school teachers about the GLT concept and further generate a better understanding that would ultimately benefit the PSTs practicum experience. These dialogues and experiences could be followed and studied to generate more knowledge about school issues when teaching the L2. For this to happen it would be valuable that the Mineduc takes active participation in building this partnership, rather than leaving this as a suggestion in the national policy. Mentors at schools could also benefit from mentoring as the learning between them and PSTs can be mutual. It is suggested that mentoring can be considered as part of the CPD teachers need to complete.

Additionally, as the apprenticeship of observation continues to have a strong influence on PSTs, reflection is a critical point to reinforce during the practicum. Given the contexts where PSTs carry out the practicum, and the-usually-late brief regarding lesson implementations from supervisors, ways to create spaces for critical reflection not only for PSTs, but also for language teacher educators and supervisors more specifically, would support a language teacher identity that can be more local-context responsive. A good way to go beyond the repetitive reflection sheet that needs to be completed in the portfolio (See Appendix I, p.243), could be to offer PSTs some group meetings, where supervisors can meet with them and discuss particular experiences during the practicum. These would enrich the reflective discussion, at the same time that can enhance peer support and advice, and the creation of a safe space for PSTs to share their inquiries and dilemmas.

This study also reveals that the *GLT* concept conflicts between the school's agenda and what the university expects from them. Schools' agendas follow a more administrative line, where it is expected that PST can navigate and understand those administrative issues, such as the importance of the UTP and the relevance of offering emotional support to students to avoid them from dropping out of school. Also, the findings of this study evidence how the concept of the *GLT*, as perceived by PSTs, is generally shaped by the school influence rather than university training, as the school beliefs hold a greater influence over PSTs. These results corroborate the findings of Nguyen (2017) in a study carried out in the Vietnamese context, where she identified that due to the pressures of the practicum, such as PSTs being scrutinised about their school practice and attempting to fit in the school context, traditional ways of teaching remain. These constraints, plus the fact that there are not many instances where supervisors or mentors accompany PSTs to reflect, somehow disregard their experiences. Although PSTs from the current study who showed some degree of reflection were able to adapt more quickly to the school reality and embrace different professional identities.

These findings also suggest that despite teacher education becoming professionalised again in Chile, teacher educators and future teachers have been deskilled in generating meaningful reflection processes that could aid them in negotiating a language teacher's identity more aligned with their other inhabited identities. With the implementation of neoliberal policies and, therefore, the adoption of standardisation, the agency has been withdrawn from teachers, affecting their language teacher identity. This decreased the focus on the pedagogical content knowledge.

A good language teacher for the school is a teacher identity that should be tailored to benefit the school's purposes, which do not necessarily correlate with students' learning. By the end of the practicum, it can be noticed that the school has already shaped most of the preservice teacher's

teaching practices. Therefore, their pedagogical identity is strongly influenced by what they see at school rather than by what they learn at university.

Future work might explore the concept of the *GLT* from the point of view of in-service teachers. It would also be beneficial to hear what pupils can report about what they understand as a *GLT*. These perspectives would help construct local pedagogical knowledge that can serve to teach the L2. Action research with school language teachers could also offer a perspective of strategies that work in certain contexts. Studies of this nature could contribute to develop a more local pedagogy. Every active education member could benefit from contributing to create a repertoire of methodological options suited to their local conditions. Additionally, this could contribute to empower and legitimise the profession of language teacher education.

In conclusion, this study revealed that PSTs' professional identity transformation is shaped throughout their practicum. The apprenticeship of observation remains influential, and as PSTs spend more time at school, their transformation becomes more aligned with what the school needs from them, rather than what they learned at university. PSTs negotiate their identities based on their personal beliefs, and some of them struggle to balance their identity as a teaching learner with that of a language teacher. Moreover, adopting or not adopting certain identities as a teacher is related to social class. In vulnerable contexts, PSTs realised that students need to be taught different skills, and they faced political dilemmas, which conflicted with their identities as citizens with rights. Overall, this study contributes to understanding the complexity of the PSTs' professional identity transformation and how it is influenced by different factors, especially socio-cultural ones, which should be considered when reflecting and identifying the Chilean language teacher knowledge base.

Appendix A English pedagogy course programme

FACULTAD DE EDUCACIÓN									
PEDAGOGÍA EN INGLÉS									
CÓDIGO SIES 19451C46J1V1									
SEMESTRE 1	SEMESTRE 2	SEMESTRE 3	SEMESTRE 4	SEMESTRE 5	SEMESTRE 6	SEMESTRE 7	SEMESTRE 8	SEMESTRE 9	SEMESTRE 10
APRENDIZAJE HUMANO	FACTORES COGNITIVOS Y SOCIOAFECTIVOS DEL APRENDIZAJE	DISEÑO Y ADAPTACIÓN CURRICULAR	EVALUACIÓN Y RETROALIMENTACIÓN PARA EL APRENDIZAJE			INVESTIGACIÓN EDUCATIVA	SEMINARIO		
PENSAMIENTO PEDAGÓGICO, PERSONA Y SOCIEDAD	POLÍTICAS PÚBLICAS Y ESCENARIOS EDUCATIVOS	TIC PARA EL APRENDIZAJE	PROCESOS CURRICULARES EN INGLÉS	SEMINARIO DE ENSEÑANZA EN AULAS DIVERSAS	CONVIVENCIA ESCOLAR				
			LINGÜÍSTICA APLICADA	DIDÁCTICA I	DIDÁCTICA II	DIDÁCTICA III	DIDÁCTICA IV	TALLER CONEXIONES DIDÁCTICAS DISCIPLINARIAS	INTERNADO
			PRÁCTICA I	PRÁCTICA II	PRÁCTICA III	PRÁCTICA IV	PRÁCTICA V	EXÁMENES INTERNACIONALES	
COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INICIAL I	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INICIAL II	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INTERMEDIA I	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INTERMEDIA II	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INTERMEDIA AVANZADA I	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INTERMEDIA AVANZADA II	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA I	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA II	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA III	
FONÉTICA I	FONÉTICA II	GRAMÁTICA EN CONTEXTO I	GRAMÁTICA EN CONTEXTO II	ANÁLISIS DEL DISCURSO	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA I	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II		ESCRITURA ACADÉMICA	
	ELECTIVO ANTROPOLÓGICO CRISTIANO			ELECTIVO TEOLÓGICO				ÉTICA PROFESIONAL	
					ELECTIVO PARA LA DIVERSIDAD		ELECTIVO PARA LA DIVERSIDAD	ELECTIVO PARA LA DIVERSIDAD	

Nota: Itinerario sujeto a modificaciones.

Translation of modules per semester (my translation)

Semester 1 modules: Human learning, Pedagogic and society thinking, Initial Linguistic competence I (English Language), Phonetics II

Semester 2 modules: Learning Cognitive and socio-affective factors, Public policy, Initial Linguistic competence II, Phonetics II, Christianity from an anthropological point of view

Semester 3 modules: Curricular design and adaptation, ICTs in learning, Intermediate Linguistic competence III, Grammar in context I

Semester 4 modules: Feedback and assessment for learning, Curricular processes in English Language, Applied linguistics, Practicum, Intermediate Linguistic competence II, Grammar in Context II

Semester 5 modules: Seminar: Teaching in diverse classrooms, Didactic I, Practicum II, Advanced Intermediate Linguistic competence I, Discourse analysis, Optional (religion) module

Semester 6 modules: School coexistence and relations, Didactic II, Practicum III, Advanced Intermediate Linguistic competence II, Teaching and learning of culture and literature I, Optional (diversity) module

Semester 7 modules: Research in Education, Didactic III, Practicum IV, Advanced Linguistic competence I, Teaching and learning of culture and literature II

Semester 8 modules: Seminar, Didactic IV, Practicum V, Advanced linguistic competence II, Optional (diversity) module

Semester 9 modules: Workshop: Disciplinary connections in didactics, international examinations, Advanced Linguistic competence III, Academic writing, Ethics, Optional (diversity) module

Semester 10 module: Final practicum. ranslated (adapted) version of classroom observation scheme.

Appendix B Translated (adapted) version of classroom observation scheme

(my translation) (Varcarcel and Verdu, 1995, p. 57)

Categories or general dimensions			
1. Activity:			
1.1. Time.	1.2. Type	1.3. Structure	1.4. Skills
2. Length of text (written or oral)			
2.1. Small	2.2. Large		
3. Use of L1 in the activities			
3.1. Low	3.2. Moderate	3.3. High	
4. Use of mother tongue (L1)			
4.1. Translation	4.2. As reference		
5. PSTs' language use			
5.1. Mother tongue (L1)	5.2. Mix (L1+Foreign language, L2)	3. L2	
6. PST's Verbal interaction			
6.1. Speaks most of the time	6.2. Feedback	6.3. Promotes students interaction.	
7. Student's use of the language			
7.1. L1	7.2. Mix (L1+ L2)	3. L2	

Appendix C Samples of SRIs

These SRIs have been translated into English for purposes of the thesis but were carried out in Spanish.

Sample 1.

PST Frank SRI1

Date: August 20th, 2019, at 11.20

(This is an 8.00 class, first of the day)

1. What can you tell me about your lesson; how did you feel, what can you identify as strengths and weaknesses in your lesson implementation?
2. Tell me about this class; number of students, because many of them were late.
3. Why did you decide to do a lesson where your central topic was Reggaeton?
4. I noticed you called students by their names, why do you do that?
5. I noticed that at the beginning you introduced vocabulary using a PowerPoint presentation and used pictures as well. According to me, you sort of avoided using direct translation, only at a very late stage you did that. Why so?
6. So, equally, you consider it is OK to use Spanish in the classroom?
7. And what would happen when the university supervisor comes and finds you using Spanish. Because I understand the university is very strong about you always using English.
8. Then when you are introducing vocabulary; you ask students to repeat after you. Why do you do this?
9. Do you think you can relate this to the way you learnt when at school?
10. Did you learn this way of teaching vocabulary at university?
11. I also noticed you are very conscious of the time during the lesson and tell students about the time left they have for each activity. Why so?
12. I see that when students are reading the text and answering the questions, you monitor them. What sort of questions do they ask you?
13. How do you help them to understand the vocabulary they don't understand?
14. And why do you prefer to provide explanations or mimics when translating can be easier?
15. Despite the difficult context you narrate, and how students typically do not engage, I saw they were very engaged in the lesson at some point, and that you used a lot of English. Tell me how you feel about this?
16. Did you achieve everything you had planned along the lesson?
17. At the end, I see you say; "this is a writing activity, and it is assessed", why? why so?
18. How do you manage with students getting distracted with their mobile phones?
19. When the lesson is about to finish, students seem to become excited and start getting up, they begin to put their things away, and you hadn't finished the lesson yet. How do you feel about this?
20. Have you discussed some strategies at university to cope with different stages of the classroom?
21. When the class is about to end, you tell students, "Pay attention because I won't repeat it". Why do you say that? Were you upset or just concerned you wouldn't end the lesson on time?
22. When students are working with vocab, you tell students that you would share your internet from the phone. Does not the school have a WIFI for students?
23. Ten minutes before the lesson ends, a student say, "I can't, I don't know" and you tell him, I know you can, why so?
24. Do you think you are using a CLT approach to teach? What does that mean to you?
25. Finally, in the worksheet I noticed there was a lot of text in past simple, but also present perfect. And noticed you didn't cover that with students, but then asked them to produce a text using present perfect as well.
26. Do you think you will have to cover that the next lesson?
27. Ok. Thanks a lot Frank.

-----End of the interview -----

First (manual) analysis of SRI1 Frank

Criteria, standards, portfolio rubric

1. [redacted] SRI1
 2. Fecha 20 de agosto 11.20
 3. (Esta clase comenzó a las 8 de la mañana. Es la primera clase del día.)
 4. F: [redacted] ¿Que me puedes decir de tu clase? ¿Cómo te sentiste? ¿Qué cosas ves tu como
 5. aspectos positivos, y aspectos negativos, fortalezas y debilidades de tu implementación?
 6. PST: Aspectos positivos, ...hoy día, a diferencia de otra implementación anterior, en cuanto a
 7. la distribución del tiempo, de time management, hoy día fue mejor, porque pude llegar hasta,
 8. pude presentar...bueno, la presentación del input, y también del output; llegamos hasta el
 9. punto de un output, eh...también las fortalezas, que...también a diferencia de la anterior, esta
 10. fue más coherente, en relación a...la progresión de la clase, a cómo inició, a cómo se
 11. presentaron los contenidos, y después cómo estos vienen en la práctica. Eh...el input estaba
 12. en relación con el output, porque era una descripción, y debían hacer una descripción
 13. también. Hubo reinforcement, antes del output, y...bueno, creo que incluí los aspectos más
 14. importantes para la producción. Eh...lo negativo, igual puede ser un poco el tiempo, porque
 15. igual podría haber usado un poco más de tiempo al final, para el output. Igual me encontré
 16. muy...muy corto de tiempo, porque al final tampoco pude hacer el wrap up, el closing, con las
 17. preguntas para wrap up...eh...En relación a mi desplante, puede ser también; mi desplante
 18. creo que fue bueno, en relación también a otras veces donde he hablado más bajo, o...me he
 19. movido menos en la sala. Creo que hoy día me prestaron más atención.
 20. I: OK, cuéntame acerca de este curso, ¿cuántos estudiantes son en total? Porque me di cuenta
 21. que varios iban llegando atrasados.
 22. PST: El número oficial de estudiantes, son 31, pero es común que falten muchos. O también lo
 23. otro es que se han retirado estudiantes...recientemente...Creo que tiene todo que ver con el
 24. contexto de los estudiantes; contexto familiar vulnerable, la mayoría.
 25. I: ¿Es un segundo medio?
-
44. PST: Porque de esta forma se sienten...que uno les presta atención, y que uno los conoce a
 45. cada uno, por si solos, no como grupo en general, sino como...cada individuo por lo que es. Y
 46. de esta forma también, al aprenderme los nombres, también puedo guiar más la clase, cuando
 47. hago preguntas, por ejemplo, AL AIRE, entonces..., en el momento en que nadie me responde,
 48. le digo específicamente a uno. Si no me supiera el nombre, no sabría cómo hacerlo. Y...según
 49. yo, no es bueno decirle..."tú", y señalarlo".
 50. I: Ya, ¿entonces tú te sabes todos los nombres de tus estudiantes?
 51. PST: Sí, me los se todos
 52. I: Y es como algo que...¿se te da fácil?, o ¿tratas de hacerlo porque consideras que es algo
 53. importante?
 54. PST: Se me da fácil, y también considero que es importante, porque como decía...a los
 55. jóvenes les gusta sentirse, que uno se interesa en ellos.
 56. I: ¿Entonces tú consideras seguir implementando esto cuando seas profesor?
 57. PST: Sí
 58. I: Ya...eh...noté que al principio introdujiste vocabulario relacionado al texto, y lo hiciste en un
 59. power Point, en inglés, y con fotos.

Understanding of the good language teacher

SRI1 Nora (extracts of analysis, manual)

no, nadie. Eh [...]
 I: Cuéntame acerca de tu warm up, ¿en qué consistía?
 PST: eh, era jugar a la mímica no más, yo dije: "ya con que..." [...]
 I: Pero era vocabulario relacionado a la unidad a [...] (...)
 PST: No, era solamente... porque una vez intenté hacerles un warm up que estuviera como relacionado con la clase y no, no les gustó, no pescaron, no, shao!. Y después cuando les traía actividades, así como: una vez les traje un BINGO, ya, súper bien. Les traje un Pictionary, "YA, SÍ PROFE, SIGAMOS JUGANDO". Entonces, cuando les traigo así como que son como más juego, ahí sí les gusta.
 I: Como, son, entonces, más como ice breakers
 PST: Sí
 I: Más que, ya.

PST: Sí, yo le expliqué igual a mi profe que como que no, no se podía, porque hay un libro de actividades contitas y todo para, que recomienda para que nosotros hagamos, y la profe dijo que: "no, que sí entendía"- porque él sabía que el curso igual era, era, era raro. Y eso, consistía más que nada en que hiciera mímica y se dijeran las acciones que estaban realizando en inglés, por supuesto. Después, en las key words, traté de hacer algo diferente porque en las otras ocasiones siempre como que se las leía no más y listo. Ahora hice que las escribieran como para que las contextualizaran, o sea, las internalizaran un poquito más... em, eso puede ser, no sé si fortaleza, pero es algo que estoy como tratando de improve...
 I: ¿Y debilidades?
 PST: Se me olvidaron, por ejemplo, se me olvidó DECIR el objetivo de la clase este, lo tenía puesto en la pizarra pero no les dije a los chicos "este es el objetivo". Em, se me olvidó recordar las reglas igual... em, qué más, qué más, qué más... La parte de la activación de los conocimientos previos, em, como que les hice un par de preguntas, pero, eh, no era lo que yo tenía pensando desde antes, lo que estaba como planificado. Lo otro fue... eh, las predictions, se me olvidó, em, decirles así como: "ya, what do you think the text is going to be about"- ya, se me olvidó eso- Em... eso!
 I: Ya. ¿Y por qué crees tú que se te olvidan esas cosas?, te pones muy nerviosa...
 PST: NO, SI YO NO ME PONGO NERVIOSA EN EL MOMENTO DE, sino que, ayer por ejemplo, estaba tratando de terminar rápido, porque como lo más importante, el foco, era la parte de la producción, entonces como que: "ya, key words, ya para atrás (...)"- y se me olvidó y se me fue. Y aparte como había empezado la clase así como con algo que había quedado pendiente la clase anterior, igual como que uno se traspapela, y ya...
 I: Ya, ok. Justamente eso te iba a preguntar. Cuando comienzas la clase terminas con una cola de la última actividad de la última clase. Obviamente hubo un break, los estudiantes llegan siempre más activos.

Riffo Salgado P.A. ...
 What's the purpose then of the warm up?
 @mention or reply

1

Riffo Salgado P.A. ...
 Traditional ways
 @mention or reply

Riffo Salgado P.A. ...
 Reflection /finishing on time
 @mention or reply

PST: El pre, el while y el post.
 I: Ya, ¿así la estructuras?
 PST: Sí, el warm up, después el pre donde está la activación de conocimientos previos, keywords, em, cómo se llama, predictions, después en el while conforman las prediction, leen, ejercicios de comprensión, después en el post, reforzamiento lingüístico, las actividades de comprensión del producto lingüístico, y la production
 I: Ya, ¿y qué enfoque utilizas tú para tus clases? ¿Qué enfoque de enseñanza?
 PST: ... eh, ay, no sé
 I: Dirías que es comunicativo...
 PST: Es que se debería ser comunicativo, pero yo de repente, por ejemplo, ayer utilicé el, eh, inductive learning. Cuando les expliqué la parte de los procedimientos lingüísticos, NO, deductive, cuando les di como TAL CUAL LA ESTRUCTURA, porque eh, me he dado cuenta que hay chicos que entienden mejor cuando uno les da así la...
 I: Entonces tú consideras, o sea, ¿qué es para ti el communicative language teaching?, porque hay una variada cantidad de definiciones. Porque tú me dices que es como si no enseñas eso, no estarías, no sería completely CLT.
 PST: No. Sí. Em... cuando se enseñan más como el contexto, así como cuando se dice, es como más inductive, por ejemplo, en la parte del reforzamiento. Em... cuando se les da tareas para que ellos realicen, no solamente así como: "ya, haga tres oraciones con, con esta estructura gramatical"- sino que se les da como un contexto, y trata un poquito de que sea más así.
 I: Ya
 PST: Sobre todo en la production.
 I: Ya. También te tienes que guiar por el contenido del libro, ¿no?, ¿trabajan con un libro?
 PST: Sí, sí, pero el libro... o sea, es que por ejemplo, lo que más trae son ejercicios de gramática. Trae, la unidad ocho, por ejemplo, la que estamos trabajando viene con su supposed to y might
 I: ¿Es un libro del gobierno
 PST: No
 I: No
 PST: No, es un libro
 I: Pero es grammar oriented?
 PST: Sí
 I: o semi? r
 PST: No, es como semi porque, lo que pasa es el libro en sí de los estudiantes, trae mucho gramática, pero igual tiene un poquito de reading, así, cosas así. Pero los recursos que vienen para los profesores, igual viene mucho, mucha comprensión lectora, vocabulario, entonces, no es tanto, tanto gramática.
 I: Tiene actividades de producción, ¿no?

Riffo Salgado P.A. ...
 CLT and grammar
 @mention or reply

3

SRI Frank Nvivo (extract)

59. power Point, en inglés, y con fotos.
60. PST: Si
61. I: Evitando...de acuerdo a mi perspectiva, evitando la traducción. No vi que tradujeras las
62. palabras. Solo luego, cuando tú lo explicaste. Cuéntame acerca de esta forma de introducir
63. vocabulario; ¿por qué elegiste la imagen, la palabra, y luego traducir?
64. PST: Ya...Eh...bueno yo, en mis planificaciones cuando estaba en la universidad, hacía lo
65. mismo, con imágenes. Pero cuando llegué acá, observé al profesor como lo hacía, y...traté de
66. hacerlo; que era simplemente escribirlas en la pizarra, y...dar una pequeña explicación en
67. inglés, después en español, y traducirla enseguida. pero creo que eso...no es positivo, y por
68. eso ahora lo cambié.
69. I: ¿por qué crees que de esa manera, la que me acabas de comentar no es positiva?
70. PST: Porque...yo creo que, bueno, son kinestésicos, pero también los resultados decían que
71. también no son, ni siquiera tan...son kinestésicos, pero también son casi tan kinestésicos,
72. como on visuales y auditivos, entonces...en este caso, utilicé imágenes, para que pudieran
73. asociar el vocabulario, como dentro de un contexto visual, donde los chicos puedan recordar
74. la imagen, y a partir de la imagen, recordar el concepto. En vez de tenerlo de forma aislada sin
75. contexto.
76. I: Entonces tú lo hiciste por tu encuesta de intereses, o tu...perdón, ¿tu aplicación de test de
77. estilos de aprendizaje?
78. PST: Si...
79. I: que hiciste al principio del semestre
80. PST: Si
81. I: ¿Y luego la traducción?
82. PST: ¿La traducción? la hago porque...bueno, el profesor la hace siempre, casi en seguida. Pero
83. yo la trato de hacer al final para...eh...con palabras que son más o menos como cognados,
84. para que puedan llegar quizás a la definición, pero siempre pasa que no todos van a entender.
85. Entonces, mejor...según yo, entregarla de forma explícita, al final, habiendo intentado todos
86. los medios, o los medios que utilicé ahora, para que ellos pudieran entenderlo.
87. I: ¿Y luego español?
88. PST: Y luego español
89. I: ¿Consideras que es útil esta forma de introducir vocabulario? ¿Dentro del poco tiempo que
90. llevas con este curso, has notado que tal vez lo comprenden mejor?
91. PST: Si yo creo que es útil porque...de alguna forma ellos están asociando algo visual al
92. lenguaje en sí, a un concepto. Pero lo que pasa es que a veces las traducciones literales no son
93. 100% acorde al significado en el lenguaje 2, entonces ocurre el "lost in translation", y a veces
94. una en inglés, en español no se puede traducir de ninguna forma literal.
95. I: Como underground, o mainstream
96. PST: ¡Claro!, entonces...a veces para que los chicos entiendan mejor el concepto, hay que
97. darles, quizás no la traducción literal, sino a lo que se refiere, más allá de una palabra, o un
98. concepto, o una explicación corta.
99. I: ¿Entonces, tú consideras positivo el uso del español en el aula?
100. Si, si porque, los chicos generalmente se bloquean con el inglés. Ni siquiera lo intentan, y a
101. veces dicen "ya profe, dígalo en español nomás", porque, como que no hay caso. Entonces en
102. ese caso creo que es importante y es necesario.
103. I: Ya, y que pasa cuando, por ejemplo, al momento en que te vienen a supervisar, ¿qué pasa
104. en ese caso? Porque...entiendo que la universidad básicamente casi exige que ustedes hagan
105. las clases casi 100% en inglés, entonces qué pasa aquí? Porque tienen por una parte la
106. demanda de la universidad que te pide eso, por otra parte, tú conoces a tus estudiantes; me
107. acabas de decir que muchos no tuvieron inglés antes, nunca en su vida, y tus planificaciones
108. están hechas considerando que los estudiantes tienen un conocimiento de inglés. Entonces,
109. ¿cómo tú buscas el balance?, o sea ¿qué prioriza en este caso? Porque también influye tu
110. evaluación, el aprendizaje de los estudiantes...
111. PST: Lo que hago yo es, bueno, siempre trato de usar mímicas y cosas para...o cognados para
112. que puedan entender. Pero como en ese caso, era más evaluado, y me afectaba en mi nota, o
113. sea era una nota, o una posible nota, traté de hablar mucho más en inglés, y traté de hacer
114. muchos más gestos.
115. I: ¿Cuándo la supervisora vino?
116. PST: Si, pero...al final igual daba explicaciones en español. Y...dejaba a un lado el hecho que

Teaching beliefs	
Classroom management	
Delayed translation	
Mediator to the L2	
time issues	
use of phones	
Use of L1	
Coding Density	

SRI1 Norah Nvivo (extract)

132. I: Ya. También te tienes que guiar por el contenido del libro, ¿no?, ¿trabajan con un libro?

136. PST: Sí, sí, pero el libro... o sea, es que por ejemplo, lo que más trae son ejercicios de gramática.

137. Trae, la unidad ocho, por ejemplo, la que estamos trabajando viene con su supposed to y might

138. I: ¿Es un libro del gobierno

139. PST: No

140. I: No

141. PST: No, es un libro

142. I: ¿Pero es grammar oriented?

143. PST: Sí

144. I: ¿o semi?

145. PST: No, es como semi porque, lo que pasa es el libro en sí de los estudiantes, trae mucho grammar, pero igual tiene un poquito de reading, así, cosas así. Pero los recursos que vienen para los

147. profesores, igual viene mucho, mucha comprensión lectora, vocabulario, entonces, no es tanto, tanto grammar.

149. I: ¿Tiene actividades de producción, algo?

150. PST: Em, más o menos

151. I: Ya

152. PST: No tanto

153. I: Este es un segundo medio, ¿cierto?

154. PST: Sí

155. I: Ya, ok. Em, después un estudiante dice, cuando está con la guía, dice: "profé, ¿va a dar

156. décimas?"- ¿qué opinas tú de eso?

157. PST: Es que siempre, siempre, TODAS LAS CLASES, por ejemplo, para que trabajen, les doy, no les

158. doy TANTA décima, de repente, cuando la guía es muy difícil, va, dos décimas, pero por lo general,

159. se los hago con nota acumulativa, porque si no, así como: "ya, hagan la guía"- ¿y es con nota?,

160. porque si no es nota, no la hago" como... así, siempre. Pero, no sé, encuentro que es como parte

161. de la etapa en la que están no más, porque los adolescentes siempre son así, yo igual era así en el

162. liceo, entonces

163. I: De todas maneras, si tú sabes que yo te estoy haciendo preguntas en torno a como lo que tú

164. piensas, no te juzgan, no nada (...), en el aula. Em, ok. Después tú, en el minuto, bueno noté que

165. hablas bastante el inglés en la clase, dado (...), pero también a veces, pasa que hablas inglés, y

166. luego, INMEDIATAMENTE, hablas en el español. ¿Por qué crees tú que pasa esto?

167. PST: Em

168. I: Que optas por esto

169. PST: Por lo general, cuando veo como sus caras de confusión de, de que no entienden lo que estoy

170. diciendo, como que trato de, decirles un poquito en español, como cosas claves, sí trato de no

171. hablarles, así como TODO el rato en español, sino como cosas claves, así como ESCRIBIR, o leer

172. I: Sí, en momentos, claro. Por eso te digo, si hablaste mucho en inglés y a veces sin traducir, pero en

173. momentos hablaste en inglés e INMEDIATAMENTE tradujiste al español

174. PST: Ah, ¿pero traduje lo que estaba diciendo?

175. I: Sí

176. PST: Av, no me di cuenta. Ahí no me di cuenta

177. I: Ahí no te diste cuenta

178. PST: Porque se supone que no tengo que hacer eso

179. I: ¿Y por qué crees tú que lo haces?

180. PST: Porque, no sé, cuando, es como que ya si no entienden, ya lo más fácil ya, español, al tiro. En

181. vez de tratar de no sé, lenguaje corporal, y no...

182. I: Pero igual lo usaste, porque en un momento les dijiste: "saquen su notebook"- y les mostraste

183. un cuaderno. Entonces, ahí también igual usaste tu lenguaje corporal

184. PST: Sí

185. I: Solo que, claro, en ciertas ocasiones, y creo que muchos lo hacemos, o sea, yo igual lo hago.

186. Ahora que veo esto también me doy cuenta de que yo lo hago, y no sé si la respuesta será el

187. tiempo, o la costumbre

188. PST: Yo creo que es lo más fácil. Es como ver que los niños no están entendiendo, va al tiro, en

189. español, español, en vez de irse por el lado más complicado, tratar sobre estrategias, es como ya

190. español

191. I: Ya. Y escribiste los objetivos en la pizarra, me dijiste que bueno, como debilidad no los

192. mencionaste, pero ¿por qué escribes los objetivos en la pizarra?

193. PST: Ah, porque ellos tienen que saber para qué están haciendo la actividad que están haciendo, o

194. sea, cuál es el propósito de, de hacer lo que están haciendo

195. I: Ya. Y tú crees entonces que, o sea, tú siempre lo haces, independiente de si es evaluado o no

196. evaluada, es algo que siempre haces

197. PST: Sí

198. I: Ya. Em, ya. Te pregunté por la mimics, no me quedó muy claro qué era la primera actividad de

199. que les hiciste hacer

200. PST: Yo les decía una acción y ellos tenían que hacer la mímica, y los compañeros tenían que

201. adivinar qué era

202. I: Sí, sí, pero NO SÉ QUÉ ERA lo primero, la primera acción

203. PST: Ah, ¿cómo era?

CODE STRIPES

Coding Density

• Convivencia

• Resources

• Immediate translation

• Teaching beliefs

• Rules in the classroom

• Use of teaching strategies learnt at university

• CLT

• Rapport

• precaridad

• The handout

• Use Of LI

• beliefs

Appendix D Focus group

This section shows the interview transcribed, and the extracts of Nvivo coding.

Transcription

¶1 Focus Group con preservice teachers

¶2: Fecha: 13 de diciembre Hora: 13.00

¶3: I: Ya chicos, primero gracias por venir. Y gracias por todo el proceso de recolección de datos, donde
¶4: los pude entrevistar y observar.

¶5: Les voy a indicar cómo vamos a trabajar. Les voy a dar unas hojitas para que anoten las preguntas, o
¶6: algunas notas, porque voy a tener que ir dando turnos cuando les pregunte. (Entrego hojas, lápices a
¶7: quienes necesiten). Bueno, en la consent form se indica que no se puede entregar completa

¶8: confidencialidad, en esto, porque ustedes se están viendo, y conocen a los otros participantes. Pero
¶9: al firmar la consent form, lo que conversemos aquí, se queda aquí. ¿Ya? Bueno, gracias por haberme

¶10: permitido acompañarlos durante su proceso de internado, y gracias por venir. Y, bueno, algunas
¶11: reglas, esto no es un grupo de apoyo emocional, sino que es una instancia donde vamos a trabajar

¶12: diferentes temas que yo fui recogiendo dentro de su internado, y los vamos a explorar un poco más.

¶13: Eh, aquí pueden ir participando, yo voy a ser la moderadora, por lo tanto, cuando comencemos con

¶14: una pregunta, levantan la mano, y pueden participar, o comenzamos del lado izquierdo al lado

¶15: derecho. Como quieran ustedes.

¶16: Pamela: ¿A medida que vayamos respondiendo? ¿Porque en cada pregunta, tenemos que todos

¶17: responder algo?

¶18: I: Opinar algo, pero aquí pueden ir construyendo en conjunto, conversando entre ustedes también,

¶19: no es solamente. O sea, yo voy a dar el tema, y ustedes van a discutir, y tal vez uno va a estar de

¶20: acuerdo, o tal vez en desacuerdo, o va a opinar otra cosa, y ahí van a ir intercambiando ideas, ¿ya?

¶21: OK, comenzamos entonces. Eh..., ¿qué, o quién, o quienes, consideran ustedes que ha influenciado

¶22: su forma de enseñar?

¶23: Beatriz: En mi caso, fue una profesora de didáctica y práctica que tuve aquí. Eh, con ella, que es la

¶24: miss Vivi, con ella tuve todas mis prácticas y didácticas, y ella nos mostró muchas formas de usar la

¶25: tecnología, nos mostró muchas estrategias para pre, post and while. También para mostrar

¶26: vocabulario. Entonces...gracias a ella, yo rescaté todas las cosas que ella nos fue enseñando durante

¶27: la formación universitaria.

¶28: I: ¿Y fue solo ella?

¶29: Beatriz: Es que era...es la única profe que he tenido de didáctica. Siempre he tenido la misma, en la

¶30: práctica. Bueno, la práctica me ayudó mucho, porque ahí yo me daba cuenta lo que resultaba y lo

¶31: que no.

¶32: I: ¿Ya, entonces sería una profesora y tu práctica progresiva e internado?

¶33: Beatriz: Si

¶34: I: ¿Alguien más quiere opinar al respecto?

¶35: Pamela: Yo creo que, no sé, me pasó algo CONTRARIO, como que...siento que los profesores que
tuve

¶36: en el colegio, hasta ahora, lo mismo que las prácticas, de repente son actitudes que tienen los

¶37: profesores que no me gustan. Hay profes que de repente son como ejemplo de lo que NO QUIERO

¶38: SER, que quiero tratar de hacer algo contrario.

¶39: I: Entonces ahí encontraste modelos para no seguir

¶40: Pamela: Claro

¶41: I: ¿Y en la universidad te influenció alguien?

¶42: Pamela: En este momento no sabría.

¶43: I: ¿Alguien más quiere decir algo al respecto?

¶44: Pamela: La profe que me supervisó en la tesis. Ella es una profe, que, según yo, la encuentro capa
en

¶45: todo lo que ella hace, tiene mucho conocimiento. Y me gusta mucho que ella no sea, como que no

¶46: se vanagloria de sus títulos y todo, sino que es una persona muy simple, y siempre muy positiva.

¶47: Josie: dentro de lo que dice Pamela, hay gente que a mí, en el colegio o la U, no me gustó su actitud,

¶48: no me gustó como profesora. Entonces para mí esos son como modelos a no seguir. Pero también,

¶49: tuve un profe, no de esta carrera, pero de otra carrera, que era super humano, pero a la vez

¶50: accesible. Entonces como que él me dio la idea de querer enseñar. Y como traté de hacerlo, y lo

¶51: logré. O sea, como no ser tan estrictos, sino que generar una empatía, que ayude a la confianza.

- ¶152: I: ¿Alguien más?
- ¶153: RoseFrank: En mi caso, quien me motivó fue el profesor de internado. El profesor guía porque...su
- ¶154: personalidad calzaba mucho con el perfil del profesor, eh...ser energético, ser motivante, y empático
- ¶155: en relación a cómo él se va relacionando con los estudiantes. Y...eso en mi caso, es algo que me falta
- ¶156: mucho, o sea, él tiene un rol a seguir.
- ¶157: I: ¿Tú encuentras que te colaboró, o que tú aprendiste de él cosas en tu internado?
- ¶158: Frank: No sé si como que aprendí, sino que yo mismo me...me puse una meta, que sería llegar a ser
- ¶159: como él, ya que a él lo veo muy seco, en ese sentido.
- ¶160: I: Igual tu contexto, era un contexto complicado.
- ¶161: Frank: Claro, era un contexto complicado, y por lo mismo el profesor lograba hacer la clase. Y los
- ¶162: estudiantes lo veían como un líder.
- ¶163: I: Gracias.
- ¶164: Rose: Eh...bueno, yo igual comparto lo que han dicho mis compañeros. Que, de cierta forma, los
- ¶165: profesores que nosotros tenemos son quienes nos van moldeando. Pero también creo que tiene
- ¶166: mucho que ver con las experiencias que hemos vivido. Ya sea como in situ en la sala de clases, u
- ¶167: otras experiencias ajenas al colegio, pero que también nos van dando CLARIDAD de cómo nosotros
- ¶168: queremos ser, o qué queremos enseñarles, o cómo queremos formar a los estudiantes. No
- ¶169: solamente como en el área disciplinar, propio de la asignatura. Sino que, cómo queremos que ellos
- ¶170: sean más adelante. Entonces ahí yo creo que las experiencias que vivimos tienen que ver con eso.
- ¶171: Con como nosotros vemos la docencia.
- ¶172: I: ¿ya, alguien quisiera agregar algo más? ¿Alguien está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con lo
- ¶173: expuesto?
- ¶174: I: Cómo pueden comparar el mundo universitario; ¿su formación universitaria con el contexto
- ¶175: escolar?
- ¶176: Beatriz: Aquí hay algo que yo siempre digo, que la universidad te pide que uno sea de una forma,
- ¶177: que en la realidad no funciona. Siempre te dicen como “tienes que hacer esto, esto esto”, todo
- ¶178: estructurado, ¿por qué? Porque el ramo te lo pide. Pero la realidad es totalmente distinta a lo que
- ¶179: sale en los libros, qué nos dicen los autores. Nunca funciona 100% lo que el autor te dice en el libro,
- ¶180: la teoría tampoco se puede aplicar 100%, entonces ahí hay una diferencia muy grande entre lo que
- ¶181: nos pide la universidad, y lo que realmente podemos hacer en la universidad.
- ¶182: I: ¿Me podrías dar un ejemplo?
- ¶183: Beatriz: Por ejemplo, no sé, mostrar el vocabulario haciendo, no sé, mímicas, roleplays. Y los
- ¶184: estudiantes, con suerte pueden, saben cómo decir hola en inglés. Entonces, si uno les da un
- ¶185: contexto COMPLETO en inglés, van a estar perdidos. El vocabulario no se va a entender. Al final, un
- ¶186: fracaso.
- ¶187: I: ¿Frank, tú quieres decir algo?
- ¶188: Frank: Si. Yo creo que en el caso de los micro teaching, en el contexto de la universidad, esos
- ¶189: ambientes son casi perfectos para el profesor practicante. Ya que eso no representa lo que es la
- ¶190: realidad, un curso, los estudiantes de verdad. Entonces, el profesor en el microteaching en la
- ¶191: universidad tiene todas las facilidades para desarrollar su clase. A diferencia de un curso de
- ¶192: enseñanza media, por ejemplo, donde los chicos no están con una disposición de poner atención en
- ¶193: una clase a la primera. En cambio, acá los mismos compañeros quieren que a uno le vaya bien.
- ¶194: Entonces eso hace el espacio propicio para que el profesor sienta que puede hacerlo bien, pero en la
- ¶195: realidad eso no se refleja.
- ¶196: I: OK, respecto a lo que Frank dice, ¿que los chicos en la media no van con la motivación? con la
- ¶197: disposición de aprender, ¿ustedes están de acuerdo o en desacuerdo?
- ¶198: Josie: Totalmente de acuerdo. O sea, lo hemos visto, y yo creo que la mayoría de mis compañeros
- ¶199: también lo vieron. Ellos prácticamente no quieren aprender, no quieren hacer absolutamente nada.
- ¶200: Y aparte, nos exigen en la U, que es medio descabellado que nosotros, o que ellos, tanto nosotros
- ¶201: como ellos que hablemos 100% ingles toda la clase. Y la realidad es que los chicos, como dijo la
- ¶202: Bárbara, con suerte saben decir Hola. Entonces, es súper difícil 100% en ingles sin traducirlo, o que
- ¶203: ellos entiendan algo, cosa que no pasa.
- ¶204: I: ¿Entonces, ustedes creen que su contexto universitario es muy ideal?
- ¶205: Todos: si/exacto
- ¶206: I: ¿Y la realidad?
- ¶207: Rose: Es como expectativa, realidad. No en HD.
- ¶208: (risas)

- ¶109: Rose: O sea, es que yo creo que es muy incongruente el contexto de la universidad con la realidad.
- ¶110: puede que los centros de práctica donde nosotros nos insertamos también son muy distantes del
- ¶111: contexto ideal que es el que propicia la universidad po.¹ Puede que haya otros colegios también que
- ¶112: sean más cercanos. Pero, nosotros en este proceso no tuvimos esa, esa otra realidad.
- ¶113: I: ¿Ya, Beatriz?
- ¶114: Beatriz: Que, iba a decir que, en didáctica y práctica, siempre se rigen por los mismos libros que son
- ¶115: un tanto antiguos en teoría, entonces si los profesores quieren que nosotros seamos profesores de yesexcelesencia para
- ¶116: cambiar la realidad, deberían enfocarse en los que enseñan CON LA REALIDAD DE
- ¶117: NOSOTROS. Por ejemplo, enseñarnos a cómo usar el libro de clases, porque eso, nosotros llegamos,
- ¶118: y lo...Me ha pasado que el profesor como que entiende que yo ya se hacerlo, por algo he estado
- ¶119: cinco años en la universidad. Pero en verdad era primera vez que yo veía un libro de clases. No sabía
- ¶120: ni dónde escribir la firma, nada.²
- ¶121: I: ¿Si Pamela?
- ¶122: Pamela: Si, con respecto a lo del contexto, hay...el Frank dijo algo de los microteachings, que son
- ¶123: como muy lejanos a la realidad. Y los mismos ejemplos que nos muestran en clases son alejados.
- ¶124: Porque yo me acuerdo de haber visto MÁS DE UNA VEZ un video de unos filipinos, que eran unas
- ¶125: clases como de 12 estudiantes, y como que están muy, muy dispuestos a aprender y toda la
- ¶126: cuestión. Y nos dicen, "ya, así se hacen las clases", y uno los ve poniendo atención a la clase, y
- ¶127: contestando en inglés. Y, después llegamos nosotros al liceo, y es totalmente diferente. Entonces
- ¶128: creo que podrían hacer cambios tan mínimos como ese video, por ejemplo, mostrarnos en
- ¶129: reemplazo un video de un liceo chileno.³
- ¶130: I: ¿Y les han mostrado algún video así?
- ¶131: Beatriz: Jamás
- ¶132: I: Frank
- ¶133: Frank: Eso mismo, que las clases, o la carrera debería ser más contextualizada al contexto de Chile
- ¶134: porque se basa en teorías que son creadas en otros países, y donde el inglés es mucho más
- ¶135: importante que acá. Entonces, acá se debería comenzar con la base de que acá no se sabe nada de
- ¶136: inglés. O considerar las estadísticas, no sé, donde el nivel de inglés que tienen los chicos en
- ¶137: enseñanza media, y a partir de eso, crear un curriculum contextualizado.⁴
- ¶138: I: ¿Ah, entonces aquí hay un problema de curriculum? O sea, esto viene de algo más arriba que la
- ¶139: misma carrera...
- ¶140: Beatriz: De hecho, deberían tomar en consideración que la Araucanía es la región con el SIMCE más
- ¶141: bajo de inglés. Entonces, cómo quieren que nosotros tratemos de cambiar eso. Si necesitan una
- ¶142: base, y nosotros no podemos llegar diciendo, "ya, hoy día vamos a hablar sobre los phrasal verbs",
- ¶143: ¿qué van a saber ellos qué es un phrasal verb?⁵
- ¶144: Pamela: en un semestre más encima.
- ¶145: Beatriz: En un semestre, con tres horas a la semana en algunos casos. Entonces, los profesores de la
- ¶146: universidad primero deberían tomar en consideración ESO, y ahí ver qué se puede hacer.
- ¶147: Obviamente, en los colegios particulares no va a pasar lo mismo, pero aquí nadie va a particulares.⁶
- ¶148: Todos estamos en particulares subvencionados o municipales.
- ¶149: I: Claro, ¿y ustedes en qué tipo de establecimiento quieren trabajar?
- ¶150: B: particular subvencionado, o municipal, o lo que venga.
- ¶151: I: ¿Y cuándo me dicen que los libros, o la teoría es antigua, de quienes estamos hablando? ¿De qué
- ¶152: años estamos hablando?
- ¶153: Frank: Hymes
- ¶154: Pamela: Ur
- ¶155: B: Igual, vemos del 96 de la Penny Ur.
- ¶156: Josie: Y lo más incoherente puede ser es que cuando nosotros tenemos que buscar teoría, nos
- ¶157: dicen, no más allá del 2010.
- ¶158: (risas)

- ¶159: I: Y ustedes cuando tienen que buscar teoría, saben dónde buscar journals o... porque la universidad
- ¶160: paga una licencia
- ¶161: Josie: nos dicen que busquemos en la base de datos de la U, pero...
- ¶162: Pamela: La base de datos de la U, yo ni siquiera se ocuparla. Una vez tuvimos una clase para la tesis, y
- ¶163: yo ese día falté, y nunca más tuve la oportunidad de tenerla. Obviamente, si yo quiero, puedo ir y
- ¶164: pedirle una hora a la bibliotecaria, pero no lo hice.
- ¶165: I: ¿Google Scholar usan?
- ¶166: Pamela: Si, todo Google Scholar
- ¶167: Beatriz: yo también
- ¶168: (otros asienten)⁷
- ¶169: I: ¿Hay algo más que agregar? ¿La pregunta era cómo comparas el contexto universitario, con el
- ¶170: escolar?
- ¶171: Frank: Bueno otra cosa que cabe destacar es el contexto, no solo estudiante profesor, sino profesor-
- ¶172: profesor, que...
- ¶173: I: ¿profesor guía?
- ¶174: F: profesores colegas. Porque, en el contexto de la U es más relajado se podría decir, o uno puede
- ¶175: encontrar amistades que yo creo que son fundamentales también en el contexto de llegar a ser un
- ¶176: profesor
- ¶177: I: Como estudiante
- ¶178: F: Si. Pero en el contexto de la sala de clases es distinto, y... en mi caso, a mi no me gustaba estar en
- ¶179: la sala de profesores.
- ¶180: I: ¿por qué?
- ¶181: F: Por temas personales, por...
- ¶182: I: por tu personalidad
- ¶183: F: claro. Entonces, también debería haber una enseñanza en cuanto a eso, a la relación entre
- ¶184: colegas, y también de la parte administrativa. Porque eso no se enseña, no se enseña desde la
- ¶185: universidad. Y... debería haber una relación más allá de la labor a cumplir, sino como profesor, como
- ¶186: un trabajador, como alguien que está trabajando en el contexto donde hay más colegas.⁸
- ¶187: I: ya. ¿Qué cosas fueron totalmente nuevas para ustedes haciendo el internado? Que tal vez ustedes
- ¶188: cuando pensaron en ser profesores, no consideraron y que a veces toman bastante tiempo...
- ¶189: B: Las horas de permanencia (ríe). Yo no sabía que los profesores tenían que cumplir horas, onda sin
- ¶190: estar haciendo clases. Obviamente no pueden estar todas las horas haciendo clases, pero no sabía
- ¶191: que cómo funcionaban las horas.⁹
- ¶192: I: ¿Ya, y eso te pareció un poco tedioso?
- ¶193: B: Está bien que lo tengan, porque el profesor tiene mucha pega. Pero tampoco es suficiente con
- ¶194: todas las horas que tienen. Porque igual yo vi profesores que se llevaban kilos y kilos de cuadernos a
- ¶195: las casas para poder avanzar y todo eso.
- ¶196: I: ¿Algo más?
- ¶197: Rose: No sé si es algo nuevo, pero yo nunca tuve mucho que ver con la relación con los apoderados.
- ¶198: Que eso tampoco como que... yo por lo menos no me sentía preparada para tener esa relación como
- ¶199: tan, o sea. Es que, en mi curso, el profesor jefe, no estaba, entonces.
- ¶200: I: Entonces tú estabas a cargo
- ¶201: R: Si po. Entonces en las reuniones de apoderados, para los apoderados yo no era practicante po,
- ¶202: era el profe jefe del curso. Y yo no me sentía preparada para esa responsabilidad. Eso fue nuevo.
- ¶203: I: ¿A alguien más le pasó algo similar?
- ¶204: Norah: Si. O sea, no lo mismo, pero los apoderados... nos ven como profe, y se acercan a hablarme
- ¶205: de los problemas que tiene con su hijo, que son rebeldes, y tanto, tanto. Y uno no sabe qué decir po,
- ¶206: entonces ahí tratar de encontrar alguna solución como para calmarlo. Pero igual fue super chocante
- ¶207: en un momento, que no pensé que me iba a pasar.
- ¶208: I: Ya. ¿En las reuniones de apoderados?
- ¶209: Norah: varios¹⁰
- ¶210: I: Y citaron apoderados

- ¶211: Todos: no
- ¶212: I: ¿Apoderados los citaron a ustedes?
- ¶213: Todos: no
- ¶214: Pamela: Una apoderada me envió un mail una vez, porque su hija no había alcanzado a imprimir el
- ¶215: trabajo a tiempo por problemas con el pendrive, entonces me pidió por mail para considerar. Y yo
- ¶216: sabía que la alumna había tenido problemas para imprimir. Así que ahí tuve que contestarle, porque
- ¶217: tampoco podía como dejarle un visto. Así que ahí contesté y ella contestó de nuevo, muchas gracias.
- ¶218: ¿Pero...cuál era la pregunta?
- ¶219: I: Qué cosas fueron totalmente diferentes
- ¶220: P: Los pasos a seguir, era todo protocolar. O sea, al momento de hacer una prueba, que tenía que
- ¶221: hacer las partes, con anticipación, porque primero la iba a revisar la profesora, después el
- ¶222: departamento, después UTP, después llevarlo a tal lugar para que lo lleven a fotocopiar. A veces era
- ¶223: como, ya trae la guía y listo. Pero otras veces era como, "trae la guía, que la vea su profesora,
- ¶224: después...". Eso era como, para algunas cosas era como medio irregular el proceso, y para otras era
- ¶225: como protocolar.
- ¶226: I: ¿Tenían todo el mismo proceso?
- ¶227: Frank: Si. O sea, yo al menos, una vez entregué un trabajo a UTP. Y....por temas de tiempo.
- ¶228: I: ¿Para fotocopiar?
- ¶229: Frank: Para que lo aprueben. Entonces, eso había que hacerlo como con una semana de
- ¶230: anticipación. Pero la lesson se hacía toda la semana, entonces, por ejemplo, tenía que tener la
- ¶231: implementación el martes, y el lunes anterior me estaban revisando la clase. Entonces, el último día
- ¶232: de internado fui para que me timbraran los documentos, y la UTP me empezó a decir que eso había
- ¶233: que llevarlo con anticipación, que no tenía el formato, y que tenía que ver que los objetivos
- ¶234: coincidieran con los indicadores. Entonces, no tenía los objetivos. Y eso, a mí nunca me lo explicaron
- ¶235: po. Que había un proceso tan grande antes de, de entregar una guía, por ejemplo. Y tampoco me lo
- ¶236: pidieron así, acá ni en la U, ni el profesor guía me lo recalcó, sino que fue una vez, y después nunca
- ¶237: más.
- ¶238: I: Ya, eso fue para ti algo diferente, ¿el protocolo?
- ¶239: F: Si
- ¶240: B: Ahora que los escucho, lo mío fue totalmente distinto. Yo no tenía protocolo para nada, ni
- ¶241: tampoco me exigían nada. Yo solo mandaba mis planificaciones a mi profesora guía, y ella era la
- ¶242: encargada de mandarlos al profesor de departamento de inglés. Pero no me las revisaban; YO SE LAS
- ¶243: MOSTRABA PORQUE A MI me nacía mostrárselas. Pero yo nunca me relacioné con UTP, ni con
- ¶244: dirección, nada nada nada. Entonces, igual veo que es super distinto las realidades. Aparte que
- ¶245: nunca la universidad tuvo una cercanía con el colegio tampoco. Y AHÍ fue donde faltaron hartas
- ¶246: cosas. Por ejemplo, nosotros los del plan 3, con el aprendizaje y servicio. Ese proyecto que NADIE
- ¶247: SABÍA QUE HABÍA QUE HACER, porque son los nuevos de esa malla.
- ¶248: I: ¿Cuéntame acerca de ese proyecto?
- ¶249: B: Es un proyecto que se empezó a implementar con los que entramos el 2015. Somos plan 3,
- ¶250: entonces tenemos otra malla. Y ahí teníamos que realizar un proyecto que ayude a la comunidad
- ¶251: escolar. ¿Pero, qué cosas? Uno tenía que ver lo que faltaba en el colegio. Pero tampoco te explican
- ¶252: en el fondo, porque fue una reunión que tuvimos en el internado como en Julio, y ahí viene un
- ¶253: caballero a explicar, y ahí quedamos todos colgados. Y después ni siquiera los profes sabían cómo,
- ¶254: qué había que hacer. Ni los profesores de la universidad sabían qué teníamos que hacer nosotros.
- ¶255: Entonces, hubo CERO comunicación. Sé de un caso de una compañera que...su profesor de inglés
- ¶256: como que le llamó la atención porque cómo a la universidad no le fue a explicar algo que había que
- ¶257: hacer.
- ¶258: I: ¿Y ese proyecto era dentro de las implementaciones?
- ¶259: B: Era dentro del portafolio.
- ¶260: F: Del internado
- ¶261: B: valía 15% del internado.
- ¶262: I: ¿Y eso se aplicaba en sus clases?
- ¶263: B: No. Se aplicaba, bueno, depende de la realidad. Pero yo por ejemplo, lo apliqué en cuatro
- ¶264: semanas. Y era lo mismo que el proyecto de título; tenías que hacer una introducción, el marco
- ¶265: teórico, todo, todo igual. Solo que los resultados, tenías que graficarlos como en tablitas.

- ¶1266: I: Era como una investigación acción
- ¶1267: B: Beatriz
- ¶1268: F: Literalmente, a mí me dijeron que era trabajo, tipo challa.
- ¶1269: (risas)
- ¶1270: F: Ni siquiera los profesores, como decía Beatriz, ni siquiera ellos sabían cómo evaluar, en relación a
- ¶1271: puntajes o...cuándo se entregaba. Y... tampoco habían pasos a seguir, por ejemplo, en el tema del
- ¶1272: diagnóstico yo quería hacer un diagnóstico, para ver por qué se hacía ese proyecto. O sea, esto pasa
- ¶1273: en el colegio, y con el proyecto (...), y eso no pasó. Entonces, después cuando socio comunitario tuvo
- ¶1274: que evaluarlo, que, en mi caso, fue mi profesor guía, no evaluó nada. Porque, en primer lugar, no
- ¶1275: alcancé a implementarlo, y también porque él me dio el proyecto. O sea, no hubo ningún
- ¶1276: diagnóstico ni nada. No hubo ningún estudio.
- ¶1277: I: O sea, hiciste el proyecto al ojo.
- ¶1278: F: Claro. Entonces por eso fue un trabajo challa.
- ¶1279: B: Eso, como parte del trabajo, se supone que el jefe de UTP, o la directora o director del colegio
- ¶1280: tenía que evaluarlo. Y cuando yo leo la evaluación, el jefe de UTP nunca estuvo en mi proyecto,
- ¶1281: entonces, no tenía idea qué iba a poner en la evaluación. Entonces yo le pregunté a mi supervisora si
- ¶1282: lo podía evaluar mi profesora de inglés, porque con ella yo si estuve conversando sobre el proyecto.
- ¶1283: Y ahí me dijo que si, que luego le dijeron a miss PL que deje que los profesores de inglés los
- ¶1284: evalúen. Porque en verdad, había cero relación entre nuestro jefe de UTP y el proyecto, en mi caso.
- ¶1285: Porque no hubo comunicación.
- ¶1286: I: Ustedes perciben esta...porque lo que ustedes perciben es como una disociación entre el colegio y
- ¶1287: la universidad. y ustedes...como al medio...sobreviviendo a los mundos. Por qué creen que sucede
- ¶1288: este tipo de disociación, o cómo creen ustedes que podría enfocarse de otra manera el internado
- ¶1289: para que esto no pase. Porque, si bien ustedes ya son adultos, autónomos, el próximo año
- ¶1290: probablemente van a estar trabajando con profesores, igual están aprendiendo, y van en nombre de
- ¶1291: la universidad. Ustedes no van solos...
- ¶1292: B: Yo creo que ese día que a nosotros nos van a presentar al colegio, es como que nos dejan el
- ¶1293: primer día de jardín, porque van dicen, "aquí está el practicante, chao". Deberían solicitar una
- ¶1294: reunión con el jefe de UTP, donde se explique cada paso de lo que nosotros vamos a hacer, y cada
- ¶1295: proyecto que se espera que implementemos, o todas las horas que vamos a usar. Y así el jefe de UTP
- ¶1296: directora va a tener una visión de qué espera de nosotros. Porque nosotros llegamos, y a medida
- ¶1297: que se aproximan las fechas, decimos, oh, tengo que hacer esto, esto otro. Pero por último solicitar
- ¶1298: una reunión.
- ¶1299: I: ¿alguien más quiere opinar al respecto?
- ¶1300: P: Yo. Creo que, claro como dijo usted, estamos vistos por...los estudiantes como profesores, pero
- ¶1301: para el resto dentro de la sala de profesores, somos estudiantes. Entonces, a veces nos ven como
- ¶1302: que nos podemos equivocar, pero cuando nos llegamos a equivocar, es como "cómo te equivocas en
- ¶1303: esto, tú tienes que saber, este objetivo está malo". Y, entonces estamos como en esa disyuntiva. Yo
- ¶1304: tuve un problema en particular, y cuando hablé y cuando vi que mails iban y mails venían, entre
- ¶1305: supervisor y guía. Y cuando yo vine para acá a una reunión, porque me citaron para aclarar bien el
- ¶1306: tema, ahí me di cuenta de que a la U lo único que le interesa es no perder un centro de práctica. Y da
- ¶1307: lo mismo cómo sea la práctica, o cómo es el ambiente en el colegio, cómo, no se po, algo que tenga
- ¶1308: que ver con el liceo y nosotros. Porque al final, igual son como muchas relaciones humanas,
- ¶1309: interpersonales, más que solamente relaciones de trabajo. Y creo que ese es el problema que hay,
- ¶1310: como que esa es la parada de la U; "vamos a perder un centro, entonces, cualquier cosa, nosotros
- ¶1311: solo sonreímos y saludamos"
- ¶1312: I: ¿Si Frank?
- ¶1313: Frank: Quiero responder a la pregunta de por qué pasa esto. Yo creo que más que nada, es porque los
- ¶1314: profesores supervisores tienen otros cargos, y no tienen el tiempo suficiente para enfocarse en
- ¶1315: nosotros, en cada uno de nosotros, y guiarnos. Eh...ahí podría haber un cambio en cuanto a eso.
- Los
- ¶1316: profesores tienen mucha pega aparte de nosotros, y yo no considero que nosotros seamos prioridad

- ¶317: para ellos, en ese sentido.
- ¶318: I: ¿O sea que...si Rose?
- ¶319: Rose: Si, yo creo que también ahí no hay tan buena comunicación de la universidad con los
- ¶320: supervisores, o al menos (...), todo el semestre, no hubo ni una reunión en la universidad. Y a mitad
- ¶321: de semestre nos cambiaron el formato de planificación, y a nuestros supervisores les llegó por
- ¶322: correo. Pero, no me lo explicaron...yo no sé si cambiaron la autoevaluación para nuestras
- ¶323: planificaciones, supongo que sí, porque el formato era diferente. Pero nunca nos entregaron una
- ¶324: nueva pauta de evaluación. Entonces no sabemos qué criterios considerar en este nuevo formato.
- La
- ¶325: supervisora tampoco sabía porque no se lo dijeron. Eh...y hay hartas cosas de ese tipo que no
- ¶326: funcionan tan bien, porque no hay una comunicación fluida. Entonces, yo creo que debería haber
- ¶327: por lo menos reuniones una vez al mes de todos los supervisores, porque también depende mucho
- ¶328: del supervisor que uno tenga, la información que te entregan. Si el supervisor trabaja aquí en la
- ¶329: universidad, tiene otro contacto, más distanciado.
- ¶330: Beatriz: Ahora, como los escuché, me acordé que a mi me pasó que me cambiaron de supervisora, y no
- ¶331: tenían la misma información ni evaluaban de la misma forma. Entonces, cómo nos piden a nosotros,
- ¶332: si ni siquiera los supervisores tienen los mismos criterios para evaluar.
- ¶333: I: o sea, la pauta es la misma, ¿pero la interpretación de los criterios es diferente?
- ¶334: Beatriz: Exacto. Pero al principio, por ejemplo, mi primera supervisora me mandó una pauta, que yo tenía
- ¶335: que seguir por ejemplo para hacer la introducción del proyecto de título. Luego, yo quedé hasta ahí y
- ¶336: me cambiaron. Y la segunda supervisora me mandó otra, y me dijo que todo lo que yo había hecho,
- ¶337: no estaba bien. ¿Entonces, a quién le creo? ¿Si son dos supervisoras de la universidad? Cómo me
- ¶338: dicen cosas distintas, si están todos haciendo lo mismo. Entonces, eso igual da lata, porque uno está
- ¶339: ocupando el tiempo, y CREE en los profesores, porque tienen años de experiencia, pero, aun así, ellos
- ¶340: no tienen concordancia con lo que dicen o hacen.
- ¶341: I: Ya...
- ¶342: Josie: No, y a veces pasaba que nosotras mismas teníamos más comunicación, o más información que los
- ¶343: mismos supervisores. ¿De repente a nosotros nos preguntaban, cuando me van a informar a mi lo
- ¶344: que les dijeron a ustedes? Porque a mí no me han mandado absolutamente nada de la universidad.
- ¶345: Entonces, nosotras llevábamos información a nuestra supervisora.
- ¶346: Beatriz: ¡Eso también me pasó!
- ¶347: Frank: Entre compañeros.
- ¶348: Beatriz: Ella me preguntaba cuando eran las fechas tope! O también me preguntaba qué tenía que hacer
- ¶349: en esta parte. Entonces, al final el estudiante tiene más información que el mismo supervisor.
- ¶350: I: Y alguien me mencionó, no sé si fue uno de ustedes, o uno de los profesores, pero no importa
- ¶351: porque no puedo revelar nombres (risas)...que el profesor guía evalúa con una pauta al final, pero
- ¶352: que se la entregan al final del proceso.
- ¶353: Todos: Si
- ¶354: I: Entonces no la incorporan, o no saben en realidad cuando los ven durante el semestre, no...no
- ¶355: está pensando en los criterios que tiene que evaluar.
- ¶356: Josie: De hecho, cuando nosotras estábamos viendo el tema de la pauta, había muchas cosas que
- ¶357: nuestra supervisora no le calzaban, porque no podía evidenciar. Hay algunos supervisores que no
- ¶358: están en el aula, entonces hay cosas que ellos no pueden evaluar.
- ¶359: Rcioo: Había uno que decía, "demuestra conocimiento de teoría, bla bla bla", entonces, cuando uno hace
- ¶360: la clase no cita autores po. El profesor guía es el que tiene que hacer esa evaluación. El profesor guía
- ¶361: está con nosotros en la sala.
- ¶362: Frank: Eso mismo, el profesor no está consciente durante el semestre de lo que tiene que evaluar.
- ¶363: I: ¿profesor guía?
- ¶364: Frank: Si, profesor guía. Entonces, en mi caso, muy pocas veces él me dio feedback porque le nació. Sino
- ¶365: que yo tenía que preguntarle. Porque también como están tan ocupados, a mi por ejemplo, me daba
- ¶366: cosa preguntarle, o decirle, "profe, me puede venir a ayudar a mi, específicamente a mi", teniendo

- ¶1367: tantas cosas. Entonces, deberían tener más claros los estándares, los criterios con los que nos van a
- ¶1368: evaluar al final.
- ¶1369: Beatriz: Yo creo que eso parte de quién crea eso en la universidad. Porque mi profesora guía, siempre
- ¶1370: estuvo conmigo en las clases, pero habían muchos criterios que decía, "y cómo se va a ver esto?",
- ¶1371: por ejemplo, "tiene buena relación con los apoderados". Eso no se ve en las clases de inglés.
- ¶1372: Entonces, habían como 4 o 5 criterios que quedaban dando vueltas porque no, no se podían evaluar,
- ¶1373: ni siquiera con todas las clases vistas. Entonces...
- ¶1374: I: Entonces, ¿qué hacían? Los evaluaban con el máximo puntaje, y te da una nota falsa.
- ¶1375: Beatriz: Eso tuvo que hacer ella.
- ¶1376: I: O el mínimo puntaje, que también te daría una nota falsa.
- ¶1377: Robert: Iba a comentar, yo creo que lo mismo que iba a decir la Pamela, que...la persona de UTP que nos
- ¶1378: evaluó dejó esos criterios en blanco, porque ella también nos comentó que no podía evaluarlos,
- ¶1379: porque no estaba en ese proceso, entonces, no podían hacerlo bien, o mal para nosotros. Así que lo
- ¶1380: dejó en blanco.
- ¶1381: Pamela: parecido, que en la...en la pauta de auto evaluación igual, yo la hice recién, salía uno de los
- ¶1382: últimos puntos, si es que yo había tenido contacto con los apoderados, cosa que tampoco yo sabía si
- ¶1383: estaba correcto tener tanto contacto con los apoderados porque tampoco era la profe. Si algo
- ¶1384: pasaba en el liceo, yo era la alumna, entonces como complicado. Y como le digo, en el Comenius era
- ¶1385: todo muy así...
- ¶1386: I: ceremonioso
- ¶1387: Pamela: si, ceremonioso. Entonces, al final le pregunté a mi profesora supervisora cómo lo ponía. Y me
- ¶1388: dijo, "fuiste a reunión de apoderados", yo dije que sí y que había participado con ellos en las
- ¶1389: actividades del 18 de septiembre. "ya"- me dijo- "ponte un 7". Pero al final tampoco era lo que
- ¶1390: preguntaba el criterio realmente, era como algo parecido. Creo que deberían volver a revisar todas
- ¶1391: esas partes de la evaluación, porque...
- ¶1392: Rose: Si, igual yo creo que...o sea la universidad no ha revisado esos procesos. Porque, por ejemplo,
- ¶1393: nosotras mismas vinimos a este desayuno, y después chao nomas. Pero no nos hablaron de la
- ¶1394: evaluación de proceso po, como un cierre. Y eso sería útil para poder mejorar precisamente estos
- ¶1395: tipos de instrumentos, o procesos, o lo que comentaban los chiquillos, de esta nueva modalidad de
- ¶1396: aprendizaje y servicio, o sea, ESPERARÍA, que eso lo tengan que evaluar, cómo funcionó, y mejorarlo,
- ¶1397: porque si no van a seguir saliendo generaciones con problemas. Entonces, sería bueno que la
- ¶1398: universidad también haga un proceso de evaluación del internado, y ver qué cosas mejorar, qué
- ¶1399: cosas están demás, o qué cosas faltan.
- ¶1400: I: ¿Robert?
- ¶1401: Robert: Era de lo que hablaba la Pamela, en general no teníamos muchos aspectos formales de cómo
- ¶1402: crear relaciones, por ejemplo, con los apoderados, aparte de esas instancias de reuniones de
- ¶1403: apoderados, y también actividades como extra, que se hacían en el contexto del liceo. Por ejemplo,
- ¶1404: tuve una situación de que un alumno empezó a faltar por problemas personales, y el apoderado se
- ¶1405: acercó para pedir materiales y para explicar cómo era la situación, y mi profesora me dijo, "va a
- ¶1406: venir el apoderado de tal persona, ¿qué le digo?" Y yo como, "qué le puede decir, no se po".
- ¶1407: Entonces son, como decía también la Beatriz antes, que hay cosas, o vacíos que uno tiene y
- ¶1408: tampoco los explican cuando nos presentan.
- ¶1409: I: ¿Como que sienten ustedes que el colegio tiene una expectativa de ustedes, y ustedes no saben
- ¶1410: como cumplir con esa expectativa?
- ¶1411: Robert: Si
- ¶1412: I: por qué creen que se genera esto, porque como me dicen que llegan al colegio, los presentan, y
- ¶1413: ya. Tampoco es tan detallado, ¿no?
- ¶1414: Robert: no
- ¶1415: Frank: Como mencionaba, no hay una introducción o una reunión donde a uno le expliquen todo, porque
- ¶1416: si bien tenemos los protocolos nosotros, que quedan en las carpetas, no nos explican como los
- ¶1417: protocolos del colegio, así como el reglamento, y...todo el poder que tenemos. Por ejemplo, yo no

- ¶418: sabía que tenía el poder de llamar a un apoderado. Entonces, o de poner anotaciones. Entonces, eso
- ¶419: deberían informarlo, muy explícitamente al inicio del proceso.
- ¶420: Josie: Hay una cosa, que a nosotros por ejemplo nos dicen que nosotras no podemos tocar el libro de
- ¶421: clases, nos dicen en la U, pero cuando vamos a la práctica, lo primero que te piden y preguntan es
- ¶422: que si, "ya tú te haces cargo, y escribes".
- ¶423: I: ¿Cuántos de ustedes trabajaron con el libro de clases?
- ¶424: Pamela: Yo
- ¶425: (Levantando la mano todos menos Josie)
- ¶426: Pamela: Yo era un cacho, porque pasaba lista y tenía que andar persiguiendo a cualquier profesor de
- ¶427: inglés, y pedirles que firmen, yo les dictaba los que faltaban, y quienes llegaron tarde. Entonces al
- ¶428: final andaba yo persiguiendo a los profes pa que porfa anotaran el objetivo de mi clase, y quienes
- ¶429: faltaron.
- ¶430: I: O sea, tú tenías que hacerlo, ¿pero ellos tenían que anotar en el libro?
- ¶431: Pamela: Claro. Porque yo varias veces estuve sola, entonces yo tenía que pasar lista y ver toda esa cosa, y
- ¶432: yo describir los objetivos, pero que algún profesor me vaya escribiendo.
- ¶433: Robert: También el hecho de que, no se, en general no nos decían "tú puedes manipular el libro".
- ¶434: Pero sí como que nos forzaban, entre comillas, a hacerlo cuando ellos no lo hacían. Entonces, era
- ¶435: como "no toques el libro, no hagas nada. Pero haz esto, porque yo tengo que hacer esto otro".
- ¶436: Pamela: Claro
- ¶437: Robert: Entonces...
- ¶438: I: ¿Quién creen que debería entregar esa información?
- ¶439: Frank: La coordinadora o la supervisora.
- ¶440: I: Ya, no el profesor guía
- ¶441: Frank: No, porque el profesor guía, por lo mismo, está tan ocupado encuentro yo, que no va a estar
- ¶442: pendiente de explicarnos todo. Pero quien si está a cargo de nosotros es el supervisor. Y...pero
- ¶443: también el supervisor no siempre explica lo oficial. Entonces, por eso debería ser desde la
- ¶444: coordinadora, una red formal, y después el supervisor.
- ¶445: Robert: Es que en parte, como decían antes también, como nos van a dejar, y es como "ya, ahora solitos
- ¶446: pueden caminar". Pero tampoco, nos dicen, "chicos pregunten esto, o hagan una lista", o ellos que
- ¶447: nos entreguen información acerca de qué podemos preguntar. O también, no creo que exista una
- ¶448: reunión previa entre el establecimiento y la universidad, que lleguen a un acuerdo de qué nos van a
- ¶449: decir o a enseñar, o a guiar.
- ¶450: I: Y ustedes igual se habrán dado cuenta que cada realidad escolar es diferente; ustedes me han
- ¶451: planteado diferentes realidades. Entonces cada uno tiene su forma, hasta el color del lápiz que hay
- ¶452: que usar en los libros. Y, no es mejor, no saberlo, estar en conocimiento de esas cosas. OK, dentro de
- ¶453: esa misma pregunta, ustedes tienen claro, ¿comprenden completamente los roles que tiene su
- ¶454: profesor supervisor y su profesor guía?
- ¶455: Frank: No
- ¶456: Robert: no
- ¶457: I: Les dicen como, "estos son los roles de X y Z". ¿Entonces, si ustedes tienen alguna duda saben a
- ¶458: quién tienen que acudir?
- ¶459: Robert: Generalmente nos guiaban al profesor supervisor, cuando teníamos problemas con algo. Internos,
- ¶460: no sé...Pero en general acudíamos a ellos, porque las personas que podían encontrar alguna
- ¶461: situación, o eran mediadores de la situación. Pero más allá...
- ¶462: I: ¿Y el resto, tuvo situaciones así?
- ¶463: Rose: Al principio antes de empezar el internado nos muestran un PPT, y ahí aparecía el rol del
- ¶464: profesor guía...
- ¶465: I: ¿les mandan ese ppt después?
- ¶466: Todos: no
- ¶467: Rose: Pero, aun así, no era suficiente, porque no contenía todo lo que nosotros necesitábamos saber.
- ¶468: Eh...y, en mi caso, el profesor guía y el profesor supervisor eran la misma persona. Entonces, bueno,
- ¶469: por una parte, nunca pude definir cuál era el rol de cada uno, porque era la misma persona, pero
- ¶470: también eso fue mucho mejor, porque todas las dudas iban a una sola persona. Entonces, nunca
- ¶471: tuve la confusión. Pero solamente porque en mi caso, se dio esa situación.

- ¶472: I: Bueno, en su caso es diferente (Josie y Rose). Y hay dos chicas más que están en la misma
 ¶473: situación de ustedes. ¿Pero qué opinan ustedes de esto? ¿Les ha tocado esa modalidad en algún
 ¶474: momento?
- ¶475: Pamela: A mí no me tocó eso, pero una de las chicas que faltó, a ella le tocó. Para ella fue super
 ¶476: positivo, y fue una muy buena experiencia. Eh...creo que eso es bueno, cuando uno está de acuerdo
 ¶477: con el profe, y se llevan bien, porque si fuera una persona con la que NO LOGRA CONGENIAR,
 serían
 ¶478: completamente negativo, que sea una persona que te evalúe las dos cosas. Pero en mi caso, me
 ¶479: costaba mucho coordinar lo que me pedía la profesora supervisora, con la manera en que le gustaba
 ¶480: a la profe guía, cómo implementar las clases. Entonces, coordinar algo para que las dos queden
 ¶481: contentas con la planificación era complicado po.
- ¶482: I: ¿Y ellas tenían contacto?
- ¶483: Pamela: Muy poco. De hecho, con la jefa de departamento parece que una vez hablaron, pero con
 la profe
 ¶484: guía no. No sé si se habrán llevado muy bien; no eran muy fan una de la otra, así que...por los
 ¶485: comentarios.
- ¶486: I: ¿Y el resto, ¿qué piensa?
- ¶487: Norah: Yo encuentro que hubiese sido bueno que mi profe supervisor hubiese sido mi profe guía
 ¶488: también. Porque mi profe guía se desligaba mucho de aconsejarme, o darme tips, porque decía que
 ¶489: mi supervisora lo iba a hacer. Pero hubiese sido bueno que EL me diera feedback, porque él estaba
 ¶490: viendo todas mis clases. Y...mi supervisora fue a una clase, y listo. Entonces, me dio feedback de
 ESA
- ¶491: CLASE, no de proceso, en general. Entonces, yo creo que hubiese sido bueno que hubiesen sido el
 ¶492: mismo.
- ¶493: I: ¿Cuántas veces los fueron a observar a sus clases los supervisores?
- ¶494: Frank: una
- ¶495: Robert: dos
- ¶496: Pamela: dos
- ¶497: Beatriz: tres.
- ¶498: I: Eran tres, pero la explosión social. Ya, dos sería como el promedio.
- ¶499: Robert: Pero también nos dijeron que podíamos grabar la última sesión y subirla para que sea
 ¶500: evaluada
- ¶501: Josie: Si, de hecho, la misma profe supervisora me dijo que le diera la opción de que las
 ¶502: grabaciones que nosotros ocupamos, tanto en orientación como en inglés, las podían usar para
 ¶503: evaluarlas.
- ¶504: I: Ya, OK. ¿Ustedes podrían relacionar alguno de los roles, ya sea de supervisora o profesor guía
 con
 ¶505: el concepto de mentoría? ¿Tienen claro lo que es el concepto de mentoría?
- ¶506: Frank: Si, o sea el mentor es como un sensei, es como un maestro, es como una persona que de
 ¶507: verdad va a enseñar. En cambio, yo encuentro que el profesor guía es menos que eso. Que
 ¶508: solamente te guía, pero no un 100%. O sea, te dice qué tienes que hacer, pero no tan a fondo.
- ¶509: I: ¿En el mentor, hay una relación jerárquica igual?
- ¶510: Frank: si, yo creo que si
- ¶511: Robert: pero creo que esa relación puede ser mejor. O sea, puede ser más cercana.
- ¶512: Frank: Si, por ejemplo, en mi caso mi profesor guía fue más bien un consultor, no fue tanto como
 ¶513: guía, porque también mi supervisora me dijo al final de este proceso, que yo debí ser auto-
 ¶514: gestor. O sea, estar ahí metido preguntando y sabiendo todo. Pero creo que eso deberían
 ¶515: decirlo explícitamente.
- ¶516: I: ¿EL profesor guía?
- ¶517: Frank: Si. Debería decirnos que preguntemos, en qué nos puede ayudar. Si no, uno se queda
 ¶518: perdido.
- ¶519: I: ¿Alguien más podría relacionar a su supervisora o profesor guía con el concepto de mentoría?
- ¶520: Rose: Si, pero igual yo creo que tiene que ver con que era la misma persona. Porque estaba
 ¶521: siempre po, entonces, tenía la posibilidad de observar todas mis clases. Entonces, el feedback era
 ¶522: mucho más fluido. Podía ser semanalmente, y si yo tenía una duda le consultaba. Y como ella
 ¶523: también había estado en la situación, eh...tenía mayor conocimiento y me podía dar una mejor
 ¶524: orientación.
- ¶525: I: ¿Y por qué la relacionas más a mentoría que a supervisión?
- ¶526: Rose: Porque creo que era un proceso más de compañía, que de, como directivo. O compartíamos
 ¶527: roles de repente, o funciones, era más colaborativo, en vez que me dijera, "haz esto, o eso lo hiciste
 ¶528: bien, eso lo hiciste mal".

- ¶1529: I: ¿Alguien más pudo relacionar las funciones de su profesor guía o supervisor como mentor? No. Ya.
- ¶1530: ¿En algún momento alguno de ustedes necesitó apoyo emocional más que metodológico, o propio
- ¶1531: de la cultura escolar?
- ¶1532: Josie: Yo creo que si, porque me tocó, tenía dos alumnos que eran sordos, los cual no pude
- ¶1533: manejar, y lo manejó mi profesor guía, y yo no tenía tampoco la comunicación para poder
- ¶1534: relacionarme con ellos. Entonces, me faltó manejo de sala para poder comunicarme con los chicos
- ¶1535: que tenían capacidades distintas, en especial con estos chicos.
- ¶1536: I: ¿Qué tipo de apoyo fue ese?
- ¶1537: Josie: Metodológico, por el tema de la (...)
- ¶1538: I: ¿Y buscaste apoyo?
- ¶1539: Josie: No, porque como dije anteriormente, el profe dijo que él se encargaba de estos chicos. Yo
- ¶1540: estaba enfocada netamente en los 21.
- ¶1541: I: ¿Ya, Frank?
- ¶1542: Frank: ¿Se refiere si lo necesitamos y se hizo algo?
- ¶1543: I: Solo si necesitaron
- ¶1544: Frank: Si, por el tema más que nada de relación entre profesores, y uno como estudiante en
- ¶1545: práctica. Porque, es necesario, y lo hablé con la profesora, y me recomendó ir al sicólogo, por
- ¶1546: ejemplo.
- ¶1547: I: ¿Pero, tú le dijiste que era por tu personalidad que querías ayuda?
- ¶1548: Frank: Si, como para mejorarlo, porque quizás me va a afectar cuando trabaje. Entonces, necesito
- ¶1549: un apoyo extra, como de enfocarme en eso, en lo personal, en las relaciones interpersonales.
- ¶1550: I: Como socializar más
- ¶1551: Frank: Claro, porque...yo creo que todos tenemos distintas formas de personalidad obviamente. Y la
- ¶1552: universidad no se enfoca en arreglar eso. No hay como una guía o algún ramo en donde a uno le
- ¶1553: ayuden a ser, a desarrollar esa parte del profesor. Sino que es más que nada contenido, contenido,
- ¶1554: contenido. Y...también ahí varía mucho en el ámbito del manejo de clase. Y, más que nada para eso.
- ¶1555: I: ¿Pero entonces la supervisora te dijo que buscaras ayuda en un psicólogo?
- ¶1556: Frank: Si
- ¶1557: I: ¿Buscaste apoyo?
- ¶1558: Frank: No, porque fue ahora último, entonces...
- ¶1559: I: ya, pero lo vas a considerar. Y con el profesor guía, en algún momento, te frustraste, ¿o alguno de
- ¶1560: ustedes se frustró y necesitaba apoyo emocional? Norah?
- ¶1561: Norah: Es que me pasó que no podía encontrar apoyo emocional en mi profesor guía, porque
- ¶1562: mostraba emociones (risas)Y cuando traté, o sea cuando traté, bueno, cuando lo hablé con la
- ¶1563: supervisora, ella fue como super, así como, "ya está bien, pero ahora siga". Pero uno, no tiene la
- ¶1564: misma personalidad que todos, uno como que está difícil. Y no es solo un día, sino que afecta la
- ¶1565: práctica gradualmente, entonces creo que necesité harto apoyo, y más que nada, no encontré en mi
- ¶1566: profesor, ni en mi supervisora pu, que aparte después necesité apoyo emocional por lo que me dijo
- ¶1567: ella (ríe)
- ¶1568: (risas), entonces, mi único apoyo al final eran mis compañeros de práctica, porque estaban pasando
- ¶1569: por lo mismo que yo.
- ¶1570: I: ¿Crees tú Norah que hubiese sido diferente tu proceso de internado, si hubieses podido tener un
- ¶1571: apoyo emocional?
- ¶1572: Norah: Si, es que igual como dicen mis compañeros, en la U no nos enseñan esa parte como de
- ¶1573: conocerse a uno mismo primero, sus emociones, para poder también desarrollarse bien como profe
- ¶1574: con los estudiantes, porque igual es complicado pararse al frente de 40 cabros, que son todos
- ¶1575: desordenados, y mantenerse bien, mantenerse firme, y no querer llorar, o no se, salir corriendo.
- ¶1576: Entonces, si considero que falta eso en la carrera en general. Y también los profes que nos forman,
- ¶1577: son todos igual, así como, teoría, teoría, teoría, nada de práctica.
- ¶1578: I: ¿Robert?
- ¶1579: Robert: Si, como caballo de carrera, como que no miran pal lao, no tienen empatía, algo así.
- ¶1580: Entonces, durante el semestre los tres tuvimos problemas diferentes.
- ¶1581: I: ¿Ustedes estaban en el mismo centro de práctica?
- ¶1582: Robert: En el mismo. Y...necesitamos en algún momento como esa ayuda emocional, también para
- ¶1583: sentirnos entendidos, y que, poder encontrar como una solución, o algo que nos ayudara a sentirnos
- ¶1584: mejor para seguir yendo con el positivismo que empezamos, o con las ganas que empezamos en el
- ¶1585: semestre. Por mi profesor guía, o supervisor, se me confunden. Como que sentí casi como lo que

¶1586: dijo la Niko; como "ya fue, y sigue". Como que hay una barrera de la persona de mostrarse más
 ¶1587: cercano, que imposibilita que uno también crea que puede tener un apoyo, aparte de lo ligado a lo
 ¶1588: académico.
 ¶1589: Pamela: De nuevo decir lo mismo, que si no fuera por mis compañeros de práctica, hubiese sentido
 ¶1590: que estaba muy muy sola, porque en ese momento me sentí, que me responsabilizaron en el liceo
 ¶1591: de muchas cosas, y...me sentía sola, y mi profe de acá estaba con licencia, y si no fuera por mis
 ¶1592: compañeros, como que no se, me hubiese frustrado mucho, hubiese sentido que quizás literamente
 ¶1593: no era capaz de hacer una prueba bien hecha. ¡Y algo tan simple como eso! Y me pasó que toda
 esa
 ¶1594: semana, los siguientes días, por supuesto, era como un rechazo al colegio, que ya hasta a la señora
 ¶1595: de las fotocopias yo no la quería mirar, y todos me caían mal. Y tener que llegar a la sala de profes,
 ¶1596: saludarlos a todos "hola, ¿como está?", como que siempre uno tiene que tener esa actitud, que
 ¶1597: tampoco yo encuentro que está bien. Debería ser más real, pero como que al momento, no digo que
 ¶1598: yo sufrí toda la práctica (risas), pero como que uno tiene que estar como muy...les encanta la
 ¶1599: palabra proactivo, y muy servicial, incluso como que "yo le llevo los libros", y eso nos dijeron
 ACÁ EN
 ¶1600: LA U ME ACUERDO, Y ALLÁ, las dos cosas, "Si ven a un profesor, aunque sea de historia, muy
 ¶1601: cargado, ustedes van, corren, le llevan el data lo que sea". Entonces nos repitieron eso acá y allá, y
 a
 ¶1602: mi se me quedó grabado. Pero...si, yo creo que en un momento hubiese necesitado apoyo
 ¶1603: emocional, y después acá cuando hablé con mi supervisora, ella me entendió un poco más. Con
 ella
 ¶1604: tenemos un poco más de cercanía. Pero creo que en el liceo nos dieron como cero apoyo. Como
 que
 ¶1605: no, no está eso de ponerse en el lugar del otro.
 ¶1606: Robert: Con esa misma idea que decía la Pamela, al final uno termina siendo casi un burro de
 carga,
 ¶1607: pa las cosas que no quiere hacer el profesor con el que estamos ligados. Es como, ya, "llévame el
 ¶1608: libro, llévame esto, hace esto, esto otro", casi como...y hasta el último segundo, casi, "anda a
 limpiar
 ¶1609: la sala", ¿cómo nos dijeron ayer? Como todo lo que no quiere hacer el profesor, es como "hazlo
 tú".
 ¶1610: Entonces, tampoco estamos para eso po, siento yo, o sea, nosotros siempre ayudamos en todo lo
 ¶1611: que nos pedían, pero era porque estábamos ahí, no porque...no se es raro.
 ¶1612: I: ¿Algo más que agregar? ¿No? Ya. ¿Tuvieron apoyo metodológico relacionado a diferentes
 ¶1613: variables para llevar a cabo una clase?
 ¶1614: Robert: ¿En general?
 ¶1615: I: Si, en general. Por ejemplo, esa actividad te recomiendo que no la hagas en ese curso por X o Z,
 ¶1616: cámbiala a esto otro.
 ¶1617: J: Si, en mi caso si pasó que, en especial la actividad de, como empiezo la clase, yo quería
 empezarla
 ¶1618: con una zumba, y el profesor me dijo que no era recomendable, porque ya había hecho una
 ¶1619: actividad (...), y lo hicieron pero lo hicieron desganados, entonces como que no era, la actividad no
 ¶1620: era recomendable, ya que ellos no hubiesen querido hacerlo, por vergüenza, no sé qué chupaya.
 ¶1621: Aparte el profe me dijo que no todas las personas eran coordinadas, y que iba a ser difícil para los
 ¶1622: estudiantes de un video seguir las actividades, y que yo tendría que ser la coordinadora de eso.
 ¶1623: Porque yo en mis tiempos libres bailo. También me dijeron en relación a las guías que las hiciera
 ¶1624: mucho más simples, porque mis alumnos eran más concretos. Entonces, si yo tuve apoyo de ambos
 ¶1625: profes en ese sentido.
 ¶1626: I: ¿Crees tú que te ayudó?
 ¶1627: J: Si
 ¶1628: I: ¿Alguien más tuvo una experiencia similar?
 ¶1629: Roc: Yo. Muchas veces, en temas de no sé, para trabajar comprensión lectora, yo ponía preguntas
 ¶1630: abiertas. La profesora me decía "es mejor que les des selección múltiple, que, de repente, revisa el
 ¶1631: objetivo, en temas de evaluación también, como que habían veces que yo no consideraba todos los
 ¶1632: aspectos involucrados en lo que iba a evaluar, entonces, ahí me orientaba en ese sentido.
 ¶1633: I: ¿Alguien más?
 ¶1634: Frank: EN mi caso fue solo como de forma digital, en drive, más que nada las lessons.
 ¶1635: Pamela: ¿tu supervisora?
 ¶1636: Frank: Si, Porque ya habiendo hecho unas cuatro lessons, ya como que en todo ese tramo
 ¶1637: perfeccioné el formato del asunto, y todos los pasos. Y después ya era solamente copiar pegar y
 ¶1638: cambiar la actividad. Y más allá de eso, no recibí ningún tipo, como de guía. Quizás una vez me

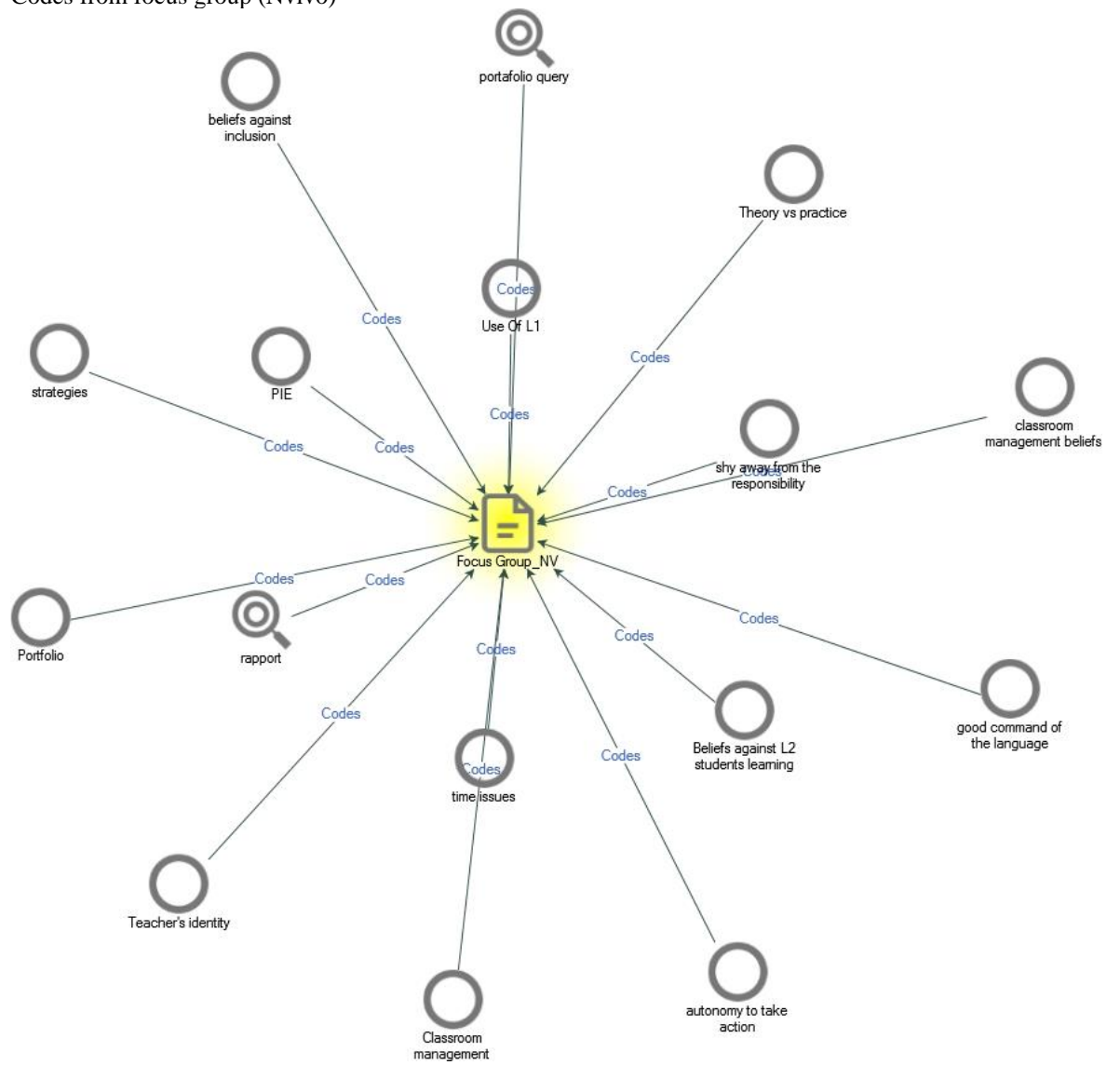
- ¶639: nombraron que aún no estaba haciendo las clases para mis estudiantes, que no estaba considerando
 ¶640: sus estilos de aprendizaje. Eh...pero no me dieron una forma de cómo hacerlo, me lo señalaron
 ¶641: nomas.
 ¶642: Pamela: A mi tanto mi profe guía como mi supervisora me dieron consejo acerca de la metodología,
 ¶643: como implementar la didáctica dentro de la sala, aquí mi profe supervisora, Y la profe guía, como
 ¶644: más que nada el manejo de grupo, y como en tres ocasiones al final de la práctica me dijo lo que le
 ¶645: gustó, y lo que debería mejorar. Y como sugerencias casi siempre enfocadas como al manejo de
 ¶646: grupo.
 ¶647: I: ¿Alguien más?
 ¶648: Robert: Si, en general, hartos comentarios de cómo abordar mejor las situaciones, los objetivos, el
 ¶649: tema de las actividades. Realmente, por ese lado, si funcionó el tema del supervisor.
 ¶650: Norah: Yo si busqué ayuda en todas las personas posibles, obviamente le pedí ayuda a mi
 ¶651: supervisora y cuando no funcionaba lo que ella decía en actividades, o manejo de grupo. Eh, le
 ¶652: preguntaba por las guías, le pregunté a la educadora diferencial, porque tenía alumnos PIE, pa que
 ¶653: me aconsejara. Me dijo por ejemplo que hiciera trabajos de grupo, mover o agregar imágenes.
 ¶654: Eh...con usted igual. Igual le pedí a usted. Entonces, como que en todas partes iba buscando ayuda.
 ¶655: I: Ya. Chicos, ustedes saben, ¿comprenden lo que se espera de ustedes de acuerdo a los estándares
 ¶656: de desempeño inicial docente? O más o menos, o alguno de éstos se trabaja mejor que otra...
 ¶657: Pamela: O sea, se espera que las cumplamos todas.
 ¶658: I: ¿Pero las comprenden?
 ¶659: Pamela: Si, es que yo creo que son tantos años trabajando con las facetas, AÚN ASÍ, yo no me las sé de
 ¶660: memoria, como se espera que uno se las aprenda. Pero...pero claro, al leer, uno siempre tiene que ir
 ¶661: leyendo punto por punto. Eh...comprendo la mayoría, quizás hay algunas que podrían estar más
 ¶662: explicadas o ejemplificadas. O creo que también ese...manual, bueno no me lo he leído entero, no
 ¶663: me lo he leído entero, pero creo que, que dice poco de cómo poder lograr el objetivo, como que de
 ¶664: hecho, una vez lo busqué para sacar teoría de ahí, y no lo encontré. Creo que es un libro de reglas y
 ¶665: sugerencias, pero no explica bien cómo lograr todo.
 ¶666: I: ¿Alguien más? OK. Me pueden contar acerca de dos temas: group management, y time
 ¶667: management, en sus clases.
 ¶668: (risas)
 ¶669: I: ¿Qué opinan acerca de esos dos temas?
 ¶670: Pamela: Creo que los dos temas son muy subjetivos, y que están sujetos a muchos factores
 ¶671: externos,
 ¶672: entonces, deberían ser facetas que sean más flexibles al momento de evaluarlas. Porque eso del
 ¶673: group management depende mucho de que, si fue antes o después de almuerzo, si está lloviendo, o
 ¶674: hay sol. Y con lo del tiempo, también, porque el group management como que influye
 ¶675: directamente
 ¶676: hacia el manejo del tiempo. Y a mí me pasó varias veces que no alcancé a hacer todo. Y tenía que
 ¶677: al
 ¶678: final acotarlo, a " ¿qué aprendieron? Les gustó la clase", "¿Sí?", ya chao. Y muchas veces, ni
 ¶679: siquiera
 ¶680: eso. Entonces...creo que es algo que uno siempre tiene que ir trabajando, y de hecho, al final me
 ¶681: resultó mejor que en un principio. Lo pude mejorar un poco, pero creo que es algo muy flexible y
 ¶682: subjetivo.
 ¶683: I: ¿Ya, alguien más?
 ¶684: Rose: Agregar más que nada, que creo que también tiene que ver con el conocimiento que uno
 ¶685: tiene del grupo. A medida que uno los va conociendo, o saber qué rol cumple cada uno de ellos en
 ¶686: el
 ¶687: curso, que eso también sirve como para, cambiarlos de repente, qué cosas les gustan, qué cosas no
 ¶688: les gustan, qué tipo de actividades les gustan más. Eso también nos permite tener un mejor manejar
 ¶689: del grupo. Por lo menos a mí las primeras clases, me costó mucho, porque estaba como, bueno
 ¶690: también tenía mis expectativas, cada uno es diferente. Yo tenía expectativas mucho más altas de lo
 ¶691: que pude lograr. Eh, y ellos no me conocían en absoluto; no sabían lo que yo esperaba de ellos
 ¶692: tampoco. Entonces, claro, yo creo que tiene que ver harto con como uno se va conociendo, o
 ¶693: afiatando.
 ¶694: I: ¿Alguién más?
 ¶695: Frank: Claro, en primer lugar, tiene que ver, para tener un buen time management, hay que tener
 ¶696: un buen classroom management. Y para tener un buen classroom management, hay que generar un
 ¶697: buen rapport. O sea, primero hay que, como decía Rose, hay que conocer a los chicos, y conocerse
 ¶698: a

- ¶693: uno mismo. Y...a partir de ahí uno va generando la relación estudiante profesor, y va buscando
- ¶694: estrategias y formas para poder superar los problemas de la clase, que ocurren clase a clase, y que
- ¶695: son principalmente en mi caso, habían problemas de disciplina que vienen desde la casa. Entonces,
- ¶696: para poder mejorar una cosa, hay que primero lograr otra. O sea, la anterior. Entonces, uno debe
- ¶697: primero buscar estrategias, y conocer a los chicos, hablarles, preguntarles sobre sus objetivos en la
- ¶698: vida. Eso a mí me ayudó bastante, y así después uno puede tener un buen manejo de la clase, y
- ¶699: lograr el objetivo, y llegar hasta el output. Porque yo también al principio, no lograba hacer el
- ¶700: output, y...mi clase fracasaba.
- ¶701: I: ¿porque no hacías el output?
- ¶702: Frank: claro. Porque no lograba que ellos produjeran algo.
- ¶703: I: Ya, pero después eso, ¿fue mejorando?
- ¶704: Frank: Sí. Y bueno, classroom management, uno tiene que también ser estricto en ese sentido. O
- ¶705: también el tema de los tiempos, porque yo tampoco consideraba el tiempo durante la clase.
- ¶706: Entonces después ya, era como, "a esta hora, tengo que hacer esto, y si no vamos ahí, lo paramos".
- ¶707: Entonces, así lo fui corrigiendo.
- ¶708: I: ¿Alguien más? ¿Eh...cuéntenme acerca de sus experiencias de trabajar con estudiantes PIE?
- ¶709: Josie: En mi caso, soy una persona muy impaciente, y...me costó mucho, bueno, trabajar con
- ¶710: alumnos que, en buen chileno, eran duros de entender. Entonces, fue bastante difícil, porque
- ¶711: necesitaba mucho, mucho tiempo con ellos para que lograran entender, pero también...era como, al
- ¶712: final trataba de asignarles tutores, que sabía que entendían y me podían ayudar para que ellos
- ¶713: pudieran entender, y yo también, poder continuar con la clase.
- ¶714: I: ¿Tus alumnos PIE tenían dificultades cognitivas?
- ¶715: Josie: Sí. Había que explicarles como 5 o 6 veces, y ahí recién entendían lo que estábamos
- ¶716: haciendo, entonces, al final como dije, usé tutores. Y así lo pude resolver.
- ¶717: I: ¿Alguien más? Yo sé que varios e ustedes tenían estudiantes PIE
- ¶718: Frank: Yo tenía una chica con autismo, y, yo creo no fue un desafío, porque no la consideré. No
- ¶719: consideré mis clases, no planifiqué pensando en ella, porque...la niña hacía lo que quería. Ni
- siquiera
- ¶720: tampoco que hiciera desorden, sino que ella pintaba, hacía otras cosas.
- ¶721: I: ¿pero había alguien acompañando en la sala?
- ¶722: Frank: si había alguien apoyándome en sala, pero no siempre. Pero, casi siempre la niña se enojaba
- ¶723: y salía llorando, y daba un portazo. Y salía el profesor, el que la ayudaba siguiéndola. Entonces, no
- ¶724: sabía cómo yo...y yo le decía al profe ayudante, que no sabía yo como ENSEÑARLE INGLÉS a la
- ¶725: niña, si hablaba español, o sea HABLABA, y hablaba muy bien, pero muy lento. Pero no...no
- ¶726: encontraba la forma de, o no encontraba que, cualquier forma que utilizara podía haber sido
- ¶727: deficiente. No...no logré conectar.
- ¶728: I: Sientes tú que no tenías las ...
- ¶729: Frank: No tenía las competencias para poder haberle enseñado, porque, aunque ella esté en
- ¶730: primero medio junto con sus compañeros, la niña es de prekinder, de kinder. Entonces, yo creo que
- de
- ¶731: ninguna forma podría haber enseñado inglés, en el tiempo que estuve. Y...para haberle enseñado,
- ¶732: tendría que haber tenido mucho tiempo con ella, los dos. Y no en la sala. Entonces, no creo que sea
- ¶733: productivo que ella esté ahí.
- ¶734: I: ¿Alguien más?
- ¶735: Pamela: Yo no tenía PIE.
- ¶736: Rose: Sí, o sea, para mí fue, fue difícil trabajar con los PIE, porque a nosotros acá en la universidad
- ¶737: tenemos cero formación de NES, y en adaptación curricular, entonces, era difícil y tenía que ver
- más
- ¶738: con lo que...no sé, yo podía o era capaz de lograr hacer o averiguar, eh...pedir orientación al equipo
- ¶739: de diferencial del colegio. Y ellos me daban como tips, como "puedes hacer esto, esto, o esto",
- como
- ¶740: las adaptaciones más frecuentes, y "en tu curso tienes este tipo de repertorio", y con eso logré hacer
- ¶741: adaptaciones en las guías de trabajo, como en los ejercicios, con instrucciones abajito en español.
- ¶742: Para ellos siempre las guías eran muy concretas, nunca preguntas abiertas, matching, cosas más
- ¶743: rápidas, que no tuvieran que escribir mucho, porque se desconcentraban fácilmente. De cierta
- ¶744: forma yo logré realizar un trabajo con ellos, y adaptado para ellos, pero fue solamente porque fui a
- ¶745: preguntar y me dieron una respuesta. Tampoco es algo que estaba incorporado en forma natural en
- ¶746: el proceso que nosotros realizamos.
- ¶747: I: Ya, gracias. Norah?
- ¶748: Norah: Sí, yo tenía 7 estudiantes PIE, entre permanentes y transitorias. Para mí fue, igual cuando
- ¶749: llegué me dijeron que tenían hartos...Fue complicado porque aquí en la universidad no, no se

- ¶750: consideran mucho las necesidades educativas especiales (...). Entonces lo que hice igual fue hablar
- ¶751: con la educadora, ver los tips que me dio, y después ya los que más me funcionaron, yo tenía en
- ¶752: mente que no eran solo para algunos, sino que eran todos PIE, entonces. O sea, tratarlos a todos por
- ¶753: igual, y que a todos se les hiciera fácil la, lo que estaba tratando de enseñar. Eh, me sirvió harto igual
- ¶754: hacerlos trabajar en parejas, porque así si uno no entendía, el otro igual explicaba. O, me llamaban
- ¶755: los dos, y le explicaba a los dos al mismo tiempo. Monitoreaba mucho, como que, cuando uno
- ¶756: empieza a conocer el curso, se da cuenta los que son más buenos en inglés, que no necesitan tanto
- ¶757: tanto apoyo, entonces, a esos como que uno los deja solo, y les da más apoyo a los que si necesitan,
- ¶758: aunque sea (...). Entonces pa mi era como ya, son todos PIE (...)
- ¶759: I: ¿Alguien más, algo más que agregar? Cuéntenme, ¿alguno de ustedes utilizó otro recurso aparte
- ¶760: de la guía o ppt?
- ¶761: Frank: no
- ¶762: Pamela: el libro
- ¶763: I: el libro, ya...
- ¶764: Robert: videos
- ¶765: Rose: Yo preparé una clase con Kahoot, pero no funcionó porque, eh...no tenían Internet, entonces,
- ¶766: tuve que usar (...)
- ¶767: Pamela: Una vez les hice un pequeño quiz en el formulario de Google, y que hicieran una actividad en
- ¶768: lyricstraining.
- ¶769: I: Ya.
- ¶770: I: Ustedes consideran que la reflexión es importante para modificar sus clases, o mejorar ciertos
- ¶771: aspectos de su práctica.
- ¶772: Pamela: Yo creo que es muy importante, pero creo que la reflexión que hice yo, más que nada al
- ¶773: término de una clase, una reflexión, pero MENTAL, como, "ya voy a considerar esto, para la próxima
- ¶774: implementación no hacerlo, o hacer más de esto otro, porque les gustó", pero, a lo mejor no se ve
- ¶775: muy reflejada en la reflexión que entregué acá en el portafolio, que donde más que nada uno se fija
- ¶776: en tener los autores que ellos requieren. Y uno sabe también, quizás lo que el profe supervisor
- ¶777: quiere leer. Entonces, igual me pasa mucho que al final me voy por las ramas. Entonces, como que
- ¶778: de repente pierdo el foco de lo que yo quería reflexionar, y...quizás me iba del tema relacionado a la
- ¶779: faceta en particular. Entonces, creo que la reflexión si es muy importante, pero no sé si la reflexión
- ¶780: como la hacemos acá es la manera.
- ¶781: Frank: Si, yo creo que es muy importante, como decía Pamela, la reflexión es un proceso que a uno le
- ¶782: nace, no es algo que a uno le impongan, y que lo obliguen a hacer por una nota, sino que es algo que
- ¶783: uno va haciendo a medida que uno HACE LAS COSAS, y...no creo que sea necesaria una teoría como
- ¶784: para mejorar ciertos aspectos, sino que quizás la misma comprensión de uno mismo, o también
- ¶785: comentarios de otros profesores, pueden ayudarnos a hacer eso, a mejorar. Y no tanto, como algo
- ¶786: que venga desde arriba, que nos diga "esto es así, y así", sino que uno en el proceso va dándose
- ¶787: cuenta de las cosas. Y eso, no, no es necesario que haya alguien que nos diga "reflexiona". Sino que
- ¶788: uno mismo lo va haciendo.
- ¶789: Rose: O sea, yo estoy de acuerdo, pero yo creo que es super importante el proceso de reflexión,
- ¶790: porque de repente, en la clase, estamos concentrados en otras cosas. Entonces, no nos vamos
- ¶791: dando cuenta a menos que hagamos este proceso de reflexión, donde nos obligamos a recordar, o a
- ¶792: identificar fortalezas, debilidades, como que yo creo que, a través de la reflexión, no me refiero al
- ¶793: formato de reflexión, sino como proceso de reflexionar, es cuando nosotros podemos darnos cuenta
- ¶794: de qué cosas mejorar, y buscar cómo mejorarlo. Porque también esa es la finalidad po, no quedarse
- ¶795: ahí, sino que ver, eh...qué otras alternativas hay, cómo se puede hacer.
- ¶796: Robert: Es super importante, porque también es una manera de conocerse y reinventarse, en el
- ¶797: sentido de siempre buscar soluciones o estrategias de los problemas que uno tiene durante las
- ¶798: clases.
- ¶799: I: ¿Qué cosas cambiarían o agregarían a este internado para que este proceso fuese más provechoso
- ¶800: para ustedes?
- ¶801: Frank: yo creo que más que nada una preparación que venga de la carrera, durante la carrera. Por

- ¶1802: ejemplo, el tema de las NES. Eso es algo que nosotros debemos mejorar si o si, o ni siquiera mejorar,
- ¶1803: sino aprender, porque son cosas que no sabemos. Y...uno puede decir que uno mismo tiene que ser
- ¶1804: autodidacta, pero...yo creo que no todos somos así. Y más allá de eso, la carrera debería tenerlo
- ¶1805: incluido. Eso sería una cosa. Y lo otro sería una inserción temprana a lo que es el internado, o lo que
- ¶1806: es el contexto escolar. Como lo mencionábamos ahora, el tema administrativo, de relaciones
- ¶1807: interpersonales con los profesores, cómo manejar el libro, cosas así, como hechos más concretos.
- ¶1808: Rose: Estoy de acuerdo. Quiero agregar el tema de las supervisiones, yo creo que deberían estar
- ¶1809: mejor informados, o más alineados los supervisores, y manejar la misma información, o tener las
- ¶1810: mismas pautas de evaluación. Si bien las tienen, pero no las interpretan de la misma forma. O, las
- ¶1811: reflexiones, nosotros las entregamos, dependiendo del supervisor, es el material que entregamos.
- ¶1812: Eh, y...el tema de tener desde un principio toda la información clara. O sea, yo encuentro que no
- ¶1813: puede ser que a mitad de semestre nos hayan cambiado el formato de las planificaciones. Y, sin
- ¶1814: explicarnos. Como que esas cosas se deberían evaluar de antes, y si lo querían cambiar, bueno
- ¶1815: cámbienlo en el próximo proceso, pero no a mitad. Entonces, esas cosas, yo creo que tienen que
- ¶1816: estar claras, y quizás se tienen que reevaluar, para que nosotros también teníamos más claridad de
- ¶1817: qué hacer, cuándo hacer, cómo hacer.
- ¶1818: I: ¿Alguien más quiere agregar algo?
- ¶1819: J: Eso del tema de la comunicación con los supervisores, porque no es posible que nosotros estemos
- ¶1820: más informados que ellos. Y lo otro, nosotras con la Rose, el tema que nos afectó fue el tema de
- ¶1821: planificación. Pero además fue el tema de no conocer lo que requería (...), porque nos encontramos
- ¶1822: con cosas en el camino que ni idea, por ejemplo, quise grabar una clase, me dijeron que no, que no
- ¶1823: se podía, que teníamos que pedir un permiso. Entonces, la coordinadora me dijo que nunca habían
- ¶1824: tenido ese tipo de problemas en el colegio. Entonces, quedé como dando bote. Y son cosas que
- ¶1825: deberíamos saber, como dijo Frank, el tema también de las NES, pero además el tema de
- ¶1826: conocernos a nosotros mismos, y dar un poco más de hincapié en el proceso emocional, que vamos
- ¶1827: a vivir, porque todos lo hemos vivido de forma distinta, pero el proceso el mismo. Entonces, debería
- ¶1828: haber más comunicación con los profes de colegio, pero también más consideración a nosotros.
- ¶1829: I: ¿alguien más?
- ¶1830: Pamela: Yo creo que, como nos preguntó delante, si sabíamos bien el rol del supervisor y guía, creo
- ¶1831: que también deberían plantear al profesor guía cuál es su rol también dentro de nuestro proceso,
- ¶1832: porque muchas veces ellos daban cosas por sentadas, porque después de cinco años, "debería saber
- ¶1833: esto". Eh, pero yo no sé si a ellos les pagan por ser profes guías o no, pero a veces la actitud que
- ¶1834: ellos toman no es la mejor para enseñar, porque al mismo tiempo, ellos igual son profesores que nos
- ¶1835: están enseñando a nosotros, y entonces que haya como un reforzamiento en ese sentido, de lo que
- ¶1836: debe hacer un profesor guía. Por ejemplo, que un profesor guía no se le puede olvidar entregar el
- ¶1837: formato de pruebas, o no se le puede olvidar decir que hay un estudiante que no es PIE, pero que si
- ¶1838: necesita modificaciones, porque al final si uno no lo hace, PORQUE DEBERÍA SABERLO, recae todo en
- ¶1839: el practicante.
- ¶1840: I: Gracias Pamela. ¿Alguien más desea agregar algo más? Ya chiquillos, muchas, muchas gracias
- ¶1841: nuevamente por su tiempo. Y eso.
- ¶1842: -----FIN DEL FOCUS GROUP-----

Codes from focus group (Nvivo)



Focus group coding sample (Nvivo)

91. universidad tiene todas las facilidades para desarrollar su clase. A diferencia de un curso de
 92. enseñanza media, por ejemplo, donde los chicos no están con una disposición de poner atención en
 93. una clase a la primera. En cambio, acá los mismos compañeros quieren que a uno le vaya bien.
 94. Entonces eso hace el espacio propicio para que el profesor sienta que puede hacerlo bien, pero en la
 95. realidad eso no se refleja.
 96. I: OK, respecto a lo que [redacted] dice, ¿que los chicos en la media no van con la motivación? con la
 97. disposición de aprender, ¿ustedes están de acuerdo o en desacuerdo?
 98. Jocelyn: Totalmente de acuerdo. O sea, lo hemos visto, y yo creo que la mayoría de mis compañeros
 99. también lo vieron. Ellos prácticamente no quieren aprender, no quieren hacer absolutamente nada.
 100. Y aparte, nos exigen en la U, que es medio descabellado que nosotros, o que ellos, tanto nosotros
 101. como ellos que hablemos 100% inglés toda la clase. Y la realidad es que los chicos, como dijo la
 102. [redacted] con suerte saben decir Hola. Entonces, es súper difícil 100% en inglés sin traducirlo, o que
 103. ellos entiendan algo, cosa que no pasa.
 104. I: ¿Entonces, ustedes creen que su contexto universitario es muy ideal?
 105. Todos: sí exacto
 106. I: ¿Y la realidad?
 107. [redacted] Es como expectativa, realidad. No en HD.
 108. (risas)
 109. [redacted] O sea, es que yo creo que es muy incongruente el contexto de la universidad con la realidad.
 110. puede que los centros de práctica donde nosotros nos insertamos también son muy distantes del
 111. contexto ideal que es el que propicia la universidad no. Puede que haya otros colegios también que
 112. sean más cercanos. Pero, nosotros en este proceso no tuvimos esa, esa otra realidad.
 113. I: ¿Ya, [redacted]
 114. [redacted] Que, iba a decir que, en didáctica y práctica, siempre se rigen por los mismos libros que son
 115. un tanto antiguos en teoría, entonces si los profesores quieren que nosotros seamos profesores de **excelencia para**
 116. **cambiar la realidad, deberían enfocarse en los que enseñan CON LA REALIDAD DE**
 117. **NOSOTROS.** Por ejemplo, enseñarnos a cómo usar el libro de clases, porque eso, nosotros llegamos,
 118. **y lo... Me ha pasado que el profesor como que entiende que yo va se hacerlo, por algo he estado**
 119. **cinco años en la universidad. Pero en verdad era primera vez que yo veía un libro de clases. No sabía**
 120. **ni dónde escribir la firma, nada.**
 121. I: ¿Sí [redacted]
 122. [redacted] Si, con respecto a lo del contexto, **hav... el [redacted] lio algo de los microteachings, que son**
 123. **como muy lejanos a la realidad. Y los mismos ejemplos que nos muestran en clases son alejados.**
 124. Porque yo me acuerdo de haber visto **MÁS DE UNA VEZ** un video de unos filipinos, que eran **unas**
 125. **clases como de 12 estudiantes, y como que están muy, muy dispuestos a aprender y toda la**
 126. **cuestión. Y nos dicen, "ya, así se hacen las clases", y uno los ve poniendo atención a la clase, y**
 127. **contestando en inglés. Y, después llegamos nosotros al liceo, y es totalmente diferente. Entonces**
 128. **creo que podrían hacer cambios tan mínimos como ese video, por ejemplo, mostrarnos en**
 129. **remplazo un video de un liceo chileno.**
 130. I: ¿Y les han mostrado algún video así?
 131. [redacted] Jamás
 132. I: [redacted]
 133. [redacted] Eso mismo, que las clases, o la carrera debería ser más contextualizada al contexto de Chile
 134. porque se basa en teorías que son creadas en otros países, y donde el inglés es mucho más
 135. importante que acá. Entonces, acá se debería comenzar con la base de que acá no se sabe nada de
 136. inglés. O considerar las estadísticas, no sé, donde el nivel de inglés que tienen los chicos en
 137. enseñanza media, y a partir de eso, crear un curriculum contextualizado.
 138. I: Ah, entonces aquí hay un problema de curriculum? O sea, esto viene de algo más arriba que la
 139. misma carrera...
 140. [redacted] De hecho, deberían tomar en consideración que la Araucanía es la región con el SIMCE más
 141. bajo de inglés. Entonces, cómo quieren que nosotros tratemos de cambiar eso. Si necesitan una
 142. base, y nosotros no podemos llegar diciendo, "ya, hoy día vamos a hablar sobre los phrasal verbs",
 143. ¿qué van a saber ellos qué es un phrasal verb?
 144. [redacted] en un semestre más encima.
 145. [redacted] en un semestre, con tres horas a la semana en algunos casos. Entonces, los profesores de la
 146. universidad primero deberían tomar en consideración ESO, y ahí ver qué se puede hacer.
 147. Obviamente, en los colegios particulares no va a pasar lo mismo, pero aquí nadie va a particulares.
 148. Todos estamos en particulares subvencionados o municipales.
 149. I: Claro, ¿y ustedes en qué tipo de establecimiento quieren trabajar?
 150. B: particular subvencionado, o municipal, o lo que venga.
 151. I: ¿Y cuándo me dicen que los libros, o la teoría es antigua, de quienes estamos hablando? ¿De qué
 152. años estamos hablando?
 153. [redacted] Hymes
 154. [redacted] Ur
 155. B: Igual, vemos del 96 de la Pennv Ur.
 156. [redacted] Y lo más incoherente puede ser es que cuando nosotros tenemos que buscar teoría, nos
 157. dicen, no más allá del 2010.
 158. (risas)

CODE STRIPES

Coding Density

- PIE
- Use Of L1
- Portfolio
- autonomy to take action
- strategies
- shy away from the responsibility
- Theory vs practice
- Teacher's identity
- Classroom management
- Classroom management beliefs
- time issues
- Beliefs against L2 students learning
- Beliefs against inclusion
- good command of the language

Appendix E Coding

List of codes identified in NVivo analysis.

Codes

Name	Files	References	Created on
○ Cultural artifacts and activities	0	0	07/01/2021 12:48
○ Portfolio	11	12	20/12/2020 22:07
○ Use of L1 as mediator of LTTA	16	25	21/12/2020 18:10
○ Use of teaching strategies learnt at university	4	4	21/12/2020 18:48
○ School as artifact	5	6	06/01/2021 15:20
○ Resources	17	28	06/01/2021 16:04
○ The university	1	1	08/01/2021 15:05
○ Rapport	5	7	08/01/2021 15:06
○ Microteaching	2	2	11/01/2021 08:08
○ university programme	1	2	16/02/2021 18:00
○ use of phones	1	1	02/03/2021 20:43
○ internado issues	2	2	12/03/2021 15:11
○ assessment	1	2	12/03/2021 15:13
○ record classbook	1	1	12/03/2021 15:36
○ Cultural concepts	0	0	07/01/2021 12:38
○ beliefs	5	6	21/12/2020 19:13
○ CEFR	3	5	21/12/2020 17:51
○ CLT	5	6	11/01/2021 09:04
○ Contextual elements	0	0	08/01/2021 15:08
○ Convivencia	10	21	11/01/2021 07:52
○ dumbing down	1	2	28/01/2021 17:13
○ Good teacher concept	18	18	07/01/2021 12:46
○ Grammar & vocabulary	3	4	11/01/2021 16:28
○ Novice teacher issues	1	1	16/02/2021 17:39
○ Past experiences and trajectories	3	3	07/01/2021 12:47
○ PIE	39	49	30/10/2020 08:54
○ Reflection	12	16	04/12/2020 08:34
○ Rules in the classroom	2	2	21/12/2020 18:12
○ social uprise	5	6	08/01/2021 14:54
○ Teacher's identity	10	16	23/12/2020 19:43
○ TKB	1	2	22/01/2021 17:23
○ Vulnerability	1	1	10/03/2021 17:18
○ Social relations	1	1	07/01/2021 12:37
○ apprenticeship	6	10	07/01/2021 12:00
○ PG and supervisor relation	4	4	12/02/2021 15:14
○ PST and Pguia relationship	8	24	11/01/2021 08:43
○ PSTs and school staff relationship	3	4	11/01/2021 08:46
○ PSTs relation with other PSTs	2	3	07/01/2021 12:37
○ PSTs relationship with learners	3	4	07/01/2021 12:37
○ supervision	6	7	20/12/2020 22:19

Appendix F ERGO approved

Subject: Approved by Faculty Ethics Committee - ERGO II 47407
Date: Thursday, 25 April 2019 at 08:02:19 British Summer Time
From: ERGOII
To: Riffo Salgado P.A.

Approved by Faculty Ethics Committee - ERGO II 47407



ERGO II – Ethics and Research Governance Online <https://www.ergo2.soton.ac.uk>

Submission ID: 47407
Submission Title: Reflection in English as a Foreign Language pre-service teachers' practicum; A Chilean Case Study.
Submitter Name: Priscila Riffo Salgado

Your submission has now been approved by the Faculty Ethics Committee. You can begin your research unless you are still awaiting any other reviews or conditions of your approval.

Comments:

-

[Click here to view the submission](#)

Appendix G Rules and regulations of the practicum



Pedagogía en Inglés
Internado Pedagógico

REGLAMENTO DE INTERNADO PEDAGÓGICO DE LAS CARRERAS DE PEDAGOGÍAS MEDIAS DE LA FACULTAD DE EDUCACIÓN DE LA UNIVERSIDAD CATÓLICA DE TEMUCO

Título I. De la definición y objetivos.

- Artículo 1** El Internado Pedagógico es el período culminante del proceso de formación del estudiante que aspira a obtener el título de Profesor de Pedagogías Medias y tiene un carácter eminentemente práctico.
- Artículo 2** El Internado Pedagógico se concibe como un proceso de construcción de conocimiento en relación con las prácticas pedagógicas, en el cual el (la) alumno (a) practicante asume concreta y protagónicamente el rol de educador a través de un análisis crítico de los marcos de referencia que dan racionalidad a tales desempeños, con el objeto de diseñar alternativas pedagógicas pertinentes a la realidad educativa en la que le corresponde actuar.
- Artículo 3** Los objetivos generales del Internado Pedagógico son:
- Diseñe sus prácticas pedagógicas considerando las necesidades e intereses de los alumnos en el contexto sociocultural del Liceo y la comunidad.
 - Se integre responsable y solidariamente en la comunidad educativa asignada, participando en ella con creatividad e iniciativa.
 - Demuestre en el desempeño de la docencia su identidad de profesional cristiano, y en general los valores de la sociedad chilena.
 - Se comprometa con la tarea educativa y con el aprendizaje y desarrollo de aquellos a quienes educará, reconociendo y valorando su diversidad.
 - Se apropie del conocimiento, tanto de las disciplinas curriculares que deberá enseñar, como de la forma en que corresponde hacerlo, dependiendo de sus alumnas y alumnos.
 - Disponga de condiciones y estrategias que le permitan asumir responsabilidades respecto a la gestión y evaluación del aprendizaje de sus alumnos y alumnas.
 - Este dispuesto a continuar aprendiendo a lo largo de su vida profesional, a partir de una reflexión crítica y sistemática sobre su trabajo docente.
 - Se reconozca y valore como miembro de una profesión docente, colaborando con sus colegas en el ámbito de la unidad educativa y pueda ser copartícipe en las tareas destinadas a mejorar tanto su propio desempeño profesional como el de la educación en general.

Título II. De la estructura y organización

- Artículo 4** El Internado Pedagógico establecido en el Plan Curricular de las Carreras de Pedagogías Medias se realizará en establecimientos educacionales con nivel de enseñanza media, diurna, modalidad humanístico - científica o técnico - profesional, en concordancia con el año escolar, definido en el Calendario Escolar Regional. El internado pedagógico considerará dos áreas simultáneas de actividades; en la especialidad y en Orientación.
- Artículo 5** El establecimiento al cual se adscriben los alumnos se denominará "Centro de Práctica" y podrá pertenecer sólo a la Ciudad de Temuco, corresponderá a un Liceo que imparte Educación Media reconocida por el Estado.
- Artículo 6** El Internado Pedagógico estará dirigido por el Coordinador del Internado Pedagógico, quién deberá ser un docente de las Carreras de Pedagogías Medias y de la planta ordinaria de la Facultad de Educación. El Coordinador de Internado Pedagógico será designado por el Decano de la Facultad de Educación y su nombramiento durará por el período que las necesidades del Plan Curricular de las Carreras de Pedagogías Medias lo ameriten.

- Artículo 7** Son funciones del Coordinador de Internado Pedagógico:
- Organizar los periodos de preinscripción del Internado Pedagógico.
 - Seleccionar los Centros de Práctica.
 - Contactarse con los Directivos y Profesores de los Centros de Práctica y organizar el trabajo con los profesores de curso.
 - Definir las modalidades de funcionamiento de los Centros de Práctica.
 - Administrar los medios para una oportuna y adecuada información de los alumnos.
 - Adscribir los alumnos a sus respectivos Centro de Práctica
 - Asignar los alumnos a sus respectivos supervisores de internado pedagógico.
 - Coordinar la acción de los equipos de supervisión de práctica de la Carrera
 - Coordinar la acción de los equipos de Profesores Mentores de cada Centro.
 - Supervisar el cumplimiento del presente reglamento.
- Artículo 8** Existirá un programa de Internado Pedagógico que establecerá y describirá en general el proceso de Internado; su fundamentación, objetivos, aprendizajes esperados, metodología de trabajo y la evaluación de éste.
- Artículo 9** La adscripción de los alumnos a los diferentes Centros de Práctica será competencia de la Coordinación de Internado Pedagógico, como igualmente la consideración y resolución de situaciones especiales.
- Artículo 10** Para cada centro de Práctica, la Coordinación de Internado Pedagógico, de acuerdo con las norma de la Facultad, designará los Profesores Supervisores de Internado que, junto con los profesores mentores de cada centro de práctica, tendrán la misión de orientar y guiar la marcha del proceso general y el progreso de los alumnos de internado.
- Artículo 11** El Profesor Supervisor de Internado Pedagógico es un docente de la especialidad de la carrera del alumno que pertenezca a la Facultad de Educación que debe tener a lo menos tres años de experiencia en aula, y es quien tiene la responsabilidad de guiar, orientar, controlar y evaluar a los alumnos internos que les corresponda supervisar.
- Artículo 12** El Profesor Mentor es el docente de un centro de práctica, en cuyo curso se realiza el Internado Pedagógico. Son funciones del profesor mentor:
- Establecer un sistema de comunicación que permita integrar el proceso pedagógico a través del trabajo de equipo con el interno
 - Orientar al alumno interno en la elaboración del diseño pedagógico (si lo estima necesario)
 - Participar en la evaluación del alumno practicante.
 - Participar en instancias de interacción con el docente supervisor y el alumno interno con el fin de retroalimentar la práctica de éste.

Título III. De los requisitos e inscripción.

- Artículo 13** Para poder realizar el proceso de Internado Pedagógico el alumno deberá cumplir los siguientes requisitos:
- Haber aprobado todos los cursos mínimos de la carrera, a excepción del curso de tesis.
 - Contar con la autorización de la Directora de la Carrera.
- Artículo 14** Existirá un período de preinscripción en la primera quincena de noviembre para el Internado Pedagógico. Esta preinscripción se realizará en la Dirección de Carreras y la harán los alumnos que al término del semestre, de la preinscripción, cumplan con los requisitos.
- Artículo 15** La Dirección de Carrera verificará el cumplimiento de los requisitos y procederá a otorgar las autorizaciones.
- Artículo 16** Una vez adscrito el alumno a su centro de práctica deberá permanecer en el establecimiento 30 horas cronológicas semanales, distribuidas en cinco jornadas de lunes a viernes, durante todo el año escolar, cumpliendo con el reglamento, normas y horario del establecimiento.
- Artículo 17** Los alumnos internos deberán cumplir con el requisito de un 100% de asistencia a las actividades programadas. En caso de inasistencia se aplicará el "Reglamento sobre asistencia a las actividades académicas desarrolladas en la universidad Católica de Temuco"
- Artículo 18** Los alumnos internos deberán conocer y cumplir todas las indicaciones estipuladas en este Reglamento y en el programa de Internado Pedagógico, para tal efecto el Coordinador de Internado Pedagógico entregará, al inicio del Internado, un ejemplar de este Reglamento y del programa de Internado Pedagógico.
- Título IV. De la evaluación del alumno.

- Artículo 19** La evaluación del alumno durante su desempeño en el Internado Pedagógico tendrá carácter formativo y sumativo. Para estos efectos considerará los siguientes aspectos:
- Portafolio de evaluación de desempeño inicial docente referido a los estándares de desempeño.
 - La evaluación de los profesores mentores a través de las pautas que oportunamente se entregará la coordinación de práctica de la carrera.
 - La evaluación del Profesor Supervisor de internado, de acuerdo a los estándares de desempeño para la formación inicial de docentes. Cada alumno interno deberá tener retroalimentación por escrito de las observaciones en aula que realice el Profesor Supervisor.
- Artículo 20** En situaciones especiales, la evaluación de los alumnos se hará conforme a las políticas, normas y procedimientos que el Consejo de Práctica determine.
- Artículo 21** La evaluación final se expresará en 'notas', en la escala de 1 a 7 para aprobar será necesario que el alumno haya obtenido una nota promedio no inferior a cuatro, en los siguientes aspectos:
- Portafolio 40%,
 - Evaluación del profesor supervisor 40%
 - Evaluación del profesor mentor 20%
- Artículo 22** Al inicio del Internado Pedagógico el alumno tendrá derecho a disponer del libro de los estándares de desempeño que contiene los criterios para evaluar su desempeño docente,
- Artículo 23** El alumno interno reprobará el Internado pedagógico antes de finalizar el semestre académico correspondiente, por alguna de las siguientes causales:
- inasistencia reiterada, sin justificación, a las actividades del Internado.
 - No logra los objetivos estipulados en el artículo 3, de este Reglamento.
 - Faltas graves a la ética profesional.
 - Informe negativo del centro de práctica en relación con su desempeño profesional.
 - Faltas a la normativa interna del centro de práctica.
 - Faltas contempladas en el reglamento del alumno y que tengan repercusión con los centros de práctica.
 - No cumple con lo establecido en el artículo 21 referido a evaluación del interno.
- La calificación de reprobación, en cualquiera de los casos anteriores, será de un 3,0 (tres como cero).
- Artículo 24** El alumno interno será acreedor de calificación P cuando, de acuerdo al Artículo 30 del "Reglamento del Alumno Regular de Pregrado", y por causales debidamente acreditadas deba suspender la realización del Internado Pedagógico.

Título V: Situaciones especiales.

- Artículo 25** Los alumnos que pertenezcan a la Carrera de Pedagogía en Religión, paralela con las Carreras de Pedagogías Medias, realizará su Internado Pedagógico en forma simultánea.
- Artículo 26** La modalidad simultánea de práctica de Pedagogía en Religión se realizará en un mismo semestre académico y en el mismo centro de práctica en que realice su internado de Pedagogías Medias. Las horas de desempeño en esta especialidad serán asignadas por el Instituto Teológico de la Universidad Católica de Temuco

Appendix H Portfolio structure

INTERNADO PEDAGÓGICO

(Final prácticum)

PEDAGOGIA EN INGLÉS

(English language pedagogy programme)

Futuro/a Profesor/a:

(Pre-service teacher)

Supervisor/a:

Centro de Práctica:

(School placement)

FICHA DE DATOS (Information sheet)

DATOS PERSONALES (personal information)	
Nombre Estudiante	
R.U.T.:	
Fono:	
Domicilio:	
En caso de urgencia llamar a:	
Sistema de salud:	

DATOS CENTRO DE PRACTICA (School placement)	
Centro de Práctica	
Profesor Supervisor	
Curso Base de Inglés	
Profesor Guía Inglés	
Curso Base Jefatura	
Profesor Guía Jefatura de Curso	

Horario	Lunes	Martes	Miércoles	Jueves	Viernes

INTERNSHIP PORTFOLIO ORGANIZATION

INDEX

- I Description of the context.
- II Plan de trabajo Inglés.
- III Plan de trabajo Consejo de Curso/Orientación.
- IV Proyecto de Investigación acción.
- V Proyecto de Aprendizaje servicio.
- VI Pautas de Evaluación.

I Description of the Context

1) Knowing my school and my students

a) Identification

School name: RBD: Dependency: Vulnerability rate: Number of Students: Administrator:	Principal's, UTP's and Inspector's Names: Electronic mails: Address: Telephone number: Main class:	English teacher's name: Council class teacher's name: Electronic mails: School Project: Mission and Vision. Other projects and activities:
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2) Knowing my students, description of the Main class. It must include:

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Class, - Number of students, - Age range, - English class performance in terms of concepts (MB very good, B good, S Sufficient, I insufficient) by term or annual. - General academic average of the class by term or annual. - Class book discipline records: 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students characteristics according to the personnel opinions (Teachers, Advisors, Psychologist, Special Needs Educator, and others) that attend to the class in general and to particular students. - Students characteristics according to theory (cognitive, moral, emotional, biological and social development) stating a relation between theory and observed reality. - Relevant health information.
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- 3) Diagnostic assessment of reading, listening, writing and speaking with quantitative and/or qualitative analysis.
- 4) Learning styles test with quantitative and/or qualitative analysis.
- 5) Interest surveys (English class and council class) with quantitative and/or qualitative analysis.

II Plan de trabajo clase de Inglés

Etapa	Duración / cantidad	Acción	Evidencias
Etapa Diagnóstico	Inglés 2 primeras semanas	Aplica test diagnóstico y encuesta de intereses y test de estilos de aprendizaje.	Tests. Encuestas de necesidades e intereses. Tests conocimientos previos: comprensión lectora y auditiva; expresión oral y expresión escrita. ENTREGAR 30 DE AGOSTO
Etapa de Planificación	Inglés 1 por clase (10 semanas mínimo con nota)	Planifica 10 semanas de planificaciones como mínimo, clase a clase (habilidades integradas) considerando la planificación semestral. * Toda planificación debe ser revisada y visada por su supervisor/a.	Plan de clase (Class Plan): Diseño, guía, material, Adecuación curricular (NEE), instrumentos de evaluación.
Implementación	Todas las horas de inglés de su curso base.	Implementa todas las clases de inglés.	Filmaciones: 2 por semestre (septiembre, noviembre) Muestras de trabajos de estudiantes.
Reflexión pedagógica	1 por semana	Reflexiona sobre la acción, partiendo de la realidad, a través de la auto-observación y con el apoyo de su profesor guía y/o mentor.	Diario de reflexión en base a Facetas A, B, C. Una vez a la semana, analiza sus implementaciones de inglés, con énfasis en su problema de investigación acción, las contrasta con las Facetas A, B, C, analiza utilizando teoría y propone modificaciones fundamentadas en teoría.

Lesson Plan			
Teacher Candidate:	Name of the lesson:		Time:
Grade Level:	Unit/Topic:		Date:
Number of students:			
Skills:			
Objectives:			
Contents:			
Type of texts:	Communicative function(s):	Key Vocabulary:	Grammar:
Identification of prior knowledge:			
Activities			

Resources
Assessment

Performance Assessment Form for planning a lesson

Teacher candidate _____ Date: _____
 University supervisor _____

Considering the national standards associated with the process of planning, assign a rating of the student's performance for each indicator (Achieved 3, Moderately achieved 2, Not achieved 1, or N/A)

3	Achieved A	The student strongly demonstrates the performance indicator
2	Moderately achieved MA	The student adequately demonstrates the performance indicator
1	Not achieved NA	The student inadequately or superficially demonstrates this performance indicator and/or the performance for this indicator is unsatisfactory and unacceptable.

1. The teacher candidate demonstrates knowledge about his/her students.*	A 3	MA 2	NA 1	Comments
<i>Designs/selects a survey to gather information about his/her students' interests</i>				
<i>Designs/selects an instrument to gather information about his/her students' prior knowledge.</i>				
<i>Designs/selects an instrument to gather information about his/her students' learning styles.</i>				
Uses the information that he/she gathers about his/her students in the planning process.				
2. The teacher candidate sets clear objectives that are consistent with the national curriculum	A 3	MA 2	NA 1	Comments
Sets objectives taking into consideration his/her students' prior knowledge.				
Sets objectives taking into consideration the national curriculum.				
Sets objectives that integrate the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking).				
Sets objectives related to attitudes/values.				
3. The teacher candidate demonstrates content knowledge (English)	A 3	MA 2	NA 1	Comments
Demonstrates a C 1 English level (or higher).				
Adjusts and contextualizes the linguistic components of the language.				
4. The teacher candidate designs or selects appropriate activities and materials	A 3	MA 2	NA 1	Comments
Designs/selects an appropriate warm up activity.				
Designs/selects (an) appropriate 'pre/before' reading/listening/writing/speaking activity(ies).				
Designs/selects (an) appropriate 'while' reading/listening/writing/speaking activity(ies).				
Designs/selects (an) appropriate 'post' reading/listening/writing/speaking activity(ies).				
Designs/selects (an) appropriate activity(ies) for linguistic reinforcement.				
Designs/selects appropriate materials.				
Designs/selects appropriate ICT resources.				
5. The teacher candidate designs or selects appropriate assessment tools	A 3	MA 2	NA 1	Comments

Designs/selects appropriate assessment tool(s)				
Selects appropriate assessment indicators.				
Total				

* The tools mentioned are applied at the beginning of the process and the information gathered is used during the term.

Supervision Rating Scale					
Student's name:					
Supervisor:					
School:					
Class		Date and Time:			
	Descriptors	The student teacher	Developing 1	Effective 2	Highly Effective 3
1	Sets clear goals for learning experiences.				
2	Motivates properly at the beginning of the class.				
3	Builds rapport with the students				
4	Uses appropriate strategies to activate prior knowledge and relate previous contents with the current contents of the lesson.				
5	Provides clear, accurate and understandable instructions in English.				
6	Works with students to support and understand classroom rules to ensure an environment that ensures that all class members can meet their social and academic desired outcomes.				
7	Avoids unnecessary pauses, handling transitions properly and fostering flow in the lesson.				
8	Communicates in a fluent and accurate way				
9	Uses appropriate gestures and body language highlighting strategic competence for non-verbal communication to foster students' learning to foster students' learning				
10	Includes practice exercises focus on the four abilities of the language.				
11	Checks comprehension during the lesson by using elicitation techniques.				
12	Monitors actively, mediates and provides on spot feedback.				
13	Activities are organized and time management is effective.				
14	Uses effective and varied teaching material either audiovisual or technological.				
15	Makes sure that the physical environment of the room is clean and organized to support the activities of the lesson.				
16	Wraps up the lesson in a way that benefits the student's learning.				
	Points				
	Mark				

III Plan de trabajo Consejo de Curso/Orientación.

Etapa	Duración /cantidad	Acción	Evidencias
Diagnóstico	2 semanas	Recopila información de su curso. Aplica encuestas.	Descripción del curso. Encuesta de necesidades e intereses.
Planificación	5 talleres.	Planifica talleres considerando intereses y necesidades de los estudiantes y del establecimiento. * Toda planificación debe ser revisada y visada por su supervisor/a.	Talleres: Diseño, guía, material, evaluación.
Implementación	1 quincenal.	Implementa quincenalmente en clase de consejo de curso/orientación	Filmación (2 en el semestre) Muestras de trabajos de estudiantes

	1	Implementa 1 taller con los apoderados, en reunión de apoderados.	Diseño, guía, material y evaluación del taller con apoderados, considerar criterio D 5.
	s/n	Según requerimiento del centro de práctica. Asiste a entrevistas con Apoderados.	Registro de asistencia.

Planificación de Taller Consejo de Curso /Orientación			
Nombre Profesor:		Curso:	
Tiempo requerido:		Fecha de aplicación:	
Necesidades/intereses de los estudiantes que fueron considerados para esta planificación:			
Tema:			
Conocimiento previo requerido:			
Objetivo de aprendizaje		Contenidos	
	Conceptual:	Procedimental:	Actitudinal/valórico:
Actividades			
Actividades: Motivación. Activación de conocimientos previos. Desarrollo. Cierre.			
Recursos:			
EVALUACION: Tipo, Actividad e Instrumento de evaluación			

Formato Taller Apoderados
Objetivo:
Actividades: - motivación. - activación de conocimientos previos. - desarrollo. - cierre.
Evaluación y sistematización:

Revisión de Planificación Consejo de Curso/Orientación									
Nombre Interno/a:									
Planificación consejo de curso/orientación					1	2	3	4	5
1.- ¿se consideraron las necesidades e intereses de los estudiantes en la planificación?	2								
2.- ¿está el objetivo bien redactado y de acuerdo al nivel y marco curricular y/o de la institución?	2								
3.- ¿está el objetivo enfocado al desarrollo de los OFT?	2								
4.- ¿Hay congruencia entre objetivo, contenidos, actividades y evaluación?	2								
5.- ¿hay actividad de motivación?	2								
6.- ¿hay activación de conocimientos previos?	2								
7.- ¿las actividades de desarrollo incluyen un producto?	2								
8.- ¿se contempla trabajo cooperativo?	2								
9.- ¿la evaluación tienen criterios e indicadores claros y congruentes con el objetivo?	2								
10.- ¿hay actividad de sustentación o sistematización?	2								

Puntaje	20					
Puntaje máximo total: 20 pts = 100% = 7,0 / 14 pts = 70% = 4,0						
Calificación						

Pauta de Evaluación Supervisión Consejo de Curso/Orientación					
Nombre Interno/a:					
Profesor Supervisor/Mentor:					
Establecimiento:					
Curso:		Fecha y hora:			
	PROTAGONICO	PI	PR		
1	Saluda al curso a su llegada a la sala	1			
2	Explicita el objetivo de la clase y corrobora comprensión.	2			
3	Establece y mantiene normas de trabajo y comportamiento.(manejo de grupo)	2			
4	Utiliza un adecuado tono de voz	1			
5	Motiva adecuadamente al inicio de la clase	1			
6	Activa conocimientos previos	2			
7	Las actividades se observan organizadas	2			
8	Organiza adecuadamente el tiempo	2			
9	Utiliza adecuadamente material audiovisual (power, transparencias,) material pedagógico (guías, pizarra)	2			
10	Maneja, domina los contenidos temáticos	4			
11	Establece instancias de monitoreo, mediación y retroalimentación durante la clase.	3			
12	Realiza sustentación de la clase (cierre o síntesis de la clase).	2			
		Puntaje	24		
		Puntaje máximo total: 24 pts = 100% = 7,0 / 17 pts = 70% = 4,0			
		Calificación			

IV Proyecto de Investigación acción.

Propuesta de Investigación Acción	
Introducción (2-3 hojas)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problema de investigación • Pregunta(s) de investigación
Marco Teórico (5-10 hojas)	
Metodología (incluye plan de acción) (2-3 hojas)	
Resultados	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Análisis de resultados • Discusión de resultados
Conclusión	
Bibliografía	
Anexos	

Rúbrica de evaluación de la reflexión del practicante			
Niveles	Alto nivel de reflexión y autocrítica 3 puntos	Nivel medio de reflexión y autocrítica 2 puntos	Bajo nivel de reflexión y autocrítica 1 punto
Criterios			
1) Claridad en el lenguaje	El lenguaje es claro y expresivo. El lector puede hacerse un claro cuadro mental de la experiencia de práctica descrita.	El lenguaje es claro pero con algunos lapsos de poca exactitud. Cuesta hacerse un claro cuadro mental de la situación descrita.	Sobre un 50% del texto contiene lenguaje confuso.
2) Manejo conceptual	Los conceptos abstractos son explicados con precisión.	Los conceptos abstractos son presentados pero se discuten y/o explican con poca claridad.	Hay poca precisión en los conceptos y estos no se discuten y/o explican.
3) Relevancia	Los aspectos de la experiencia de práctica sobre los que se reflexiona son altamente relevantes y significativos para el aprendizaje de los estudiantes y para el logro de los objetivos de la clase.	Los aspectos de la experiencia de práctica sobre los que se reflexiona son medianamente relevantes y significativos para el aprendizaje de los estudiantes y para el logro de los objetivos de la clase.	Los aspectos de la experiencia de práctica sobre los que se reflexiona no presentan relación con el aprendizaje de los estudiantes ni con el logro de los objetivos de la clase.
4) Análisis	La reflexión va más allá de la simple descripción de la experiencia de práctica, es un análisis profundo de su desempeño y de cómo éste afecta al proceso de aprendizaje de sus alumnos.	La reflexión va más allá de la simple descripción de la experiencia de práctica, el estudiante analiza su desempeño, pero falla en establecer cómo éste afecta al proceso de aprendizaje de sus alumnos.	La reflexión se queda en la simple descripción de la experiencia de práctica.
5) Estándares	Presenta un claro contraste con los estándares lo que permite un análisis exhaustivo de la experiencia de práctica.	Presenta un débil contraste con los estándares lo que solo permite un análisis superficial de la experiencia de práctica.	Solo menciona los estándares pero no hay contraste por lo tanto el análisis es nulo.
6) Interconexiones	La reflexión muestra una clara conexión entre la experiencia de práctica y los conocimientos y experiencias previas y teoría relevante e integrada.	La reflexión muestra conexiones entre la experiencia de práctica y los conocimientos y experiencias previas, pero la teoría utilizada es confusa y/o irrelevante y no está integrada.	No se presentan conexiones entre la experiencia de práctica y los conocimientos y experiencias previas ni utiliza teoría relevante.
7) Plan de acción	Establece un claro plan de acción basado en el análisis y apoyado en teoría pertinente, conducente a la mejora de su desempeño y de los aprendizajes de sus estudiantes.	Menciona intenciones de mejora pero no establece un plan de acción claro.	No establece ni plan de acción ni menciona intenciones de mejora de su desempeño.
8) Autocrítica	La reflexión demuestra la habilidad del estudiante para cuestionar sus propios sesgos, estereotipos, preconcepciones, creencias y/o suposiciones, y como resultado de esto, es capaz de definir nuevas formas de pensar y actuar.	La reflexión demuestra la habilidad del estudiante para cuestionar sus propios sesgos, estereotipos, preconcepciones, creencias y/o suposiciones, pero no logra definir nuevas formas de pensar y actuar como resultado.	No hay autocrítica.

Pauta de evaluación proyecto investigación acción (Introducción, Marco Teórico y Metodología)

Los puntajes para cada indicador son múltiplo de tres. Se asignará el 33, 66 o 100% de los puntos dependiendo de si el indicador está trabajado pero no logrado, medianamente logrado, o logrado. En caso de no estar trabajado el aspecto, se asignará 0 puntos. El profesor puede asignar otra combinación de puntos para relevar un determinado aspecto destacado o una deficiencia en particular. La calificación se hará sobre una base de exigencia del 70% (Nota 4,0)

Nombre:**Fecha:****Puntaje:****Nota:**

INTRODUCCIÓN	Puntaje ideal	Puntaje Obtenido
La introducción sitúa el tema de investigación yendo de lo general a lo particular y precisando el objeto de estudio que se problematiza en las secciones siguientes.	3	
Presenta elementos básicos que componen el tema, incluyendo los conceptos centrales propios de la disciplina y atinentes a la investigación.	3	
El problema de investigación es relevante y se justifica adecuadamente.	3	
Los antecedentes del problema son pertinentes y claros, explicitan el contexto en que se circunscribe el estudio, y se sustentan en fuentes de calidad e investigaciones previas que dan cuenta de una revisión adecuada y actualizada de literatura de rigor científico (se citan, al menos, siete referencias bibliográficas y, como mínimo, cuatro de estas referencias bibliográficas corresponden a estudios o investigaciones asociadas al problema de investigación).	9	
El problema se identifica y define de manera clara y sin ambigüedad culminando con una pregunta central que orienta el estudio. De esta pregunta central se deriva el objetivo del mismo.	6	
MARCO TEÓRICO	Puntaje ideal	Puntaje Obtenido
Presenta una revisión clara del objeto de estudio y de los antecedentes de la investigación a partir de los resultados de otras investigaciones realizadas hasta la fecha en relación con el fenómeno a investigar. En ella prima la elaboración propia, con citas cuando corresponda, pero reflejando el trabajo y redacción del estudiante.	9	
Se presentan con claridad y en forma fundada las teorías, conceptos o variables centrales del problema de investigación, incluyendo a menos los conceptos más importantes (identificados en las palabras clave) y que son propios de la disciplina y atinentes a la investigación.	9	
Se incluyen, al menos, 4 referencias de artículos indexados (en bases de datos tales como Latindex, REDALYC SciELO, Scopus e ISI) y, al menos, 4 libros*.	3	

Metodología	Puntaje ideal	Puntaje Obtenido
Identifica la metodología de investigación, la cual es coherente con el problema identificado	3	
Describe el diseño del estudio, el cual es coherente con la metodología y el problema	3	
Describe plan de acción	9	
Identifica los participantes y sus características	3	
Plantea técnicas y/o instrumentos de recogida de información pertinentes	6	

ASPECTOS FORMALES	Puntaje ideal	Puntaje Obtenido
Aplica adecuadamente las normas APA versión 6.0 presentando un listado de referencias completo, citado en orden alfabético y de acuerdo a las normas APA, existiendo coherencia total entre las fuentes utilizadas y referenciadas.	3	
La redacción del texto respeta las normas gramaticales, especialmente ortografía y redacción. Presenta además una adecuada organización, usando léxico formal.	3	
La presentación corresponde a un trabajo académico ordenado y prolijo, que respeta aspectos formales, incluyendo portada (título, logo, identificación, fecha), índice (utilizando la herramienta "Tabla de contenido" de Word), páginas correctamente numeradas, márgenes normales (2,5 y 3), tamaño de letra (10 a 12), e interlineado de 1,5.	3	
TOTAL	78	

Pauta de evaluación proyecto (Resultados)

Nombre:

Fecha:

Puntaje:

Nota:

Resultados	Puntaje ideal	Puntaje Obtenido
Los resultados se presentan ordenados en coherencia con el objetivo del estudio.	9	
Los resultados son organizados en gráficos, tablas y/o redes sintéticas y comprensibles, que aportan una visión general de los hallazgos.	15	
Se presenta una reflexión crítica de los resultados de la investigación articulando los mismo con teoría pertinente (discusión).	30	
Las conclusiones presentadas son coherentes con el objetivo de la propuesta.	15	
Los resultados son presentados en forma clara y ordenada, respetando normas de ortografía y rigurosidad en su redacción.	9	
Anexos	Puntaje ideal	Puntaje Obtenido
Los anexos incluidos se organizan adecuadamente y contribuyen a clarificar y comprender de mejor manera la investigación (transcripciones, matrices de análisis, entre otros).	9	
Puntaje Total	87	

Sugerencias/observaciones:

Pauta de evaluación proyecto (Final)

Nombre:

Fecha:

Puntaje:

Nota:

INTRODUCCIÓN	Puntaje ideal	Puntaje Obtenido
La introducción sitúa el tema de investigación yendo de lo general a lo particular y precisando el objeto de estudio que se problematiza en las secciones siguientes.	3	
Presenta elementos básicos que componen el tema, incluyendo los conceptos centrales propios de la disciplina y atinentes a la investigación.	3	
El problema de investigación es relevante y se justifica adecuadamente.	3	
Los antecedentes del problema son pertinentes y claros, explicitan el contexto en que se circunscribe el estudio, y se sustentan en fuentes de calidad e investigaciones previas que dan cuenta de una revisión adecuada y actualizada de literatura de rigor científico (se citan, al menos, siete referencias bibliográficas y, como mínimo, cuatro de estas referencias bibliográficas corresponden a estudios o investigaciones asociadas al problema de investigación).	9	
El problema se identifica y define de manera clara y sin ambigüedad culminando con una pregunta central que orienta el estudio. De esta pregunta central se deriva el objetivo del mismo.	6	
MARCO TEÓRICO		
Presenta una revisión clara del objeto de estudio y de los antecedentes de la investigación a partir de los resultados de otras investigaciones realizadas hasta la fecha en relación con el fenómeno a investigar. En ella prima la elaboración propia, con citas cuando corresponda, pero reflejando el trabajo y redacción del estudiante.	9	
Se presentan con claridad y en forma fundada las teorías, conceptos o variables centrales del problema de investigación, incluyendo a menos los conceptos más importantes (identificados en las palabras clave) y que son propios de la disciplina y atinentes a la investigación.	9	
METODOLOGÍA		
Identifica la metodología de investigación, la cual es coherente con el problema identificado	3	
Describe el diseño del estudio, el cual es coherente con la metodología y el problema	3	
Describe plan de acción	9	
Identifica los participantes y sus características	3	
Plantea técnicas y/o instrumentos de recogida de información pertinentes	6	
RESULTADOS		
Los resultados se presentan ordenados en coherencia con el objetivo del estudio.	9	
Los resultados son organizados en gráficos, tablas y/o redes sintéticas y comprensibles, que aportan una visión general de los hallazgos.	6	
Se presenta una reflexión crítica de los resultados de la investigación.	9	
Las conclusiones presentadas son coherentes con el objetivo de la propuesta.	9	

ASPECTOS FORMALES		
Se incluyen, al menos, 10 referencias de artículos indexados (en bases de datos tales como Latindex, REDALYC SciELO, Scopus e ISI) y, al menos, 6 libros*.	3	
Aplica adecuadamente las normas APA versión 6.0 presentando un listado de referencias completo, citado en orden alfabético y de acuerdo a las normas APA, existiendo coherencia total entre las fuentes utilizadas y referenciadas.	6	
La redacción del texto respeta las normas gramaticales, especialmente ortografía y redacción. Presenta además una adecuada organización, usando léxico formal.	6	
La presentación corresponde a un trabajo académico ordenado y prolijo, que respeta aspectos formales, incluyendo portada (título, logo, identificación, fecha), índice (utilizando la herramienta "Tabla de contenido" de Word), páginas correctamente numeradas, márgenes normales (2,5 y 3), tamaño de letra (10 a 12), e interlineado de 1,5.	3	
Los anexos incluidos se organizan adecuadamente y contribuyen a clarificar y comprender de mejor manera la investigación (transcripciones, matrices de análisis, entre otros)	3	
TOTAL	120 **	

V Proyecto de Aprendizaje Servicio

Pauta para Proyecto de Aprendizaje Servicio Internado Pedagógico 2019 (Modelo 3)

Título del Proyecto :	
Nombre Estudiantes Internos/As:	
Profesores Colaboradores	
Profesor/a Supervisor/a	
Nombre establecimiento educacional	
Dirección	
Teléfonos	
Nombre Director establecimiento	
Correo	
Nombre Jefe Unidad Técnico Pedagógico	
Correo	
N° de estudiantes que atiende	

I Etapa de diseño: Diseño del proyecto en base al diagnóstico elaborado. Se plantean objetivos, sustento teórico, metodología, recursos, formas de evaluación y plan de difusión.
Presentación de la propuesta
1) Diagnóstico: Descripción de el/los niveles en que se desarrollará el proyecto, sociales (IVE, % estudiantes mapuche) y educativos (SIMCE, PSU), indicadores de eficiencia: interna (matrícula, asistencia, repitiencia, proyectos internos, equipo directivo, docentes y Asistentes de la Educación) y externa (trabajo con redes de apoyo tales como universidades, consultorio, juntas de vecinos entre otros, que se vinculan con la comunidad educativa). Necesidades del establecimiento en cuanto a apoyo técnico-pedagógico que permiten identificar el nudo crítico para el levantamiento del proyecto. (1 página)
2) Introducción: Describe el contexto, el/los niveles en que se implementará el proyecto, problemática a abordar, metodología de trabajo y formas de evaluación. (2 páginas)
3) Marco teórico: Incluye el estado del arte en cuanto a antecedentes teóricos y desde investigaciones relacionadas al nudo crítico (problemática) desde el ámbito nacional e internacional. (3 páginas)
4) Objetivo General
5) Objetivo(s) Específico (s)
6) Metodología: Descripción pertinente de modelos didácticos, estrategias, técnicas a implementar. De igual forma se debe describir las actividades a realizar, incorporar instrumentos de recogida de datos. (1 página)
7) Recursos: Descripción de los recursos humanos y materiales necesarios para la realización del proyecto.
8) Evaluación: Describir formas e instrumentos de evaluación. (1 página)
9) Plan de Difusión: Descripción de un plan de difusión del proyecto: socialización ante la comunidad escolar, medios de comunicación, elaboración de afiches, trípticos, entre otros. (1 página)
10) Cronograma: Temporalización de las actividades (Carta Gantt) etapas y cantidad de actividades
II Etapa de implementación: en esta etapa, se lleva a cabo las actividades expresadas en la metodología de trabajo.
11) Descripción: Descripción cronológica de la implementación del proyecto. (3 páginas)
III Etapa de evaluación: en esta etapa, se dan a conocer resultados y conclusiones de la implementación del proyecto

12) Resultados: Descripción de los resultados usando datos procesados, tablas, gráficos y/o figuras. El análisis de resultados está orientado a evaluar el trabajo y cumplir objetivos. Reconocimiento de las limitaciones de resultados obtenidos de acuerdo al contexto en que se realizó. (1 páginas)
13) Conclusiones: Expresan concordancia con los objetivos y los resultados obtenidos del proyecto, describen si lo planteado se ha logrado, las limitaciones y proyecciones. Asimismo, dan cuenta de los aprendizajes del equipo y del establecimiento educacional. (1 página)
14) Referencias Bibliográficas: Incorpora las referencias bibliográficas utilizando las normas APA. Coherencia en el desarrollo del trabajo y apartado destinado para dar a conocer los textos y/o documentos utilizados, las citas bibliográficas pertenecen a literatura de uso científico no solo material de divulgación y/o libros escolares

Pauta de Evaluación Proyecto Aprendizaje Servicio Internado Pedagógico 2019

CRITERIOS	Puntaje Ideal	Retroalimentación /Puntaje Real
Introducción: - Describe el contexto en el que se implementa el proyecto, considerando el diagnóstico realizado y caracterizando la población desde el ámbito social, cultural, económico, cognitivo, etc. - Problematiza de forma colaborativa la realidad a partir del diagnóstico. - Presenta antecedentes generales de la temática a trabajar, propósitos, metodología y forma evaluativa.	9	
Marco teórico: Fundamenta teóricamente conceptos centrales de la problemática identificada desde las orientaciones de las diversas áreas disciplinares para enfrentar la problemática existente.	9	
Objetivos: Plantea objetivos generales y específicos claros, coherentes y graduales de acuerdo con el problema que aborda.	6	
Metodología: Describe modelos didácticos y/o enfoques pedagógicos, estrategias y/o técnicas para responder a la problemática y describe actividades a realizar.	6	
Recursos y materiales: Describe y anexa recursos y/o materiales a utilizar, tales como: fichas, carteles, guías u otros pertinentes a la problemática.	3	
Evaluación: Plantea y fundamenta el plan de evaluación de las acciones del proyecto.	6	
Plan de difusión: Describe plan de difusión del proyecto: socialización ante la comunidad escolar, medios de comunicación, elaboración de afiches, trípticos, etc.	3	
Cronograma: Presenta cronograma de realización de actividades (Carta Gantt)	3	
Implementación: Describe actividades realizadas en forma cronológica de acuerdo a los objetivos del proyecto.	6	
Resultados: Da a conocer cualitativa y cuantitativamente los resultados de la implementación del proyecto y los analiza e interpreta a la luz de la teoría.	6	
Conclusiones: Presenta conclusiones del proyecto a partir de los objetivos propuestos.	6	
Limitaciones y/o proyecciones: Describe limitaciones y/o proyecciones de la implementación del proyecto	3	
Aspectos formales: Presenta trabajo académico ordenado y prolijo, que respeta aspectos formales, incluyendo portada (título, logo, identificación, fecha), páginas numeradas, márgenes normales, tamaño de letra 12, interlineado 1,5.	3	
Referencias bibliográficas: Aplica normas APA en citas y referencias bibliográficas.	3	
Puntaje	72	

Simbología:

Logrado: El indicador evaluado aborda con calidad destacada y exhasutividad todos los aspectos requeridos.

Medianamente logrado: El indicador evaluado presenta buena calidad pero falta profundidad y/o presenta elementos menores a mejorar según lo requerido.

No logrado: El indicador evaluado presenta debilidades sustanciales que es necesario fortalecer.

Asignación de puntajes:

Los puntajes para cada indicador son múltiplos de tres. Se asignará en 33,33%, un 66,66% y un 100% de los puntos dependiendo si el indicador está no logrado, medianamente logrado, logrado respectivamente. En caso de no estar trabajado el aspecto, se asignará cero puntos. El profesor puede asignar otra combinación para relevar un determinado aspecto destacado o debilidad identificada.

Observaciones:

VI Pautas de evaluación Centro de Práctica.

Evaluación Internado Pedagógico (Profesores Guía de Inglés)

Estudiante: _____

Profesor Guía/Mentor de Ingles: _____

Establecimiento: _____

Aspecto Profesional I: Estándares de Desempeño Docente (Solicitamos evaluar el desempeño del/la estudiante, calificando con nota de 1,0 a 7,0.)		Calificación
A: Preparación de la enseñanza. El futuro profesor o profesora:		
1	Demuestra estar familiarizado con los conocimientos y experiencias previas de sus estudiantes. Conoce a los estudiantes y sabe cómo aprenden.	
2	Formula metas de aprendizaje claras, apropiadas para todos los alumnos y coherentes con el marco curricular nacional.	
3	Demuestra dominio de los contenidos que enseña. Hace notar relaciones entre los contenidos conocidos, los que se están estudiando y los que proyecta enseñar.	
4	Sabe cómo diseñar e implementar estrategias de enseñanza-aprendizaje adecuadas para los objetivos de aprendizaje y de acuerdo al contexto. Crea o selecciona materiales, métodos y actividades de enseñanza, apropiadas para los alumnos y coherentes con las metas de la clase.	
5	Crea o selecciona estrategias de evaluación apropiada para los alumnos y congruente con las metas de enseñanza.	
B: Creación de un ambiente propicio para el aprendizaje: El futuro profesor o profesora:		Calificación
1	Está preparado para atender la diversidad y promover la integración en el aula. Propicia un clima de equidad, confianza, libertad y respeto en su interacción con los alumnos y de ellos entre sí.	
2	Establece relaciones empáticas con los alumnos.	
3	Propone expectativas de aprendizaje desafiantes para los alumnos.	
4	Está preparado para gestionar la clase y crear un ambiente apropiado para el aprendizaje según contextos. Establece y mantiene normas consistentes y consensuadas de disciplina en el aula.	
5	Procura que el ambiente físico sea seguro y propicio para el aprendizaje.	
C: Enseñanza para el aprendizaje de todos los estudiantes. El futuro profesor o profesora:		Calificación
1	Procura que las metas y los procedimientos involucrados en el aprendizaje sean claros.	
2	Procura que el contenido de la clase sea comprensible para los alumnos.	
3	Estimula a los alumnos a ampliar su forma de pensar más allá del conocimiento de hechos o datos.	
4	Conoce y sabe aplicar métodos de evaluación para observar el progreso de los estudiantes y sabe usar los resultados para retroalimentar el aprendizaje y la práctica pedagógica. Verifica el proceso de comprensión de los contenidos por parte de los alumnos mediante procedimientos de retroalimentación o de información que faciliten el aprendizaje.	
5	Utiliza el tiempo disponible para la enseñanza de forma efectiva.	
D: Responsabilidades profesionales. El futuro profesor o profesora:		Calificación
1	Evalúa el grado/en que se alcanzaron las metas de aprendizaje.	
2	Aprende en forma continua y reflexiona sobre su práctica y su inserción en el sistema educacional. Autoevalúa su eficacia en el logro de resultados.	
3	Demuestra interés por construir relaciones profesionales con colegas y participa en acciones conjuntas del establecimiento.	
4	Está preparado para promover el desarrollo personal y social de los estudiantes. Asume responsabilidades en la orientación de los alumnos.	
5	Se comunica con los padres de familia o apoderados.	

6	Conoce el currículo de Educación Media y usa sus diversos instrumentos curriculares para analizar y formular propuestas pedagógicas y evaluativas. Demuestra comprender las políticas nacionales de educación y la forma como su escuela contribuye a esas políticas.	
7	Conoce cómo se genera y transforma la cultura escolar.	
Aspecto Profesional II: Estándares Disciplinarios: Pedagogía en Inglés. (Solicitamos evaluar el desempeño del/la estudiante, calificando con nota de 1,0 a 7,0.)		Calificación
1	Comprende los elementos constitutivos de la lengua inglesa y su funcionamiento, y aplica este conocimiento en el desarrollo de las habilidades de comunicación en inglés de sus estudiantes.	
2	Comprende la importancia del desarrollo de las habilidades de comprensión de textos orales, escritos y multimodales en sus alumnos, poniendo en práctica este conocimiento como un eje organizador del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje.	
3	Comprende la importancia del desarrollo de las habilidades de expresión oral y escrita en sus alumnos, poniendo en práctica este conocimiento como un eje organizador del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje.	
4	Comprende la importancia del desarrollo integrado de las habilidades de la comunicación en sus alumnos, poniendo en práctica este conocimiento como un eje organizador del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje.	
5	Comprende que la evaluación es un proceso consustancial al de enseñanza-aprendizaje, que permite conocer los logros de los alumnos en relación a los objetivos del currículum nacional, e introducir ajustes en la práctica pedagógica.	
6	Se comunica en inglés de forma precisa y fluida, en todos los ámbitos en los que le corresponde actuar, a nivel C1.	
7	Domina teorías del aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera, las que le permiten seleccionar y aplicar los enfoques metodológicos más efectivos, y las estrategias adecuadas para el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje.	
8	Diseña, selecciona o adapta recursos físicos y/o virtuales apropiados para la enseñanza y aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera.	
9	Comprende la importancia de conocer e integrar la diversidad de su propia cultura y la de comunidades angloparlantes u otras a las cuales se accede por medio del inglés, al contextualizar el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de este idioma.	
10	Reconoce la importancia de participar activamente en instancias de perfeccionamiento docente y comunidades de aprendizaje, con el propósito de actualizar sus conocimientos y reflexionar acerca de sus prácticas pedagógicas con sus pares.	
Promedio		
Aspecto Personal (Solicitamos evaluar el desempeño del/la estudiante, con conceptos MB = Muy Bueno, B = Bueno, S = Suficiente, I = Insuficiente.)		Concepto
1	Presentación personal.	
2	Cumplimiento de horarios.	
3	Asistencia.	
4	Adaptación al medio y relaciones interpersonales.	
5	Iniciativa y espíritu de colaboración.	
6	Trabajo en equipo.	
7	Manejo emocional.	
8	Tolerancia ante la frustración.	
9	Espíritu solidario.	
10	Se comunica oralmente y por escrito de forma efectiva (castellano).	

Nombre, Firma y Timbre _____, _____, 20_____

Evaluación Internado Pedagógico (Profesor Guía Consejo de Curso)

Estudiante: _____

Profesor Guía/Mentor: _____

Establecimiento: _____

Aspecto Profesional: Estándares de Desempeño Docente (Solicitamos evaluar el desempeño del/la estudiante, calificando con nota de 1,0 a 7,0.)		
A: Preparación de la enseñanza. El futuro profesor o profesora:		Calificación
1	Demuestra estar familiarizado con los conocimientos y con las experiencias previas de sus estudiantes. Conoce a los estudiantes de Educación Media y sabe cómo aprenden.	
2	Formula metas de aprendizaje claras, apropiadas para todos los estudiantes y coherentes con el marco curricular nacional.	
3	Demuestra dominio de los contenidos que enseña. Hace notar relaciones entre los contenidos ya conocidos, los que se están estudiando y los que proyecta enseñar	
4	Sabe cómo diseñar e implementar estrategias de enseñanza-aprendizaje adecuadas para los objetivos de aprendizaje y de acuerdo al contexto. Crea o selecciona materiales, métodos y actividades de enseñanza, apropiadas para los estudiantes y coherentes con las metas de la clase.	
5	Crea o selecciona estrategias de evaluación apropiada para los alumnos y congruente con las metas de enseñanza.	
B: Creación de un ambiente propicio para el aprendizaje: El futuro profesor o profesora:		Calificación
1	Está preparado para atender la diversidad y promover la integración en el aula. Propicia un clima de equidad, confianza, libertad y respeto en su interacción con los estudiantes y de ellos entre sí.	
2	Establece relaciones empáticas con los alumnos.	
3	Propone expectativas de aprendizaje desafiantes para los alumnos.	
4	Está preparado para gestionar la clase y crear un ambiente apropiado para el aprendizaje según contextos. Establece y mantiene normas consistentes y consensuadas de disciplina en el aula.	
5	Procura que el ambiente físico sea seguro y propicio para el aprendizaje.	
C: Enseñanza para el aprendizaje de todos los estudiantes. El futuro profesor o profesora:		Calificación
1	Procura que las metas y los procedimientos involucrados en el aprendizaje sean claros.	
2	Procura que el contenido de la clase sea comprensible para los alumnos.	
3	Estimula a los alumnos a ampliar su forma de pensar más allá del conocimiento de hechos o datos.	
4	Conoce y sabe aplicar métodos de evaluación para observar el progreso de los estudiantes y sabe usar los resultados para retroalimentar el aprendizaje y la práctica pedagógica. Verifica el proceso de comprensión de los contenidos por parte de los alumnos mediante procedimientos de retroalimentación o de información que faciliten el aprendizaje.	
5	Utiliza el tiempo disponible para la enseñanza de forma efectiva.	
D: Responsabilidades profesionales. El futuro profesor o profesora:		Calificación
1	Evalúa el grado/en que se alcanzaron las metas de aprendizaje.	
2	Aprende en forma continua y reflexiona sobre su práctica y su inserción en el sistema educacional. Auto-evalúa su eficacia en el logro de resultados.	
3	Demuestra interés por construir relaciones profesionales con colegas y participa en acciones conjuntas del establecimiento.	
4	Está preparado para promover el desarrollo personal y social de los estudiantes. Asume responsabilidades en la orientación de los alumnos.	
5	Se comunica con los padres de familia o apoderados.	
6	Conoce el currículo de Educación Media y usa sus diversos instrumentos curriculares para analizar y formular propuestas pedagógicas y evaluativas. Demuestra comprender las políticas nacionales de educación y la forma como su escuela contribuye a esas políticas.	
7	Conoce cómo se genera y transforma la cultura escolar.	
Aspecto Personal (Solicitamos evaluar, con conceptos MB = Muy Bueno, B = Bueno, S = Suficiente, I = Insuficiente.)		Calificación
1	Presentación personal.	
2	Cumplimiento de horarios.	
3	Asistencia.	
4	Adaptación al medio y relaciones interpersonales.	
5	Iniciativa y espíritu de colaboración.	
6	Trabajo en equipo.	
7	Manejo emocional.	
8	Tolerancia ante la frustración.	
9	Espíritu solidario.	
10	Se comunica oralmente y por escrito de forma efectiva (castellano).	
PROMEDIO		

_____, **Nombre, Firma y Timbre**

_____, 20__

Autoevaluación.

Indicadores para la autoevaluación de desempeño docente en internado pedagógico	
1. PREPARACION PARA LA ENSEÑANZA	NOTA
1.1 Realizo la planificación de mi actividad educativa teniendo como referencia los Planes y programas del MINEDUC y el PEI, instrumentos de planificación que conozco y utilizo.	
1.2 Formulo los objetivos didácticos de forma que expresan claramente las habilidades que mis alumnos/as deben conseguir como reflejo y manifestación de la intervención educativa.	
1.3 Selecciono y secuencio los contenidos (conocimientos, procedimientos y actitudes) de mi planificación con una distribución y una progresión adecuada a las características de cada grupo de alumnos.	
1.4 Adopto estrategias y programo actividades en función de los objetivos didácticos, en función de los distintos tipos de contenidos y en función de las características de los alumnos.	
1.5 Planifico las clases de modo flexible, preparando actividades y recursos (personales, materiales, de tiempo, de espacio, de agrupamientos, etc.) ajustados a los Planes y Programas del MINEDUC y PEI, y, sobre todo, ajustado siempre, lo más posible a las necesidades e intereses de los alumnos.	
1.6 Establezco, de modo explícito, los criterios, procedimientos e instrumentos de evaluación y autoevaluación que permiten hacer el seguimiento del progreso de los alumnos y comprobar el grado en que alcanzan los aprendizajes.	
1.7 Planifico mi actividad educativa de forma coordinada con el resto del profesorado (ya sea por nivel, ciclo, departamentos, equipos educativos y profesores de apoyos).	
2. REALIZACION DE LA CLASE	
2.1 Motivación inicial de los alumnos:	
2.1.1 Presento y propongo un plan de trabajo, explicando su finalidad, antes de cada unidad, proyecto o lección.	
2.1.2 Planteo situaciones introductorias previas al tema que se va a tratar (trabajos, diálogos, lecturas...)	
2.2 Motivación a lo largo de todo el proceso	
2.2.1 Mantengo el interés del alumnado partiendo de sus experiencias, con un lenguaje claro y adaptado.	
2.2.2 Comunico la finalidad de los aprendizajes, su importancia, funcionalidad, aplicación real.	
2.2.3 Doy información de los progresos conseguidos así como de las dificultades encontradas.	
2.3 Presentación de los contenidos (conceptos, procedimientos y actitudes)	
2.3.1 Relaciono los contenidos y actividades con los intereses y conocimientos previos de mis alumnos.	
2.3.2 Estructuro y organizo los contenidos dando una visión general de cada tema (mapas conceptuales, esquemas, qué tienen que aprender, qué es importante, etc.)	
2.3.3 Facilito la adquisición de nuevos contenidos a través de los pasos necesarios, intercalando preguntas aclaratorias, sintetizando, ejemplificando, etc.	
2.4 Actividades en el aula	
2.4.1 Planteo actividades que aseguran la adquisición de los objetivos didácticos previstos y las habilidades y técnicas instrumentales básicas.	
2.4.2 Propongo a mis alumnos actividades variadas (diagnóstico, introducción, motivación, desarrollo, síntesis, consolidación, recuperación, ampliación y evaluación).	
2.4.3 En las actividades que propongo existe equilibrio entre las actividades individuales y trabajos en grupo.	
2.5 Recursos y organización del aula	
2.5.1 Distribuyo el tiempo adecuadamente: (breve tiempo de exposición y el resto del mismo para las actividades que los alumnos realizan en la clase).	
2.5.2 Adopto distintos agrupamientos en función del momento, de la tarea a realizar, de los recursos a utilizar... etc, controlando siempre el adecuado clima de trabajo.	
2.5.3 Utilizo recursos didácticos variados (audiovisuales, informáticos, técnicas de aprender a aprender...), tanto para la presentación de los contenidos como para la práctica de los alumnos, favoreciendo el uso autónomo por parte de los mismos.	
2.6 Instrucciones, aclaraciones y orientaciones a las tareas de los alumnos:	
2.6.1 Compruebo, de diferentes modos, que los alumnos han comprendido la tarea que tienen que realizar: haciendo preguntas, haciendo que verbalicen el proceso, etc.	
2.6.2 Facilito estrategias de aprendizaje: cómo solicitar ayuda, cómo buscar fuentes de información, pasos para resolver cuestiones, problemas, doy ánimos y me aseguro la participación de todos....	
2.6.3 Controlo frecuentemente el trabajo de los alumnos: dando explicaciones adicionales, dando pistas, realizando andamiaje, mediación, negociación, feedback,...	
2.7 Clima del aula	
2.7.1 Las relaciones que establezco con mis alumnos dentro del aula y las que éstos establecen entre sí son correctas, fluidas y desde unas perspectivas no discriminatorias.	

2.7.2 Favorezco la elaboración de normas de convivencia con la aportación de todos y reacciono de forma ecuánime y formativa ante situaciones conflictivas.	
2.7.3 Fomento el respeto y la colaboración entre los alumnos y acepto sus sugerencias y aportaciones, tanto para la organización de las clases como para las actividades de aprendizaje.	
2.7.4 Proporciono situaciones que facilitan a los alumnos el desarrollo de la afectividad como parte de su Educación Integral.	
2.8 Seguimiento/ control del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje:	
2.8.1 Reviso y corrijo frecuentemente los contenidos, actividades propuestas -dentro y fuera del aula, adecuación de los tiempos, agrupamientos y materiales utilizados.	
2.8.2 Proporciono información al alumno sobre la ejecución de las tareas y cómo puede mejorarlas y, favorezco procesos de autoevaluación y coevaluación.	
2.8.3 En caso de objetivos insuficientemente alcanzados propongo nuevas actividades que faciliten su adquisición.	
2.8.4 En caso de objetivos suficientemente alcanzados, en corto espacio de tiempo, propongo nuevas actividades que faciliten un mayor grado de adquisición.	
2.9 Diversidad	
2.9.1 Tengo en cuenta el nivel de habilidades de los alumnos, sus ritmos de aprendizajes, las posibilidades de atención, etc, y en función de ellos, adapto los distintos momentos del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje (motivación, contenidos, actividades, ...).	
2.9.2 Me coordino con otros profesionales (profesionales de apoyo, Orientación Educativa, Psicopedagógica, NEE, Orientación), para modificar y/o adaptar contenidos, actividades, metodología, recursos...a los diferentes ritmos y posibilidades de aprendizaje.	
3. EVALUACION	
3.1 Tengo en cuenta el procedimiento general, que concreto en mi programación de aula, para la evaluación de los aprendizajes de acuerdo con los Planes y programas del MINEDUC y el PEI	
3.2 Aplico criterios de evaluación y criterios de calificación (ponderación del valor de trabajos, de las pruebas, tareas de clase...) en cada uno de los temas de acuerdo con el Proyecto Curricular y, en su caso, las programaciones de áreas.	
3.3 Realizo una evaluación inicial a principio de curso, para ajustar la programación, en la que tengo en cuenta el informe final del Profesor anterior, profesor jefe, el de otros profesores, el del Equipo de Orientación Educativa y Psicopedagógica y/o Departamento de Orientación.	
3.4 Contemplo otros momentos de evaluación inicial: a comienzos de un tema, de lección, de proyecto, de nuevos bloques de contenido.	
3.5 Utilizo suficientes criterios de evaluación que atiendan de manera equilibrada la evaluación de los diferentes contenidos (conceptuales, procedimentales, actitudinales).	
3.6 Utilizo sistemáticamente procedimientos e instrumentos variados de recogida de información (registro de observaciones, carpeta del alumno, ficha de seguimiento, libro de clase, etc.)	
3.7 Corrijo y explico -habitual y sistemáticamente- los trabajos y actividades de los alumnos y, doy pautas para la mejora de sus aprendizajes.	
3.8 Uso estrategias y procedimientos de autoevaluación y coevaluación en grupo que favorezcan la participación de los alumnos en la evaluación.	
3.9 Utilizo diferentes técnicas de evaluación en función de la diversidad de alumnos/as, de las diferentes áreas, de los temas, de los contenidos...	
3.10 Utilizo diferentes medios para informar a padres, profesores y alumnos (sesiones de evaluación, boletín de información, reuniones colectiva, entrevistas individuales, asambleas de clase...) de los resultados de la evaluación.	
PROMEDIO TOTAL	

Observación: En el espacio Evaluación deberá expresar una calificación entre 3,0 y 7,0. La calificación 7.0 se asignará cuando el enunciado del indicador se realice al máximo nivel tanto de cantidad como de calidad.

7.0 logrado con excelencia	6.0 a 6.9 logrado satisfactoriamente	
5.0 a 5.9 logrado a nivel suficiente	4.0 a 4.9 logrado a nivel mínimo	3.0 a 3.9 no logrado

VII Calificaciones

Productos			Porcentaje	Fecha
- Supervisiones clases de inglés (mínimo dos)			50%	
- Proyecto de investigación acción			15%	
- Supervisiones clases orientación (mínimo una)			10%	
- Proyecto de aprendizaje y servicio			15%	
- Evaluaciones centro de práctica			10%	
			70%	
- Portafolio:				
Entrada I	1.- Descripción de la realidad (30%) 2.- Diagnóstico (70%)	10%	30%	
Entrada II	Planificaciones inglés (10 mínimos), incluye: a) planes de clases, b) material, c) evidencias de trabajos de los estudiantes. Se considera la planificación y evidencias presentes en el portafolio y su calidad.	50%		
Entrada III	Filmaciones de 2 clases de inglés completas.	15%		
Entrada IV	Planificaciones CC/O – (5 por semestre) incluye: a) plan de clase, b) material, c) evidencias de trabajos de los alumnos, d) Filmación de 2 clases. Taller para los apoderados.	15%		
Entrada VII	Autoevaluación.	10%		

Appendix I Reflections samples

Beatriz Reflection Lesson 3 (Linked to Appendix J)

Fortunately, this class was incredibly good, it may have been because it was recorded, therefore I did not have discipline problems as the last class. What I want to highlight this time are the ICT resources that I used during my class. First of all, the crossword in the ppt was a good strategy for the warming up, due to the fact that the students were eager to participate in the activity. Apart from that, during the while activity, I implemented a new resource that is called “wheel of names” in which I put the names of the students and at random it gives the chosen person who has to give the answer of the item. As the wheel has sounds and different colors, students were fascinated with it. Consequently, I realized that students really enjoy that kind of didactic resources. Apart from that, the way I show the keywords in the ppt was a good strategy because they not only draw students’ attention but also made their comprehension more effective. What is more, they could participate, putting the correct number on the board. Moreover, when I was presenting the images during the pre-activity, most of the students were willing to answer the questions, due to the fact that the images were motivated for them.

According to Scrivener (2011), integrating ICT into my classes is undoubtedly an excellent tool and if the teacher knows how to use it, it can transform their teaching style and support their pupils to learn more effectively. This is why I think that creating awareness of the importance of using them can help other teachers to compromise and commit themselves to learn more about how to use them.

Scrivener (2011) also highlights that teachers who use PPT presentations, have to consider including minimal text. The presentation must be used as a mean, not as an end. Use it as milestones and signposts to teach around, eliciting, telling, and asking questions, including good images, key words and important ideas.

References

Scrivener, J. (2011). *Learning teaching: The essential guide to English language teaching*. Macmillan.

Robert's reflection Lesson 4 (Linked to Appendix J)

Before we started the session, I clarified the rules for the class that were modified in contrast with the rules that they had from last semester, so I read the rules to set some grounds of behavior inside the classroom which were based on respect among themselves and towards the teacher, motivation, and participation in the activities of the class (B1/B4). I asked some of the students to tell me what they had understood about them to check comprehension and to guide them through the pictures to think of an appropriate answer. The response was positive and appropriate with their cognitive stage, plus it was not too depth to process due to the pictures were explicative and contextualized to each rule. Even though, this class, in particular, needs to be praised and motivated every time and then so they can focus on their learning process and notice that they are improving in the language (B2).

In this class, students started working on the first step for the oral presentation grade. At this time, students had to complete a chart that had three main issues to fulfill (B3). First, they were going to be athletes, so they had to choose one Olympic sport and tell why it was chosen (because it is a family tradition, it requires physical and mental abilities, or because you need to be strategic, etc.). Second, they had to create three interesting questions about the sport showing its qualities and facts to practice it. And third, they had to answer those same questions with creativeness to characterize the most important aspects of an athlete (C1/C3). Both questions and answers needed to express the contents and vocabulary previously seen in classes (A3). This activity was developed according to the unit, to the interest of the students (A1) and the requirements of the Ministry of Education (A2/A4). In general terms, the oral report was set previously by the English Department of the school and have been modified to accomplish the requirements asked by the Ministry and to assure the learning processes and conditions to the students, which were prepared during the previous classes with the contents of the unit and the activities linked to the vocabulary, grammatical aspects, and mostly the language skills. That is why the contents were deeply worked in classes with short tasks, examples, activities, etc., to clarify difficult aspects that may have brought misunderstanding to them (C2); doubts and questions were answered on several occasions and strategies and ideas were exemplified also when feedback was given (C4); students were motivated to challenge themselves to be creative and enthusiastic in relation to this main task, the oral report.

Students were assessed with a rating scale that provided a summative grade, the first of three grades. At the end of the creative process, those grades will contribute to one single grade that will be 30% of the final grade, the other 70% is for the presentation itself (A5).

My main weakness in this session was linked with giving instructions. I mean, it was comprehensive and coherent with the activities and the procedure that students had to follow. However, it could be better and more effective due to some students asked me several times to repeat the instructions or asked what they had to do. First, I had to be able to raise my voice in order for everyone could listen to me. Scrivener (2005) gives five steps in which one can improve giving instructions, and one step says to create the environment for the instruction beforehand to avoid chitchats, noises, and interruptions when I speak. This strategy proves its effectiveness in my weakness because I did not wait for students to be completely silent to speak and that concludes on saying repetitive times the instructions, losing time for them to work on the task, and to move to other activities in the class. In this sense, instructions and goals for the class could improve positively in the following session at putting into practice this strategy (C1); the effectiveness of the time could be more adequate for the activities prepared and could produce a more fluent class (C5). Additionally, the monitoring time could be completely focused on providing feedback and answering doubts instead of repeating instructions or doubts about the information that they did not pay attention to.

Reference

Scrivener, J. (2011) *Learning Teaching: The Essential Guide to English Language Teaching*. Third Edition. MacMillan.

Appendix J Lesson plans and worksheets samples

Beatriz' Lesson plan and worksheet (Linked to Appendix I)

Teacher Candidate: Beatriz	Name of the lesson: Hey dude, I need help. Unit/Topic: Unit 3: "Health and Modern life".	Time: 135 minutes. Date: September 10 th , 2019. September 12 th , 2019.
Grade Level: Third High "B"	Number of students: 40	
Skills Listening, speaking Reading, writing.		
Objectives -To identify general and specific information from a video about depression. -To write an email about health issues. -To discuss about health problems. -To listen to health problems. -To value and respect the importance of taking care of our health.		
Contents:		
Type of texts: Informative (listening text).	Communicative function(s): Discussing about mental health issue.	Key Vocabulary: -Disability -Boost -Depletion -Worthless
		Grammar: Language used to talk about health problems (<i>chickenpox, ulcer, mumps, plaster, wheelchair, etc.</i>)
<p>Identification of prior knowledge: Prior knowledge has been identified using a survey based on student's interest. The results are: -54% of the class learns better by reading/ writing while the other 46% by listening/speaking. - According to the interest survey, 72% of the students like working with reading stories. -Most students prefer working with topics related to healthy lifestyles (48%) - More than half of the class are keen on writing posters (54%) -Students prefer working in groups (51%). -Some expectations about English's class are: Do more presentations and conversations in groups, have more dynamic and fun activities and improve pronunciation.</p> <p>Prior knowledge has been identified using a diagnostic test based on student's knowledge KET exam. 64% of the class reached the highest score, while 36% got less than half of the score. The main weakness for the student is speaking, due to the fact that they lack of vocabulary, therefore it is really difficult for them to create complete and correct sentences.</p> <p>The VARK learning style test shows that the vast majority of the students have a specific learning style. The most predominant in the class is Kinesthetic with 10 students (31,25%), then Auditory with a result of 8 students (25%), Reading with a total of 4 students (12,5%) and Visual with just 2 students (6,25%). These results cover the 75% of the class, in which the other 25% is developed in: one student with an Auditory and Kinesthetic learning style, 3 students with a multiple combination of learning styles, 2 students with Auditory-reading learning style and finally the less repeated combination was Kinesthetic-visual with only one person.</p>		
<p>Activities Warming Dup activity -Students are greeted by the teacher. -The teacher shows the objectives of the class. -The teacher reminds students the rules of the class. -Students are shown a word search puzzle on the board with different words related to the unit. Students come to the board and complete the puzzle.</p>		

Pre-activity

- Students are shown a set of pictures in the ppt related with the video. Students guess the main topic of the text. A set of images (flashcards) related to key words will be shown by the teacher:
- Disability
- Boost
- Depletion
- Worthless

This would be helpful to develop the next activity of the class (listening). Students are taught new vocabulary by using techniques such as: images, gestures, contextualization, and mimics.

- The teacher will make them repeat the word in English as well as to catch the right pronunciation.
- After presenting the images, students make predictions about the topic of the next text.

While activity

- Students are asked watch a video for the first time to confirm their predictions. https://ed.ted.com/lessons/what-is-depression-helen-m-farrell/review_open#question-8
- Students listen to the text to identify general information by answering an open-ended question.
- Students listen to the video again for the last time to identify specific information by completing a multiple-choice item. (peer-work).
- The teacher checks the answers with the students on the board.

Post activity

- Students are taught health problem and medical tools vocabulary such as: chickenpox, ulcer, mumps, plaster, wheelchair. Students have to complete a filling in the gap item with the vocabulary given. The item will be checked on the board.
- Students have to write an email to a friend talking about a current health problem. Also, they have to include the importance of being aware of health problems.
- First, students discuss with a partner about a health problem.
- Students have to write an outline with the main ideas that they discuss in order to organize the writing.
- Then, individually, students will write the first draft.
- The teacher monitors students' work. Correction of the first draft are made.
- Students are shown a rubric in the PowerPoint that they have to follow.

Session 2: September 12th**Pre activity**

- The teacher greets students.
- The objective of the class is shown.
- The rules of the class are remained by the teacher.
- Students are asked to brainstorm expressions related to health problems.

While activity

- Students continue with the development of the email.
- The teacher monitors student's work.
- Students have to finish the second and final draft of their email.

Then after finishing, students correct the email in pairs. To do this they use a checklist in which spelling elements are indicated, such as question marks and exclamation marks, the period, the comma and the capital letter. In addition, it includes correcting the use of connectors (cohesion) learned, as long as the coherence of ideas (if they make sense).

Post activity

- After making the corrections, in pairs, they discuss the work made and they give suggestions to improve the text.
- The teacher asks what they learned in the class and the main topics of the class.

Resources

- ✓ Human Resources: Teacher, students.
- ✓ Materials: Computer, speakers, video, data, PowerPoint, pictures, pen, markers, pencils, worksheet, flashcards.

Assessment**Process assessment**

Criteria	Beginning (1)	Developing (2)	Accomplished (3)
Students can identify specific ideas from the listening.			
Students can identify general ideas of the listening			
Students could answer all the questions.			

Product assessment: (peer-assessment).

Check-list: writing

Criteria	YES	NO
Every word is spelled correctly.		
The email has between 130-150 words		
The text does not have punctuation errors.		
My partner mentioned the importance of being aware of health problems.		
The email has coherence ideas and cohesion. The email was well organized.		

Speaking assessment:

	1	2	3	4
Completion of task	Information provided was inadequate	Information provided was limited	Adequate information provided	Extensive information provided
Grammatical accuracy	Multiple mistakes that take away meaning	Frequent mistakes that make it somewhat difficult to understand	Some mistakes that do not interfere with meaning	Very accurate, few mistakes
Pronunciation	Largely incomprehensible	Somewhat difficult to understand	Easy to understand	Sounds almost like a native speaker
Fluency	Does not flow	Frequent pauses	Occasional pauses	Natural pattern of speech
Effort	Lack of effort and attention to detail	Lack of effort or attention to detail	Good effort and attention to detail	Outstanding effort and attention to detail

Beatriz' worksheet (Linked to Appendix I)

Worksheet sample. Beatriz, LO1.

UNIT 3: Health and modern life

Comprensión Auditiva

Indicadores de Evaluación: Demuestran su comprensión auditiva a través de preguntas sobre información general y específica sobre temas vinculados a unidad.

Puntaje:

Nota:

PI:

PR:

Name: _____ Date: _____

- I. Depression is unlike other major medical disorders in that it is intangible. In what ways does depression manifest itself?

- II. Answer the following questions.

1. What percentage of the United States population suffers from depression?

- A 1%
- B 5%
- C 10%
- D 20%

2. What do you call a specialized cell that transmits nerve impulses in the brain?

- A Receptor
- B Neuron
- C Synapse
- D Neurotransmitter

3. According to the World Health Organization, what is the leading cause of disability in the world?

- A Depression
- B High blood pressure
- C Diabetes
- D Schizophrenia

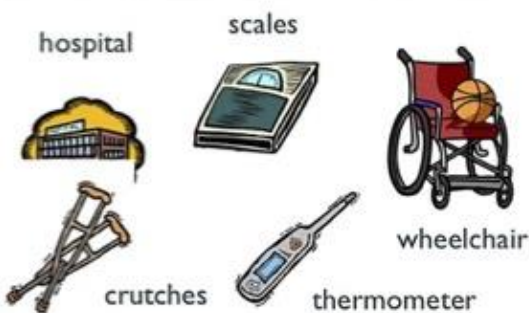
4. How long, on average, do people suffer in silence from serious depression before they seek medical help?

- A 1 week
- B 1 month
- C 1 year
- D 1 decade

Health problems vocabulary:

health	salud
illness	enfermedad (en general)
disease	enfermedad (específica)
asthma	asma
chickenpox	varicela
smallpox	viruela
heart attack	infarto
heart disease	cardiopatía
hepatitis	hepatitis
ulcer	úlcera
flu	gripe
mumps	papera
wound	herida (por un arma)
injury	herida
blood	sangre
injection	inyección
medicine	medicina
pill	pastilla, píldora
prescription	receta médica
vaccine	vacuna
painful	doloroso
painless	indoloro
bandage	venda
band aid	tirita, curita
crutch	muleta
plaster	yeso
wheelchair	silla de ruedas

MEDICAL TOOLS



Complete the following sentences. Use **chickenpox, wheelchair, bandage, crutches, injury** in the sentences:

1. He was in a _____ for several months after the accident.
2. Tom couldn't walk without _____.
3. _____ rash appears on the skin.
4. He wrapped a _____ around his knee.
5. She fell and suffered an _____ to her arm.

**Post listening:**

Your friend from Punta Arenas send you an email asking how are you doing. Unfortunately, you (or somebody close to you) have been sick for a long time. In **130-150 words**, write your email to a friend about a current health problem and the importance of being aware of health problems.

Here you have an example:

Dear Pablo,

I am writing to tell you that my father has not been feeling well in the last few weeks. He has gone to the doctor because he has not been sleeping well. I think it is because he doesn't walk or exercise much and he spends the day sitting in front of the TV. The doctor controlled his pressure and took some blood tests. Therefore, it is really important to be aware of our health, one day you can be totally fine but then you never know. I hope tomorrow I will know what it is so that I will be able to travel with you to Canada. I will write to you as soon as I have some news...

Organize your ideas:Three horizontal bars with arrowheads on the left side, intended for organizing ideas. Each bar is gray with a black outline and rounded ends on the right side.



Write your email:

Peer assessment: After writing, check your email's partner and give him/her feedback according to the rubric.

Criteria	YES	NO
Every word is spelled correctly.		
The email has between 130-150 words		
The text does not have punctuation errors.		
My partner writes the beginning of the sentences with capital letter.		
The email has coherence ideas and cohesion (uses as long as and provided that).		

Robert's Lesson plan and worksheet (Linked to Appendix I)

LESSON PLAN	
Teacher's name: Robert Arce	Level: 2E
Time: 225 minutes	Date: September 2nd, 2019; September 5 th , 2019
Communicative function: Developing speaking skills through a dialogue using modal verbs about rules and prohibitions.	Type of Text: Narrative
<p>Students' needs and interests considered: The chosen Oral Report was set previously for the English Department.</p> <p>The interests considered are based on the topic of the unit. The Interest Survey shows that they preferred to work in groups because it is a better source to get experiences and share opinions about a task. Students have learned the main grammatical aspects of the Unit, mixing that new knowledge with the development of the language skills.</p>	
Topic: I have to get the tickets!	
Previous knowledge required: Have to / Has To; Don't have to / Doesn't have to; Must / Mustn't	
LEARNING OUTCOME/S	CONTENT
- To develop speaking skills through a dialogue using modal verbs about rules and prohibitions.	<p>Concept: The use of Have to / Has To; Don't have to / Doesn't have to; Must / Mustn't with vocabulary related to Olympic sports and general information.</p> <p>Procedure: Performing a dialogue about sports or signs.</p> <p>Attitude: The importance of recognizing the efforts to achieve personal goals in life.</p>
ACTIVITIES	
<p>First session (90min):</p> <p>1. Start: (5min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The teacher greets the students and answers back. - The teacher reads the learning outcome for the class and asks if they understand it. - The teacher tells the new rules for the class: <i>Participate during the class, don't be a ghost; Eat knowledge inside and food outside; Be a mime if somebody is talking; Speak your mind loud, but raise the hand first; and, Respect to be respected.</i> - The teacher checks comprehension. <p>Warm-up: (10min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some students are chosen to perform mimics of some sports. - Students chosen have to pick a paper to perform. - The rest of the class has to guess the sport. <p>2. Development:</p> <p>a. Pre: (15min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The teacher asks the students: Which sport do you think is better to practice? Then, asks, why? - Students give their opinions about the named sports. - The teacher asks the students about their own predictions about the main topic of the class. <p>b. While: (25min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students receive a worksheet for the class. - Students have to fulfill it to complete one step for the evaluation. It consists on completing a chart with steps to create a dialogue (product) at the end of the class. - Students are requested to complete the following information previously: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Choose an Olympic Sport to be an athlete representing that sport, telling why it was chosen. - Write three (3) interesting questions explaining: What do you have to/must do as an athlete? - Write creative answers to the questions. - The teacher asks for advanced process of it to check comprehension and give general feedback to troubles or doubts. 	

- While the students are working, the teacher monitors the activity.
c. Post: Production: (30min) - The teacher presents the instructions for the main activity (Oral Report): - After the students completed the chart. - Students join a classmate or make groups of three. - Students gather the information about their Olympic sport chosen. - Students start writing a dialogue according to the example given previously. - Students have to include vocabulary learned throughout the Unit 7. - Each student has to include at least 3 times <i>Have to/Has to</i> or <i>Must/mustn't</i> (Affirmative or Negative form). - Before the presentation, students have to develop the script of the dialogue to the teacher.
Closing: (10min) - The teacher asks for the advanced task to check class work. - The teacher asks for general or specific problems during the process of the dialogue. - The teacher clarify doubts and provide feedback.
Session 2 (90min): 2. Start: (5min) - The teacher greets the students and answers back. - The teacher reads the learning outcome for the class and asks if they understand it. - The teacher tells the new rules for the class: <i>Participate during the class, don't be a ghost; Eat knowledge inside and food outside; Be a mime if somebody is talking; Speak your mind loud, but raise the hand first; and, Respect to be respected.</i> - The teacher checks comprehension.
Pre: (15min) - The teacher asks for opinions about the difficulties of the Oral Report. - The teacher writes <i>Problems</i> and <i>Solutions</i> on the whiteboard. - The teacher asks for volunteers to write solutions after all the general problems are written on the board. - Students clarify their issues and start working on their dialogues again.
While: (30min) - The teacher calls for each group to give them personal feedback and check last changes, while other groups keep working on their dialogues. - Students finish their dialogues. - Students provide the script to the teacher.
c. Post: Production: (40min) - Volunteer groups start the presentation session of the dialogues in front of the class. - If any group volunteers, the groups will be chosen by the list of the class. - While students are performing, the teacher write notes and assess the students. - After each presentation the teacher provides feedback to the students.
Session 3 (45min): Post: (35min) - The rest of the groups perform their dialogues. - While students are performing, the teacher write notes and assess the students. - After each presentation the teacher provides feedback to the students.
Closing: (10min) - The teacher speaks about the presentations in general. - The teacher talks about the progress of the students. - The teacher gives general feedback and cheers them to keep improving in the language.
Possible adjustment: - There are SEN in the class, at least 10.
Resources: Material Resources: Whiteboard, marker, data projector, computer, speaker, eraser, students' book, notebooks, white papers, envelopes, etc. Human resources: Students, Teacher.
ASSESSMENT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Type of assessment: Summative

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What will be assessed: Product ● Who is going to assessed: Teacher to students ● When will be assessed: At the end of the Post activity ● Assessment tool: Rubric 			
Criterion	Achieved (5pts)	Partially achieved (3pts)	Needs improvement (1pt)
Modal verbs	Uses four or more modal verbs (have to or must) in the dialogue	Uses three modal verbs or less (have to or must) correctly in the dialogue	Uses two modal verb or less but wrongly (have to or must) in the dialogue
Vocabulary	Uses more than three new words in the dialogue	Uses between two or three new words in the dialogue	Uses one or two new words in the dialogue but not correctly in its tense
Speech	Uses a correct tone of voice, it does not makes long pauses and speaks fluently	Uses a correct tone of voice but it makes long pauses. However, it is understandable	Uses a low tone of voice and shows a lack of confidence in its ideas
Total points:	15	Students' points:	

Worksheet Unit 7

Name: _____ Grade: _____ Date: _____

Objective: To develop speaking skills through a dialogue using modal verbs about rules and prohibitions.

I. Complete the chart with the information requested.

1. YOU are going to be an athlete. Choose your favorite Olympic sport. Tell <i>why</i> you choose it.	2. Write three (3) questions explaining: What do you have to/must do as an athlete?	3. Write <i>creative</i> answers to your questions.
1	1	1
2	2	2
3	3	3

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