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Modeling Plurilithic Orientations to English with Pre-Service Teachers: An Exploratory International Study

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Abstract

A major challenge for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) professionals is how to address the learning needs of diverse learners for whom a monolithic, native-normed version of English is no longer always useful or appropriate. Research in Global Englishes (GE) has noted many teachers' resistance to the adoption of a more "plurilithic" orientation. This study explores whether monolithic beliefs can be effectively challenged using practitioner role models. Video clips featuring early-career English teachers from Germany and China modeling a plurilithic orientation were played to pre-service teachers with the same L1 ("near peers") or different L1s ("more distant peers"). Before viewing, participants responded to a questionnaire assessing their beliefs about English. Immediately following viewing, open-ended reactions to the video content were collected. One month later, participants answered the questionnaire again to measure potential changes in belief. After a further 5 months, a small group of participants were interviewed to explore impacts in greater depth. Data indicate that viewing the role models was a positive experience for most participants and was associated with significant increases in plurilithic orientation for near peers, with evidence of enduring impact for some. We interpret these

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results as support for the use of near peer video modeling as part of efforts to promote ontological clarity about GE in teacher education.
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INTRODUCTION

One of the major practical challenges for current Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) professionals is how to address the English-learning needs of diverse students in a world where a single, monolithic, native-normed version of the language is no longer always useful or appropriate. The typical outcome of TESOL for most learners is not replication of the prestige standardized variety that they are taught and tested on, but rather idiolectal resources and practices which tend to be viewed as imperfect and inferior, independently of how successfully they serve speakers' purposes. Learners and L2 users of English, and also non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), suffer social injustices as a result of negative judgments about their Englishes and the often racialized stereotypes associated with them (e.g., Motha, 2014). In response, research and professional discourse under the umbrella of Global Englishes (GE) has sought to challenge traditional monolithic views of English, as part of a broader unsettling of dominant paradigms in applied linguistics and language teaching. GE subsumes findings and perspectives from World Englishes (cf. Saraceni, 2021), English as an International Language (cf. Sharifian, 2009), and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF; cf. Jenkins, Baker, & Dewey, 2018). Shared to a greater or lesser extent by all strands of GE is a "plurilithic" orientation to English (Pennycook, 2009), in which the language can be conceptualized as a distributed, dynamic, and fluid set of social and cognitive resources and practices (cf. Hall, 2013). The study reported here explores how the monolithic beliefs about English still paramount in TESOL might be challenged. Specifically, it examines the impact of exposing pre-service teachers in postgraduate programs to the plurilithic thinking of practitioner role models (Gibson, 2004).

Challenging Monolithic Beliefs in TESOL

Although many trainee and in-service English teachers report finding the GE perspective persuasive, it is inconsistent with (or directly challenges) established educational practice and belief and has yet to

have much of an impact on it. Even for those teachers sympathetic with the plurilithic stance, they tend to find it hard to maintain in actual classroom practice (Galloway & Numajiri, 2020; Liu & Fang, 2021). Studies regularly highlight the entrenched nature of many teachers' monolithic beliefs about English and the difficulties associated with changing those beliefs (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015; Suzuki, 2011; Young, Walsh, & Schartner, 2016). Sifakis and Bayyurt (2015), for example, report that teachers demonstrate a reluctance "to set aside their traditional EFL practices of teaching standardized, or native English" (p. 472). This resistance is perhaps not surprising, given the centuries of cultural entrenchment of ideologies and myths around language and languages upon which the resilience of the monolithic conceptualization of English is based (Armstrong & Mackenzie, 2013; Hall, 2020; Harris, 1981). Although we do not underestimate the magnitude of the challenge, we are encouraged by recent efforts in applied linguistics to enable teachers to develop a more critical awareness of the plurilithic nature of English and the consequences this has for their professional practice. Most of this work has concentrated on exposing the harmful language ideologies underpinning the monolithic position (e.g. Alfaro & Bartolomé, 2017; Motha, 2014; Wiese et al., 2017). The present study attempts to dig deeper into pre-service teacher belief systems by focusing attention on the ontological beliefs upon which their ideologies rely (cf. Hall and Cunningham, 2020). The ontological study of English in the context of TESOL (cf. Hall and Wicaksono, 2020a) concerns stakeholders' beliefs about the nature of the object being taught, learned, tested, and used across the globe. It also addresses how these (changing and often contradictory) conceptualizations underpin professional practice, including language pedagogy and policy. Accordingly, the research contributes to what Hall (2021) has called TEEGL: "Teacher Education about English for Global Learners," the objective of which is to develop teachers capable of pursuing GE for Language Teaching (GELT: Rose & Galloway, 2019).

Recent years have seen a growing body of scholarly proposals for teacher education in GELT. Sifakis (2007), for example, outlines a general framework for ELF teacher education in five phases; Kumaravadivelu (2012) presents a detailed modular approach to training teachers for English in "a global society"; and Galloway and Numajiri (2020) evaluate the impact of a postgraduate course on GELT in the UK. Several edited volumes, including Alsagoff, McKay, Hu, and Renandya (2012), Bayyurt and Akcan (2015), and Matsuda (2017), offer theoretical and practical perspectives on teacher education for ELF and English as an International Language more broadly in different global contexts. Selvi and Yazan (2021) curate a collection of

practical GELT resources. For a thematic review of cases of GE-informed teacher education, see Chen, Chen, and Fang (2021). Some of this work has focused attention on TESOL professionals' conceptualizations of English and how to encourage critical reflection leading to possible belief change (e.g., Marr & English, 2019; Rose & Galloway, 2019; Sifakis, 2019). Rose and Galloway (2019), for example, argue explicitly that "GELT requires a new ontological stance, or understanding of language" (p. 91). In a series of publications, Hall and colleagues have argued for an emphasis on ontological, as well as ideological, reflection (e.g. Hall, 2021; Hall & Wicaksono, 2020a; Hall, Wicaksono, Liu, Qian, & Xu, 2017), calling for actions to promote "ontological clarity" and consequent belief change in teachers (Hall & Cunningham, 2020, p. 12).

Promoting Belief Change

Although there is some research which offers insight into the importance of raising awareness of GE in different contexts and settings (e.g. Cavalheiro, 2016; Dewey, 2012; Hall et al., 2017), the effectiveness of interventions to challenge monolithic conceptualizations of English has not yet been subjected to much empirical study. There are several ways in which teachers may be engaged in the development of greater ontological clarity and possible belief change. At the most explicit and direct level, ontological issues can be included in formal study as part of teacher education or Continuous Professional Development. One example is the first phase of the *ELF-TEd* project (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015), in which student teachers read and reflect on theory associated with the ELF paradigm, before applying and evaluating their new knowledge and understanding. Adopting a more implicit, bottom-up approach, Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2017) facilitated dialogic enquiry to help teachers' critical awareness "awaken" for their work with emergent bilingual learners in Ireland. Similarly, Schreiber (2019) engaged Sri Lankan MA TESOL students in online tasks with multilingual students from New York to problematize assumptions about native speakers (NSs). These methods could also be adapted to ontological awareness.

The explicit approach has the advantage of helping focus teachers' minds on complex issues that may not easily "awaken" in implicit tasks, but as a top-down strategy risks meeting resistance and/or only superficial engagement. Voluntary, self-paced, formative study outside of assessed programs can address both problems, by presenting theory in an accessible way which engages teachers' agency. The online *Changing Englishes* course (Hall & Wicaksono, 2020b), designed specifically to

promote ontological clarity and belief change, takes this form. One vehicle for promoting belief change discussed there is Near Peer Role Modeling (Murphey & Arao, 2001; Murphey & Murakami, 2001). For the present study, we adapted the technique for teachers, using short online video clips in which in-service teachers modeled a plurilithic orientation for pre-service teachers. The rationale for selecting this approach is that the target beliefs and attitudes to which trainee teachers are exposed emerge from actual teachers, rather than academics remote from classrooms. It also capitalizes on the known impact of role models in broader professional development (Gibson, 2004).

Role Models

A traditional definition of a role model, provided by Gibson (2004), is the following: "a person in an influential role position, such as a parent, teacher, supervisor or mentor, who provides an example for individuals to imitate" (p. 135). Gibson, viewing role models from the perspective of organizational science, draws on social identification theory (cf. Postmes & Branscombe, 2010) and social learning theory (cf. Bandura, 1997) to redefine the concept and apply it to professional development in adults. In his view, a role model can be more productively viewed as a mental composite "based on the attributes of people in social roles an individual perceives to be similar to him or herself to some extent and desires to increase perceived similarity by emulating those attributes" (p. 136). Gibson posits four dimensions along which role models can vary: (a) positive/negative (the extent to which their attributes are to be emulated or avoided); (b) global/specific (the range of attributes they possess); (c) close/distant (the degree and frequency of social interaction one has with them); and (d) up/across-down (the hierarchical status they occupy: higher, peer, or subordinate).

In this study, we explore the impact of (a) *positive* role models who (b) *specifically* model a plurilithic orientation, and who, although (c) *distant* from the pre-service teachers, are (d) their near *peers*, not only in terms of hierarchical status, but also demographically (in terms of age, nationality, and L1). The inspiration for this study is work conducted around 20 years ago on near peer modeling for language learners by Murphey and colleagues in Japan (Murphey & Arao, 2001; Murphey & Murakami, 2001). Although role models have been extensively used and studied in language learning (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003, ch. 7; Muir, Dörnyei, & Adolphs, 2021), Murphey and colleagues are the only researchers to our knowledge to have highlighted the importance of degree of affiliation with and identification

between learner and models. Near peer role models (henceforth NPRMs) are individuals with similar demographic profiles to the learners or students and who work or study in the same regional and educational contexts. The results of previous NPRM studies with language learners (Lingley, 2017; Ruddick & Nadasdy, 2013) and other fields (e.g. nursing: Donaldson & Carter, 2005) suggest that they can be very effective for developing target knowledge and behavior.

Significantly for our concern with ontology, the original studies by Murphey and colleagues addressed belief change rather than task performance or behavior. They used video recordings of interviews with "enthusiastic students" in which they commented on motivational ideas (Murphey & Arao, 2001, p. 1). On the basis of significant increases in learners' rating scores for questionnaire items pre- and post-video, as well as qualitative data, the researchers concluded that most participants identified with the NPRMs and changed their beliefs as a result. Murphey and Murakami (2001) used the same materials with non-English majors, drawing similar conclusions. Positive effects of the method have been found more recently by Walters (2020) for learners' self-efficacy beliefs after viewing "slightly older and more advanced" NPRMs (p. 108) interacting in English. In their discussion, Murphey and Murakami (2001) speculated that NPRMs "may have especially beneficial results in EFL teacher training" (p. 53). Support for this possibility comes from Bernat (2008) who exposed NNESTs to "empowering discourses" in informal face-to-face encounters with NPRMs (p. 6) and concluded that this, along with other measures, minimized their feelings of inadequacy.

The Study

As mentioned, there is little empirical research on the effectiveness of efforts to challenge monolithic beliefs about English in TESOL practitioners, and none which assesses the promise of the NPRM method in TEEGL. Furthermore, robust evidence for the effectiveness of NPRMs in other domains is lacking. Although Murphey and Murakami (2001) attribute the observed belief change to the effect of their intervention, the evidence for causality is indirect in their study and most others. Walters' (2020) study with learners used experimental and control groups to isolate the NPRM effect, but they compared treatment with non-treatment groups, rather than near peer with more distant peer role models. Finally, most NPRM research in TESOL has been restricted to Japanese contexts, with the only exception we are aware of being Bernat's (2008) study with teacher trainees in Australia.

The present study helps fill this research gap while creating TEEGL materials. We investigated the extent to which video recordings of young German and Chinese early-career teachers talking about their beliefs and professional practices, in which they modeled a plurilithic orientation to English, might influence pre-service teachers' own thinking. We explored potential changes in belief in pre-service teachers who were L1 speakers of German, Mandarin, or another language, after watching the videos as part of postgraduate study. The choice of teacher L1 to operationalize "near peerness" follows logically from the notion of a plurilithic orientation to English, which highlights local (NNS) repertoires and contexts of use rather than the monolithic NS norms assumed in mainstream TESOL (Hall, 2013, 2020; Pennycook, 2009). To explore whether any effects we found extended beyond a particular local context, we decided to assess the use of role models in two different "near peer" scenarios, corresponding to the L1s of two of the study authors (German and Mandarin). The UK-based author was able to gain access to Mandarin-speaking pre-service teachers (TESOL students) in UK institutions, which enabled us to recruit more participants to view the Chinese video treatments. This accounts for the use of videos featuring teachers from Germany and China. To explore any near peer/more distant peer effects in the impact of the videos, and capitalizing on our access to students in UK institutions (and subsequently a Spanish institution), we also included participants with other L1s in the Chinese treatment.

The following main and subsidiary research questions were addressed.

- What impact does exposure to teacher modeling of plurilithic orientations to English and English teaching practice have on pre-service teachers with different L1 backgrounds?

  RQ(a) To what extent is exposure to the modeling associated with an increased plurilithic orientation to English and English teaching practice?
  RQ(b) To what extent can any increased plurilithic orientation be attributed to the near/more distant peer status of the teachers?
  RQ(c)To what extent is any increase in plurilithic orientation maintained in the longer term?

METHODOLOGY

Short video clips featuring young in-service teachers of English discussing GE(LT) were played as part of regular online learning activities to three groups of pre-service teachers: (a) German L1 speakers in

German and Austrian universities (henceforth GL1); (b) Mandarin L1 speakers in universities in the UK and China (henceforth ML1); and (c) speakers of other L1s in UK and Spanish universities (henceforth OL1). Table 1 provides details of participant numbers.

The GL1 participants saw video clips featuring German teachers (henceforth GNPRM treatment); the ML1 and OL1 participants saw video clips featuring Chinese teachers (henceforth CNPRM treatment). Figure 1 provides a visualization of the relationship between the two video treatments and the three participant groups.

We adopted a sequential exploratory mixed-method design combining two empirical components: (a) qualitative data collection through open-ended survey responses and interviews regarding the impact of the two video treatments; and (b) parallel quasi-experimental treatments in which questionnaire-based measures of plurilithic orientation (see Instrument design) were taken before and after exposure to the videos to assess changes in orientation following the treatment. Data were collected in three stages. First, qualitative data were collected using open-ended responses to survey questions to address RQ(a) and RQ(b). Subsequently, data were collected using a questionnaire instrument to address RQ(a), RQ(b) and RQ(c) from a quantitative perspective. Finally, interviews with a subset of respondents were conducted to provide deeper qualitative insights addressing all research questions. The project received ethical approval from the first author's institution.

Video Treatment Design

The material for the video clips was created by recording structured conversations with seven young early-career teachers in Germany and China, conducted in English (and in one case German: see below). The second author, a speaker of L1 German based in Germany, selected and conversed with the teachers for GNPRM, and the third author, a speaker of L1 Mandarin from China, selected and conversed with the teachers for CNRPM. Both authors are bilingual teacher

TABLE 1
Participants by Group and Peer Status

Group	Peer status	*N*
GL1	Near peer	81
ML1	Near peer	65
OL1	More distant peer	27
TOTAL		173

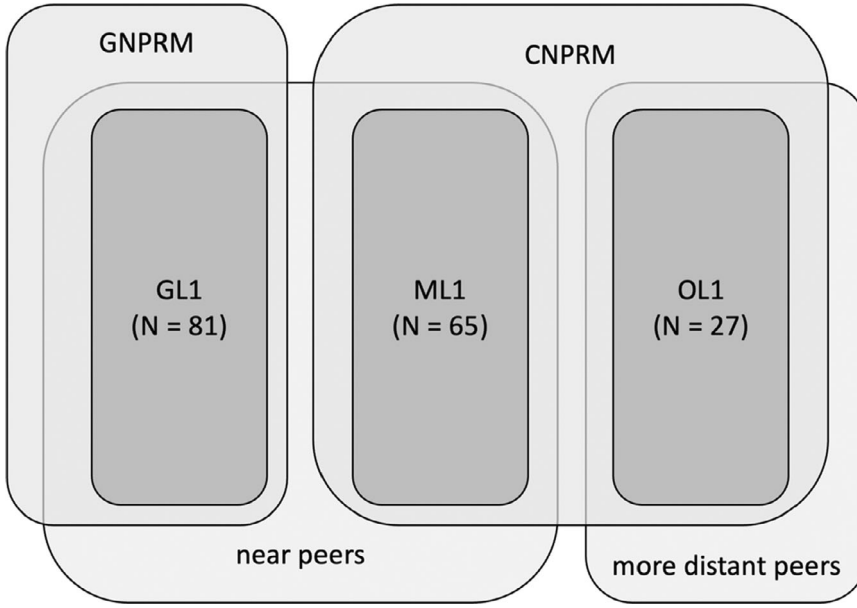

FIGURE 1. Video treatments, participant groups, and peer status.

trainers. To create the GNPRM video clips, two female teachers (Anna and Vivien) and one male teacher (Tassilo) were recorded in conversation. For CNRPM, two female teachers (May and Yinong Qiu) and two male teachers (Ren Chen and Leo) were recorded. All teachers gave their informed consent for elements of the recorded conversations to be shared in the public domain.

The conversations took the form of Q&A sessions in which the main questions were the same for both versions, and were split into two parts. Those used in the first part concerned teachers' beliefs about GE, and were drawn from the "Self-assessment Tool" of the *Changing Englishes* online course for teachers (Hall & Wicaksono, 2020b). This tool was designed for users to self-assess the extent of their plurilithic orientation to English at the start of the course. The teachers were asked questions such as "Does perfect English really exist?" and "Are Asian/European varieties of English as legitimate as British or American varieties?" The second set of questions concerned teachers' classroom practices in the light of GE, and were designed specifically for this study by the research team. For instance, the teachers were asked: "What do you say to students who want to sound just like native speakers?" and "What kinds of activities do you use to raise students' awareness of Global Englishes?" Follow-up questions were used to clarify points and encourage teachers to expand on their responses. Teachers

were given the choice to respond in English or their L1, and one German teacher (Anna) chose to respond in German. Conversations ranged from 29 to 63 min in length, with an average of 44 min.

Because of restrictions on social contact resulting from the global Coronavirus pandemic, conversations were held online using virtual conferencing software and were recorded by the teachers in their own homes. The research team selected and arranged salient excerpts from transcripts of the full conversations, and the corresponding stretches of video were then formatted and assembled into four video clips of around 10 min each by a professional video editing company. The German and Chinese clips are very different from each other in both degree of locally relevant content and cultural norms; yet in the estimation of the researchers they both reflect a plurilithic orientation to English, expressing quite balanced opinions about GE and GELT. The following statements give a flavor of the content of the videos:

> There are things like the British English that maybe most of the students aspire to, to having that level of proficiency or that level of variety within their English language. But I think that doesn't mean that a person, for example, that comes from Asia and learns English shouldn't be regarded as a perfect speaker, because I think I can perfectly understand them when they're speaking English with me.
>
> (Tassilo)

> It's okay to show your own accent when learning English, I would let my students know even native speakers who come from different English speaking countries and regions, they have their own accent. So it's very normal and natural, it's important for us to accept our own accent.
>
> (Leo)

The videos may be viewed at: tinyurl.com/2p9afd6z.

Instrument Design

The instrument used to measure pre-service teachers' degree of plurilithic orientation to English pre- and post-video was the "Orientations to English Questionnaire" (henceforth OEQ). The OEQ also draws on the "Self-assessment Tool" of the *Changing Englishes* course (Hall & Wicaksono, 2020b), but in modified form and with some item replacements, made after consideration of piloting feedback. The OEQ comprises 24 statements, balanced to reflect ontological, ethical, professional, and socio-political issues related to GE. Statements are worded to reflect a plurilithic orientation to English. Participants

indicate their level of agreement with each item on a 5-point Likert scale. The following are examples of questionnaire items (see Appendix for the complete set):

1. There are many Englishes in the world, including both native and non-native versions.
2. Automatically treating non-native forms of English as mistakes unfairly judges non-native users as deficient.
3. Teachers should help learners develop the vocabulary and communicative strategies they need for interaction with other non-native users, rather than just with NSs.
4. English is enriched by its non-NSs (NNSs) and the native languages they speak.

The statements are based on theoretical discussion about plurilithic ontology (e.g. Hall, 2013, 2020; Pennycook, 2009), empirical work on the plurilithic orientation with practicing teachers (Hall et al., 2017), and feedback from practicing teachers trialing the original tool on the *Changing Englishes* course (Hall et al., 2013). This, and the comprehensive piloting and repeated measures of internal consistency reported below, give us confidence in the content and construct validity of the OEQ instrument.

The OEQ was piloted first informally with NNS English-teaching colleagues in the UK and Germany (one in each) to verify item comprehensibility and to estimate the time needed for completion. As a result, several items were reworded. The questionnaire was then piloted again with two groups of students who have a similar profile to the intended population: 29 final-year British undergraduates studying for a Language and TESOL degree and 29 Chinese undergraduate English majors studying in China. As a result, one further item was reworded. The OEQ had a high level of internal consistency for both undergraduate groups, as determined by a Cronbach's alpha of 0.861 for the former and 0.916 for the latter. Additional closed- and open-ended items were used to record demographic information, capture immediate reactions, and assess other exposure to GE, as detailed in the following section. The complete survey, including the OEQ and additional items, can be inspected in the IRIS database (http://www.iris-database.org/).

Procedure

The project was undertaken in three phases (Figure 2). Phases 1 and 2 were conducted via dedicated websites (one for GNPRM and

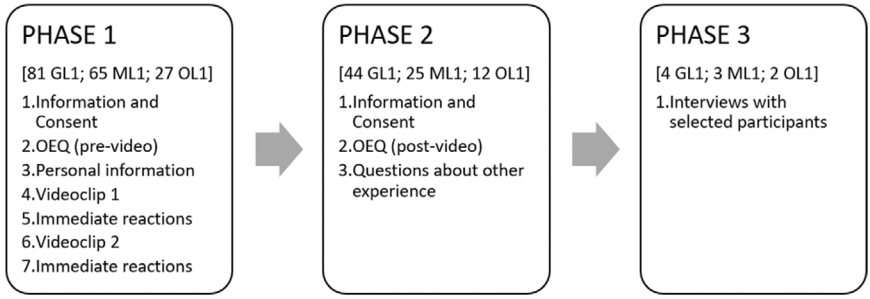

FIGURE 2. Procedure, with participants by group for each phase.

one for CNPRM) which contained a common survey to collect the open-ended and OEQ responses, together with the video clips for each treatment. In Phase 1, the pre-service teachers received information about the project, gave consent, completed the OEQ, provided some demographic information, and then viewed the video clips. After each clip, they provided open-ended responses in a text box to the following prompt: "Please describe your immediate reaction to what the teachers said." Most participants completed the activity in less than 30 min. In Phase 2, approximately 1 month later, they completed the OEQ again and answered some follow-up questions about other experiences they might have had with GE, including participation in courses and familiarity with the terms *Englishes* and *ELF*. This phase took less than 20 min to complete. In Phase 3, a small number of participants took part in interviews around 5 months after the previous phase, to enable us to explore the impact of the videos in greater depth and assess longer-term changes in orientation. Between phases, participants continued with their regular study activities.

To recruit pre-service teacher participants, directors of MA TESOL programs in the UK, Germany, and Austria were contacted either directly or through online professional forums to request the participation of their students in the project. Program directors responding affirmatively were sent a link to a webpage containing the Phase 1 material. After a month, they were sent a link to a second webpage containing the Phase 2 material. They were asked to present the two sets of activities to students as a formative assignment. Students in MA programs in China were recruited directly through a social media platform by the third author, with the activities presented as voluntary formative exercises to complement their postgraduate studies, and followed the same schedule as the other countries. Participating pre-service teachers worked through the online activities individually at

their own pace. Only data from participants who completed both Phases 1 and 2 were included in the OEQ analysis.

For Phase 3, the research team identified a sub-group of those participants who had indicated their willingness to be interviewed, on the basis of their OEQ scores (both increased and decreased) and their open-ended responses, contacting them directly to invite them to be interviewed. Further details of the procedure followed are given in the Interview Data section below.

DATA ANALYSIS

Immediate reaction data from the open-ended responses were first analyzed and coded thematically. In an iterative process, initial themes were identified by the second author on the basis of a close first reading of the immediate reaction responses, following which themes were checked and organized into broader categories by the first and second authors, which were then agreed by both in a final round of analysis. These qualitative data addressed the main research question regarding the general impact of the video treatment, as well as RQ(a) regarding increases in plurilithic orientation and RQ(b) regarding peerness effects. We also conducted some quantitative analysis of these data, counting expressions of (dis)agreement with the opinions articulated in the videos, to find out whether there were differences in plurilithic orientation across participant groups immediately following video exposure (RQb). For the OEQ data, mean scores both before and after exposure to the video clips were calculated for the three groups (GL1, ML1, and OL1). Inferential statistics were used to assess the significance of the differences in scores found within each group pre- and post-treatment, thus addressing RQ(a). Interviews were transcribed with a speech-to-text tool, translated into English using a translation tool, and manually corrected by the authors (a NS of English, a bilingual German/English speaker, and a bilingual Mandarin/English speaker). The qualitative coding consisted of detecting patterns in the interviewees' responses related to the main research question, which were summarized under themes. The aim was to identify the themes relating to the participants' attitudes toward the teachers and the videos in general, addressing all research questions, including RQ(c) regarding longer-term effects. Using first and second cycle coding methods (Saldaña, 2013), the second author initially coded the transcripts, then the first author checked the coding, leading into a second coding cycle. Distinctive themes emerged that all researchers agreed on.

SURVEY RESULTS

In this section, we report the results of Phases 1 and 2, analyzing (a) immediate reactions to the videos and (b) changes in OEQ scores.

Immediate Reaction Data

After viewing each video clip, participants were presented with an open-ended response box with the following instruction: "Please describe your immediate reaction to what the teachers said." Data from this activity address the main research question regarding the general impact of the video clips, as well as RQ(a) about the extent to which the impacts are associated with movement toward a more plurilithic orientation, and RQ(b) concerning whether peerness helps explain patterns in the impacts detected. The responses fell into three broad thematic areas, commenting on (a) *video content*, (b) *pre-service teachers' own beliefs*, and (c) *the teachers*. Many reactions dealt with two or more of these categories, but most referred to the content of the videos. Of these, more responses expressed degrees of agreement than of disagreement (see below and Table 2 for quantitative analysis). For instance, an Austrian participant commented: "I think they are right in their arguments and they mentioned a few aspects that I had not thought about before when I answered the questions." A German participant wrote: "My immediate reaction was relief, because my opinion on that topic is not really different from their opinions and since they also want to become teachers it's good to know that there are other prospective teachers that support other varieties of English." A Chinese respondent asserted: "They are right and I am absolutely agree with them because I also share the same experience with them." Not unexpectedly, some comments were critical of the content. For example, after watching the second video clip, a German participant felt the content was one-sided because the teachers presented plurilithic views only: "All the three teachers share the same beliefs as for teaching English varieties. It would be more interesting to hear contradictive

TABLE 2

Percentage of Immediate Reaction Responses Expressing Degrees of Agreement and Disagreement with Content Expressed in the Videos, by L1 Group and Peer Status

L1	Peer status	Fully/mostly agree	Partly agree	Fully/mostly disagree
GL1	Near peer	34.57	12.35	8.64
ML1	Near peer	35.38	13.85	1.54
OL1	More distant peer	25.93	3.70	3.70

opinions." Another praised the teachers' tolerance, but expressed the belief that "the ultimate goal should still be to thrive towards a native speaker (regardless of the variety)."

Several responses suggest that the videos prompted reflection about the pre-service teachers' own beliefs. For instance, a German participant stated that they were "a bit surprised, maybe I should overthink my understanding of a language in the correct form." Another participant wrote, "I kind of saw myself in many of the points they made and felt a certain sympathy." A Chinese participant commented that "I used to think the strong accent is awkward and I refuse to speak English, through the interview, I think accent is a unique thing." Beyond reflection, it seems that the video content raised some students' awareness of plurilithic thinking. For example, a German participant reported that "they mentioned a few aspects that I had not thought about before when I answered the [OEQ] questions." For a sizeable minority, there is evidence of deeper impact. A Chinese participant felt listening to the teachers was a learning opportunity: "i think i should learn from some novel and creative ideas from the teacher to supple[ment] my teaching." A German participant commented on the usefulness of the videos for their own training and practice: "This video showed me some new and interesting practices which I can consider for my future teaching"; while another remarked: "I found the question as interesting as the answers and think i have learned a few things that can help me along the way of becoming an english teacher myself." A participant from China stated: "I am enlightened a lot on how to persuade students to accept their English accents" and another commented: "As these teacher are from different education backgrounds and teaching situations, I have gained much knowledge of their diverse teaching strategies."

Regarding the teachers, the participants commented on a range of attributes, including their openness, reflectiveness, and positive attitude, also labeling them as "supportive," "accepting," "authentic," and "modern." A number of comments highlighted the teachers' authoritativeness, with one German participant reporting that "they seem like they thought about what to say and didn't make random stuff up" and a Chinese participant stating that "[t]hese teachers are very confident in their ELT." Other comments specifically praised the teachers' English communication skills, with one OL1 respondent stating: "They showed confidence and fluency in English even though they are non-native speakers." Several participants reported positive impressions attributable to their NNEST status, which suggests that they could identify with them as role models. One Austrian respondent, for example, stated "I liked that you chose people that don't sound native-like and show that you don't need to sound native-like but you can still be

proficient." Another highlighted the teachers' multilingualism by applauding "that some were talking English and some were talking German."

There were also critical comments regarding the teachers, mostly from GL1 participants. Some of these comments referred to attributes which were praised by other participants, such as English proficiency (overwhelmingly accent, e.g., "The guy annoyed me. I don't like English teachers with strong German accents") and authenticity/authoritativeness ("Well, the people in the video don't look (or sound) like English teachers"). Other responses questioned near peer aspects of their possible role model status. An Austrian respondent commented: "It would have been interesting to hear older teachers as well" and three German participants expressed annoyance or disappointment with the use of German by one of the teachers. The negative reactions were not confined to the GL1 group. Context of study might also have played a role: one UK-based Chinese respondent observed: "the teachers are from China and teach English under a rather exam-oriented learning environment, it may be better to interview more teachers from different backgrounds to gain more insights." Some UK-based NS respondents questioned the absence of NSs, with different degrees of tact and grace ("Interesting, however it would have been interesting to hear the views of a native English speaker as part of the video" and "The teachers are of Asian Heritage and they use broken English to communicate").

Focusing on RQ(b), regarding specifically peerness effects, we counted the number of responses per group coded as fully, mostly, and partly agreeing, and mostly or fully disagreeing, with video content. This revealed that the NPRM (near peer) groups (GL1 and ML1) demonstrated distinctly more agreement than the non-NPRM (more distant peer) group (OL1): see Table 2. It is perhaps worth noting here that pooling together China-based and UK-based ML1 participants into a single NPRM group obscures an important difference which might modulate participants' reactions to the video clips, namely the educational contexts in which they were situated. This possibility is reflected in the agreement data: a higher proportion of ML1 participants at UK institutions expressed a degree of agreement than those at Chinese institutions (58% vs 46%); this, we speculate, may be a result of differences in the educational and broader cultural experiences they had accrued.

Thus, in response to the main research question, we find that the reactions collected immediately following the video clips reflect a generally positive initial impact of the videos across all three groups. The evidence of increased plurilithic orientation for some pre-service teachers also allows us to respond affirmatively to RQ(a). Furthermore, near

peer groups expressed more agreement than the more distant peer group and there is evidence that many ML1 and GL1 participants identified with the teachers as near peers, therefore warranting an affirmative response also to RQ(b). In the following section, we address all the subsidiary research questions by exploring the extent to which change of belief might be detected in the different participant groups 1 month after the videos were viewed.

OEQ Data

A total of 81 pre-service teachers completed phases 1 and 2 of the study, allowing for analysis of OEQ score changes; 44 completed GNPRM and 37 completed CNPRM. Tables 3 and 4 summarize the distributions by country of institution and L1.

Aside from the L1 difference, the more distant peer group (OL1) was also older on average than the near peer groups: almost all the GL1 and ML1 group members were 34 and under, with most under 24; whereas for the OL1 group, more than 40% were 35 or older, with only 17% under 24. Most participants were female (see Table 5).

The instrument again had a high degree of internal validity, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.849 for GNPRM and 0.767 for CNPRM, calculated from the initial (pre-treatment) application scores. Table 6 presents mean differences in scores between initial OEQ application and the second application 1 month after video exposure, together with patterns of increase, decrease, and no change, for both treatments (GNPRM and CNPRM).

The means for pre-video OEQ scores in both treatments are quite similar, with a moderately positive response across the board at around 3.6 (where 3 corresponds to "not sure/neutral" and 4 corresponds to "agree"). All groups display a net increase in mean score post-video, thus addressing RQ(a). In response to RQ(b), we see that the smallest

TABLE 3
Number of Participants Completing GNPRM and CNPRM Treatments, by Country of Institution

GNPRM Country of institution	*N*	CNPRM Country of institution	*N*
Germany	36	China	21
Austria	08	UK	10
		Spain	06
Total	44	TOTAL	37

TABLE 4
Number of Participants Completing GNPRM and CNPRM Treatments, by L1

GNPRM L1	*N*	CNPRM L1	*N*
German	44	Mandarin	25
		Catalan	03
		English	02
		German	01
		Italian	01
		Japanese	01
		Romanian	01
		Spanish	03
Total	44	Total	37

TABLE 5
Percentage of Participants by Age and Gender, by Group

Factor and measure		GL1	ML1	OL1
Age	<24	66	76	17
	25–34	29.5	20	42
	>35	04.5	04	41
Gender	Female	70	92	75
	Male	25	04	25
	Prefer not to say	05	04	00

TABLE 6
Descriptive Statistics for OEQ Scores Pre- and Post-Video, by Treatment and L1 Group

	GNPRM	CNPRM	
	GL1	ML1	OL1
N	44	25	12
Mean (SD) pre-video	3.57 (0.46)	3.60 (0.27)	3.63 (0.57)
Mean (SD) post-video	3.70 (0.49)	3.75 (0.40)	3.72 (0.43)
Mean difference	+0.13	+0.15	+0.09
N (%) showing increase	29 (66%)	19 (76%)	06 (50%)
N (%) showing decrease	10 (23%)	06 (24%)	06 (50%)
N (%) showing no change	05 (11%)	00 (00%)	00 (00%)

increase is for OL1, for whom the teachers in the videos were more distant peers. In Figure 3, the steeper lines for GL1 and ML1, compared with OL1, capture the key difference between those viewing near peers and more distant peers. Also, results show that a majority

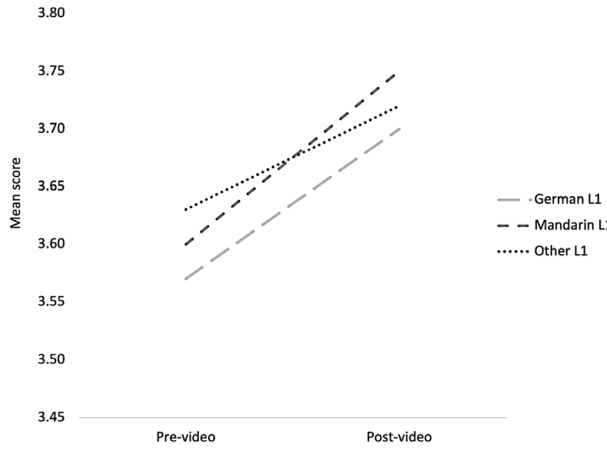

FIGURE 3. Change in mean OEQ score post-survey, by L1 group.

of GL1 and ML1 participants increased their OEQ scores post-video (66% and 76%, respectively) and that there were similar rates of decrease in scores (23% and 24%, respectively). For OL1, on the other hand, the balance between gain and loss post-video was 50%–50%.

The descriptive statistics provide support for the hypothesis that viewing teachers expressing a plurilithic orientation to English is followed by greater increases in plurilithic orientation for near peers of pre-service teachers than for more distant peers. For more rigorous analysis, we turned to inferential statistics. The OEQ difference scores for ML1 and GL1 pre- and post-video surveys were not normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro–Wilk's test ($p = .008$ for both). Although the distribution for OL1 was normal ($p = .305$), the sample size is very low. Given that most of the datasets were not normally distributed and that none of the sample sizes were large, we performed non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank tests. Results showed that for the GL1 group, the net gain was statistically significant ($z = 3.23$, $p = 0.001$) with a large effect size ($r = 0.49$). The gain for the ML1 group was also significant, but less so ($z = 2.03$, $p = 0.04$), with a medium to large effect size ($r = 0.41$). For the OL1 group, there was no significant effect of the treatment ($z = 0.63$, $p = 0.5$, $r = 0.18$).[1] In sum, the OEQ data provide quantitative support for the initial conclusions drawn from the Immediate Reaction data for RQ(a) and (b), namely that both video treatments are followed by increases in plurilithically-oriented beliefs, with the increases greater for the near

[1] We were unable to use a mixed ANOVA to compare directly the differences in scores pre- and post-video between groups in the CNPRM treatment, because of the imbalance in sample sizes and the small size of the OL1 group.

peer groups (GL1 and ML1) than for the more distant peer group (OL1). Furthermore, in response to RQ(c), the data suggest that changes in belief may be maintained one month after the videos were viewed.

INTERVIEW DATA

Five months after viewing the videos, four GL1 participants (of seven invited), three ML1 participants (of three invited), and two OL1 participants (of four invited) were interviewed (see Table 7). All consented to being recorded. The interviews were conducted in the interviewees' L1 and lasted 30 min on average. The interviews were semi-structured, using common prompt questions and follow-ups. Questions included, for example, "How inspiring did you find the teachers in the video?" and "Have you thought about them at any time since?" We found no clear correlation between participants' OEQ scores and their interview responses.

Themes emerging from the data are discussed in the following section.

Raised Consciousness/Triggered Reflections

Addressing RQ(a), a major theme emerging from the interview data was that of *raised consciousness/triggered reflections*, about either beliefs or experiences. The data for this theme suggest that the videos triggered reflections and/or consciousness which resulted in heightened sensitivity to a plurilithic orientation to English. For instance, participant M2 stated that "I had those ideas before watching the videos. But without the guidance of the questions in the videos, they were only in my

TABLE 7
Interview Details

Interview group	Interviewee	Gender
GL1 (online with second author)	GL1	Female
	GL2	Male
	GL3	Male
	GL4	Female
ML1 (in person with third author)	ML1	Female
	ML2	Female
	ML3	Female
OL1 (online with second author)	OL1 (German L1)	Female
	OL2 (English L1)	Female

subconscious." O2 had notions about differences in skills between NNSs and NSs "but I never verbalized that to myself [before watching the videos]." G4 felt that "in general I was thinking more about the idea that any kind of English is great" after watching the videos. G3 described the experience as a reality check:

> I think it did bring me back down to earth a bit, if you can put it that way. I mean, I didn't think that everyone could speak perfect English, of course. But I always thought that it might be a bit easier to achieve and less problematic than it might actually be. So maybe it was also a bit unreflective,[. . .] So that's always something different than when I think about it more and hear other positions.G1 declared that the experience had "transformed" her "because I didn't really look into it before" and concluded: "for me it was in my head for so long that I have to speak perfect English and somehow through the videos that changed because I thought to myself, alright, well my English is fine." This suggests that the pre-service teacher saw teaching English and the language itself from a different perspective for the first time. Their realization that their English is fine as it is likely to have implications for their future teaching in terms of sensitizing learners to ELF usage. When asked about the usefulness of the videos, G4 commented:

> I think it's definitely useful because you're thinking about a topic that we never thought about in university and in our environment. So we never thought about, like, to what extent are different languages - so in English varieties - to what extent are they significant? To what extent should they be included in the lessons? It was never a topic and I definitely found it super exciting because it is important.M2 reported that watching the videos had a direct impact on their teaching practice: "Well, before that, I would focus on students' accents in my daily teaching. But after watching the interviews, I now think we should not pay attention to this." These data help address RQ(c), suggesting that the impact of the videos did not immediately dissipate for some participants. G3 explicitly affirmed that the video material had had a more enduring impact, stating that "I have often thought about it [. . .] [It] has inspired me to reflect."

The interview data also show that the videos triggered reflections on interviewees' own experience and the experiences of family members, again suggesting the adoption of a more plurilithic orientation to English. For example, G1 discussed her Indian father's language ideologies and her experience of one particular training course module where she had to choose between British English and American English for an examination. G3 shared his mother's experience at school where she was sanctioned for her pronunciation.

Age and Authority

Two themes, *age* and *authority*, explicitly addressed RQ(b), regarding the extent to which an increased plurilithic orientation appeared to be associated with the peer status of the teachers in the videos. Several participants raised the issue of age as a factor in the impressions made on them by the teachers in the videos. G1 reported that the similarity in age between her and the teachers had a positive effect: "I think it really depends on what is said and how. In my case, the teachers in the video were also relatively young. I took it well and changed my mind a bit and was able to understand it." The same interviewee reported that she might react negatively to older teachers. G3, when asked whether it would make any difference if the teachers in the video were 10 years older, affirmed that it would subconsciously, stating that "I do believe that this could have had a negative effect." Referring to near peers, G2 stated that "perhaps we are a little closer to each other in terms of thinking patterns, we have experienced English lessons in a more similar way than teachers who have been teaching for about 15 or 20 years."

Regarding authority, O2, an English NS, stated that the fact that the teachers were NNSs gave them more authority. But O1, a NNS, questioned one Chinese teacher's authority: "I thought that what he said didn't match the way he said it. So it was very British English. As if they had been told, back when they had learned it themselves, that it was important." G3 remarked that the hesitance he detected in one teacher's responses impacted negatively on their authority; however, the same interviewee did not question the teachers' authority in class ("I think that they are all authority figures in their lessons"). O1 suggested that it would have been useful to see the Chinese teachers in action to enhance their authority "because [without showing them in action] they could just be students who are already very far along in their studies."

Inspiration, Identification with the Role Models, and Cultural Differences

All interviewees reported finding the teachers inspiring, mentioning explicitly: (a) their opinions and knowledge; (b) their teaching practice; (c) their achievement as NNS teachers; and/or (d) their openness toward their students. Several comments by near peer group participants explicitly acknowledged their potential role model status.

For example, G1 stated "I hope that I will also become like that some day" and M2 said "I hope I could be that kind of person."

But the data show that there was a complex relationship between *inspiration* and *identification with the role models*, independent of peer status. For instance, G4 stated: "So I found the opinions exciting, but I couldn't identify. I think it was because of the statements and because of the position, because they are also in different positions than me." One German male interviewee, G2, explicitly stated that identifying with one of the male teachers was independent of gender and was due to the teacher's "way of responding to the questions and then how he answered them." G3 claimed that his level of identification depended on the content, "sometimes there, sometimes from this person a little bit more, sometimes there a little bit more. And of course just as much less for many opinions." G1 felt she identified with the two female teachers "probably mostly because I'm one myself and just their views I thought were great." O1 linked her identification with one teacher to likability and from a student point of view: "The only one I identified with was the one who laughed and that's sort of my feeling about it. I thought, who would I like to have as an English teacher? So with the little one who laughed."

The interview data from O1 and O2, from the more distant peer group, made comments suggesting that identification is moderated by *cultural differences*, and we attribute this to the fact that the teachers in the video were culturally more distant to them compared with those in the GL1 and ML1 groups. O1, who had spent a year in China, reported identifying only with the teacher who smiled, because "smiling is perceived as more professional," a perception which is "culturally anchored." Commenting on the same theme, O2 suggested that some explanation about Chinese facial expressions would facilitate the use of the videos in her native South Africa.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Our purpose in this project was to make a contribution to the development and validation of resources intended to generate and enhance teacher awareness of the plurilithic reality of English as it is globally learned and used. Our main research question concerned the impact on pre-service teachers of video clips in which in-service teachers modeled a plurilithic orientation to English. Taken together, the data suggest that viewing the video clips had a positive impact. Majorities of both open-ended survey responses immediately following viewing and interview comments around 5 months later reflect appreciation of the teachers and different degrees of agreement with the beliefs they express. Although there were negative comments, especially regarding

the teachers' "foreign accents," these constituted a small minority. The overall rate of disagreement expressed in immediate reactions (just over 5%) was much lower than that of agreement (45%).

With respect to RQ(a), which asked about the extent to which the modeling was associated with increased plurilithic belief, the OEQ data show that two-thirds of survey respondents increased their scores post-video. Qualitative data from the survey and interviews with a subset of respondents also suggest positive changes in belief. As well as labeling the ideas in the videos as "new," "novel," "interesting," and "creative," several participants mentioned "learning," "gaining [...] knowledge" and becoming "enlightened" as a consequence of viewing the clips. Participants reported how their experience of the videos had provoked reassessment of previous monolithic beliefs (e.g. in the existence of "perfect English") or at least moderation of them (e.g. regarding the need to acquire a NS accent). Others confirmed that their more plurilithic orientation to English had been strengthened.

Observed changes in belief also seem to be influenced by the role of the in-service and pre-service teachers' peer status (RQ(b)), thus confirming the results of previous studies (Lingley, 2017; Murphey & Arao, 2001; Murphey & Murakami, 2001; Ruddick & Nadasdy, 2013). First, we found statistically significant net OEQ score increases for the near peer groups (GL1 and ML1), compared with non-significant scores for the more distant peers (OL1). Also, the number of near-peer participants increasing their scores was between twice and three times as many as those whose scores decreased, whereas for more distant peers, an equal number of participants decreased their scores. We acknowledge that these different outcomes probably cannot be attributed uniquely to an NPRM effect. Aside from the disparity in sample sizes, other factors may have contributed to the differences observed. Participation in the project itself constitutes a vehicle for GE awareness-raising, although the experience was similar, and the instrument (OEQ) was identical, for all groups. One major factor is that participants might have had other experiences with GE-related input and instruction independently of the project materials. Yet, our data show that the most consistent and largest set of increases in scores corresponds to the group who reported receiving the least additional input during the semester in which the project was run (ML1), and the group with the most additional input (OL1) was the group with the smallest gains. We therefore conclude that other triggers of GE awareness are unlikely to be solely or mainly responsible for the differences in OEQ score changes observed across the groups.

Qualitative data also suggest that the teachers had a more positive impact on near peers. In immediate reactions, there were markedly more expressions of agreement from near peers than from more

distant peers. In the immediate reaction and interview data, we also saw numerous participants from the near peer groups signaling their identification with the teachers, mentioning their age and gender, and the authority that their NNS status bestowed. Although several GL1 participants signaled disaffiliation (especially regarding accent), other examples of disaffiliation came from NSs (surprised at the absence of NSs in the videos) and ML1 participants who were studying at UK institutions. Regarding the extent to which the impact of the videos was longer lasting (RQ(c)), the evidence for belief change in OEQ scores a month after viewing, and for ongoing reflection in the interview data after 5 months, suggest that for some participants at least, the impact endured.

Aside from the small sample size for more distant peers and our inability to control for GE experience outside the project, one other potential limitation of the project (and others employing self-rating surveys) is the possibility of acquiescent response bias effects. This bias, in which respondents are more likely to agree than disagree, has been found to be more common in collective societies like China, compared with European ones like Germany and Austria (Smith, 2004). We tried to control for this possibility through the use of 3rd person OEQ statements and response anonymity. The fact that agreement scores were approximately equal for ML1 and GL1 groups suggests that any effect of acquiescent response bias was minimal.

In conclusion, the evidence reported here confirms that, as suggested by Murphey and Murakami (2001), the use of role modeling through video clips can be an effective strategy for triggering belief change in TEEGL. Just as prior work on the technique with language learners has stressed the need for adaptation to specific contexts (Muir et al., 2021; Murphey & Arao, 2001), our data show that the more the learners can identify with role models presented to them, the greater the impact will be. In this spirit, we offer our video materials for Creative Commons use or adaptation on the *Changing Englishes* website, and encourage teacher educators to use or adapt the OEQ (available in the IRIS database) for their own localized NPRM projects.

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This study was supported by a grant from the Applying Linguistics Fund of the British Association for Applied Linguistics. Ethical approval was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the School of Education, Language and Psychology at York St John University (approval code RECLL00023). Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants involved in the study. The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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APPENDIX A

OEQ ITEMS

1. There is no single "correct" version of English grammar.
2. Native speakers are often the cause of misunderstandings in interactions with non-native speakers.
3. The versions of English that two native speakers of the language know can be as different from each other as those of two non-native speakers.
4. Accuracy in English is a relative idea, determined by the variety being learned.
5. "Correct English" is more about social convention than communicative effectiveness.
6. There are many Englishes in the world, including both native and non-native versions.
7. European or Asian versions of English can be just as valuable as British or American versions.
8. When non-native speakers interact with each other in English, the non-native forms they use to express themselves can sometimes be more effective than native-speaker forms.
9. Trying to eliminate students' foreign accent in English is like trying to make native speakers lose their own regional accent, which is part of their identity.
10. When different groups of non-native speakers use English in their own ways, their situation is similar to native speakers using a regional or social dialect.
11. Some non-native uses of English (e.g., adding plural *-s* on 'non-count' nouns like *advice*) are actually more logical than native English forms.
12. Automatically treating non-native forms of English as mistakes unfairly judges non-native users as deficient.
13. Teachers should help learners develop the vocabulary and communicative strategies they need for interaction with other non-native users, rather than just with native speakers.

14. As a learning outcome, what learners can do with their English is much more important than how close it is to native-speaker versions.
15. Standardized international tests such as International English Language Testing System and Test of English as a Foreign Language do not effectively assess English for global communication.
16. Teaching materials are closer reflections of the global use of English if they include both native and non-native accents.
17. An ability to speak English effortlessly but "inaccurately" will often be more useful to learners than "accurate" but slow and effortful English.
18. Official tests and curriculums which uniquely focus on Standard English can be obstacles to effective learning.
19. English is enriched by its non-native speakers and the native languages they speak.
20. Non-native speakers of English should be considered as owners and users of English in their own right, rather than as merely learners.
21. English language teaching textbooks created and published in countries where English is not the main language can be just as authoritative as those published in the United Kingdom and the United States.
22. Teaching only British or American English limits learners' ability to interact effectively with people from different global cultures.
23. It is no longer necessary for schools to look for native speakers only when hiring English teachers.
24. When non-native speakers depend on British or American usage as a guide to "correct English," this shows their unjustified insecurity.