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**| RESEARCH ARTICLE**

**Review and Dissection of a Multitude of Multilingual Policies: A Systematic Literature Review**

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**| ABSTRACT**

Countries adapt certain curriculum programs in their education departments to suit current pedagogical and linguistic trends. They likewise align their curriculum to meet certain targeted goals in order to increase the level of English proficiency among their citizens. This study investigated the prevalence of multilingual policies worldwide. The present study utilized the Systematic Literature Review as a method of dissecting the different articles reviewed. These were then recorded into a Repertory Grid. The articles were downloaded from the ERIC database, and a thorough inclusion-exclusion screening was conducted to arrive at the 40 articles considered for this SLR. The results of the screening were recorded into the 2020 PRISMA Chart, with a slight modification. The research revealed the most research concept, which is English as a Foreign Language/English as a Second Language/English as an Additional Language, while the least studied are language assessment and teachers' individual agency. The most frequently utilized research method is the qualitative research design; conversely, the least used is the mixed methods. Future research should look into the possibility of conducting an investigation into language assessment or teachers' individual agency, and incorporate the mixed method of research into their studies.

**| KEYWORDS**

Curriculum, inclusion-exclusion, language policies

**| ARTICLE INFORMATION**

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**1. Introduction**

Ghaffour (2022) considers English as a global lingua franca. To date, there has been a gamut of curricular offerings in the different areas in the world that centered around the adoption of English as the language of the academe, of the sciences, of international business, of banking, and of trades. The list is limitless, but they all have one thing in common – they are carried on with English as the language of communication.

Ashadi et al. (2022) state that English holds a significant status in the Indonesian educational system in spite of the fact that it is a foreign language. Elsewhere, English as a medium of instruction is taught either as a second language, as a foreign language, as a native language, and as an additional language.

Current research on the use of the English language in bilingual and multilingual language policies around the world sums up the domains and roles that the English language plays as a medium of instruction.

### **1.1 English as a Foreign/Second/Additional Language**

This is the most studied theme in the current systematic literature review.

Articles that fall under this concept theme account for a third of the total literature consulted, at 32.5%. Under this umbrella category are the studies of Basok (2020); Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin (2021); Tuan et al. (2024); Marzaini et al. (2024); Meihami (2021); Tajolosa et al. (2022); Yegidoz-Kara & Bumen (2022); Hasemnezhad (2022); Suraweera (2022); Ghaffour (2022); Zulaiha et al. (2020); Lee (2021); and Yeleussiz (2024).

The bulk of the current research literature involves the use of English as either a Foreign Language, as a Second Language, and as an Additional Language. The use of the English language, either as a language of instruction, and as the language of the language program or language policy, in general, remains a topic of research and discussion.

Hashemnezhad (2020) points to the important role of English in the international arena, when he stated that “the significance of learning English as a second language is very high in the contemporary world of globalization,” adding that “along with the strengthening of the position of English for international communication, the development of speaking skills has become increasingly important in the English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) context” (p. 130). Despite efforts to raise the level of the English proficiency of non-English-speaking countries adopting or adapting English as either a foreign language, as a second language, or as additional language, there are still loopholes in the program. In Korea, for example, Lee (2021), observes that “there has been little improvement in Koreans’ English-speaking proficiency” (p. 80).

For the purpose of this section, it is hereby reiterated that English is either used in the curriculum as English as a Foreign Language, English as a Second Language, or English as an Additional Language.

Some countries adopted it as a foreign language in non-English speaking countries. English is a foreign language (EFL) in Turkey (Basok, 2020; and Yegidoz-Kara & Bumen, 2022); in Ecuador (Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin, 2021); in Vietnam (Tuan, et al., 2023); in Iran (Hasemnezhad, 2022 and Meihami, 2021); in Algeria (Ghaffour, 2022); in Kazakhstan (Yeleussiz, 2024); and in Indonesia (Zulaiha, et al., 2020).

However, in some other countries, English is used as a second language (ESL) in the following countries: the Philippines (Tajolosa, et al., 2022); Malaysia (Marzaini, et al., 2024); and Korea (Lee, 2021).

The use of English, either as a foreign language, a second language, or an additional language is driven by instrumental motivation, that is, people learn English because they have a use for it. They need to use to perform something in English. They also need it to attain something in English. Lastly, they need to use it to be identified with the people speaking it as a native language (ENL).

Suraweera (2022) notes that adult English is given as an additional language in Canada due to the presence of ‘new immigrants, international students, multilingual citizens, including indigenous peoples of Canada (p. 187). This trend, according to Suraweera (2022), is prompted by competition in the Canadian labor market and Canada’s settler society.

The Malaysian version, on the contrary, is more inclined towards its exam-centric culture, where there exist high-stakes exam systems (Marzaini et al., 2024: p. 251). Other researchers observe that English use in other countries is driven by curricular programs that are adopted by institutions. One example is the adoption of the communicative language teaching (CLT) in which students express their needs, feelings, and motivation, as explained by Yegidoz-Kara & Bumen (2022). Basok (2020) points to the use of English in the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) of Turkey, where language teaching is focused in reading and writing, but none in speaking and listening (p. 1). The Ecuadorian government implements the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), as stated by Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin (2021: 99-100), where the program is expected to “create more meaningful EFL classes to provide more prosperous relations, communication situations, and opportunities that engage learners

(p.100)". The Kazakhs have the integration of media literacy in their teacher education, as Yeleussiz (2024) writes about.

In Vietnam, there is this curricular program called English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) as discussed by Tuan, et al. (2023), which they describe as a growing trend in the world (p. 55). Tuan et al. (2023) define EMI as the use of English to teach school subjects in nations and territories where the language that is most-widely spoken by the people is not English (p. 55).

In the Iranian context, the role of English in the language program is bound to teacher education. In Meihami (2021: 92), computer-aided language learning (CALL) teacher education aims to "enhance the quality of L2 teaching by developing the competencies of L2 teachers to integrate technology and language pedagogy (p. 93). Tajolosa et al. (2022) notes that language strategies also involve the students' performance when they states that "the type of classroom environment that a teacher creates and encourages can either increase or decrease the student's ability to learn and feel comfortable as a member of the class."

Aside from its role as a medium of instruction and as a language of the curriculum, the English language lends itself likewise to assessment. Learning the English language, for instance, is not only a means of measuring students' performance but also to promote learning (Zulaiha et al., 2020: 190).

### **1.2 English Language (and Other Languages) Curriculum and Policy**

This is the second most studied theme in this systematic literature review.

Belonging to this theme are eight articles, or 20% of the total literature reviewed. This category includes the studies of Xu et al. (2024); Kani & Igsen (2022); Kumarankandath (2024); Guerrero-Nieto & Quintero-Polo (2021); Gurney, et al. (2023); Aksoy (2020); Vibulphol et al. (2021); and Senol & Cesur (2021).

Another common but relevant theme in the current literature is the use of the English language in the curriculum and in curricular policies around the world. English is used as an integral part of the entire curriculum as a language policy of said curriculum. In the Philippines, for example, the language policy is continuously evolving from the distant colonial past to the present generation, as noted by Xu et al. (2024: 292).

According to Kani & Igsen (2022), "language policies in foreign language education are affected by three ideologies: standard language, monolinguisism, and native-speakerism" which gave rise the principle of "English-Only" policy. (p. 128). This has created an English hegemony, as stated by Kumarankandath (2024: 201) in his native India, which, he says, runs counter to the "cultural and linguistic diversity" of certain regions. Gurney et al. (2023: 1) reports that the compulsory implementation of the English-Only program in the Japanese educational system carries with it some "social, cultural, political, and economic context. For whatever the motive for placing the teaching of English as a foreign, second, or third language in the language policy, Aksoy (2020) justifies its use by saying that "individuals are expected to learn and use foreign languages in communicative environments" (p. 2).

The placement of the English language in the curriculum is governed by language policies that are already in place or to be implemented yet. Any successful curriculum implementation involves teachers as "key actors," according to Vibulphol et al. (2021: 128), who explain that "changes in teachers' use of instructional materials, instructional beliefs, and beliefs, in line with the intention of the new curriculum, are evidence of successful implementation" (p. 128). Guerrero-Nieto & Quintero-Polo (2021) points out that this aspect has created a new area of research on "what language teachers have to say and do about programs, plans, and projects that make up (language) policies" (p. 120). One example of this "curriculum planning" is whether or not certain elective courses in English instruction need consideration into the new curriculum.

### **1.3 English Teaching and Learning**

This is the third most studied theme in this systematic literature review.

There are seven of the reviewed articles that exhibit this theme, or 17.5% of the total literature. Belonging to this category are the studies of the following: Unsal & Kasap (2023); Trujillo (2021); Nguyen et al (2023); Song (2022); Dagtan & Cabaroglu (2021); Nam (2023); and Makhoulouf & Bensafi (2021).

Interconnectedness in terms of ICT software is the core of Makhoulouf & Bensafi's (2021) study concerning teachers' attitudes towards the use of ICT in their teaching practices (p. 37). A different interconnectedness, connecting with the community, is what Song (2022) mentions in his paper. His choice of 'community connection' is prompted by the onslaught of the COVID-19 pandemic. A certain form of disconnection, however, is identified by Nam (2023) who figures out the reason why teaching methods utilized by teachers do not reflect the teachers' beliefs about the effectiveness of these methods.

Dagtan & Cabaroglu (2021) reports that despite the pivotal role of the English language in the economic and military might of Turkey, influenced by the United States' economic and military supremacy, English as a language has remained as a foreign language, not a second language, for the primary reason that "it has never been adopted as an official language or the primary medium of instruction at a national scale" (p. 360). This function of the English language in Turkey is corroborated by another pair of Turk researchers, Unsal & Kasap (2023), who wrote that "English language education is a rapidly expanding sector, with millions of people learning the language for various reasons, including academic, professional, and personal growth" (p. 15).

One policy in the Hungarian educational policy is the concept of inclusion, although not language related, as reported by Trujillo (2021), where children with disabilities are integrated into the mainstream class, justifying that the children with special needs view their teachers as agents of their own identities (p. 284).

On a bigger platform is Nguyen et al.'s (2023) report on the interface between the micro and macro contexts in the field of English teaching and learning (p. 129).

#### **1.4 Professional Development of Teachers**

This is the fourth most studied theme in this systematic literature review.

There are four (4) articles reviewed under this theme, accounting to 10% of the total number of articles reviewed.

Belonging to this theme are the studies of Gonzales-Moncada (2021); Quiroz & Gonzales (2022); Krengel (2021); and Karim et al. (2021).

Not to be separated from the process of language learning and teaching is the professional development of the teacher. Gonzales-Moncada (2021) wrote that "the professional development of English teachers is a significant area of language teaching and learning, as well as in teacher education" (p. 134). According to Quiroz & Gonzales (2022), teachers' professional development might include teachers' knowledge and improvement of their teaching and assessment practices, of teachers as "agents of change who act and resist the ideological structures of language learning and teaching" (p. 214). With this 'agency', Quiroz & Gonzales (2022) adds that the teachers develop their imagined identities and their imagined affiliation to imagined communities (p. 214). Karim et al. (2021) recognize the importance of the teachers' development programs, stating that "what a teacher knows, thinks, and practices should influence how they teach and what students learn" (p. 1).

#### **1.5 Teacher's Individual Agency**

By far, this is the second to the least studied theme in this systematic literature review, with only two (3) or 7.5% of the total number of articles reviewed. Belonging to this category are the studies of Dhammarungruang & Wudthanayagorn (2021); Mansouri (2021); and Gonzales & Calle-Diaz (2023).

Other researchers explore specific teacher identity and agency. In this category, the focus shifts to the teachers, who are at the lowest echelon of their organization, and therefore, having the least resistance, in terms of language policies and programs.

Mansouri (2021) explored language teacher identity (LTI) which he describes as a phenomenon, “a major line of inquiry in the existing L2 education literature” (p. 1). He describes LTI as “a multi-level, multifaceted and dynamic construct shaped by both spatial and temporal characteristics of the teaching and learning context leading to the multi-layered positionalities teachers acquire” (p. 1, para. 1).

Dhammarungruang & Wudthayagorn (2021) describe teacher agency when they define ‘human agency’ as “the capacity to exercise control over one’s own thought processes, motivations, and action” (p. 168, para. 1). According to these authors, they contend that there are three schools of thought governing human agency: 1) humans are producers of social structures and freely take actions on their own will without any societal influence; 2) human actions are influenced by the society, and individuals are therefore “products of social structures”; and 3) the relationship is bidirectional rather than dichotomous – that humans are both producers and products of social structures” (p. 168, para. 1).

### **1.6 Language Assessment/ Testing/ Evaluation**

This is another least studied theme in this systematic literature review. Three (3) articles, or 7.5% of the total number of articles consulted belong to this category. These are the studies of Andrew (2020); Ashadi et al. (2022) and Salavert & Szalkiewics (2020).

The last batch of articles included in this SLR included three articles utilizing language assessment, testing, or evaluation.

Ashadi et al. (2022) explore the concept of high stakes testing (HST) in Indonesia. They have noted how “the implementation of high stakes testing for school quality has risen in numerous countries worldwide” (p. 398). They have noted that the popularity of HST is based on the following assumptions: 1) its standardized nature equals to fair treatment on test takers; 2) the test is perceived to have a ‘scientific aura,’ and 3) it looks natural and familiar because of the annual implementation across levels of education” (p. 398, para. 1).

The award for English proficiency is given as the Seal of Biliteracy in US states. Salavert & Szalkiewicz (2020) reports that the Seal of Biliteracy is given in recognition of the students who pass the exams and who demonstrate proficiency in English and in one or more other world languages.

Andrew (2020) presents a ‘training course on evaluation and improvement of English teaching-learning programs and materials for key language teachers under the national foreign languages 2020 project,’ otherwise called “Evaluation” (p. 1, para. 1). He adds that “this intensive 150-hour teacher education program employed international TESOL ‘expert’ consultants to create and deliver content about evaluation with a view to increasing uptake of the Vietnamese Foreign Language Proficiency Framework (VFLF),” focusing on the implementation of the principles of evaluation into educational practice” (pp. 1-2, para. 1).

### **1.7 CERF Around the World**

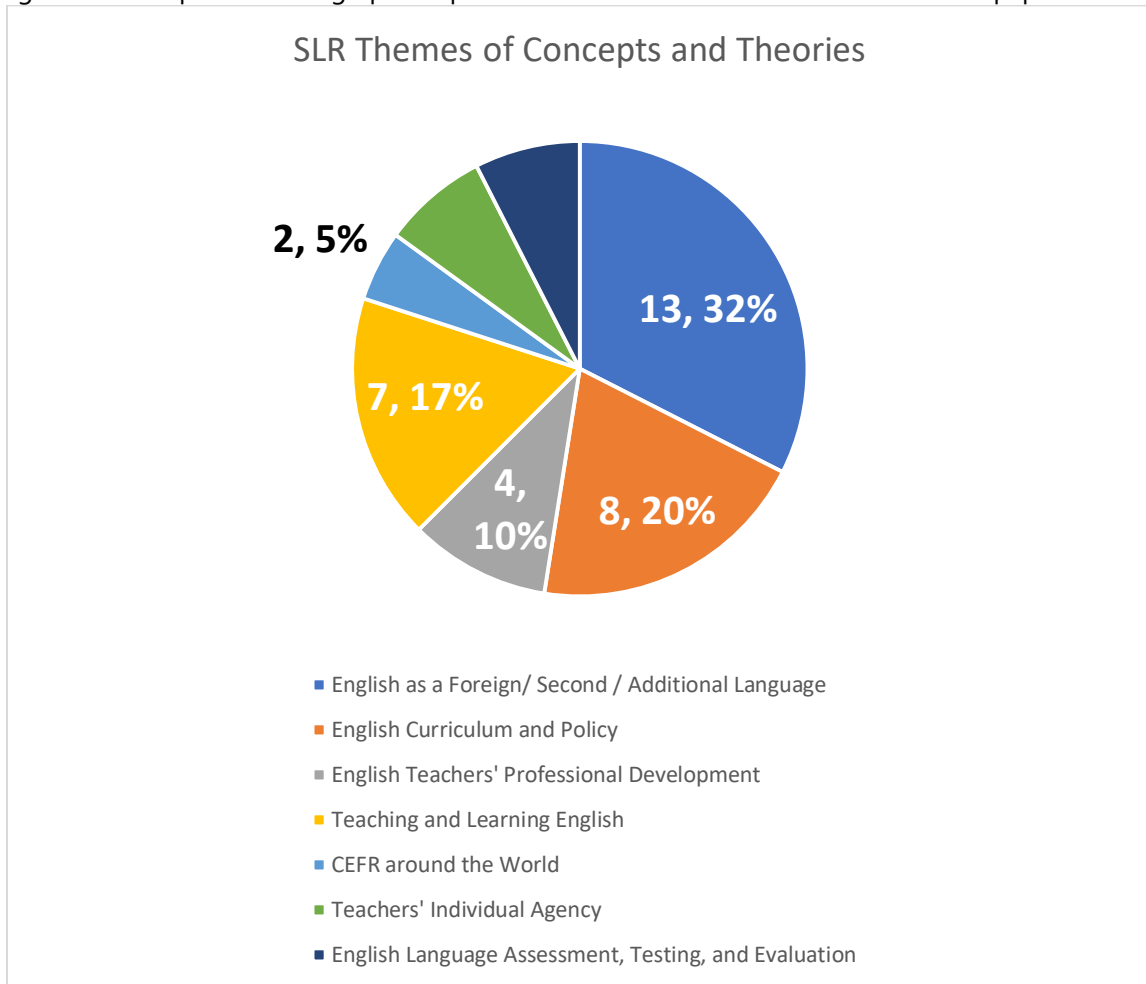
This is the least studied theme in this systematic literature review, which accounts for two (2) articles or 5% of the total literature reviewed. They are the studies of Khan et al. (2023) and Chartrakul & Damnet (2021).

Another area of concept in the present literature is the use, adaption, and adoption of the CERF or the Common European Framework of Reference, which was “originally meant for the European context but is now being widely accepted by many non-European countries,” according to Khan et al.(2023), who reports that “Malaysia has implemented many significant educational reforms in schools and HLIs over the decades, in its attempt to deliver quality education” (p. 331, para. 1). Khan, et al. (2023) add that the English Language Standards and Quality Council

(ELSQC), the implementing task force of the Malaysia Education Blueprint (MEB) 2013-2025, has come up with an English Language Roadmap 2015-2025 which “takes into account consideration aspects of teaching, learning, and assessment of the English language based on the six CEFR levels at schools and HLIs” (p. 331, para. 1).

In Thailand, with the reported failure of EFL, ELT, TESOL, and even CLT (communicative language teaching) to increase the performance of Thai students in learning the English language, the Ministry of Education of Thailand has chosen the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages for primary and secondary schools.

Figure 1 below presents the graphic representation of the literature discussed in this paper.



**Figure 1.** The Summary of the Thematic Analysis on Concepts and Theories

**1.8. Research Questions**

In order to address the gap and problems, the questions below were answered:

1. What are the most focused studies of previous research in multilingual policies around the world since 2020?
2. What are the language teaching and learning practices around the world since 2020 based on current literature?

**2. Methodology**

The current study utilized the systematic review of literature (SLR). The purpose of this method is to review all past research on the topic “trilingual and multilingual language policy in education.” According to Pelila & Palangyos (2021), the SRL “reviews all previous studies systematically as the present researcher will collate all data or evidence that correspond to the eligibility criteria used. Pelila & Palangyos (2021) describes the ‘work’ of the SRL when they

wrote that “it applies precise, systematic processes and methods to avoid bias from identifying up to summarizing ideas. It adopted Okoli’s (2015) eight (8) guidelines, as cited by Pelilla & Palangyos (2021), in conducting a systematic review of literature, to wit: 1) identifying the purpose, 2) drafting protocol document, 3) applying practical screen for inclusion, 4) searching for literature, 5) extracting the data, 6) appraising the quality of screening for exclusiveness, 7) synthesizing the studies, and 8) writing the review.

**2.1 Data Gathering Tools**

The articles used for analysis were derived from only one database, ERIC, due to its ease of accessibility. The key word that was used for the exclusion-inclusion criteria was TRILINGUAL AND MULTILINGUAL POLICY IN EDUCATION. Initial search in the ERIC site led to a total of 132, 091 articles which went through further refinement using other inclusion-exclusion criteria, until the number of articles for this systematic literature was arrived at. Only the phrase “trilingual and multilingual policy in education” was used for screening, and inclusion-exclusion filters.

Table 1 below details the inclusion-exclusion criteria used in the current review.

**Table 1. The Inclusion-Exclusion Criteria**

<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Inclusion Criteria</b>	<b>Exclusion Criteria</b>
<b>Journal Publication Type</b>	Journals must be published in ERIC database	Journals not published in ERIC database
	Journals must be in full text and underwent peer review	Journals that were not in full text and did not undergo peer review
<b>Publication type</b>	Articles must be published as journal articles.	Articles not published as journal articles
<b>Year of publication</b>	Journal articles should be within the last 5 years (since 2020).	Journals published before 2020
<b>Descriptor</b>	Articles must be on English as a second language.	Journals not about English as a second language.
<b>Journal audience</b>	Articles must cater to language teachers.	Articles do not cater to teachers.

**2.2. Data Gathering Procedure**

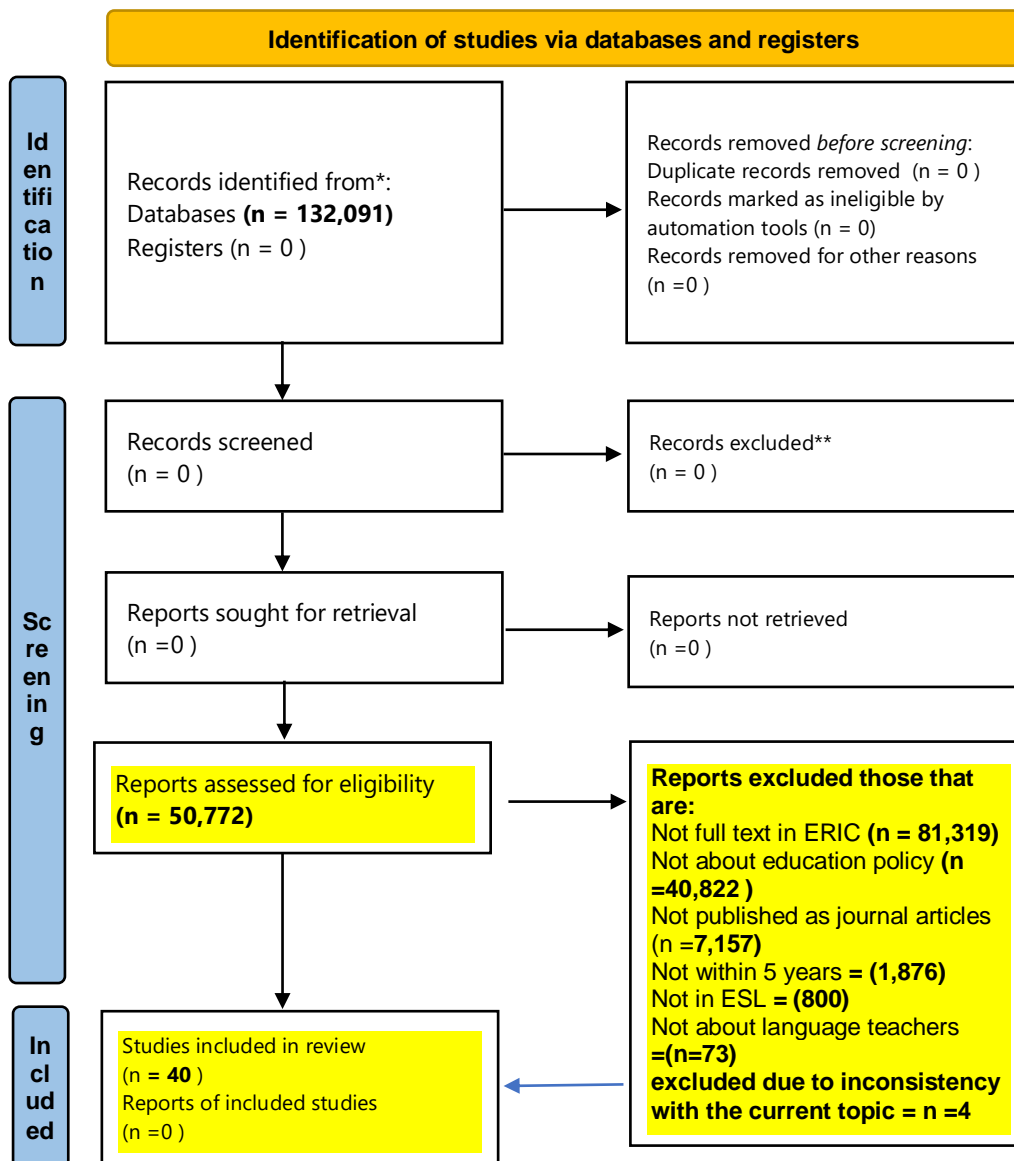
Initial search generated a total of 131, 091 articles included for initial screening. Initial inclusion - exclusion criterion was ‘FULL TEXT ON ERIC’ which generated a total of 50, 772 articles considered for the next screening. Therefore, a total of 81, 319 articles were excluded as these were not full text on ERIC.

The next inclusion-exclusion criterion was EDUCATION POLICY, which generated a total of 9, 950 articles for the next wave of screening. Thus, a total of 40, 882 articles were excluded since they are not about ‘language policy.’ The next inclusion-exclusion criterion was JOURNAL ENTRIES, which generated a total of 2,793 articles which are published on ERIC as journal entries. As a result, 7,157 articles were excluded as they were not published as journal entries. The next inclusion-exclusion criterion was SINCE 2020 (LAST 5 YEARS). This search resulted into a total of 917 articles that were included into the literature selection. This results in having a total of 1,876 articles that were excluded for screening because they were not recent, and their time line goes before 2000. The next criterion for the inclusion-exclusion is ENGLISH (2<sup>ND</sup> LANGUAGE). The result is a total of 117 to be included for screening, resulting in 800 articles being excluded due to their being not about English as a second language. While the number 117 might be acceptable enough, the researcher still utilized another inclusion-exclusion criterion – LANGUAGE TEACHERS – as a screening word, resulting into the final number of 44 articles for the final number and this number constitutes the current literature for this study. This just means that a total of 73 articles were eliminated for inclusion. Four (4) articles were finally eliminated due to their inconsistency to the current study, and so, therefore a final 40 was the corpus of the final literature. These figures were recorded into the left half of the 2020 PRIMSA Flowchart, as the right half was not utilized.

All 44 articles were summarized into the Repertory Grid containing the following data in the order as they appear in the Repertory Grid: title/ author/s/ year of publication; concept; research questions; methodology; findings; conclusions; and recommendations.

Figure 2 contains the PRISMA Flowchart used in this study.

**PRISMA 2020 Flow Diagram for New Systematic Reviews which Included Searches of Databases, Registers, and Other Sources**



\*Consider, if feasible to do so, reporting the number of records identified from each database or register searched (rather than the total number across all databases/registers).

\*\*If automation tools were used, indicate how many records were excluded by a human and how many were excluded by automation tools.

Source: Page MJ, et al. BMJ 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71.

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**Figure 2. The PRISMA Flowchart used in the current study**

These 41 articles were downloaded from the ERIC database, and printed on paper for analysis of concept, research questions, methodologies, and recommendations.

Screening and analysis of participants, corpora, and grade levels involved in the study revealed the most researched participants and corpora used for the studies reviewed.

### **2.2.1. Participants vs Corpora and grade levels**

#### **Participants vs Corpora**

Participants in the literature cited refer to the students/learners, teachers, and lecturers who acted as respondents in the different articles that comprised this systematic literature review.

There were a total of 31 studies that involved teachers, students, and lecturers as respondents, which translates to 77.5% of the total articles reviewed, while there are only 9 articles, or 22.5% that involved corpora.

Of the 31 respondents, 24 are teachers only (77.24%). These are the studies of the following: Makhoul & Bensafi (2021); Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin (2021); Chartrakul & Damnet (2021); Quroz & Gonzales (2022); Tuan et al. (2023); Unsal a& Kasap (2023); Zulaiha et al. (2020); Nam (2023); Aksoy (2020); Karim et al. (2021); Vibulphol et al. (2021); Gonzales & Calle-Diaz (2023); Meihami (2021); Yeleussiz (2024); Salavert & Szakiewics (2020); Mansouri (2021); Andrew (2020); Marzaini et al. (2024); Basok (2020); Gurney at al. (2023); Trujillo (2021); Dhammarungruang & Wudthayagorn (2021); Kim & Igsu (2022); and Gonzales-Moncada (2021).

Four (4) studies utilized students only (12.90%). These are the studies of Senol & Cesur (2021); Tajolosa et al. (2022); Song (2022); and Krengel (2023).

One (1) study involved a lecturer (3.23%), and it is the study of Dagtan & Cabaroglu (2021).

Finally, two (2) studies included both teachers and students (6.45%). These are the studies of Hashemnezhad (2020) and Ashadi et al. (2022).

#### **Grade levels**

As for grade levels of participants (teachers, students, and lecturers), the most number of participants are **teachers** teaching in the **universities** (n=13 or 41.94%). These are the studies of Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin (2021); Chartrakul & Damnet (2021); Quroz & Gonzales (2022); Tuan et al. (2023); Unsal & Kasap (2023); Meihami (2021); Song (2022); Krengel (2023); Andrew (2020); Gurney at al. (2023); and Dhammarungruang & Wudthayagorn (2021).

The study of Dagtan & Cabaroglu (2021) involved **lecturers** in university, while Senol & Cesur (2021) involved **students** studying in university. For his own study, Hasemnezhad (2020) utilized both **teachers and students** as participants of his study.

The second most involved grade level of participants involving teachers as respondents or participants among the studies in this literature review is secondary education, or the high school of the basic education system, totaling 10 studies or 32.26% of the total number (n=31) of studies in this literature review that involves participants,, but only eight (8) of them involved high school students. These are the studies of Makhoul & Bensafi (2021); Zulaiha et al. (2020); Aksoy (2020); Gonzales & Calle-Diaz (2023); Yeleussiz (2024); Salavert & Szakiewics (2020); Ashadi et al. (2022);and Marzaini et al. (2024).

The third most involved grade levels are the other grade levels having participants numbering three (3=9.68%), and these are the following: **elementary grades**, belonging to the studies of Vibulphol et al. (2021), Basok (2020), and Kani & Igsen (2022). The studies of both Vibulphol et al. (2021) and Kani & Igsen (2022) involved both **elementary and high school**, and **Kindergarten and elementary**, respectively.

Those of Quiroz & Gonzales (2022) and Nam (2023), meanwhile involved teachers with **MA and PHD** degrees, while that of Gonzales-Moncada involves teachers with **PHD** only. two (2=6.45%), and one (1=3.23%).

Three (3) studies (Karim et al., 2021; Mansouri, 2021; and Trujillo, 2021) were not clear of the grade levels their teacher-participants were teaching in.

**Corpora**

As for those who utilized corpora instead of participants, there are nine (9) that came out in the review, and this number translates to 22.5% of the total studies reviewed. Of these nine studies, nine (9) studies involved corpora, and these are broken down into the two (2) corpora studies of Yedigoz-Kara & Bumen (2022) and Khan et al. (2023), which make up 22.22% of the corpora-based studies reviewed. One study involved curriculum studies (Guerrero-Nieto & Quintero-Polo, 2021), or 11.11% of the corpora-based articles reviewed, and six (6) that involved ideologies (66.67% of total corpora-based studies). These are the studies of Lee (2021); Ghaffour (2022); Suraweera (2022); Nguyen et al. (2023); Kumarakandath (2024); and Xu et al. (2024).

**3. Methodology**

**3.1 Qualitative Studies**

Of the 40 articles sifted, 29 studies utilized qualitative research methods, while three (3) utilized quantitative methods, and eight (8) studies utilized mixed methods.

Of the 29 qualitative studies, one used descriptive approach (Tajolosa et al., 2022); one used systematic review approach (Gonzales-Moncada, 2021); 11 utilized case studies (Xu et al., 2024; Kani & Igsen, 2022; Dhammarungruang & Wudthayagorn, 2021; Nguyen et al. (2023); Gurney et al., 2023; Basok, 2020; Ashadi, 2022; Mansouri, 2021; Salavert & Szalkiewics, 2020; Yeleussiz, 2024; and Gonzales & Calle-Diaz, 2023); one used ethnography (Kumaramkandath, 2024); two (2) utilized content analysis (Guerrero-Nieto & Quintero-Polo, 2021; and Hashemnezhad, 2021); one used participatory action research (Song, 2022); three (3) utilized document analysis (Khan et al., 2023; Suraweera, 2022; and Lee, 2021); two (2) used narrative inquiry (Trujillo, 2021; and Meihami, 2021); two ( 2) used data triangulation (Marzaini et al., 2024; and Vibulphol et al., 2021); four (4) used phenomenology (Andrew, 2020; Krengel, 2021; Ghaffour, 2022; and Karim, et al., 2021); and one used meta-analysis (Yedigoz-Kara, 2022).

**3.2 Quantitative Studies**

Of the three (3) quantitative studies, one utilized the instrumental case study method (Aksoy, 2020) while two utilized experimental method (Nam, 2023; and Zulaiha, et al., 2020).

**3.3 Mixed Methods**

As for the eight (8) articles which utilized mixed methods, two of them utilized sequential explanatory (Unsal & Kasap, 2023; and Quiroz & Gonzales, 2021), while six (6) utilized sequential exploratory ( Xu et al., 2023; Chatrakul & Damnet, 2021; Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin, 2021; Senol & Cesur, 2021; Dagtan & Cabaroglu, 2021; and Makhoulouf & Bensafi, 2021).

Table 1 below summarized the research designs used in the current systematic review of literature.

**Table 2. Summary of the Research Designs used in the Literature Review**

<b>Research Methods</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Qualitative Methods	<b>29</b>
Quantitative Methods	<b>3</b>
Mixed Methods	<b>8</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>

### **3.4 Data Analysis**

After analyzing the articles that make up the corpora of this systematic literature review, the researcher was able to arrive at seven (7) themes to guide him in the reviewed studies: 1) English as a Foreign Language/English as a Second Language/English as an Additional Language, 2) English (and other Languages) Curriculum and Policy, 3) English Teachers' Professional Development, 4) Teaching and Learning English, 5) CEFR Around the World, 6) Teachers' Individual Agency, and 7) English Language Assessment, Testing, and Evaluation.

The researcher made comparisons of the concepts, research questions, findings, conclusions, and recommendations in the research articles, concentrating only on the studies conducted since 2020 about trilingual and multilingual language policies around the world.

## **4. Results and Discussion**

### **4.1. Most Focused Studies of Previous Research in Trilingual and Multilingual Language Policies since 2020**

Analysis and thematization of the available literature on language policies around the world since 2020 revealed the Top 3 most focused studies on trilingual and multilingual policies: 1) English as a Foreign Language, English as a Second Language, English as an Additional Language, 2) English (and other Languages) Curriculum and Policy, and 3) English teaching and learning.

A lot of studies have been written since 2020 about language policies, and they all fall under the category – EFL/ESL/TESOL. Other themes can be subsumed under this broad category. For emphasis of the language policies since 2020, focus is only on the Language Program involving English as a Second Language, English as a Foreign Language, and Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and their ramifications with variables and sub-variables identified.

Most studies on language policies involved the use of the English language in a non-English speaking country, or in a country where the people do not speak English.

For this Discussion Part, focus shall be on the Top 3 in the most studied language policies since 2020, which are the following: Rank 1 – EFL/ESL/EAL, which has the most number of studies at n=12 or 30% of the total number of studies in this SRL; Rank 2 – English (and Other Languages) Curriculum and Policy with the second highest number of studies at n=8 or 20% of the total studies in this SLR; and Rank 3 – Teaching and Learning English, with n=8 or 20% of the total studies in this SLR.

#### **4.1.1. English as a Foreign/Second/Additional Language**

Thirteen (13) studies make up this corpus of materials under this specific category: Nguyen et al. (2023); Lee (2021); Ghaffour (2022); Suraweera (2022); Dagtan & Cabaroglu (2021); Trujillo (2021); Yedigoz-Kara & Bumen (2022); Tajolosa et al. (2022); Marzaini et al. (2024); Zulaiha et al. (2020); and BAsok (2020).

Basok (2020), Ghaffour (2022), Zulaiha et al. (2020), and Hashemnezhad (2022) explored English as a Foreign Language (EFL). While Basok (2020) focused on Turkish English as a foreign language, Ghaffour (2022) focused his study in English itself, how it bring about the culturalist and non-culturalist perspective of the use of English in the teaching policy. Zulaiha, et al. (2020), on the other hand, explored EFL in terms of classroom-based assessment, while Hashemnezhad (2022) took the time out to look into the factors affecting EFL learning in Iran.

Tajolosa, et al. (2022), Lee (2021), and Marzaini et al. (2024) all investigated English as a second language in their countries, the Philippines, Korea, and Malaysia, respectively. Tajolosa et al. (2022) took a snapshot of the initial foray of the K to 12 program in the Philippines, while Lee (2021) discovered the domain where ESL failed in terms of the English education policy and practice. Marzaini, et al. (2024) investigated the ESL teachers' practices in implementing CBA (classroom-based assessment). The work of Zulaiha et al. (2020) finds a corollary study in Marzaini et al. (2024) as both investigated classroom-based assessment.

Other factors of EFL/ESL/ EAL were likewise investigated. Yedigoz-Kara & Bumen (2022) identified the common factors that hinder curricular change implementation. Suraweera (2022) explored the sociocultural aspect of English teaching, by removing its colonial and imperial undertones, with a shift to plurilingualism as an alternative. Nguyen et al. (2023) investigate the interface between macro context (English language assessment policies and provision) and micro contexts (institutional conditions and practice) of the current practice. Trujillo (2021) investigated teachers' professional subjectivities in terms of the dichotomy of inclusion and exclusion. On the other hand, Dagtan & Cabaroglu (2021) investigated the situation of English speaking skills of ELT departments in Turkey.

Hashemnezhad's (2022) study revealed four factors affecting EFL learning: 1) language planning and policy, 2) teacher characteristics, 3) environmental/social elements, and 4) learners' individual characteristics. He warned that the absence of the four factors leads to 'inflamed EFL learning.

On the matter of language planning and policy, the works of Basok (2020) and Hashemnezhad (2022) find a commonplace agreement. What Basok (2020) refers to as a 'gap between the language teaching policies and classroom practice,' Hashemnezhad (2022) simply puts it as 'gap between EFL resources and current needs of learners.'" Lee (2021) similarly found other factors that seem to suggest that EFL learning is inflamed in his country, Korea, like the discrepancy between the ideological EFL and the practical EFL. Nguyen et al. (2023) simply refers to these practices as macro and micro contexts of EFL learning, where their relationship is far from positive.

With regard to teachers' characteristics, several studies point to the importance of teacher preparation and qualifications. Most notable of which are practices on assessment, and qualifications. Zulaiha et al. (2020), Marzaini et al. (2024) and Tajolosa et al. (2022) seemed to have conflicting results about assessment. In the case of Zulaiha et al. (2020) assessment is for (AFL), while for Marzaini (2024), teachers' practice of assessment does not conform to the norms of the classroom-based assessment, whereas, in the case of Tajolosa et al. (2022), it is the learners who make assessment and evaluation of their teachers, amid a slew of negative factors affecting evaluation and assessment. These kinds of assessment practices seem to suggest that more is to desired in terms of assessment.

Another thing to consider is teachers' characteristics and qualifications. Some of these characteristics are the 'behind' factors, which talk about qualifications teachers carry with them, and the 'before' factors, what teachers are faced with. In another perspective, Dagtan & Cabaroglu (2021) found out that teachers lack the proficiency to speak English despite practice and exposure. Suraweera (2022) focused on pre-service teachers and on how they can be more aware of the historical colonial and imperial undertones of English. Ghaffour (2022) spoke of cultural undertones of English, which teachers need to know and understand.

Yedigoz-Kara & Bumen (2022) classify several teachers factors in English instruction: teachers qualifications (micro level), lack of support and infrastructure (meso-level), and lack of guidance, or a misalignment between curricular change and high-stakes testing policy (macro level) are factors blocking the curricular change implementation while Basok (2020) recognizes common themes demotivating teachers such as the gap between the official policy and practice, a mismatch between curriculum and assessment practices, and administrative pressures affecting teacher motivation. Trujillo (2021) concurs with Basok (2020) in terms of outside factors the teachers have no control of that affect their worth as teachers.

#### **4.1.2. English (and other Languages) Curriculum and Policy**

While the previous chapter discussed domains of EFL/ESL/EAL at a macro level, this chapter discusses the studies related to English instruction at the middle level. For its weight in this study in terms of frequency or number of articles on this theme, it is the second most discussed area with eight (20%) of the 40 articles finally screened for this SLR.

Several studies have devoted themselves to the investigation on the aspect of English curriculum and policy. Considered for this section are the following studies: Aksoy (2020); Vibulphol et al. (2021); Gurney et al. (2023);

Senol & Cesur (2021); Kumaramkandath (2024); Guerrero-Nieto & Quintero-Polo (2021); Kani & Igsen (2022); and XU et al. (2024).

The following studies either have a positive or a negative picture of language curriculum and policy implementation. On the positive note, Guerrero-Nieto & Quintero-Polo (2021) noted how policies are shaping how teachers construct themselves as professionals, the language policy itself emerging as a new realm of research, although government discourse is still in the downtrend.

Xu et al. (2024) traced the history of Chinese language education in the Philippines since history, which they found flourishing over the years. In other words, the Chinese language curriculum in the Philippines is well-accepted in the country. In Aksoy's (2020) study, the teachers considered the updated curriculum suitable and effective yet in class observations displayed that there are important gaps in bridging theory and practice

The earlier findings are in contrast to the study of Kani & Igsen (2022) who found that the English-Only policy in the Turkish curriculum is accepted only in the Kindergarten but finds great opposition in the primary grades. There seems to be a common sentiment between the study of Kani & Igsen (2022) with that of Vibulphol et al. (2021) which found that Thai people raise questions about the implementation of the Basic Education Core Curriculum, and questions about its not being institutionalized in Thai basic education schools. For Gurney et al. (2023), the teaching of English fails as an indicator of learners' true ability to read and write in English. As for the new electives introduced into the curriculum, the study of Senol & Cesur (2021) proved otherwise. They found out that the participants were mostly interested in the new developments and innovations in language teaching, material design, and technological implications along with communication and culture-based courses.

Kumaramkandath (2024), nevertheless, noted that the presence of English language is creating a hegemony in the Higher Education, both linguistically and culturally, but warned of its impact as "first language status" being still unexplored.

#### **4.1.3. Teaching and Learning English**

As the name of this theme implies, this section makes an exposition of the different designs and approaches to teaching and learning in different settings.

The body of work in this category includes the following: Unsal & Kasap (2023); Yeleussiz (2024); Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin (2021); Meihami (2021); Tuan et al. (2023); Makhlof & Bansafi (2021); Song (2022); and Nam (2023).

The teaching pedagogies presented in this section is just an enumeration, as the next Research Question shall discuss them altogether.

The presented studies seem to suggest a lack of something and therefore, a need for a solution. Internet connectivity and technological gadgets increases the participants' uptake of ICT, in Makhlof & Bensafi (2021); in the implementation of the CLIL in Ecuador, in Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin (2021); and in the implementation of media literacy, in Yeleussiz (2024).

Similarly, technical knowledge possessed by teachers is needed to teach mother tongue (Vietnamese) to teach English, in Tuan et al., (2023). Coordination is needed, in the study of Nam (2023), in implementing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). A translanguaging space is needed for emergent bilinguals, in Song (2022). The use of the mother tongue (Vietnamese) is needed in teaching EFL classes, in Tuan et al. (2023). The lack of training in CALL is a major challenge in the EFL teacher education, in Meihami (2021). The lack of the appropriate teaching and learning environment and the teachers' skills and the teaching approach may contribute to the student's lack of confidence in speaking English, in Unsal & Kasap (2023).

## **4.2. Language teaching and learning practices around the world since 2020 based on current literature**

The articles mentioned in the preceding pages are the sources of the answers to question on the most studied language teaching and learning practices. While no two studies discussed a common language practice centering on language learning and teaching, it is worth mentioning that there are a number of teaching strategies discussed by several researchers in the current literature review. Since each individual article cites several citations for the use of these language practices, it is implicitly stated that these language practices are universal in their use or application. Excluded in this SLR are those studies that dwell on EFL, ESL, English-Only Policy, and similar concepts as they have discussed in the preceding pages. They are the macro-level practices; this SLR will make a micro-level presentation of language teaching and learning practices around the since 2020 based on current research.

Our sources are the following: Unsal & Kasap, 2023 (Q Method); Yeleussiz, 2024 (Media Literacy); Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin, 2021 (Content and Language Integrated Learning); Meihami, 2021 (Computer-Assisted Language Learning [CALL] Teacher Education); Krengel, 2021 (Virtual Exchange); Makhlof & Bensafi, 2021 (Information and Communication Technology); Song, 2022 (Translanguaging); Nam, 2023 (Communicative Language Teaching); and Salavert & Szalkiewicz, 2020 (Seal of Bilinguality).

### **4.2.1. Q Method**

Unsal & Kasap (2023) explains the Q Method when they state that,

Q technique is a research approach extensively used in the social sciences to investigate subjective thoughts or opinions regarding a specific problem. It combines qualitative and quantitative data analysis approaches to identify and categorize various ideas and perspectives on a specific subject. The Q approach has been used in education to explore a variety of subjects, including instructors' opinions of English language instruction (p. 15, para. 1)

It should be noted in the above definition of the Q Method that the words 'method,' 'approach,' and 'technique,' even if these three words mean differently from one another.

### **4.2.2. Media Literacy**

Yeleussiz (2024) gives the definition of the phrase when he states that,

existing research indicates that the term "media literacy" is notably complex due to the absence of a universally agreed-upon definition (Potter, 2022). Various interpretations of this term differ both in minor details and more important aspects. Nevertheless, even slight discrepancies in meaning can pose challenges when educators possess diverse perceptions of identical concepts... (p. 285, para. 2).

### **4.2.3. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)**

Barre-Parrales & Villafuerte-Holguin (2021) consider CLIL as a method, when they explain that,

Marsh et al. (2014) promoted the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) method in 1994. CLIL reinforces literature, history, or science lessons with foreign language practices, by promoting "you can do it!" It requires teachers to be very well acquainted with the developmental stages of the language learning and the main theories of foreign language acquisition as well...(p. 100, para. 6).

### **4.2.4. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) Teacher Education**

Meihami (2021) did not outline the specific history of the CALL method and how it was integrated into the CALL teacher education. The description given here is a 'filtered' definition of CALL in conjunction with the phrase "teacher education," Meihami (2021) recalls that,

CALL teacher education can be regarded as a venue in which the symbiosis between linguistics and technology can be transmitted to L2 teachers (Torsani, 2016)...The emergence of interactive and communicative L2 teaching approaches from 1980 (Ellis, 2020) led to the emergence of computational linguistics, which applied computers in research into linguistics and teaching (Kessler & Hubbard, 2017)... (pp. 94-95).

#### **4.2.5. "Glocal Education" through Virtual Exchange**

Krengel (2021) describes "Glocal education" as "having students think globally and act locally" (p. 138). He adds, "given the potential benefits of transnational communication and transcultural contact towards the reduction of barriers between peoples, nations, and regions" (p. 139).

#### **4.2.6. Use of Information and Communication Technology**

While this method is common in the Philippines, it is uncommon in the origin of the researchers, which is Nigeria. Makhlof & Bensafi (2021) wrote that "the ability to use ICT has become the new literacy for the 21<sup>st</sup> century" (p. 37).

#### **4.2.7. Translanguaging**

Song (2022) defines translanguaging when he states that

"translanguaging has emerged as a promising educational approach that provides theoretical and pedagogical tools to support EB's [emergent bilinguals] learning of content knowledge and academic language and facilitate home-school connections by embracing EB students' full language repertoires and cultural knowledge..." (p. 2).

#### **4.2.8. Cognitive Language Teaching**

Nam (2023) gives a brief yet practical definition of CLT when he said that "rather than giving primary attention to grammar, CLT seriously concerns "what to say," "How to say it," and "in what situations" can be said." He adds, "Communicative language teachers taught people to invite and apologize, to agree and disagree, alongside making sure they could use the past perfect or the second conditional" (p. 77).

#### **4.2.9. Seal of Biliteracy**

Salavert & Szalkiewicz (2020) describe the Seal of Biliteracy when they state that,

The Seal of Biliteracy is an official state award that recognizes high school seniors who graduate with demonstrated proficiency in English and one or two more other world languages...The Seal of Biliteracy promotes twenty-first century skills and intercultural communication competencies that are critical in today's global society. The Seal of Biliteracy policies thus help improve high school graduation rates...(p. 2020).

### **5. Conclusions and Recommendations**

The present study investigated the different multilingual policies around the world and their implications to the English language teaching and learning process. From the body of work that were reviewed for this systematic literature review, since 2020, several studies have focused their research lenses into various issues, curricular offerings, and other phenomena around language learning and teaching. Most notable of which are the following themes: English as a Foreign/Second/Additional Language, English (and other languages) Curriculum and Practice, English Teachers' Professional Development, Teaching and Learning English, CEFR Around the World, Teachers' Individual Agency, and English Language Assessment, Testing, and Evaluation.

Research questions focused on the most studied language themes and teaching practices. As for the themes, these are the most studied: EFL/ESL/EAL; English (and other Languages) Curriculum and Policy; and Teaching and Learning English. On the other hand, there is a dearth of studies on the other themes. As for the language practices,

several approaches, techniques, and methods are given, such as: CALL, CLT, CLIL, CBA, media literacy, ICT, translanguaging, Seal of Biliteracy, and 'Glocal education.'

As for the most studied concepts, future researchers could dwell on the weaknesses of these techniques cited so as to recommend for curricular revamps, strengthening the English teaching and learning backbone, and probably focus on the "less is more" concept of language education. Similarly, future studies could also bring to the surface such uncharted territories in language research like teacher agency, teacher empowerment, and the possible adoption of the CEFR into the Philippines.

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