

Help Wanted: The Employment Trajectory of Multilingual Transnational Teachers

by

Eliane Oliveira Gomes de Lima

University of Manitoba

Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Education

Faculty of Graduate Studies

University of Manitoba

February 2022

Copyright © 2022 by Eliane de Lima

## Abstract

Even though Canada is known as a multicultural place that embraces immigrants from all over the world, it can be challenging for immigrants to make their way not only in, but into, the work force. For immigrant teachers, who have non-Canadian education and, many times, an accent that may be unfamiliar to locals, it can be even more difficult. This study explored the employment trajectory of multilingual transnational teachers. On the basis of my findings, I provide insights and recommendations that might be useful for other professionals who may be experiencing similar challenges joining the labor market in Canada. The autoethnographic approach used in this study allowed me to share authentic experiences and invite the readers to enter my world as a multicultural transnational educator and see it from my perspective. I reviewed the literature in the areas of immigrants in the Canadian workplace, native and non-native English-speaking teachers (NESTs/NNESTs), and relevant challenges associated with the language teaching profession. Data consisted of reflections on memories of my own employment trajectory. Ellis and Bochner (2000) state that examining one's own experiences can lead to a better understanding of a culture. This study showed that NNESTs are still affected by the belief that NESTs are the best language teachers (Llurda, 2005; Selvi, 2010; Ulate, 2011). During my path to integrate into the Canadian labour market, like many of my contemporaries, I faced challenges such as non-recognition of my foreign education credentials and home country experience, linguistic discrimination, and undervaluing of

NNESTs on the part of students and employers. Such challenges create obstacles for NNESTs to find teaching positions and impede their professional success.

## Dedication

I dedicate this autoethnography to my husband and children who have been very important people in my life. They always support my endeavors and they have been my motivation and inspiration to keep on learning and to keep on giving the best of myself.

## Acknowledgments

My gratitude to the faculty, staff, and students I was fortunate enough to work with during my studies. I truly appreciate the shared experiences and the knowledge acquired through this whole journey. A special thank you to Dr. Clea Schmidt. I am lucky to have benefited from your guidance. Thank you for being such an inspiration. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Sandra Kouritzin and Dr. Bruno de Oliveira Jayme, for their invaluable comments and suggestions that helped me through the writing process.

## Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Background .....	1
Mistrust.....	1
Linguistic discrimination .....	3
Undervaluing non-native English-speaking teachers.....	4
Purpose and Research Question .....	6
Chapter 2: Theoretical framework and Literature Review .....	10
Critical Pedagogy .....	10
Immigrants in the Canadian Workplace.....	12
Hiring practices.....	14
Technological resources used in the hiring process.....	16
Hidden discrimination.....	18
Native English-speaking Teacher and Non-native English-speaking Teacher .....	20
The ideal English language teacher .....	22
The Language Teaching Profession.....	24
Challenges brought by the COVID-19 Pandemic .....	29
Challenges faced by EAL teachers during the pandemic.....	30
My own challenges during the pandemic.....	31
Chapter 3: Methodology .....	35
Autoethnography strengths .....	37
Data Collection.....	38

Data Analysis .....	42
Ethical Issues .....	43
Chapter 4: Undervaluing of Non-native English-Speaking Teachers .....	46
The Job Search .....	46
Chapter 5: Students' Perceptions of Non-native English-Speaking Teachers .....	54
Students' Expectations .....	54
Chapter 6: Linguistic Discrimination against Non-native English-Speaking Teachers.....	59
The Issue of the Accent.....	59
Chapter 7: The Stress and Uncertainties faced by Non-native English Speaking Teachers.....	64
A Challenging Beginning.....	64
Chapter 8: Conclusion .....	72
References.....	79

## Chapter 1: Introduction

### **Background**

#### **Mistrust**

It was a sunny and bright day. When I arrived at the classroom, the students were all there sitting down and waiting. I entered the room and greeted them. I was excited about my first day of class. I hadn't taught in a year or so, and it would be my debut as an English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher in Canada. I like to start off the courses with an ice-breaker activity. Instead of talking about myself, I play a game in which some pictures and words are displayed on the board and students must guess how they relate to me. Students were actively playing the game and making their guesses. At the end of the game, when they had had an opportunity to guess a little about me, I wrote my name on the board and introduced myself. When I did, a student at the back of the room asked me right away: "So you're not Canadian? I thought all English teachers here had to be Canadian". Even though one of the pieces of information about me that had been shared with students was the fact that I had been teaching the language for over twenty years, from the moment this student realized I was a multilingual transnational teacher, he spent the whole term questioning my teaching methods and my knowledge of the language.

I was not surprised when students reacted negatively to the fact that I was not a NEST<sup>1</sup>. I have been a language teacher for over twenty years, and I have always had to

---

<sup>1</sup> I understand that there are problems with the terminology Native English Speaker Teacher (NEST) and Non-native English Speaker Teacher (NNEST), but they are commonly used terms in the literature, so I decided to adopt them in my study.

deal with the question of native speaker vs non-native speaker language teachers. In fact, I have been a language learner myself in a non-native speaking environment when I was younger, and I remember how learners in general valued being taught by someone who was a native speaker. This held true even when they sometimes seemed not to know what they were doing.

The belief that native speaker teachers make the best language models lead learners to prefer them over non-native speaker teachers (Braine, 2010). As Watson Todd and Pojanapunya (2009) state, “historically, there has been a preference for native speaker teachers as language teachers” (p. 24). A common assumption is that native speakers are the ones who have learned the language in a real-life context, and therefore, they will be the best ones to teach it (Braine, 2010; Medyes, 1992). Nevertheless, going back and thinking about my own process of learning an additional language, I was at times disappointed in my native speaker language teachers. Even though they served as great models, sometimes it was hard for them to teach simple things. Probably they mastered the language skills but sometimes failed to understand the challenges that learning an additional language involves.

Although students’ negative reaction to the fact that I am an NNEST was not new to me, it brought me feelings of insecurity and anxiety, which made the adaptation to my new work setting more demanding. I felt as if I were always trying to prove, not only to students, but also to myself, that I was qualified to teach them.

### **Linguistic Discrimination**

In a workshop that was meant to discuss different ways of teaching pronunciation to ESL learners, the presenter played a video in which a non-native speaker gave tips on how to raise students' awareness of certain aspects of the English language and then had workshop participants form groups to talk about the suggestions in the video. A very talkative teacher started the discussion by saying the content was quite interesting, but it was annoying to hear the man talking due to his accent. Another teacher added that this "type" of teacher wouldn't be a good reference for learners when teaching pronunciation. They sort of laughed as if they found it strange that the professor had chosen this video to talk about pronunciation. I suspect that was exactly what the professor had in mind when she chose this video: to promote discussion. I tried to add to the conversation by saying that even though the teacher in the video had an accent, he was very clear, and we could still understand him very well. However, once they heard me talk and they realized that I was not a native English-speaker, there was a little awkward moment of silence, and nobody wanted to add anything else to the discussion.

That was alarming to me. I was in a room full of teachers who were probably going to be teaching children from diverse backgrounds. Maybe even my children. If they were not open to an accent, would they be receptive of these kids? I was concerned that linguistic discrimination would be inflicted on children at school. It was also disquieting to me that when I confronted their idea, they simply silenced themselves and did not appear open to discussion.

Globalization turned English into an international language (Zhang & Zhan, 2014). We learn English to speak with the world. Teaching English as a lingua franca should involve teaching different accents, from different places, to give voice and power to minorities (Silva, 2019). I want to believe that teachers will be in charge of promoting these ideas, rather than being critical of an accent. Teachers should focus on intelligibility rather than on accent to encourage mutual interaction in the classrooms (Mohammed Ishaque, 2018).

### **Undervaluing Non-native English-speaking Teachers**

One of my ways of trying to integrate into the labor market in Canada was doing volunteer work. It was an opportunity for me not only to get to know more about the Canadian culture, but also to learn more about different cultures, since I worked with newcomers. It was a very rewarding experience, but even in this context, my experiences were not always positive. Once, during a conversation circle that happened in a school where I volunteered once a week to help newcomers improve their English language skills, students were supposed to talk about the countries they came from. To start the conversation and make participants more comfortable to talk, I said I came from South America and had them try to guess which my country of origin was. Learners took their guesses until they got to the right answer: Brazil. After a few minutes, one student excused himself and left the room, and he did not come back to class. Later, I found out that he quit the class because he was not interested in having lessons with a teacher who was not a native speaker. I think it is safe to say that this student did not know me enough

to judge my teaching skills or my knowledge of the language, since he spent only a few minutes in the class. The student decided that an NNEST was not suitable for him. I was not given the chance to prove him wrong. What students do not understand is that there is much more to teaching a language than simply language competence. Being able to speak a language does not necessarily make someone a capable teacher. As Zhang and Zhan (2014) point out, “the shift from teachers’ knowledge and expertise to linguistic status is harmful to the growth of the teaching profession” (p. 570). In fact, being a non-native language speaker can offer benefits to learners, since these teachers will relate to students and identify with their challenges and needs (Medgyes, 1992). Having been through the process of learning an additional language themselves, non-native speaker teachers have the advantage of knowing the difficulties that learners may go through to acquire a new language.

In this study, I share experiences that represent discomfort and challenges not only to me, but also to other multicultural, transnational language teachers who constantly face these difficulties (Schmidt, 2010; Pollock, 2010). Together with other experiences that will be described later, they are the centre of lived moments that inspire this auto-ethnographic study.

As Kamhi-Stein (2016) notes, English is used to communicate all over the world. It is used to communicate with people from different parts of the world who speak different native languages. Therefore, to have a native speaker teacher as the ideal language teacher does not match the reality. Riordan (2018) also points out that, due to

their own experience of learning an additional language, non-native speaker teachers can bring many advantages to the language learning process, such as serving as a model, understanding students' needs, and anticipating students' challenges to acquire the language.

Globalization coincided with an increase in the number of non-native speakers as teachers. Other factors such as professionalism, motivation, and determination also started were also paramount. From there, a focus on the strengths and weaknesses of both native and non-native teachers started to point to the fact that these teachers are not superior to one another (Zhang & Zhan, 2014). In fact, as Medgyes (1992) states, both native and non-native speakers have equal chances to become successful teachers.

According to Braine (2010), 80% of English teachers around the world are non-native speakers of the language. In the globalized world we live in today, it is not difficult to think that many English teachers around the globe are non-native speakers of the language (Tsang, 2017). As technology continues to broaden our ways of communicating and interacting in and with the world, increasing the need to communicate with speakers of other languages, the demand for professionals to teach languages will only keep increasing.

### **Purpose and Research Question**

Despite the positive impact of immigrants on the Canadian labour market, skilled immigrant workers still face challenges such as unemployment and under-employment, and often struggle to find good and stable jobs (Subedi & Rosenberg, 2016). Research

shows that the knowledge and skills immigrants obtain in their home country are often not valued by Canadian employers (Zhang & Zhan, 2014). The point-based immigration system used to select immigrant applicants does not guarantee immigrant workers a successful outcome in the Canadian labour market (Tani, 2018). As Tani (2018) states, other priorities, such as having enough resources to meet their financial needs, can push skilled immigrants to take jobs that are below their education and experience.

When I started in Manitoba as a second language teacher, I could still feel this resistance to the fact that I am not a native speaker, both from students and administrators who were responsible for hiring teachers.

In terms of administrators, my twenty-year experience as an English as a foreign language teacher together with my bachelors' degree in teaching did not seem to be enough. Most institutions expect a Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) certificate. To take the certificate, one needs to invest time and money, which can already create a barrier for newcomer teachers. I am an international student, and as such, I must pay considerably higher tuition fees, among other costs such as housing, food, and transportation. Just like me, there are many transnational newcomer teachers that might not be able to afford one more substantial expense.

I have extensive teaching experience and I also hold a bachelor's degree in language teaching, but I believe that what caught recruiters' attention in my resume was that I was pursuing a master's degree in the field of education in Canada. Only then was my experience taken into consideration. I know of friends who have similar teaching experience and have not been successful in finding a teaching job here. I once questioned

one of the recruiters about that, and he said that I was considered for the position because I was doing a master's degree. To repeat his words, "You do not have a TESL certificate, but at least you are pursuing a master's degree in the field".

In terms of students' expectations, I was asked by students several times about how long I had been living in Canada or what was my teaching experience in Canada. Nevertheless, students showed no interest in the years of experience I gained in my home country. NNESTs are often seen as permanent language learners, which leads to having their language skills and their authority in class challenged by numerous stakeholders, such as language learners, employers, and publishers, to name a few (Floris & Renandya, 2020). Native English-speaking teachers, however, are not usually questioned by learners about their education and their teaching experience, since they are believed to be the ideal teachers of the language (Braine, 2010; Medgyes, 1992). This leads me to think that students may still hold on to the belief that just being a native speaker is enough to make a good language teacher.

Despite studies that try to defy the idea that non-native speakers are inferior teachers, these teachers face a different reality. They still encounter many barriers in their professional lives (Braine, 2010; Medgyes, 1992).

All of these aspects made me wonder: In such a multicultural environment, why do students still believe that being a native speaker is such a relevant characteristic for a language teacher? What is it that makes school administration prefer native speakers who have less experience in the education field to experienced non-native speakers as teachers? Therefore, this study arose from my necessity to reflect upon and make sense of

my lived experiences while working as an EAL<sup>2</sup> teacher here in Canada. I examine my experiences as a multilingual, transnational language teacher in the process of positioning myself in the Canadian job market. I aimed to address some issues that might be common to other teachers like me, who have been through the same difficulties. In doing so, the research questions explored were:

1. What insights are afforded by a multilingual, transnational teacher's experiences with students and administrators in Canadian workplaces?
2. What recommendations can be offered to multilingual, transnational teachers and educational systems?

This study offers insights to other multilingual, transnational teachers who have difficulties entering the Canadian workplace environment by illuminating the issue and promoting further discussions about what can be done to change this culture. The study can also contribute to systemic change by helping administrators and policymakers understand the role they play in reducing barriers and promoting non-discrimination.

---

<sup>2</sup> EAL (English as an Additional Language) is the term I chose to use in this study. I believe this is the term that best defines the teaching experience I have had in Canada. I work with newcomers who want to learn English as an additional language to integrate into the labour market, or simply to integrate into Canadian society.

## Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

In this chapter, the theoretical framework and literature that relates to the study are addressed. I start by delineating critical pedagogy as the theoretical framework that underpins this study. I then explore three areas of literature which are closely connected to the study: Immigrants in the Canadian workplace, Native English Speaker Teachers (NESTs) and Non-native English Speaker Teachers (NNESTs), and the language teaching profession and its challenges. Given the fact that a big part of this study was written during the COVID-19 pandemic, I will also discuss some challenges that NNESTs, and I personally, faced during this period.

### **Critical Pedagogy**

Critical pedagogy is the theoretical framework underpinning this study. Rooted in critical theory, “critical pedagogy is an approach to education that emerged in the 1980s from a conviction that there is a need to build more just, equitable and democratic societies” (Hassan, 2022, p.14). Critical pedagogy has its origins in the work of the late Brazilian educator Paulo Freire, and it offers an opportunity to revisit teachers’ political positions and how they can affect action. It also offers a chance to reflect on how we see, understand, and interact with the world (Gottesman, 2016). Freire believed that critical pedagogy involves more than just accepting what is, and that we need to read the world with critical eyes and intervene in the larger social order when necessary (Giroux, 2010). Inspired by Freire’s idea that education is “about the making and changing of contexts” (Giroux, 2010, p.720) that is not limited to the school, I used critical pedagogy as a tool

to promote discussion about challenges faced by NNESTs, with the idea of change. With critical pedagogy in mind, I utilized my own narratives of lived experiences as a language teacher, positioned as a non-native English-speaking educator in Canada, to reflect on how multilingual, transnational English teachers are perceived and the implications for the wider profession.

Through an analysis of my own experiences, I have sought to facilitate a discussion that, while very personal, may be of relevance to others in the language teaching field. The discourses present in these narratives contain key information that can lead to a better understanding of the challenges faced by multicultural, transnational language instructors.

Writing is not always a linear process. It involves thinking and rethinking, and experiencing the object which one is writing about, which can lead to knowing this object more intimately and, therefore, understanding the object better (Freire, 2005). Still according to Freire (2005), the process of writing does not start when one sits down to begin writing. It starts with living the experiences that will be the object of the writing, as well as with the thoughts that they trigger, and then these experiences and ideas are elaborated on and expressed through writing. The narratives used here were not merely short anecdotes of my lived experiences. Rather, they were expressions of my interpretations of lived facts, my perspectives on what happened and keeps on happening to me as a language teacher, and the feelings that these experiences caused. Even though it seems easy to simply put these narratives on paper, it is a process that involves many factors. Writing the narratives means reliving the experiences and trying to make

meaning of them. It became a cycle in which I rethought and reanalyzed these experiences.

As Giroux (2011) points out, “matters of responsibility, social action, and political intervention do not simply develop out of social critique but also require forms of self-critique” (p. 148). I see self-critique here as the analysis (and sometimes reanalysis) of the narratives that lead to the construction of my everyday reality. Reflection and action are necessary to change what needs to be changed (Freire, 2000). To eliminate any injustice or inequalities that might exist in the language teaching profession, the first thing to do is to reflect on my own reality to figure out how this speaks to issues of concern in the wider system and possible changes that need to be made.

### **Immigrants in the Canadian workplace**

With the rapid aging of the population that forms the Canadian workforce and the fast growth of the country’s natural resource industries, Canada has long turned to immigrants to boost its labour market and help develop the economy (Vikram, 2013). According to Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada (2020), the pandemic helped highlight the contribution of immigrants to the Canadian economy. As stated in the Annual Report to Parliament on Immigration (2020), Canada relies on the talent of newcomers to work in the health-care system, as well as in other industries such as information technology and farms to guarantee the supply chains, keep the economy flowing, and generate jobs for Canadians. In fact, to compensate for the shortage of immigrant admissions during the pandemic and ensure Canada will be able to fill important labour markets and continue to be a competitive economy in the global

economic setting, the government announced a plan to keep on receiving immigrants at a rate of about 1% of the population of Canada, including 401,000 permanent residents in 2021, 411,000 in 2022 and 421,000 in 2023 (Canada, 2020).

Due to the evolution of the country's economic focus from agricultural to industrial to post-industrial, and with the intent to adjust to this reality, since 1967, a points system has been used to screen and select visa applications that target better-educated immigrants. These are sought to improve the country's economy and improve the rate of social integration that will ostensibly lead to the success of immigrants in the new setting (Reitz, 1998). As stated by Reitz & Banerjee (2009), immigrants' economic advancement and employment success lead to a feeling of belonging to a society, helping to avoid the feeling of being culturally apart from the community they are in. They also point out that it is important for immigrants to feel they are actively contributing to the development of their communities.

However, even though Canadian immigration policy is designed to boost the country's economic advantage and competitiveness internationally by using a skilled workforce to supply the demands of the labour market, recent immigrants face many challenges entering and succeeding in the workforce (Buzdugan & Halli, 2009). Unemployment rates among recent immigrants are much higher than among non-immigrants, and the wage gap between immigrants and Canadian-born employees is still an issue (Oreopoulos & Dechief, 2011). With the COVID-19 pandemic and the lockdown of economic activities, the Canadian labour market lost millions of jobs, and immigrants have been more negatively affected by the economic downfall (Hou, Picot & Zhang,

2020). According to Hou, Picot and Zhang (2020), as immigrants were challenged to transfer their education and work experience into the Canadian labour market, they struggled to find steady and good paying jobs. They point out that as of February 2020, 22% of recent immigrants had low-wage jobs, compared with only 12% of Canadian-born workers. Hou, Picot and Zhang (2020) also stress that when the pandemic hit, the employment losses were heavily concentrated among low paying jobs, and again immigrants were severely affected, with the unemployment for immigrants getting to 17.3% in April 2020, compared to 13.5 % among Canadian born workers. These difficulties to maintain involvement in the labour market lead to social inequality and feelings of alienation from society (Reitz & Banerjee, 2009).

Many are the reasons why immigrants struggle to overcome the obstacles and successfully make their way into the Canadian labour market. For the purpose of this study, three reasons were given special attention: hiring practices, technological resources used in the hiring process, and hidden discrimination. I also discuss some issues brought by the COVID-19 pandemic.

### **Hiring practices**

Even though job ads usually target a more general type of applicant, the truth is that recruiters and employers are looking for candidates who have Canadian experience, which already limits newcomers' opportunities (Liu, 2007). Immigrants' work experience in their country of origin is not often considered by employers (Buzdugan & Halli, 2009). For recruiters, immigrants may represent a risk, since recruiters may not be acquainted with immigrants' educational background, and it can be difficult to check

previous work experience (Nohl et al., 2014). Therefore, many employers do not want to invest time and money on employees who they perceive may not easily adjust to their work environment.

Social networking tends to be regarded as very important in the Canadian labour setting and it can be seen as a potential enabler for career success (Xue, 2008). Pierce (1995) discusses the fact that relations of power may limit the opportunities that immigrants have to practice the target language, and therefore, limit their social networking. Helen, in Pierce (1995), states that:

It is through languages that a person negotiates a sense of self within and across different sites at different points in time, and it is through language that a person gains access to – or is denied access to – powerful social networks that give learners the opportunity to speak. (p.13)

For immigrant job seekers, however, social networking represents another disadvantage (Turchick Hakak et al., 2010). First, they probably have not had sufficient time to establish networks in this new setting. Also, there are often many hidden jobs that only the ones who are already inserted in the labour market have access to. Since immigrant job seekers have yet to obtain their first job, they will not be informed about internal openings, so they end up losing many opportunities (Liu, 2007).

Another challenge that immigrants have to face is the devaluation or non-recognition of their educational credentials. The immigration points system aims at bringing better-educated and highly-skilled immigrants who will easily integrate to the

labour market and to society. However, when they arrive in Canada, immigrants' educational credentials are frequently not recognized in the labour market (Reitz, 2013). Buzdugan and Halli (2009) state that foreign credentials are less valued than Canadian ones. According to them, this screening system privileges the credentials themselves over the knowledge that they represent. As an outcome of this system, immigrants work for lower wages, while Canadian-trained workers earn higher wages even though they do the same type of work. Reitz (2001) also mentions the issue of underutilization, where foreign-trained workers' education is not seen as an important indicator of performance when hiring immigrants. By the same token, as important as the devaluation of immigrants' educational credentials is the non-recognition of foreign-credentials by certain professional organizations. Buzdugan and Halli (2009) mention in their article the labour market shelter theory, which states that, through regulations, unions and professional organizations end up pushing immigrants to secondary labour markets and assuring that some professions will only be occupied by Canadian-born workers.

### **Technological resources used in the hiring process**

According to Liu (2007), due to changes in the job market structure and also the growth in the number of applicants searching for jobs, new technological resources were introduced as a new strategy to help in the selection and hiring process. As he asserts, for immigrant job seekers, however, the use of technological resources, such as optical recognition of key words, comes as a drawback. He explains that optical recognition of key words is usually used in the screening process, and while it facilitates the process for recruiters and employers, it works as a disservice to newcomers looking for work. One of

the key pieces of information that this technological resource looks for is local experience, and recent immigrants will not have this in their resumes. When they arrive, many immigrants, in search of Canadian experience and money to survive in the new setting, will accept low-skilled jobs that are not even related to their field, and this will end up not counting as relevant experience (Reitz, 2001). Liu (2007) states that with the lack of local experience on their resumes, immigrants will not be considered for advertised job opportunities, making the first entrance in the labour market even more difficult. He also highlights that, due to cultural differences, it can take time for immigrants to understand how to design resumes and cover letters that will fit the positions being advertised. Canadian candidates will have advantage over newcomers, being more acquainted with the selection process here and finding it easier to design resumes and cover letters that target the desired positions. Hence, technological resources used to screen candidates will only end up repeating problems that are present in the regular hiring process (Walker & Perry, 2001). It is not different for NNESTs in their search for a job. According to Zhang & Zhan (2014), to be successful in obtaining a job, it is very important for NNESTs to be familiar with the North American job search culture. As they explain, knowledge of the local job search process will avoid misunderstandings and misjudgment of teacher candidates' abilities on the part of administrators or recruiters. Moussu & Lurda (2008) also mention that good understanding of American culture is as important as knowledge of the language or education to make teachers successful in the labour market. As an example of that, Soheili-Mehr (2018) reports that when immigrant teachers arrive in Canada, they

discover that their foreign credentials do not match the requirements for a provincial teaching certificate. Without resources and an understanding of the requirements set by the Ontario's Ministry of Education, immigrant teachers may end up accepting work for which they are overqualified and overeducated (Soheili-Mehr, 2018).

### **Hidden discrimination**

Even though immigrant skilled workers are officially welcome in the Canadian labour market and populate the work force that boosts the country's economic growth, as previously discussed, there is a discrepancy between what is considered to be the political agenda and the social practice (Nohl et al., 2014). The hiring processes and job postings might seem very open and unbiased, but employers' attitudes and beliefs may prevent immigrants from getting the jobs to which they apply (Oreopoulos & Dechief, 2011). As a result, immigrants miss out on many employment opportunities when they are highly qualified for the job.

Liu (2007) draws attention to the fact that employers usually hire applicants they identify with; recruiters tend to foster cultural sameness rather than embrace newcomers' values. Employers expect immigrant job seekers to fit preconceived organizational and personal patterns, which may lead to disregarding newcomers' culture and standards. Oreopoulos and Dechief (2011) also mention the fact that recent immigrants are usually judged based on norms or organizational policies that do not take internationally acquired skills into consideration, which can lead to discounting these foreign skills. They also argue that employers usually see immigrant workers' foreignness and international skills

and anticipate that they may not fit to the local work environment, or cope with the demands of the new job. This concept is usually generalized and leads to stereotypes. As Oreopoulos and Dechief (2011) indicate, just the fact that immigrants are culturally different does not mean that they are not fit for a certain job.

Kerekes (2017) discusses the problem of categorizations, such as second language speakers, which tend to reproduce certain structures of meaning and ideology that strengthens power relations and exclusionary hiring practices. She also points out that unequal power relations between immigrant job seekers and the dominant work culture serve to reinforce the barriers to migrants in their employment pursuits.

Another type of hidden barrier that immigrants might have to face is name discrimination. According to Oreopoulos (2011), in a hiring process, “Canadian-born individuals with English-sounding names are more likely to receive a call for a job interview compared to foreign-born ones” (p. 163), even if they have degrees from highly recognized schools or the same experience that Canadian-born candidates have, only acquired outside Canada. He states that the reason why many immigrants are unemployed may be that many of them do not even make it to the interview phase and do not have a chance to demonstrate their skills. In his study, recruiters who were asked about the reasons why this happens answered that they usually see foreign names as a sign that the job applicant will not have the desired language skills and will not produce as expected (Oreopoulos, 2011). Interestingly, none of the recruiters acknowledged that the information in the resume could help them solve their concerns about language skills. In Oreopoulos and Dechief (2011), recruiters mentioned that the pressure to avoid bad hires

and the short time they have to conduct the whole hiring process stresses the fear of taking risks, and in this context, hiring newcomers can represent taking a risk. In their study, recruiters admitted being biased and preferring Anglo names over foreign names when selecting job applicants, while others did not seem to acknowledge this as discrimination.

Reitz (2001) defines underutilization of immigrant skills as “any employment of immigrants in work below a level of skill at which they could function as effectively as native-born Canadians” (p. 350). Reitz (2001) states that this underutilization of immigrant skills can also be seen as discrimination, and it can affect immigrants access to job opportunities and earnings.

### **Native English-Speaking Teacher (NEST) and Non-native English-Speaking Teacher (NNEST)**

English has become a language for communicating with others around the world. As stated by Beare (2019, p.1), “as of today, the British Council estimates that 375 million speakers use English as a second language, while 750 million use English as a foreign language. The group estimated that by 2020, 2 billion people would be using the language”. With so many people all around the world wanting to learn the language, there has been a growth in the number of teachers who do not speak English as a mother tongue (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). As a result, most English language teachers around the world are non-native speakers of the language (Ulate, 2011). According to Floris and

Renandya (2020) and Braine (2010), 80% of English teachers around the world do not have English as their first language.

Despite the sizeable number of non-native teachers around the world, issues related to the teaching of English by NNESTs were not openly discussed before the late 1990's (Braine, 2010). Braine (1999) noted that even though non-native English teachers strived to improve their teaching ability and get more experience in the field, English Language Teaching school administrators would still prefer to hire native English speaker teachers. He also pointed out that although the TESOL organization did try to oppose these hiring practices, there was still discrimination happening against non-native English speaker teachers (Braine, 1999).

Non-native speaking teachers often face challenges to their credibility in hiring practices and from students (Mohammed Ishaque, 2018). Stereotypes might be one of the biggest problems non-native teachers have to deal with (Thomas, 1999). As Thomas (1999) asserts, non-native English-speaking teachers are often judged by their appearance, which sometimes also leads to racial discrimination, or by their accent.

When school administrators value native speech over teaching skills and competence, NNESTs are automatically taken out of the competition in the job market, since they will not even have a chance to demonstrate their skills (Clark & Paran, 2007). Even though NNEST TESOL as a social movement raised awareness of the problem, it has not been successful in changing non-native English-speaking teachers' realities. Non-native English-speaking teachers have experienced some advancements, but they

continue to be discriminated against when it comes to hiring practices around the world (Kamhi-Stein, 2016).

### **The ideal English language teacher**

Is there an ideal English language teacher after all? Do you have to be a native speaker to be this ideal English teacher? Medgyes (1992) argued that both native and non-native speaker teachers have equal chances of making good language teachers. Their professional training and their teaching abilities play an important role, but their language background and how they will apply it to the teaching process can be a great advantage. As noted by Mahadi and Jafari (2012), culture has an important effect on language, making language the symbolic presentation of a culture. According to Medgyes (1992), culture and language are usually so intertwined that one cannot be separated from the other, and it becomes an important component in the teaching of language. That is one of the reasons why NESTs are often seen as the best ones to teach a second/foreign language. However, non-native speaker teachers must be made aware of the potential advantages they bring to the language learning process and own them as favorable features (Masrizal, 2013).

Globalization brought the need to communicate not only with native English speakers, but also with other speakers of English. Hence, communication has become more important than native speakerism (Hodgson, 2014). Interestingly, this comes as an advantage to non-native English-speaking teachers. The fact that NNESTs know more than one language is already a positive aspect (Medgyes, 1992). This already opens these

teachers' eyes to several aspects of the language that may become very useful when transferred to teaching (Clark & Paran, 2007).

Llurda (2005) affirms that having knowledge about the language per se is not enough to make a successful teacher. According to her, NNESTs can offer several advantages to learners that NESTs sometimes cannot. Non-native speaker teachers are, naturally, successful language learners. This way, they are models of learning to be followed by students. Medyes (1992) supports that NNESTs are often able to anticipate learners' challenges in the learning process and are more sympathetic to learners' needs. They use their own experience with language learning to walk students through the process and help them develop their own learning strategies. Having acquired the language through a different process, native speakers may not be able to teach as effectively (Medgyes, 1992). Native speaker teachers may have an advantage when it comes to aspects such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and the teaching of culture, but having had to study the language more deeply to understand and acquire it, non-native speaker teachers are often able to provide more information about the language (Braine, 2010).

Non-nativeness can work as an asset for students, or as a tool to help them in the process of acquiring the language. NNESTs must bear this in mind and raise their self-esteem to keep on developing their careers (Medgyes, 1992). However, while NNESTs have agency and an important role in self-advocacy, other stakeholders should also be involved in the process of including anti-discriminatory practices that challenge systemic

discrimination and help NNESTs integrate to the teaching profession (Schmidt, 2010). Promoting the value of NNESTs and defying native speakerism is a complex issue that needs a strong response not only from immigrant teachers, but also from professional associations, teacher training institutions, school administrators, researchers, and even social media (Floris & Renandya, 2020).

### **The Language Teaching Profession**

Diversity is a key element of Canadian society. According to Statistics Canada (2020), immigration has been of paramount importance in advancing Canada's economy and will continue to be so in future years. Its 2020 Annual Report to Parliament on Immigration affirms that between 2017 and 2018, net immigration was responsible for 80% of Canada's population increase. It also states that immigrants and foreign workers help employers respond to vacancies in various sectors by filling in the gaps in the Canadian labour market, with recent immigrants and very recent immigrants being responsible for 71% and 76% of the 2019 labour market participation, respectively. In fact, the report estimates that by early 2030s, Canada's population growth will depend entirely on immigration. The history of immigration led to the creation of a society with different cultures, languages and religions (Evans, 2013). This diversity, however, is under-represented when it comes to the teaching force that will help student and family populations (Ryan, Pollock & Antonelli, 2009). These learners still encounter at school "a predominantly Canadian-born, white, female, monolingual English-speaking, middle class teaching force that struggles with meeting the needs of diverse learner populations"

(Schmidt & Janusch, 2016, p.140). Meanwhile, a great number of foreign-born skilled, qualified and experienced teachers face many barriers to join the education system and find their place as educators in Canada (Block, 2012).

According to Faez (2012), teachers who do not speak English as their first language can be placed in two different groups: IETs (Internationally Educated Teachers) and NNESTs (Non-native English-speaking teachers). IETs is the term used to talk about newcomer teachers who have studied in an international context and may also have certificates and teaching experience from their home countries, while the term NNESTs is used to talk about teachers who teach English as a foreign or second language. I see myself as an NNEST and my professional experience in Canada has been mainly working with adult learners. I recognize that regulations to become a K-12 educator and to teach English as a second language in Canada may be different. However, as Faez (2012) highlights, as most IETs do not have English as their first language, many problems faced by NNESTs are also relevant to IETs. For this reason, mentioning the challenges faced by IETs when trying to fit in the educational system in Canada is also relevant to this study.

One of the issues discussed by Reitz (2001) is the non-recognition of foreign professional credentials by Canadian professional bodies. Immigrant professionals who were licensed in their fields in their home countries have to go through costly and time-consuming processes to get equivalent licenses to work in Canada. This is similar for internationally educated teachers (IETs). The teaching profession is conservative, making it even more difficult for IETs to have their education credentials recognized and

integrate into the teaching force in Canada (Schmidt & Janusch, 2016). Downgrading or not recognizing international education credentials is an old problem (Marom, 2017); this works to keep the hegemony in the teaching field and emphasize cultural and language differences that are portrayed as IETs' deficiencies. Immigrant teachers with years of education and experience that could be important assets to the Canadian educational system have their credentials and previous experience disregarded and are redirected to recertification (El Bouhali, 2019). Marom (2017) states that IETs have a high rate of unemployment and, when they are hired, they tend to obtain substitute teacher positions instead of full-time jobs.

In an attempt to make a smoother transition into the labour market and find their way into the Canadian education system, IETs may go back to school and recertify (Schmidt, Young, & Mandzuk, 2010). Nevertheless, while recertification programs offer educated and qualified teachers the chance to become familiar with local pedagogy and Canadian curriculum, it also serves to distinguish between native-born and non-native born teachers and reinforce the barriers that prevent them from successfully getting into the teaching force in their new setting (Marom, 2017).

It is true that the challenges to have their education credentials recognized is an important issue and should be given the necessary attention. Nonetheless, it is not the only barrier IETs face in their path trying to resume their careers in Canada (Schmidt, 2010). When IETs are successful and are able to join the select teaching force, they end up feeling "marginalized and discriminated within the profession" (Deter, as cited in Faez, 2012, p. 66). Teachers suffer systemic discrimination on the basis of their accents,

their clothes, and their culture, not only from coworkers but also from educational administrators, which work to maintain the status of dominant groups (Schmidt, 2010). As Block (2012) affirms “cultural differences such as names, dress, food preferences, or forms of making small talk can be sources of discrimination” (p. 90).

Language barriers are one of the biggest issues IETs have to deal with when they are trying to resume their careers as educators in another country (Schmidt & McDaid, 2015). Accent is usually erroneously interpreted by employers as lack of fluency or even lack of knowledge. Besides, by identifying difference, accent opens doors to other types of discrimination, such as religious or cultural (Block, 2012). It can, as Marom (2017) indicates, be denoted “as an individual deficiency” (p.167) rather than a structural problem present in the school system itself. This way, language becomes another element that excludes IETs from the Canadian education system (Schmidt, 2010). Kooy & De Freitas (2007) discuss the “diasporic journey” IETs have to go through to develop their teacher identities (p.875). According to them, language is both necessary and insufficient for teachers to develop their identity, which causes a sense of displacement. Language works as a tool to make teachers feel they belong to their setting. However, IETs often struggle to express their true selves in the new language and strive to find their place.

Unrealistic language standards imposed by school systems in Canada prevent culturally diverse teachers from joining the teaching force (Schmidt & McDaid, 2015). Nevertheless, considering Canada’s ever-growing multicultural population and its claim to promote diversity in the education system, IETs’ different backgrounds should be seen as assets rather than deficiencies (Schmidt, 2010). Hall (cited in Block, 2012) defines

agency “as the potencial to resist and recreate social-cultural structures” (p.86). Block (2012) argues that

IETs do not simply reflect cultural diversity or represent equity; they participate in developing equity. If teacher agency can be a factor for change, then the particular experiences of internationally educated teachers can provide for particular kinds of educational change (p. 87).

The very presence of IETs at schools can be positive to promote diversity, since many immigrant students will identify with them (Marom, 2017). IETs can bring many advantages to a multicultural educational system, such as serving as learners’ models of success, as well as relating to students’ challenges in adapting to a new culture and a new language in a different setting (Schmidt & Block, 2010). To solve the problem of the under-representation of teachers reflective of the diverse student population in Canada, there needs to be a systemic effort of school boards, school administrators, and regular teachers in recognizing valuable contributions that IETs can provide to such a diverse group of learners (Pollock, 2010; Schmidt & Block, 2010).

Even though there is a great body of research about barriers NNESTs face to find their place in the labour market (Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; Clark & Paran, 2007), as well as about the challenges IETs have to face to join the teaching force in Canada (Schmidt, 2010; Schmidt & Janusch, 2016; Schmidt, Young & Mandzuk, 2010), these issues remain unresolved, and immigrant teachers continue to suffer the hardships imposed by systemic barriers in the teaching field (Kerekes, 2017; Shin, 2020). With this study, I used the analysis of my experiences to offer insights about the roles of NNESTs,

and other stakeholders, such as students and school administrators, in facing the obstacles imposed to immigrant teachers by discriminatory practices and make recommendations that will encourage and nurture non-discrimination in the field.

### **Challenges brought by the COVID-19 pandemic**

Immigrants need to overcome many barriers to become professionally successful in the Canadian labour market (Grenier & Xue, 2011). Obstacles that have already been mentioned here, such as language barriers, hidden discrimination in the hiring process, undervaluing of immigrants' education and previous experience are only some of these challenges (Liu, 2007). Therefore, when the COVID-19 pandemic hit the world and the Canadian labour market lost more than three million jobs, immigrant workers were more affected than Canadian-born workers, with recent immigrants being the ones who suffered most from the downturn in the job market (Miekos, 2020). According to Hou, Picot, & Zhang (2020), 17.5% of recent immigrants lost their jobs during the economic crisis caused by the pandemic, compared to 13.5% for Canadian-born and long-term immigrants. This happened because many recent immigrants found it difficult to transfer their educational background and work experience to the Canadian labour market; as a result, they ended up getting low-paying and short-term jobs and became more susceptible to being laid off (Miekos, 2020). These negative outcomes were worsened when considering immigrants are usually overrepresented in sectors highly affected by the pandemic crisis, such as hospitality industry and food services (OECD, 2020). Approximately 33.6 % of immigrants compared to 24.2 % of Canadian-born individuals

expressed concern for the negative effects of the pandemic on their ability to meet financial responsibilities and basic needs (Mo, Cukier, Atputharajah, Boase & Hon, 2020).

Health issues can also become a big concern for immigrant populations during the pandemic. Immigrants have a higher risk of being infected with the COVID-19 virus than Canadian-born individuals, since there's a high incidence of poverty among immigrants, and they live in poor housing conditions and often have jobs where physical distancing is more difficult (OECD, 2020). The fear of losing their jobs and keeping their financial obligations has a great impact on immigrants' mental health, causing high levels of stress and anxiety (Evra, 2020).

Due to the pandemic restrictions, many activities shifted from face-to-face to a totally online model, which only served to emphasize the economic and social inequalities between immigrants and Canadian-born workers, since many immigrants do not have the necessary technological resources needed to deal with these changes, and many times, they do not have the technology knowledge required to study, work, or even take part in hiring processes remotely (OECD, 2020).

### **Challenges faced by EAL teachers during the pandemic**

The COVID-19 pandemic has brought specific challenges for EAL teachers. First, due to the lockdown and travel restrictions, the number of international students has dropped significantly (Academy, 2020). International students complain of having to pay the same fees for online courses that they would pay for in-person instruction (Richards, 2020). They argue that in-person instruction would offer more opportunities to interact

with teachers and they would get more face-to-face guidance, so they do not think it is fair to pay the same amount of money for online instruction. Without international students, many language programs have been forced to close their doors or reduce their teaching staff (CBC, 2020; Todd, 2020), which makes the labour market even more challenging and competitive for multilingual transnational teachers. Furthermore, even though online language learning is not a novelty, many teachers were not prepared for a sudden shift from in-person teaching to a totally online teaching model (Shin, 2020). As discussed by Shin (2020), with the need for an immediate change, teachers did not receive training that would help them to transfer their in-class teaching techniques to an online delivery mode of instruction, or to deal with technical issues. The need for professional development and training programs to help teachers acquire knowledge of technology integration in English language learning is also recognized by Nugroho, Ilmiani & Rekha (2021).

With the pandemic, teachers saw themselves having to find new and creative ways to deliver their courses, which often involved many hours of preparation, and having to learn how to cope with connectivity issues (Richards, 2020). Furthermore, besides assisting learners with technical and connection issues, teachers struggled with students' lack of motivation and engagement in online activities (Nugroho, Ilmiani & Rekha, 2021). All these challenges have contributed to raise teachers' levels of stress and frustration (Richards, 2020).

### **My own challenges during the pandemic**

In March 2020, I was employed in a language program, and I was teaching some courses. When the lock down was implemented, I was informed we would not be able to finish the in-person classes and that I was supposed to contact students via email to send materials that would be used for the rest of the term. I was also told I was supposed to offer extra help (through email) to learners who wanted or needed it. Contacting learners via email seemed rather cold to me, but I understood this was a very special situation and that the uncertainty of the moment did not allow for much more than what was being done.

Even though I had been working with the program for quite some time, I did not hold a steady position, or a full-time job. Therefore, when this whole situation arose, that feeling of uncertainty struck me again: What is going to happen to me now? Language schools rely heavily on international students, and with the COVID-19 pandemic lock down and traveling restrictions, the number of international students dropped drastically. Schools adapted their programs to deliver courses remotely, but student numbers were still very low compared to before the pandemic (Todd, 2020). With all the lay-offs and uncertainties around the situation, I found myself unemployed. I was advised by my supervisors to do some online courses on online teaching, which I did. I took three different courses; each of them took me several hours. They were all very enlightening and I learned helpful and new strategies to engage and assist learners in a remote learning environment. However, I have not been able to get a teaching position since I was laid off in March 2020. After applying for several teaching positions, I still struggle with issues like not having my previous experience and non-Canadian education recognized here. I

have been contacted some of the times I applied for teaching positions, but since I do not have a TESL certificate, recruiters do not want to offer me a position. I understand the job market is more uncertain than usual now. At the time of finalizing this thesis, the COVID-19 pandemic was still happening, and it was unclear when the labour market would recover and have more job opportunities. The economic crisis, the health crisis and the job market uncertainty led me to search for other opportunities. Fortunately, I was able to find a job, even though it has been hard to manage to find work amidst this whole situation. Nevertheless, when I finished writing this thesis, I was not working as a teacher, and it was hard to say whether I will return.

### Chapter 3: Methodology

Autoethnography is the methodological framework that underpins this research. Autoethnography allows me to reflect about my personal lived experiences to build understanding of cultural experiences (Ellis, Adams & Bochner, 2011). I wrote about and analyzed my life stories using a critical perspective, applying theory, and taking advantage of my practice to explain a phenomenon being investigated (McIlveen, 2008).

The idea of working with autoethnography emerged from a series of conversations with a friend who was also doing research. While we were talking about the perils and perks of doing academic research, she mentioned having read some very interesting autoethnographies. As I did not know much about this methodology, she shared several texts about the process of writing autoethnography, as well as some samples of it, and I found the methodology fascinating. As I was reading those stories, I could relate to them and I could put myself in the authors' shoes. This strong connection inspired me to write my own stories and share with other teachers, or other immigrants who go through similar challenges. As stated by Holman Jones (in Ellis, Adams & Bochner, 2011), "autoethnographers can use research and writing as socially-just acts" (p. 284). I used autoethnography to build connections with the reader, motivate change and improve the world we live in (Ellis, Adams & Bochner, 2011). I see myself as someone who tends to follow the patterns, someone who tends to adopt more conventional ways. Since I was taking a different path in my career and embracing new challenges, combined with my research focus, autoethnography was the best fit.

The objective of this research was to analyze the experiences of a multilingual, transnational teacher in Canadian workplaces. Researchers can vary in their emphasis on the research process, leading to different approaches to autoethnography (Ellis & Bochner, 2000). My aim was to explore my own experiences of a newcomer teacher trying to find my place in the labour market in Canada, with a view to making recommendations for immigrant professionals and also school administrators and policy makers. To accomplish this goal, I used analytical autoethnography.

Anderson (2006) maintains that “(analytical) autoethnography requires that the researcher be visible, active, and reflexively engaged in the text” (p. 11). He argues that researchers’ connection to debated issues and the open discussion of their lived stories, as well as their analyses and thoughts of these experiences is what guides the writers to a level of involvement that leads to meaningful contributions to the social worlds they intend to investigate. Anderson (2006) claims that “[autoethnographers] must textually acknowledge and reflexively assess the ways in which their participation reproduces and/or transforms social understandings and relations” (p. 385).

Another important characteristic of analytical autoethnography discussed by Anderson (2006) is a commitment to an analytic agenda. He advocates for more than just telling a story. Instead of just offering an insider view, the writer should try to use their own observations and experience to shed light on bigger social issues. As Anderson (2006) points out, “the definitive feature of an analytical autoethnography is this value-added quality of not only truthfully rendering the social world under investigation, but also transcending that world through broader generalization” (p.388). He claims that,

rather than come up with rigid conclusions, analytical autoethnography provides a chance to improve, elaborate and review theoretical perceptions. Kleinman and Copp (1993, in Philaretou & Allen, 2006) also affirm that writing personal stories can serve to raise awareness of important issues and create a political agenda around it.

This autoethnographic approach enabled me to critically delve into my lived experiences to gain a better understanding of my path as a newcomer teacher and use my voice to offer a critical view of the ongoing culture. I used my own experience to help change, not only my reality, but also the reality of other professionals who go through the same struggles. However, it was not an easy task. Writing this autoethnography was a revealing journey for me. It provided me with an opportunity to do an honest reflection of myself as an immigrant professional and as a transnational language teacher. My first step was writing my memories, and I can say that, although it seems to be a simple job, this process worked as a key that opened a box to many feelings and thoughts that were saved and waiting to be unlocked. Reading about the experiences of other immigrant teachers, or even other immigrant professionals in general, empowered me to revisit my experience with a different perspective. To analyse the data, I had to revisit my memories many times, and that was sometimes painful. It caused feelings of anger, frustration and indignation. The need to be accepted in a new culture and the desire to be successful as a language teacher made me close my eyes to other important aspects of my job as a teacher. I see now that I should have used my position to promote discussion about about issues related to immigrant students and immigrant workers in the Canadian context. I did not expect this process to be so distressing, and at the same time so liberating. The very

fact that I am sharing my experiences openly here is a sign that I needed this process. Sharing personal accounts has never been something easy for me. Nevertheless, I am really glad I decided to do it, for it has been an invaluable learning, and self-learning process for me. I feel that now I can accept the professional I am. I am a multilingual transnational teacher, and my foreign background is not a disadvantage, but an asset that adds to the Canadian educational field.

### **Autoethnography Strengths**

The comprehensive and intimate relation of the autoethnographer to the data can offer an advantage over traditional researchers during the stages of data collection and analysis (Chang, 2008). By using what Ellis and Bochner (2000) call evocative narrative, the researcher can bring the reader into their world, delivering a very specific view of the issues being analysed and inviting them to interact with their stories. As Ellis and Bochner (2000) affirm, the personal nature of evocative narratives provides a break in the barriers that exist between the author and the reader, making the text more accessible and placing the reader as a participant in the discussion.

The insider position of autoethnographer allowed me to explore sensitive topics I am connected to and use acquired academic knowledge to draw attention to marginalized issues that other traditional researches usually overlook (Thompson-Lee, 2019). Having experienced firsthand the challenges that multilingual transnational teachers go through, I explored issues such as: students' perceptions of non-native English-speaking teachers; linguistic discrimination against non-native English-speaking teachers; undervaluing of non-native English-speaking teachers in the labour market; and the stress and

uncertainties faced by non-native English-speaking teachers when looking for a job and during the hiring process.

Ellis and Bochner (2000) also mention that autoethnography allows for a broader variety of text forms, such as short stories, personal essays, poetry, journals, novels, among others. These formats give the writer more freedom to express themselves in a more creative manner and make it easier to connect with the reader. I chose to use personal narratives to share my stories. As proposed by Maynes, Laslett & Pierce (2008), I used personal narrative analysis to move beyond the distinction between the individual and the social dimensions of experience. I used the connection between my personal stories and social context to further a new understanding of the individual as the centre of the social-scientific and historic inquiry.

The challenge of analysing my own trajectory and connecting this to wider cultural issues was what motivated me. The therapeutic nature of the process discussed by Ellis and Bochner (2000) came as an advantage in my writing path. This type of research demands “researcher’s inner feelings and thoughts, which require honesty and willingness to self-disclosure” (Méndez, 2014, p. 282). As I mentioned before, an honest reflection of my lived experiences allowed me to uncover strong feelings and rethink my position as a transnational multicultural teacher.

### **Data collection**

I started my research writing a journal on my recollections and experiences of the process of looking for a position as an instructor in the EAL adult field and of the process of adapting to new working places. I did not keep a journal before, but when I started

thinking about writing an autoethnography, I started writing my memories so I could have a starting point. It started very simple. To make it more comfortable, convenient and personal, I used a notebook I had received as a gift to handwrite my memories. I sat in my room all by myself to get this project started. A series of events came to my mind and I just wrote them down. As I was writing, some other happenings came to me and I just kept handwriting them so I would not forget them later. The journal entries were not all written at once. I wrote about ten of them on the same day, which happened in July of 2018. After that, whenever I remembered another event that I thought was connected to the topic of my research, I took some minutes of my day to write another journal entry. Between July 2018 and March 2020, I gathered approximately 50 handwritten pages, twenty entries with an average of 230 words each.

My only concern was to put onto paper whatever I could remember from those experiences that somehow made me uncomfortable and triggered me to start exploring this topic. It came as a surprise to me how vividly I could remember some of the events, as well as how strongly I could still remember the feelings they evoked. When I arrived here in Canada, I had so many things to worry about that I did not have time to stop and think about what was happening in my life. The process of moving to a new country and trying to find a place to live, adapting to university life, and helping my family go through their own adjustment processes was very stressful and time-consuming. I had to juggle all my obligations. I think this might be the reason why, even though some of the events that were going on in my life did bother me, I did not really question them before I started writing them down.

Philaretou and Allen (2006) call attention to the fact that autoethnographers should try to avoid the temptation to shape recollections to fit the themes that emerge from written documents. As they stress, in an attempt to fill the gaps in the written memories in the process of analysing data, autoethnographers may end up consciously, or unconsciously, changing their memories to suit the research themes. According to them:

Every time an account of an event is constructed, reconstructed and externalized, the very process of doing so changes the nature of the event due mainly to differing maturational, psychological, emotional, and sociocultural conditions surrounding the autoethnographers at the time of reconstruction and externalization. (Philaretou & Allen, 2006, p. 68)

Following their recommendations, to avoid altering the memories, even if unconsciously, all journal entries used in this study were written before I started analysing and coding the data.

The first journal entries were written in July of 2018 and the last one was written in March of 2020. Some of them narrate incidents that occurred to me while looking for a job here in Canada. Others narrate incidents that happened to me when I was already working, but was still trying to adapt to new work settings. I used ten journal entries (out of twenty) that I found to be the most meaningful to me and that most closely relate to or depict my struggles in the process of trying to fit in the Canadian labour market and teaching force. All journal entries are important to me, but some of them became more representational of my story every time I read them and wrote my notes about them. For this reason, I thought it would be better to work with these ten narratives. The data was,

therefore, drawn from my own memories and I used my insider view and my knowledge of academic research to analyse it.

As an extra source of data, I used some emails I wrote to recruiters when I applied for different teaching positions. Some of these emails were sent in 2018 and others in 2019 and 2020. According to Thompson-Lee (2019), “internal data generated from memory of researchers should be complemented with external data that exist beyond researchers’ recollections” (p. 49). I do not have many extra sources of data, but I think that the few ones that were used in the study were an important addition and certainly assisted in enhancing accuracy and validity of data, as suggested by Chang (2008).

While this research started as an attempt to put onto paper an account of some of the events that happened in my professional life, it allowed me to revisit memories of unsolved issues that I did not feel strong enough to revisit before. I needed to go back to these memories, and reanalyse them to make my peace with them. It was in reading the stories of other professionals who had been through the same issues, such as linguistic discrimination in their search for a job, or undervaluing of their qualifications by their students, that I found my strength to face my challenges and empowered myself as a transnational teacher (Walls, 2008). Muncey (2005) sees autoethnography is a patchwork of “feelings, thoughts, and emotions” (p.70) that portrays a more complete view of life. Based on that, I believe that the feelings that have arisen during data collection were an important and defining element in this study.

Personal stories do not happen apart from a social context, and this is what validates personal narratives and make them the basis for sociological understanding

(Walls, 2008). When I was reading those memories, I started seeing myself with different eyes. Goodson (in Hayler, 2011) affirms that we gain a new understanding of ourselves by understanding the context we are inserted in. After I had distanced myself from the events, I found myself seeing and interpreting them in a different way, with a more critical perspective. It felt as if I should have acted differently, and I owed myself some action now.

Examining someone's own experiences can lead to a better understanding of a culture (Ellis & Bochner, 2000). The closeness and intimate nature of the researcher to the data being analysed allows for deeper connection of the autoethnographer and the reader (Anderson, 2006). I used autoethnography as an instrument to reinterpret my experiences with sociological and political eyes (de Bruin, 2017). Chang (2008) suggests that the personal and the social in an autoethnography are often braided and data analysis and interpretations often move back and forth between personal and social dimensions. This process closely matches the objective of this autoethnography, which is to use my narratives to build rapport with the reader and raise awareness to a culture I am objecting to.

### **Data Analysis**

When I started writing the journal, I basically wrote whatever came to my mind first. When I thought it was time to find a system to organize the journal entries, the first thing I did was to organize them in chronological order. Nevertheless, time did not seem to work well as a system for organizing the narratives. Then I started reading the journal entries several times and made notes about my feelings and thoughts every time I read

them, as suggested by Philaretou and Allen (2006). Still based on Philaretou and Allen (2006), the next step was rereading my notes and trying to find words or patterns that stood out. These notes guided me and helped me identify the themes and by-themes I wanted to work with.

Based on the identified themes, by-themes and the journal entries, rather than simply using the journal to write self-narratives, five fictionalized narratives were created to explore the following themes: students' perceptions of non-native English-speaking teachers; linguistic discrimination against non-native English-speaking teachers; undervaluing of non-native English-speaking teachers in the labour market; and the stress and uncertainties faced by non-native English-speaking teachers when looking for a job. These themes emerged during the process of reading and rereading my notes for data analysis. After going over the notes several times in search of a pattern, I noticed these were the issues that arose more frequently. Based on the consistency that they appeared in notes, I classified these themes as the most relevant in the journal stories.

### **Ethical issues**

Autoethnography researchers have to be careful about ethics, since even when they are telling their own stories, they may be implicating others that are related to them (Ellis, Adams & Bochner, 2011; Philaretou & Allen, 2006). Informed by my ethical commitments, to protect confidentiality for anyone who might possibly be identified in my stories, I created fictionalized composites of my lived experiences. Characteristics like gender, name, place, and appearance were changed to protect others implicated in the narratives.

Autoethnographers also have to be aware that they will be sharing personal intimate information with readers. Once this is shared, it becomes public domain and they will not have control of how this information will be interpreted by others (Ellis, 1999). Hastrup (in Walls, 2008) declares that

Motivated agents create theatres of self. In these theatres, representation is not intended to be an accurate reflection of life, measurable against reality. Rather, it is a creative process of defining worlds as they are discovered and evoking a previously unknown social space (p. 42).

It was difficult to choose which facts should be included in the research narratives to make them more accurate (Walls, 2008). It is the autoethnographer who decides what she thinks is important to investigate, and the research is impacted by the investigator's "academic background, maturity level, and general state of mind" (Philaretou & Allen, 2006, p. 66). When I identified the themes that arose from my journal entries, my next challenge was to choose which entries were going to be used. All memories were reread to find which ones would best depict the issues to be discussed in the themes. First, I assigned the journal entries to the four themes earlier proposed: 1. Students' perceptions of NNESTs; 2. Linguistic discrimination against NNESTs; 3. Undervaluing of NNESTs; 4. The stress and uncertainties faced by NNESTs. Subsequently, I worked with each theme, trying to choose from the journal entries, the one that would best represent the issues to be explored in the discussion of the theme. Even though they were all related to the themes, one or two always seemed to speak more closely to them. I also took into consideration the feelings of discomfort when I read the

entries. I figured that the ones that caused more discomfort to me were the ones that needed to be discussed. When I chose which entries I wanted to use, I started a more creative process in which I fictionalized the stories and changed identifying characteristics in the narratives to protect others implicated in the stories.

## Chapter 4: Undervaluing of Non-native English-speaking Teachers

### *The job search*

*Some months after I had arrived in Winnipeg, even though I was not looking for a job yet, an opportunity came up for me to work as a Child Care Assistant at a Daycare Centre. I had not been working with children in a while, but I thought that it would be a good opportunity for me to meet new people and have a first work experience here in Canada, so I embraced this opportunity and started working at this place. I was still taking classes at the university, so I worked part time at the Daycare Centre, and it worked well for months. I was still somehow involved with education, and I also made some money to help with household expenses. However, I always felt a bit disconnected to the work I was doing. First, I felt invisible in the workplace. I worked five days a week, four hours a day. Yet, I was not able to connect with my coworkers. Moreover, my work did not allow me to apply much of my previous knowledge as an EAL teacher. My job was basically taking care of kids. Even though it was something I could do well, I often felt I had more to contribute, but the scope of the work I was doing did not allow me to show it. Therefore, it did not take long for me to start missing teaching. It was the first time in twenty years I was not in a classroom teaching English. After this first Canadian work experience, I was feeling more motivated to start looking for a job in the field of language teaching.*

*As many other immigrants do when they arrive in Canada, I had done some job search workshops to help me understand the process of looking for a job in Canada.*

*Writing a resume and a cover letter is something that we do in a very different way in my country, so I thought it would be a good idea to learn more about this process. Therefore, when I decided to start looking for a teaching position, I was ready to tailor my resume and cover letter to the positions I saw advertised. I designed several resumes and cover letters and started applying. Then I thought it would be a good idea to email some language schools introducing myself and asking if they needed an English teacher. I did some research online to try to find out who were the administrators and recruiters in these schools. Next, I emailed them my resume and a cover letter, and in the body of the email I described my experience as a language teacher and expressed my interest in starting a career in the field of language teaching in my new setting. I was not sure if I was doing the right thing by contacting recruiters and administrative directly, especially when they had not even advertised any position, but I thought it was worth trying. It could be a chance to connect with them.*

*I was excited when some of them replied to my emails. Some administrators said they were not looking for a teacher at that moment, but they would save the resume for future opportunities (even though these opportunities never came). One of these recruiters replied to my email the very next day. He said my teaching experience looked very interesting and he asked if I had a TESL certificate. When I replied to his email and said I did not have the certificate, he then emailed me back and said I should first try to get the certificate and only then try to look for a job as a language teacher in Winnipeg. I also got an email from another recruiter who seemed to be very interested in my teaching*

*experience. However, he also asked me if I had the TESL certificate, and when I replied to his email and said I did not have it, he did not respond further to my email.*

Studies show that the approach taken by Canada to recognize immigrant professionals' foreign credentials and prior experience work to create barriers rather than facilitate their process to adapt and integrate to their new setting (Guo, 2007). I have certainly experienced first-hand some of the challenges imposed by the Canadian labor market to accept foreign credentials and previous experience. I have already explored this topic in the first chapters of this study, but now I will look deeper into it to understand what leads to this approach. Guo (2007) argues that Canada endorses cultural pluralism, but in practice, the knowledge possessed by immigrants is usually seen as inferior and incompatible with Canadian culture and values. I could not help feeling undermined during the process of looking for a job here in Canada. More specifically, I felt undermined during the process of finding a job *in my field*, a job in which I would be using my experience in the educational field. I have been an English teacher for many years, and I am used to communicating in English. I have traveled to English speaking countries several times, and I have had the opportunity to present at international conferences. All these experiences helped me develop my communicative skills in English. Therefore, when I arrived in Canada, I could communicate successfully. I know I have a noticeable accent that is different from the local one, but I could still communicate well. Hence, finding a job opportunity was not my biggest challenge. Nonetheless, finding a job opportunity that would allow me to use my expertise as a

language teacher was another story. The supposedly neutral assessment used by the Canadian system to evaluate immigrants' prior knowledge and work experience under the values of professional standard and quality is actually a means to inhibit competition and preserve the interests of the dominant group (Shan, 2013). Lack of human capital skills is usually pointed as one of the main reasons to the unemployment and under-employment of newcomers, but it is important to understand how the definition of skill is constructed in society and its outcomes for immigrant workers (Shan, 2013).

In reality, "skill is a discursive and relational construct that is implicated in the social, cultural and economic organization of work and workers" (Shan, 2013, p. 918). Such construct of skill serves to accommodate the interests of a dominant group and maintain the existing social order (Guo, 2007). The notion of soft skills (which are skills that relate to traits of personality, attitude, and behavior, rather than technical knowledge) can be dangerous for immigrant workers since this notion will be shaped by privileged groups (Shan, 2013). Accepting this notion of soft skill without questioning it only perpetuates the power inequities for immigrants in the labor market. Moreover, the so called "soft skills", which are very abstract and have a vague concept, play an important role in the promotion of immigrants to management positions, limiting them from advancing in their career (Reitz, Curtis & Elrick, 2014). In fact, what is often expected when promoting these soft skills is that immigrant workers embrace the Canadian way of doing things without questioning their hiring system and simply adhere to Canadian labour market rules (Guo, 2015). At times, I thought that the only way to get the positions I was applying for was to adapt and play by the rules dictated by the labour market. By not

having my credentials recognized, I was denied the chance to show my knowledge and to show how my experience and expertise would add value to any teaching staff. Though the TESL certificate is required by anyone who wants to work as an EAL teacher in Manitoba, including Canadian-born applicants, it represented a particular barrier for me when I arrived in Winnipeg and started looking for a job. Besides the fact that I would need time to do the training to get the certificate, it is also a costly process. I remember that I considered the possibility of getting the certificate. Nevertheless, I would have to pay around two thousand dollars to join the program, and at that time, I could not afford to invest more money in my education in addition to what I was paying for my tuition at the university. Other immigrant teachers face similar challenges.

In addition, the skill system in place contributes to racializing immigrant workers skills and reproduces white privilege and dominance (Guo, 2015). Studies suggest that immigrant workers from so-called developed countries (such as the United States, Australia, Britain, or New Zealand) have been more successful in having their foreign credentials and home country experience accepted compared to immigrant workers coming from “third world” countries (Reitz, 2001; Li, 2008; Guo, 2015). To reinforce the idea of racialization, considerable earning disparities can also be observed among immigrants from developed countries and visible minority immigrants (Li, 2008). This racialized notion of skills serves to “divide practices between accepted and non-accepted, superior and inferior knowledge and skills that categorize people as Canadian and foreign, white and coloured” Guo (2015, p. 247). Guo (2013) also mentions three structural barriers to immigrants workers which he calls the “triple glass effect” that leads

to unemployment, underemployment, and impediments to social mobility (p. 112). Guo (2013) calls these obstacles the “glass gate”, “door gate” and “glass ceiling” (p. 112). According to him, the first one determines entrance to the work community, the second one limits access to high paid jobs, and the third one prevents immigrant workers from moving to management positions. I could easily relate to the three gates he mentions. My first challenge was being selected for an interview. The fact that I did not have the TESL certificate, which is usually a requirement for EAL teachers in Manitoba, made the hiring process more challenging for me. As I do not have a TESL certificate in my resume, it may have demotivated employers or recruiters from considering me as an applicant. Facing difficulties getting a job, I was not in a position to demand a high salary. In fact, I often had to accept what was offered to me, since I did not have a large array of possibilities. If foreign credentials and not having Canadian experience represented challenges when applying for a teaching position, the chances were even smaller when it came to managerial positions. I never got a call for an interview and seldom was there any interest in my resume, even though I have extensive experience in management. I think immigrant workers who are courageous, persistent, and willing to embark in an arduous journey may eventually obtain success, but the three gates of the triple glass effect are not easy to overcome. Systemic change is required.

To quote Chomsky & Macedo (2000), “(f)reedom without opportunity is a devil’s gift, and the refusal to provide such opportunities is criminal” (p. 134) . While Canada actively seeks immigrants to fortify its workforce (Government of Canada, 2020), a closer look shows that immigrants are often denied the opportunity to integrate into the

job market in Canada. Highly educated professionals with long-term experience are being deskilled and suffer a downward occupational mobility (Reitz et al, 2014). I am an example of that. Although I am an experienced teacher with education credentials, my first work experience in Canada was at a daycare. Two of my coworkers there were also highly educated immigrants. One was an engineer and the other was a nurse. They both could speak English fluently, but reported having difficulty getting their credentials recognized in Canada. The loss of human capital impedes immigrant workers from advancing in their careers and triggers negative feelings, such as disappointment, anger and sadness (Guo, 2015). I came to Canada looking for better opportunities. However, I feel that immigrants are often simply seen as commodities, as if we were here mainly to fulfil the needs of the Canadian labour market. As an immigrant myself, I want to contribute to the economic development of the country and be a part of its growth. Nevertheless, I do not want to be treated as a product or a commodity. I want to integrate into the labour market, and I want to have my professional value recognized, so both the Canadian workforce and I will benefit from this process. I want to believe that if there is an effort to change this culture, things will change for better. Systemic discrimination against NNESTs works to maintain the status of dominant groups, such as white, middle-class, native English-speaking teachers (Schmidt, 2010). The valuing of white native English-speaking teachers as the ones who have ownership of the teaching of the language contributes to the marginalization of non-white, non-native English speaking teachers (Ramjattan, 2019). Daily discriminatory discourses that seem natural serve to reinforce native speakerism (Ruecker & Ives, 2015). After twenty five years of

discussions about the marginality of NNESTs, the “dominant political, cultural, and linguistic forces maintain their aggressive domination and expansion by exercising power in an abstract and invisible manner, not openly attached to any one individual or a group of individuals” (Kumaravadivelu, 2014, p.72). Critical pedagogy encourages us to reflect on how we understand and interact with the world (Gottesman, 2016) and intervene in social order when necessary (Giroux, 2010). Based on these ideas, I believe further and constant discussion of issues related to disadvantages to NNESTs is necessary to break this cycle.

## Chapter 5: Students' Perceptions of Non-native English Speaking Teachers

### *Students' expectations*

*A month after I had been teaching at this school, when class was over, a student, Dennis, came to me to ask a question about his homework. We started chatting and then he started asking questions about my experience as a teacher. He asked me how long I had been living in Canada and how long I had been teaching in the country. I always felt that I lost students when I said I had been living here for just about a year. I felt they immediately thought I was not experienced enough to teach English, since I had been here for what they judged to be such a short time. "One year? Just one year?", said Dennis. He seemed really surprised. For some reason, I felt the need to prove to him that I was qualified to do my job. I told him I used to teach English as an additional language in Brazil. I explained I had taught for many years and that I used the same teaching methodology I was using in his classes. "But did you do any specific training to teach English here in Canada?". I could tell that he was not interested in my experience anymore. He expressed puzzlement about how I had become a teacher at that school. I told him I had a bachelor's degree in teaching, and I spent some time telling him about my experience as a language teacher. Nevertheless, he did not seem very confident that my previous experience would provide me with the skills and abilities necessary to teach English in Canada, and he was not afraid to say so aloud. He said he was surprised I was a teacher at that school. Again, someone was more concerned about my experience and education here than about my whole experience as a teacher.*

I never thought students would mistake me for a Canadian teacher. I mean, I never wanted or expected it to happen. I am not white, I am not blond, and I do not have blue or green eyes. Students who travel abroad to learn English have the expectation to learn the language from a native speaker teacher (Pacek, 2005), and I think a brunette brown-eyed Latin-American teacher certainly does not fit the expected stereotype. My name stands out among common English names and discloses my foreigner identity, even before they meet me. On top of that, the moment I start talking, most students recognize a foreign non-local accent that can stigmatize me as someone who is not perceived as the “ideal” English language teacher (Braine, 2010).

An accent is a very important aspect of a person’s identity and social life, and it dispatches relevant information about someone (Kim et al, 2019). For non-native speakers, this becomes even more relevant, for it can characterize them as a non native-born (Derwing & Munro, 2009) and, consequently, as someone who is not fluent in the language, even when they are able to use the language competently (Lindemann, 2005). For this reason, English learners often strive to avoid a non-native accent, for they believe that it will avoid social discrimination and warrant acceptance and better social or work opportunities (Lippi-Green, 2012). Misguided by the native-speaker fallacy, learners’ goal is to be taught by NESTs, since it is assumed that NESTs will provide a better model of the language (Ballard & Winke, 2016). However, what students sometimes do not understand is that there are many other aspects in the process of learning a language, and they should consider the benefits that a NNEST can bring to this learning process (Medgyes, 1992). As mentioned in a previous chapter, Medgyes (1992) argues that while

those who speak English as their first language will have a linguistic advantage, non-native speaker teachers will bring other advantages to the process of acquiring a language, such as: serving as a successful model of learning; using their own experience as language learners to help students develop their own learning strategies and provide more information about the language; and, if they share the same mother tongue with students, facilitating the learning process in various ways.

At the beginning of each semester, when students realized I was not Canadian, there was always one student who came to me with the questions: “Where did you learn English? How did you become a teacher here in Canada?” At first, I thought it was very nice. I felt they were praising me for having become successful. However, with time, those questions started to bother me. Why did it seem so unlikely that a transnational multicultural teacher would become successful in a Canadian teaching context? Instead of seeing the questions as a way to praise me, I started feeling that I was being questioned about my education and experience. Being bilingual, or multilingual, should be seen as an advantage, and not as a drawback (Medgyes, 1992). Nevertheless, my experience shows that students usually do not see it this way. At least, not at first.

Learners are not always aware of the aspects involved in the process of acquiring an additional language, and native speakerism often leads them to think that NESTs are the ideal language teachers, but sometimes they do not even know the reason why they favor NESTs. Research shows that students can have a more positive view of NNESTs over time (Moussu, 2010). Moussu’s study, in which students expressed their initial preference for NESTs, suggested that learners ultimately value NNESTs equally.

Students declared their preferences based on the belief that NESTs would be the best teachers, but during the process of learning the language, they realized that having classes with NNESTs was also advantageous (Medgyes, 1992). To connect it to my own experience, I can say that, at times, I felt students were skeptical of my knowledge and my teaching skills. Nonetheless, over time, they started to feel more confident in my work and notice the beneficial side of having an NNEST. What distressed me is that I needed to prove my value as a teacher before they gave me a chance. I doubt that my native speaker colleagues faced the same challenge.

It is also important to mention that some studies contradict the idea that students think that NESTs make the best language teachers. Oliveira (2017), for example, conducted a study with Brazilian students who chose to study abroad with English native speaking teachers. The results of this study show that students thought having classes with NESTs was helpful to improve the informal knowledge of the language. However, if they wanted to achieve a conversational level that would allow better formal verbal or written communication, a solid pedagogical preparation of the teacher became more important, and overcame nativeness. Hertel and Sunderman's (2009) study showed that even if students expressed their preference for NESTs to learn pronunciation, they also thought that NNESTs did a good job in teaching grammar rules and teaching vocabulary. Winke et al. (2013) demonstrated that the exposure to non-native teachers and their accents improved learners' comprehension of accents. In Park's (2012) study, students said they could understand the teacher better when they shared the same mother tongue. Ballard and Winke (2016) also stated that exposure to different accents improves

students' listening skills, and it becomes a benefit to them. Although these studies provide a positive attitude of learners towards NNESTs, they also show that students expressed their preference for NESTs at first. In Ballard and Winke (2016), for example, learners expressed their preference for NESTs at the start, but their attitudes changed. In Moussu's (2010) study, learners expressed their preference for NESTs, and later they realized the advantages of having NNESTs as instructors.

Based on Freire's idea that education is about changing contexts (Giroux, 2010), teachers, teacher educators, researchers, and allies need to engage learners in talking about immigrants' challenges in the Canadian labour market. As I faced challenges in my path, immigrant learners, who will probably become immigrant workers in the future, may also have to deal with similar difficulties. By encouraging them to discuss these issues, I can help them see NNESTs' values, as well as help them change their own reality.

## Chapter 6: Linguistic Discrimination against Non-native English-Speaking Teachers

### ***The issue of the accent***

*Two years ago, I attended a workshop about technology as a tool for language teachers at a conference for language instructors. The workshop was excellent! The presenter, who is also a language instructor, spoke passionately about how the use of technology can become a valuable tool for both teachers and students. I learned different resources I could use to prepare my English lessons, as well as other resources to use with students in the classroom. The presenter's name sounded familiar to me, and when he spoke, I thought he sounded like a Brazilian. I think we can often recognize another person from the same nationality speaking. His last name is also very common in Brazil. After the two-hour workshop, when he had finished his presentation, I thought it would be nice to talk to him and compliment him on the great work he had done gathering so many different technological resources for teachers. I approached him and thanked him for the workshop. "I loved the session! It is going to be very helpful when I prepare my lessons". Then I decided to ask him: "Are you Brazilian?", and he said: "Yes, I am". I said: "I could tell you are Brazilian, we can usually tell when another Brazilian is speaking". He looked at me and said: "Yeah, I know. I have been here for over five years, but I cannot get rid of this damn accent". I was a little embarrassed because I knew I had upset him. And it was never my intention. I had enjoyed his presentation very much, and I thought maybe we could share some ideas about technology and have a friendly conversation about what had brought him to Canada. Another teacher who had attended the workshop*

*heard the conversation and said: “Oh, there is nothing wrong with an accent. It is part of our identity. Everybody has an accent”. I added to the conversation by saying: “Oh, no. Please do not take me wrong. Your English is great! I just meant that you sounded familiar to me”. I realize now that I should not have mentioned his accent. Although I did not mean to hurt him, I brought up a sensitive topic that often causes discomfort for non-native speakers.*

The reason why I was embarrassed was that I myself had felt that way before, and I certainly did not want to be the cause of such feeling. We should never be ashamed of our accent (Kaur, 2014). It is just part of who we are, as was noted by that teacher on the conference day. However, it is hard not to feel this way, since an accent can raise so many issues (Robb, 2014; Sethi et al., 2020). The accent itself is not the problem. I know that students and colleagues will probably understand what I say and we will be able to communicate well. Nevertheless, an accent reveals a non-native English speaker identity that defines how others see me. After living in Canada for over four years, I understand why that teacher who gave an excellent workshop, and proved to be so competent in what he was doing, was upset when I mentioned his accent. Research shows that language presents many barriers to immigrant workers who try to integrate into the labor market (Liu, 2007; Guo, 2013, Norton, 2018). A person’s accent has the power to change people’s perceptions of what is said (Robb, 2014), and it can certainly pose difficulties for immigrants in their pursuit of a position in the labour market (Liu, 2007). In their study, Lev-Ari and Keysar (2010) found that people perceive statements that are spoken by non-native speakers as less honest, which makes accented people perceived as less

trustworthy. Sethi et al. (2020) affirm that people assume that speakers with foreign accent are less capable than native speakers. The studies mentioned serve as examples of linguistic discrimination that create obstacles for immigrant workers. In the case of immigrant language teachers, these challenges are intensified by the belief that native speakers detain the right to teach the language and, therefore, make ideal language teachers (Selvi, 2010).

I have had my share of issues caused by linguistic discrimination. I have been turned down for a position because of my foreign accent. According to the employer who was offering the position, my accent would represent a challenge for me to work as an office assistant, as customers would find it difficult to understand me. Interestingly, some months later, I got a job in which I had to interview people over the phone. These interviews were sometimes long, and I had to talk with interviewees for more than an hour. Although people often noticed my accent, there was never an occasion in which I was misunderstood by interviewees, or where I could not understand them. I have been challenged by students for not being Canadian, and according to them, not having enough knowledge of the language I was teaching. I have heard native-speaking co-workers say that advanced level language courses should not be taught by non-native speakers, because students will not like having a teacher who has an accent. I have been told by a recruiter that pronunciation courses are usually taught by native speakers, so I should apply for other positions. The fact is that accent can be improperly interpreted by employers as lack of proficiency in the language or inability to express oneself, which results in discrimination against immigrant teachers in the hiring process (Block, 2012). I

felt that many times I did not have a chance to discuss my skills or my educational background. I was turned down just for having an accent or for being a transnational teacher.

Cao (in Chung Constant & Cao, 2018) reports one occasion when she approached the director of an ESL Program to apply for a teaching position and was immediately turned down by the director. She was told that there were no positions available. However, a few weeks after that, a native English-speaking teacher was hired. Lieb (2021) and Manara (2018) report suffering pressure to sound like standard English speakers, under the excuse that their accent would be confusing for students. Chung Constant & Cao (2018) also affirm that while the term native-speaker is merely a theoretical term, it has been given so much credit by the language learning community that it became real. Myhill (2003) supports Chung Constant & Cao (2018) and calls the concept of native-speaker a social construct rather than a scientific one. Despite the fact that the term is not scientific, its wide use results in fewer employment opportunities for well-trained non-native English-speaking teachers (Chung Constant & Cao, 2018).

Although I have been able to find jobs and make my way into the labour market, it was not easy. I had my ups and downs on this path, and I had to challenge several mistaken beliefs to be successful. Ironically, being a non-native speaker in my own country also represented a challenge. Even though most EFL teachers in Brazil are non-native English speakers of the language, native English-speaking teachers are highly valued by students and employers (El Kadri & Gimenez, 2013). I have seen native English-speaking teachers without formal teaching training earn higher wages than highly

educated EFL teachers. We must not accept this reality without a critical perspective (Giroux, 2010). Inspired by critical theory, I want to foster conversations about issues experienced by NNESTs that will change how learners perceive them.

## Chapter 7: The Stress and Uncertainties Faced by Non-native English-speaking Teachers

### *A challenging beginning*

*As an immigrant worker, I had to adapt to the Canadian hiring system to compete with other candidates. When I started looking for a teaching position in Winnipeg, I had to learn how to tailor my resume to each position I was going to apply for, something I did not have to do in my culture. In my country, I had one resume that listed all my education and skills. I used it to apply for every position. I also had to learn how to write a cover letter that would make me stand out among many other candidates. I know that I had to show confidence in my skills, but sometimes I felt as if I were bragging about what I can do. We do not even write cover letters in my culture.*

*When I felt I had designed good resumes and cover letters, I started to apply for some positions and prepare for a possible interview. It was not easy to get an interview. Even when I was successful in getting my first interview, there were many other things that I needed to worry about. Any candidate needs to be dressed appropriately and show confidence, knowledge, and preparedness for the position. I felt I had to be concerned about all of it, and, on top of that, I had to be concerned about other aspects as well. I had to be very careful about what I was going to say because I wanted to show I was fit for the place where I was applying to work at even though I was a foreigner. Was I dressed appropriately? Would I understand everything that the interviewer asked me? What if they used a word that I was not familiar with? Would I be able to make myself understood even though I have an accent? There were many things to bear in mind and it*

*made the whole process overwhelming. I felt that to stand a chance against native-born candidates I had to do much more than they did.*

*During the interview, I tried to keep all those reminders in mind while I was interacting with the interviewers. I was interviewing for a language teaching position, so I was really focused on showing my fluency in the language. Needless to say, being nervous would not help in that task. The only thing that made me comfortable was that I was familiar with the content of the questions that I had to answer. Nevertheless, it was still a very stressful experience. I got the job, but after the interview, I could barely remember what I had said during the interview.*

Studies show that candidates whose resumes have English-sound names, Canadian education and Canadian experience are more successful in getting a call from employers than other candidates who have foreign-sound names, foreign education, and foreign experience (Oreopoulos, 2011; Oreopoulos & Dechief, 2011). Moreover, language can create a big barrier for immigrant workers to integrate into the Canadian labour market (Liu, 2007). For transnational teachers who do not have English as their first language, this becomes an enormous challenge. Transnational language teachers' accents are often misunderstood, and their qualifications are questioned (Braine, 1999). Non-native teachers need to "establish their credibility as teachers, before they are taken seriously as professionals" (Thomas, 1999, p.5). I often had to deal with students' disappointment when they found out they would have a non-native English-speaking teacher (Thomas, 1999). Every term, it took me some time to gain learners' trust, which

eventually happened. I only wished that instead of having to gain their trust, I could have it in advance and lose it if I did not do a good job. However, I always started from a disadvantaged position. I needed to prove my professional value first.

After I got a teaching position in an EAL Program, I had to deal with other issues that are common to many EAL teachers. One of them is the difficulty of finding steady jobs in our field. It was hard for me to get a job as an EAL teacher, and keeping the job posed another challenge. Studies show that most EAL teachers in this field have only temporary jobs (Sanaoui, 1997; Sun, 2010; Valeo and Faez, 2013). Teachers' wages are usually paid by funding that can be renewed or not, what can cause uncertainty and interfere with the teachers' work quality (Breshears, 2019). To add to that, EAL teachers also have difficulty finding full-time positions, and most teachers in the field of adult education work only part-time, what makes it difficult for them to meet their financial needs (Crandall, 1993; Valeo, 2013; Rappel, 2015). Another issue brought by not holding a full-time position is that only workers with full-time jobs are usually eligible for benefits, such as sick days, or supplementary health plans (Sun, 2010).

Low salary and wages are also a big hardship that can cause transnational teachers stress and frustration (Sun, 2010; Valeo & Faez, 2013). Aggravating the problem, teachers who have temporary work and part-time work tend to earn less than the ones who have permanent positions (Breshears, 2019). This serves to marginalize these teachers and prevents them from growing in their career. Furthermore, since teachers are poorly paid and struggle to keep their jobs, they often face other problems, such as unpaid work. With few work opportunities available in the field, teachers cannot refuse to

do unpaid work if they want to maintain their position (Breshears, 2019). Many of the hours that teachers spend preparing lessons, grading students, investing in professional development, and assisting students out of class time are not financially compensated; instead, these components add to teachers' workload (Power Analysis, 2000).

When I arrived in Canada, I was a competent language teacher with extensive experience in the field, and with education credentials to support my experience. However, my certificates and professional experience did not have the same value in Canada as they had in my country. Aside from challenges like having to adapt to the culture and the struggle to meet the linguistic demands, I had to learn how to negotiate my identity as an EAL teacher (Park, 2012). I had to build my identity and advocate for myself and my value as a professional. I had to prepare myself to fight against the discrimination that happens in the field (Braine, 1999; Mahboob et al., 2004). Who am I in this new setting? What can I do as a professional here? How will I develop my relationship with learners? These were some of the questions I had to navigate to find my place as an EAL teacher in Canada. It was a difficult path. My wish to be accepted and become successful made me overlook many things that, now I see, were wrong (Molina, 2020). Having learned English as a foreign language, I was exposed to different accents. Some of my professors at the university were British, some were American, and obviously, some were Brazilians who had learned English just like me, as a foreign language. During my four-year training to become a language teacher, I learned that English had become an international language, and it did not matter if we spoke a British or American variety of English, if we were able to communicate efficiently. I cannot even

remember the number of local and international TESOL conferences that I have attended about the same topic. However, when I started to pursue a career as an EAL teacher in Canada, all this seemed to have less importance than finding a position and fitting in. I believe it also happens to other teachers in the field. My limited options and my constant wish to belong to the new setting blurred my vision and I accepted many things that I would not accept now. Teachers should use their position to encourage discussions that challenge dominant discourses and place students in real life situation that depict the world they live in (Mohammed Ishaque, 2018). According to Mohammed Ishaque, native or non-native English-speaking teachers should motivate learners to discuss issues related to non-native speakers. I wish I had used my teacher agency to fight these dominant discourses when I started teaching.

Let us not forget that there are many facets to my identity. To name a few, I am a transnational teacher, but I am also a Latin American immigrant, I am a woman, and I am a mother. It is not easy to put all these pieces together. I come from humble origins, but I never considered myself an underprivileged person. My parents were simple people who had little access to formal education. My mom can barely read, but she made sure her four daughters had access to education to have better opportunities in life. I managed to build a solid career that warranted me a comfortable financial situation and very good work opportunities. I do not think I am underprivileged in Canada either, but I am certainly disadvantaged in certain ways.

Even though women's participation in the Canadian labour force has increased substantially over the last decades, women are still underrepresented when it comes to

skilled work (Frank & Frenette, 2019). According to Frank and Frenette (2019), women still struggle to enter male-dominated jobs, and when they manage to do it, they still earn less than men.

Uppal (2015) asserts that the employment rate among women increased from 42% in 1976 to 58% in 2014, and it had a significant impact on the employment structure of families. However, it is not easy for mothers to keep their place in the labour market.

According to Zhang (2008):

The birth of a child has an immediate negative effect on the employment of the mother because of the benefits of staying at home and the costs of working rise for the new mother, and if she decides to stay at home and she stays too long, her human capital will depreciate, or a productive job-worker match may disappear. As a result, her pay rate and earnings would be negatively affected, not only during the years immediately after the birth, but also over a number of post-childbirth years. (p. 5)

The percentage of families with both parents working increased between 1976 and 1997, and over the same period, there was a growth in the percentage of women who were the only earners in the families (Uppal, 2015). Even though it is a good thing that women are increasing their participation rate in the labour market, it comes with a cost. Uppal (2015) stresses that besides the struggle women face to find their place in the workplace, they also have to balance family and work responsibilities to guarantee they have enough financial resources to raise their children.

As for Latin American immigrants, Wilson-Forsberg (2014) states that they arrive in Canada intending to integrate into society, but there is little evidence of meaningful interactions between Latin Americans and Canadian-born members of society. Work plays an important role in immigrants' integration to society, providing immigrants with social and economic independence, self-fulfilment and a sense of belonging (Pavalko, 1988). Thus, when Latin Americans are not able to find suitable employment, it results in less interaction with the receiving community (Wilson-Forsberg, 2014). Wilson-Forsberg also points out that Canada's point system and multicultural policies created by the Canadian government, which are supposed to offer advantages to highly skilled workers, often do not benefit Latin American immigrants' lives. Therefore, Latin Americans in Canada see themselves in the same situation "as semi-skilled and unskilled jobs that they perform in the United States where integration programs and services for immigrants are non-existent or ad hoc at best" (Wilson-Forsberg, 2014, p. 486).

To succeed in all these areas is a challenge for many transnational multicultural EAL teachers who leave their home countries and decide to venture into a whole new culture and system in search of better life opportunities. Oppressive social forces can be used to shape how people see themselves and how they interact with others in society, as well as to propagate dominant views and maintain the dominant culture (Zygmantas, 2009). Critical pedagogy provides us with the opportunity to use knowledge to create and re-create our reality, through the process of self-reflection (Zygmantas, 2009). Informed by critical theory, I have used my self-reflections to give voice to issues related to NNESTs and their difficulty to adapt to Canadian work settings. In doing so, I have

started conversations that defy unjust conditions for NNESTs and aim at creating a more favorable reality.

## Chapter 8: Conclusion

This study shows that transnational multicultural teachers are still haunted by the misconception that native English-speaking teachers are the “ideal” teachers (Llurda, 2005; Selvi, 2010; Ulate, 2011). Canada plans to welcome more and more immigrants to boost the economy (Government of Canada, 2020), yet these immigrants encounter many barriers to integrate into Canadian society (Guo, 2013; Reitz, 2014). Like many other multicultural transnational EAL teachers in Canada, the first barrier I had to face when I tried to integrate into the labor market was the non-recognition of my educational credentials and home country work experience (Reitz, 2001; Marom, 2017). This created impediments for me to fully integrate into the work force and delayed my professional success. Even though I wanted to fight the imposition of this system, I did not see an alternative. Since I did not have Canadian credentials or Canadian experience, I was not selected in the hiring processes I participated in, and I was not given a chance to discuss my skills and qualities. It took me some time to build networking, which helped me succeed in finding a teaching position. I should also mention that the fact that I undertook a master’s degree in Second Language Education at the Faculty of Education in a Canadian institution always weighted positively in my resume, while my previous credentials were barely taken into account.

Achieving a native-like accent is an unrealistic goal for most EAL learners (Jenkins, 2014). However, this is still something that students seek to achieve (Lippi-Green, 2012). This pursuit affects the way students see transnational multicultural

teachers, since they believe native-speakers of the language are the best language models (Ballard & Winke, 2016). It is true that with time, NNESTs can win learners' trust and have their values recognized, but students are often skeptical of the advantages of learning a language with a transnational multicultural teacher at first (Moussu, 2010). The myth that native speakers make ideal language teachers had a negative effect on me, and I always saw myself as a "permanent English learner" (Huang, 2018, p.53). As Huang (2018) asserts, while people tend to see a lack of knowledge in their mother tongue as natural, they tend to see unfamiliarity with a second language as a lack of expertise.

Even in Canada, where multiculturalism is supposedly valued, accent plays an important role in immigrants' lives and presents a challenge for them to find their place in the labor market (Guo, 2013; Norton, 2018). Foreign accent can be mistaken as a lack of ability to communicate (Sethi et al., 2020) or a lack of proficiency (Block, 2012), and it can change people's perception of what is said (Rob, 2014). Thus, it is no surprise that the accent issue has a bigger weight for transnational multicultural teachers (Selvi, 2010). Linguistic discrimination was a challenge I had to face in my attempt to integrate into the teaching field. I had to resist and persevere until I succeeded in getting a job.

Finding a permanent teaching position was another challenge I had to face (Sanaoui, 1997; Valeo & Faez, 2013). All jobs I managed to find had a casual status, which meant I was hired through a contract that usually lasted for one term, and there was no guarantee that the contract would continue the following term. It rarely did. Like most of the other transnational multicultural EAL teachers I know, I seldom succeeded in getting a full-time position (Valeo, 2013; Rappel, 2015). As a consequence, I was never

eligible for benefits like a supplementary health plan, or a dental plan, since a full-time position is required to be eligible for these benefits (Rappel, 2015). On top of that, I was often offered low wages and salaries in these positions (Sun, 2010; Valeo & Faez, 2013). Although I am not able to compare my earnings with my NEST counterparts, as I did not find it appropriate to ask them about their earnings, I was told by employers that teachers beginning in the position were paid the minimum wage for the category, but within time they would get better wages. Added to that, there were other pieces that presented challenges like being a Latin American immigrant trying to integrate into a new setting (Wilson-Forsberg, 2014), as well as being a mother who needed to balance my professional and family demands (Uppal, 2015).

I started this autoethnography with the intention to fulfil one of the requirements to complete my master's degree. At first, I believed that writing this piece would be a simple task, since I was reflecting on my own lived experiences. However, this experience has transformed me in different ways. I think that the process of going back and revisiting my own stories and reflecting on past events and how I reacted to them was one of the most difficult things I have ever done, but it also provided me with professional and personal growth. I have never been a person who felt comfortable exposing so much of myself. I never liked to be put in the spotlight. When I started working here in Canada, I felt I was always in the spotlight. I looked different and I spoke different, so I felt as if there were always someone observing me. For this reason, I avoided discussions that would highlight my differences.

Research shows that self-confidence is key for multicultural teachers' success (Reves & Medgyes, 1994). As stated by Reves & Medgyes:

...differences between (NNESTs') proficiency and that of NESTs have to be openly acknowledged and legitimized. If non-NESTs themselves as well as educational authorities recognize these differences as obvious and natural, the non-NESTs' work will be judged for what it really is worth and they will not be discriminated against because of preconceived ideas. (p. 364)

Revisiting my past experiences as an EAL teacher, I regret all the times I had the chance to discuss these issues with learners, but chose to avoid doing it instead. When Daniel questioned my credentials to teach in Canada, I should have used this opportunity to start a discussion about how the knowledge and experience of NNESTs can be valuable for language learners. I was constantly seeking the approval of students, so I did not allow myself to discuss topics like my accent or my lack of Canadian experience because I saw them as weaknesses that would only identify me as an outsider. However, as Molina (2020) explains, by doing that, I was not allowing students to see me as a whole, with all my vulnerabilities, and these vulnerabilities were an important part of me. Interestingly, I always had very good feedback in terms of teaching skills. Students expressed their satisfaction with the techniques used in class and showed solid learning progress. This should have been used in my favour. When I avoided discussing these issues, I missed the opportunity to display all the advantages that being an NNEST can bring to the language learning process (Medgyes, 1992). Teachers are the ones who have close contact with learners. If they want to change students' perceptions of NNESTs, they

need to take advantage of this contact to raise topics like the benefits of having a transnational multicultural teacher and advocate for themselves. I will use here Paulo Freire's words: "Do not let the fear of what is difficult paralyze you" (Freire, 2005, p. 49). As transnational multicultural teachers, we must not be afraid of exposing our vulnerabilities and we should foment discussion about critical issues that create cyclical barriers.

Sharing my teacher identity and exposing my vulnerabilities worked as a way to normalize the differences between multicultural and non-multicultural teachers and contribute to a fair work environment, where teachers are not judged by their accent or by where they come from, but for the quality of their teaching (Molina, 2020). The lesson I take is that I need to use my experience to empower myself and act as an agent of change. During the process of trying to find a teaching position, I felt that discrimination was ingrained in the hiring process and in the work environment of NNESTs, but it acts silently (Chung Constant & Cao, 2018). Inspired by critical pedagogy, I want to keep on raising issues related to discrimination in the English language teaching field to motivate EAL teachers and EAL learners to openly discuss these issues and act together to change this culture.

Writing an autoethnography was a difficult task that demanded honesty and courage to self-disclose. I had to take ownership of dichotomized terms such as native and non-native language speaker to frame my identity as a transnational English teacher in Canada (Kayser, 2021). All the challenges and frustrations I had to face in my journey were important elements that helped me remodel the way I see myself as a professional

now. It also helped me see the importance of using my agency to start changing what I want to see changed in the EAL teaching field. To echo Jain (2020), “We [...] need to offer, and we need to validate, more diverse and intersectional ways of belonging” (p.125). I started this study shy and unsure, but now I feel empowered and able to step up and advocate for my professional value. I hope that my writing will also inspire other multicultural teachers to take action and advocate for themselves.

It is important that educational systems also start advocating for change in this field. Educational authorities should recognize the differences between NESTs and NNESTs as natural to avoid judging NNESTs through the lens of biased ideas (Reves & Medgyes, 1994). Administrators should be mindful of cultural differences to avert misguided expectations based on inaccurate beliefs (Chung Constant & Cao, 2018). Native speakerism grows stronger through everyday discourses that work to make it seem natural and difficult to deconstruct (Ruecker & Ives, 2015). If administrators join transnational multicultural teachers in their discussions about discrimination against NNESTs, they will contribute to its eradication and the promotion of equity in the field.

One of the main benefits of critical autoethnography is the transformational potential it offers not only for the writer but also for others (Ajsic, 2020). Autoethnographic writing presents researchers with the possibility to retell and reanalyze their stories in their own way without having to renounce the composition of their narratives to others (Park, 2014). By sharing their stories, transnational multicultural EAL teachers create a powerful instrument of transformation that leads to agency by presenting narratives that are usually marginalized and overlooked (Jain, 2020). This is

an important tool that must be used by NNESTs with a goal to better understand the relationship between culture and individual, and to make the personal political by giving visibility to issues NNESTs have to face while renegotiating their identity in their new professional setting (Yazan, Canagarajah, & Jain, 2021). It is of paramount importance that NNESTs empower themselves and use their agency to “mitigate perceptual barriers, prejudice, and ethnocentrism” that exist in our field (Lieb, 2021, p. 37).

Globalization has increased and diversified English language users around the world, so it is insufficient and inappropriate to adopt native-speaker varieties of English as the main model for English language learners anymore (Han et al., 2021). Nevertheless, this assumption still dominates the EAL teaching field. It may be constructive to think of different ways NNESTs can debate this issue with EAL learners with the goal to break this cycle. EAL learners are also building their identities across borders (Kayser, 2021). Thus, creating opportunities for them to contribute to the discussion will be fruitful for both EAL teachers and learners. Creating forums for learners to discuss topics related to NNESTs’ challenges and successes might be a good way to start. EAL teachers together with language programs could also help promote discussion by raising these issues during programs’ information and orientation sessions. Furthermore, EAL teachers, native or non-native speakers of English, must constantly integrate discussion of these issues in their lesson plans to engage learners in conversations that will lead to changing how learners perceive NNESTs. Following that, future studies should consider how fostering these discussions contribute to changing NNESTs’ reality.

## References

- Academy, I. T. (2020, December 20). Coronavirus FAQs: TEFL & teaching English abroad or online - What are my options? *ITA Blog*.  
doi:<https://www.internationalteflacademy.com/blog/how-coronavirus-is-affecting-teaching-abroad>
- Ajsic, A. (2020). Floating on English in a rising sea of globalization. Liminality, liability, transformation. In B. C. Yazan, *Autoethnographies in ELT: Transnational identities, pedagogies, and practices* (pp. 128-145). Taylor & Francis.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003001522>
- Anderson, L. (2006, August). Analytic autoethnography. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 35(4), 373-395 . Retrieved from <http://jce.sagepub.com>
- Annual Report to Parliament on Immigration. (2020). Retrieved from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/corporate/publications-manuals/annual-report-parliament-immigration-2020.html#important>
- Ballard, L. & Winke, P. (2016). Students' attitudes towards English teachers' accents: The interplay of accent familiarity, comprehensibility, intelligibility, perceived native speaker status, and acceptability as a teacher. In *Second Language Pronunciation Assessment* (Vol. 107, pp. 121-140). Multilingual Matters.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.21832/j.ctt1xp3wcc.11>

- Beare, K. (2019, November 19). *ThoughtCo*. Retrieved from How many people learn English?: <https://www.thoughtco.com/how-many-people-learn-english-globally-1210367>
- Block, L. (2012). Re-positioning: Internationally educated teachers in Manitoba school communities. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 35(3), 85-100.
- Braine, G. (1999). *Non-native educators in English language teaching*. L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Braine, G. (2010). *Nonnative speaker English teachers - research, pedagogy, and professional growth*. Hong Kong: Routledge.
- Breshears, S. (2019). Precarious work of English language teaching in Canada. *TESL Canada Journal*, 36(2), 26-47. doi:<https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v36i2.1312>
- Buzdugan, R. & Halli, S. (2009). Labor market experiences of Canadian immigrants with focus on foreign education and experience. 43(2), pp. 366–386. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1747-7379.2009.00768.x>
- Canada, I. R. (2020, October 30). *Government of Canada announces plan to support economic recovery through immigration*. Retrieved from <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/news/2020/10/government-of-canada-announces-plan-to-support-economic-recovery-through-immigration.html>
- Canagarajah, A. (1999). Interrogating the "native speaker fallacy": Non-linguistic roots, non-pedagogical results. In G. Braine, *Non-Native Educators in English Language Teaching* (pp. 77-92). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- CBC. (2020, June 4). *Language schools are being forced to close permanently due to COVID-19*. Retrieved from <https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/british-columbia/esl-school-closing-covid19-1.5598143>
- Chang, H. (2008). *Autoethnography as method*. Left Coast Press .
- Chomsky, N., & Macedo, D. P. (2000). *Chomsky on miseducation*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Chung Constant, T. & Cao, H. (2018). English, Identity and the Privileging and Marginalizing of Transculturality. In *Criticality, Teacher Identity, and (In)equity in English Language Teaching* (pp. 103-122). Springer International Publishing. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-72920-6\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-72920-6_6)
- Clark, E. & Paran, A. (2007, May 8). The employability of non-native-speaker teachers of EFL: A UK survey. *System*, pp. 407-430.
- Crandall, J. (1993). Professionalism and professionalization of adult ESL literacy . *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(3), pp. 497-515. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2307/3587479>
- de Bruin, L. (2017). Critical autoethnography and musical improvisation: Reflections, refractions and twenty-first century dimensions. In *Creative Selves / Creative Cultures* (pp. 229-245). Springer International Publishing. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-47527-1\\_15](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-47527-1_15)
- Derivry-Plard, M. (2018). A multilingual paradigm in language education: What it means for language teachers. In S. A. Houghton, *Towards post-native-speakerism dynamics and shifts* (1st ed., pp. 131-148). Springer Singapore. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-7162-1>

- Derwing, T. & Munro, M. (2009). Putting accent in its place: Rethinking obstacles to communication. *Language Teaching*, 42(4), 476-490.  
doi:10.1017/S026144480800551X
- El Bouhali, C. (2019). Is there a glass ceiling for internationally educated teachers in Alberta? *Dissertation, University of Alberta*. Retrieved from <https://era.library.ualberta.ca/items/cdafd30c-cb43-456e-a78a-805afd72c497>
- El Kadri, M. S., & Gimenez, T. (2013). Formando professores de inglês para o contexto do inglês como língua franca. *Acta Scientiarum. Language and Culture*, 35(2), 125-133. doi:<https://doi.org/10.4025/actascilangcult.v35i2.14958>
- Ellis, C. & Bochner, A. P. (2000). Autoethnography, personal narrative, reflexivity. In N. K. Denzin, *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 733-768). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Ellis, C. (1999). Heartful autoethnography. *Qualitative Health Research*, 9(5), 669-683.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/104973299129122153>
- Ellis, C., Adams, T. & Bochner, A. (2011). Autoethnography: An overview. *Historical Social Research / Historische Sozialforschung*, 36(4), 273-290.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.17169/fqs-12.1.1589>
- Evans, L. (2013, June 4). *Diversity in Canada: an overview*. Retrieved from Canadian Immigrant: [canadianimmigrant.ca/guides/moving-to-canada/diversity-in-canada-an-overview](http://canadianimmigrant.ca/guides/moving-to-canada/diversity-in-canada-an-overview)
- Evra, R. (2020). *Mental health status of Canadian immigrants during the COVID-19 pandemic*. Retrieved from Statistics Canada = Statistique Canada.

- Faez, F. (2012). Diverse teachers for diverse students: Internationally educated and Canadian-born teachers' preparedness to teach English language learners. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 35(3), 64-84.
- Floris, F. D. & Renandya, W. A. (2020, January-June). Promoting the value of non-native English-speaking teachers. *PASAA*, 59, 1-19.
- Frank, K. & Frenette, M. . (2019, March 13). *How do women in male-dominated apprenticeships fare in the labour market?* Retrieved from Statistics Canada : <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/11f0019m/11f0019m2019008-eng.htm>
- Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed (30th anniversary ed.)*. New York: Continuum.
- Freire, P. (2005). *Teachers as cultural workers: Letters to those who dare teach* (Vol. Expanded). Routledge.
- Giroux, H. (2010). Rethinking education as the practice of freedom: Paulo Freire and the promise of critical pedagogy. *Policy Futures in Education*, 8(6), 715-721. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2304/pfie.2010.8.6.715>
- Giroux, H. A. (2011). *On critical pedagogy*. New York: Continuum Intl Pub Group.
- Gottesman, I. (2016). Critical pedagogy. In T. & Francis, *The critical turn in education: From Marxist critique to poststructuralist feminism to critical theories of race* (pp. 90-109). doi:<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315769967-10>
- Government of Canada. (2020, October 30). Retrieved from Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada: <https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees->

citizenship/news/2020/10/government-of-canada-announces-plan-to-support-economic-recovery-through-immigration.html

- Grenier, G. & Xue, L. (2011). Canadian Immigrants' Access to a First Job in Their Intended Occupation. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 12(3), 275–303. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-010-0159-z>
- Guo, S. (2007). Tracing the roots of non-recognition of foreign credentials. *Canadian Issues*, 36-38.
- Guo, S. (2013). Economic integration of recent Chinese immigrants in Canada's second-tier cities: The triple glass effect and immigrants' downward social mobility. *Canadian Ethnic Studies*, 45(3), 95–115. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1353/ces.2013.0047>
- Guo, S. (2015). The colour of skill: contesting a racialised regime of skill from the experience of recent immigrants in Canada. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 37(3), 236-250. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1080/0158037X.2015.1067766>
- Han, S. S., Haneda, M. & Madany, M. (2021). Towards glocally situated TESOL practices: Collaborative autoethnography . In B. C. Yazan, *Autoethnographies in ELT : Transnational identities, pedagogies, and practices* (pp. 206-222). Routledge.
- Hassan, N. (2022). A pedagogy for change. In T. Boronski, *Critical pedagogy : an exploration of contemporary themes and issues* (pp. 14-43). Routledge. Retrieved from

<https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/umanitoba/reader.action?docID=6668494&ppg=14>

- Hayler, M. (2011). *Autoethnography, self-narrative and teacher education* (1st ed.). Sense Publishers. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6091-672-4>
- Hodgson, K. (2014). Mismatch: Globalization and native speaker models of linguistic competence. *RELC Journal*, 45(2), 113-134. doi:doi:10.1177/0033688214533863
- Houg, F., Picot, G. & Zhang, J. (2020, 08 20). *Transitions into and out of employment by immigrants during the COVID-19 lockdown and recovery*. Retrieved from Statistics Canada: <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/45-28-0001/2020001/article/00070-eng.htm>
- Huang, I. (2018). Power and Ownership Within the NS/NNS Dichotomy. In B. & Yazan, *Criticality, Teacher Identity, and (In)equity in English Language Teaching* (pp. 41-56). Springer International Publishing. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-72920-6\\_3](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-72920-6_3)
- Jain, R. (2020). (Re)imagining myself as a translingual, a transnational, and a pracademic. A critical autoethnographic account. In B. C. Yazan, *Autoethnographies in ELT: Transnational identities, pedagogies, and practices* (pp. 109-127). Taylor & Francis. doi:<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003001522>
- Jenkins, J. (2014). *English as a lingua franca in the international university : The politics of academic English language policy*. Routledge.
- Kamhi-Stein, L. (2016). The non-native English speaker teachers in TESOL movement. *ELT Journal*, 70(2), 180-189. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccv076>

- Kaur, P. (2014). Accent attitudes: Reactions to English as a lingua franca. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 134 ( 2014 ) 3 – 12, 134, 3-12. Retrieved from <https://reader.elsevier.com/reader/sd/pii/S1877042814031280?token=8599012CA5536FA3D3ED7AEBFEF458EDCD59760A8E83A23AD4DC15523C442BDC7D821EC6D55A8BE0383FD905C940D665&originRegion=us-east-1&originCreation=20211204184606>
- Kayser, A. A. (2021). Invisible borders: On being a Ghanaian immigrant in the United States. In B. C. Yazan, *Autoethnographies in ELT: Transnational identities, pedagogies, and practices*. (pp. 75-87). Routledge.
- Kerekes, J. (2017). Language mentoring and employment ideologies: Internationally educated professionals in search of work. In *Negotiating boundaries at Work* (pp. 11-28). Edinburgh University Press. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3366/j.ctt1pwt38z.5>
- Kim, R., Roberson, L., Russo, M. & Briganti, P. (2019). Language diversity, nonnative accents, and their consequences in the work place: Recommendations individuals, teams, and organizations. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 55(1), 73–95. doi:[doi.org/10.1177/002188631880099](https://doi.org/10.1177/002188631880099)
- Kooy, M., & De Freitas, E. (2007). The diaspora sensibility in teacher identity: Locating self through story. *Canadian Journal of Education / Revue Canadienne De L'éducation*, 30(3), 865-880. doi:[doi:10.2307/20466666](https://doi.org/10.2307/20466666)
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2014, March 16). The decolonial option in English teaching: Can the subaltern act? *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(1), 66-85. doi:[10.1002/tesq.20](https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.20)

- Lev-Ari, & Keysar, B. (2010). Why don't we believe non-native speakers? The influence of accent on credibility. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 46(6), 1093-1096. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2010.05.025>
- Li, P. S. (2008). The role of foreign credentials and ethnic ties in immigrants' economic performance. *Canadian Journal of Sociology* 33 (2): 291–310, 33(2), 291-310.
- Lieb, M. (2021). Challenges and successes in negotiating identity and asserting agency as an Irish, transcultural, boundary-spanning, ELT academic. In B. C. Yazan, *Autoethnographies in ELT: transnational identities, pedagogies, and practices*. Routledge. Retrieved from <https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/umanitoba/detail.action?docID=6274071>
- Lindemann, S. (2005). Who speaks “broken English”? US undergraduates' perceptions of non-native English. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), 187–212. doi:doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2005.00087.x
- Lippi-Green, R. (2012). *English with an accent : language, ideology and discrimination in the United States* (2nd ed.). Lippi-Green, R.
- Liu, E. (2007). *A descriptive study of employers' attitudes and practices in hiring newcomer job seekers*. CERIS-The Ontario Metropolis Centre. Retrieved from <https://deslibris.ca/ID/251590>
- Llurda, E. (2005). *Non-native English teachers. Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (1st ed.). Springer US. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/b106233>

- Mahadi, T. S. T & Jafari, S. M. (2012, September). Language and culture. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(17), 230-235.
- Manara, C. (2018). "What should I call myself? Does it matter?" Questioning the "labeling" practice in ELT profession. In B. & Yazan, *Criticality, teacher identity, and (in)equity in English language teaching* (pp. 125-140). Springer International Publishing.
- Marom, L. (2017). Mapping the field: Examining the recertification of internationally educated teachers. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 40(3), 157-190.
- Masrizal, M. (2013). Native vs non-native English teachers. *Jurnal Didaktika*, 13(2), 197-211. doi:<https://doi.org/10.22373/jid.v13i2.473>
- Mawhinney, & Xu, F. (1997). Reconstructing the professional identity of foreign-trained teachers in Ontario Schools. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 632-639. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2307/3587847>
- Maynes, M., Laslett, B., & Pierce, J. (2008). *Telling stories. The use of personal narratives in the social sciences and history*. Cornell University Press. doi:<https://doi.org/10.7591/9780801459030>
- McIlveen, P. (2008). Autoethnography as a method for reflexive research and practice in vocational psychology. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 17(2), 13-20. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/103841620801700204>
- McIntyre, F. (2004, December). New teachers thriving by third year. *Professionally speaking: The magazine of the Ontario college of teachers*, 41-46, 41-46.

- Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal*, 46(4), 340-349. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/46.4.340>
- Méndez, M. G. (2014). Autoethnography as a research method: Advantages, limitations and criticisms. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, 15(2), 279-287. doi:[doi:10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2013.2.a09](https://doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2013.2.a09).
- Miekos, A. (2020, August 27). Retrieved from CIC News: <https://www.cicnews.com/2020/08/new-immigrants-most-affected-by-job-disruptions-due-to-pandemic-0815561.html#gs.ud4vs8>
- Mo, G., Cukier, W., Atputharajah, A., Boase, M., & Hon, H. (2020). Differential Impacts during COVID-19 in Canada: A Look at Diverse Individuals and Their Businesses. *Canadian Public Policy*, 46(7), S261–S271. doi: <https://doi.org/10.3138/cpp.2020-072>
- Mohammed Ishaque, R. (2018). Empowering English speakers through diversification and promotion of world Englishes. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 9(6), 93-100. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.all.v.9n.6p.93>
- Molina, S. (2020). I'm from foreign: Transnational identity construction in the Journey of being and becoming an ESOL educator . In B. C. Yazan, *Autoethnographies in ELT: Transnational identities, pedagogies, and practices* (pp. 185-205). Francis & Taylor.
- Moussu, L., & Llurda, E. (2008). Non-native English-speaking English language teachers: History and research. *41*(3), 315-348. doi:[doi:10.1017/S0261444808005028](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444808005028)

- Moussu, L. (2010). Influence of teacher-contact time and other variables on ESL students' attitudes towards native- and nonnative-English-speaking teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 44(4), pp. 746–768. doi:  
<https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2010.235997>
- Muncey, T. (2005). Doing autoethnography. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 4(1), 69-86. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690500400105>
- Myhill, J. (2003). The native speaker, identity, and the authenticity hierarchy. *Language Sciences*, 25(1), 77–97.
- Nohl, A., Schittenhelm, K., Schmidtke, O., & Weiss, A. (2014). Work in transition: Cultural capital and highly skilled migrants' passages into the labour market. *Language Teaching*, 43(1), pp. 315-348. Retrieved from  
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444808005028>
- Norton, B. (2018). The world of adult immigrant language learners. In *Identity and Language Learning* (pp. 76-96). Multilingual Matters.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783090563-005>
- Nugroho, A., Ilmiani, D., & Rekha, A. (2021). EFL Teachers' Challenges and Insights of Online Teaching amidst Global Pandemic. *Metathesis: Journal of English Language, Literature, and Teaching*, 4(3), 277-291.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.31002/metathesis.v4i3.3195>
- OECD. (2020, October 19). Retrieved from Tackling coronavirus (covid-19):  
<http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/what-is-the-impact-of-the-covid-19-pandemic-on-immigrants-and-their-children->

e7cbb7de/#:~:text=COVID%2Drelated%20mortality%20rates%20for,lower%20seniority%20on%20the%20job.

- Oliveira, R. M. (2017). Professor nativo: Isso ajuda no aprendizado de ingles como L2 para brasileiros? *The ESpecialist*, 38(2). doi:<https://doi.org/10.23925/2318-7115.2017v38i2a7>
- Oreopoulos, P. (2011). Why do skilled immigrants struggle in the labor market. A field experiment with thirteen thousand resumes. *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy*, 3(4), 148–171. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1257/pol.3.4.148>
- Oreopoulos, P., & Dechief, D. (2011). *Why do some employers prefer to interview Matthew, but not Samir? New Evidence from Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver*. Retrieved from <https://deslibris.ca/ID/230244>
- Pacek, D. (2005). 'Personality not nationality': Foreign students' perceptions of a non-native speaker lecturer of English at a British university. In E. Llurda, *Non-Native Language Teachers. Perceptions, challenges and contrributions to the profession* (pp. 243-262). Springer, Boston, MA. doi:[https://doi-org.uml.idm.oclc.org/10.1007/0-387-24565-0\\_13](https://doi-org.uml.idm.oclc.org/10.1007/0-387-24565-0_13)
- Park, L. E. (2014). Shifting from reflective practices to reflexivity: An autoethnography of an L2 teacher educator. *English Teaching*, 69(1), 173-198.
- Park, P. (2012, March). "I am never afraid of being recognized as an NNES": One teacher's journey in claiming and embracing her nonnative-speaker teaching identity. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(1), pp. 127-151. doi:<http://www.jstor.org/stable/41576032>

- Pavalko, R. (1988). *Sociology of occupations and professions*. F. E. Peacock.
- Philaretou, A., & Allen, K. (2006). Researching sensitive topics through autoethnographic means. *The Journal of Men's Studies*, 14(1), 65-78.
- Pierce, B. N. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), 9-31. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587803>
- Pollock, K. (2010). Marginalization and the occasional teacher workforce in Ontario: The case of internationally educated teachers (IETs). *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*(100).  
doi:<http://search.proquest.com/docview/742875941/>
- Rappel, L. (2015). Integrating the personal and the professional: Marking the career paths of adult language educators. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 65(4), 313–325.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0741713615585573>
- Ramjattan, R. (2019). The white native speaker and inequality regimes in the private English language school <https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2018.1538043>.  
*Intercultural Education (London, England)*, 30(2), 126-140.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2018.1538043>
- Reitz, J. (1998). *Warmth of the welcome : The social causes of economic success for immigrants in different nations and cities*. Boulder, Colo: Westview Press.
- Reitz, J. (2001). Immigrant skill utilization in the Canadian labour market: Implications of human capital research. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 2(3), 347–378. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-001-1004-1>

- Reitz, J. (2013). Closing the gaps between skilled immigration and Canadian labor markets: Emerging policy issues and priorities. In T. Triadafilopoulos, *Wanted and Welcome?* (pp. 147-163). Springer. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-0082-0>
- Reitz, J., & Banerjee, R. (2009). Racial inequality and social integration. In J. & Reitz, *Multiculturalism and social cohesion* (pp. 123-155). Springer, Dordrecht. doi:[https://doi-org.uml.idm.oclc.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9958-8\\_5](https://doi-org.uml.idm.oclc.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9958-8_5)
- Reitz, J. G., Curtis, J., & Elrick, J. (2014). Immigrant Skill Utilization: Trends and Policy Issues. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 15(1), 1-26. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-012-0265-1>
- Reves, T. & Medgyes, P. (1994). The non-native english speaking EFL/ESL teacher's self-image: An international survey. *System*, 353-367. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(94\)90021-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(94)90021-3)
- Richards, J. (2020). Reflections on teaching and publishing in the field of TESOL during COVID-19. *RELC Journal*, 51(3), 333-336. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688220971862>
- Riordan, E. (2018). *Language for teaching purposes bilingual classroom discourse and the non-native speaker language teacher* (1st ed.). Springer International Publisher. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-71005-1>
- Robb, A. (2014, September 23). A person's accent can change your perception of what he is saying. *The new republic*. Retrieved from <https://newrepublic.com/article/119546/accents-can-influence-perception>

- Ruecker, T. & Ives, L. (2015). White Native English Speakers Needed: The Rhetorical Construction of Privilege in Online Teacher Recruitment Spaces. *49(4)*, 733–756. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.195>
- Ryan, J., Pollock, K. & Antonelli, F. (2009). Teacher diversity in Canada: Leaky pipelines, bottlenecks, and glass ceilings. *Canadian Journal of Education*, *32(3)*, 591-617.
- Sanaoui, R. (1997). Professional characteristics and concerns of instructors teaching English as a second language to adults in non-credit programs in Ontario. *TESL Canada Journal*, *14(2)*, 14(2), 32-54. doi: <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v14i2.684>
- Schmidt, C. & Janusch, S. (2016). The contributions of internationally educated teachers in Canada. Reconciling what counts with what matters. In C. & Schmidt, *Diversifying the teaching force in transnational contexts*. (pp. 139-151). doi:[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6300-663-7\\_11](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6300-663-7_11)
- Schmidt, C. (2010). Systemic discrimination as a barrier for immigrant teachers. *Diaspora, Indigenous, and Minority Education*, *4(4)*, 235-252. doi:[10.1080/15595692.2010.513246](https://doi.org/10.1080/15595692.2010.513246)
- Schmidt, C., & Block, L. (2010). Without and within: The implications of employment and ethnocultural equity policies for internationally educated teachers. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*(100), 100-118.
- Schmidt, C., & Mcdaid, R. (2015). Linguistic barriers among internationally educated teachers in Ireland and Canada: A critical comparative analysis. *Australian*

*Review of Applied linguistics*, 38(3), pp. 172–183.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1075/ara1.38.3.06sch>

Schmidt, C., Young, J., & Mandzuk, D. (2010). The integration of immigrant teachers in

Manitoba, Canada: Critical issues and perspectives. *Journal of International*

*Migration and Integration*, 11(4), 439–452. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-010-0149-1)

010-0149-1

Selvi, A. (2010). All teachers are equal, but some teachers are more equal than others:

Trend analysis of job advertisements in English Language teaching. *WATESOL*

*NNEST Caucus Annual Review*(1), 156-181. Retrieved from

<http://sites.google.com/site/watesolnnestcaucus/caucus-annual-review>

Sethi, S., Rho, D. , Vasquez A. & Worley, T. (2020). How do foreign accents impact

perception and credibility? Retrieved from

[https://escholarship.org/content/qt68s4038j/qt68s4038j\\_noSplash\\_3d1a55a21c9c6](https://escholarship.org/content/qt68s4038j/qt68s4038j_noSplash_3d1a55a21c9c6096bccfd31d4d7367.pdf?t=qb7aas)

096bccfd31d4d7367.pdf?t=qb7aas

Shan, H. (2013). Skill as a relational construct: hiring practices from the standpoint of

Chinese immigrant engineers in Canada . *Work, Employment and Society*, 26(7),

915-931. doi:[doi.org/10.1177/0950017012474710](https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017012474710)

Shin, D. (2020, August 30). Introduction: TESOL and the COVID-19 pandemic. *Tesol*

*Journal*, 11(3). doi:<https://doi-org.uml.idm.oclc.org/10.1002/tesj.547>

Silva, S. (2019). O ensino de lingua inglesa sob uma perspectiva intercultural: Caminhos

e desafios. *Trabalhos em lingüística aplicada*, 58(1), 158-176.

doi:<https://doi.org/10.1590/010318138654189491701>

- Smith, P., & Mustard, C. (2010). The unequal distribution of occupational health and safety risks among immigrants to Canada compared to Canadian-born labour market participants: 1993–2005. *Safety Science*, 48(10), 1296–1303.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2010.03.020>
- Smith, P., & Mustard, C. (2010). The unequal distribution of occupational health and safety risks among immigrants to Canada compared to Canadian-born labour market participants: 1993–2005. *Safety science*, 48(10), pp. 1296–1303.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2010.03.020>
- Soheili-Mehr, A. (2018). Immigrant non-native English speaking teachers in TESOL: The negotiation of professional identities. *Thesis, University of Toronto*.  
Retrieved from [https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream/1807/92157/3/Soheili-Mehr\\_Amir\\_H\\_201811\\_PhD\\_thesis.pdf](https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream/1807/92157/3/Soheili-Mehr_Amir_H_201811_PhD_thesis.pdf)
- Subedi, R. & Rosenberg, M. W. (2016). High-skilled immigrants-low-skilled jobs: Challenging everyday health: High-skilled immigrants, low-skilled jobs. *The Canadian Geographer*, 60(1), 56-68. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/cag.12237>
- Sun, Y. (2010). Standards, Equity, and Advocacy: Employment conditions of ESOL teachers in adult basic education and literacy systems. *TESOL Journal*, 1(1), 142-158. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5054/tj.2010.215135>
- Tani, M. I. (2018). Using a points system for selecting immigrants. *Ifo DICE Report*, 16(1), 8-13.

- Thomas, J. (1999). Voices from periphery: Non-native teachers and issues of credibility. In G. Braine, *Non-native educators in English language teaching* (pp. 5-13). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum associates.
- Thompson-Lee, C. (2019). *Heteronormativity in a rural school community: An autoethnography* (1st ed.). Rottordam: Brill: Sense.
- Todd, D. (2020, October 29). Canada's many language schools ravaged by COVID-19. *Vancouver Sun*. Vancouver, British Columbia. Retrieved from <https://vancouver.sun.com/opinion/columnists/douglas-todd-canadas-many-language-schools-ravaged-by-covid-19>
- Tsang, A. (2017). ESL/EFL Teachers' general language proficiency and learners' engagement. *RELC Journal*, 48(1), 99-113. doi:10.1177/0033688217690060
- Turchick Hakak, L., Holzinger, I., & Zikic, J. (2010). Barriers and paths to success. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(2), 159-176. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/02683941011019366>
- Ulate, N. V. (2011, January-February). Insights towards native and non-native ELT educators. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, 4(1), 56-79.
- Uppal, S. (2015, June 24). *Employment patterns of families with children*. Retrieved from Statistics Canada: <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/75-006-x/2015001/article/14202-eng.pdf>

- Valeo, A. & Faez, F. (2013). Career development and professional attrition of novice ESL teachers of adults. *TESL Canada Journal*, 31(1).  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v31i1.1164>
- Valeo, A. (2013). The TESL Ontario member survey: A brief report. *Contact Magazine*, 39(1), 19–32., 39, 19-32. Retrieved from  
[http://www.teslontario.org/uploads/pinterest/contactarticles/Survey\\_Valeo](http://www.teslontario.org/uploads/pinterest/contactarticles/Survey_Valeo)
- Vikram, R. (2013). *Labour market Information for employers and economic Immigrants in Canada: A country study*. Ottawa, ON: Centre for the Study of Living Standards.
- Walker, A. & Perrin, T. (2001). *Web-based human resources: The technologies and trends that are transforming HR*. New York : McGraw-Hill.
- Walls, S. (2008). Easier said than done: Writing an autoethnography. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 38-53.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690800700103>
- Watson Todd, R. & Pojanapunya, P. (2009). Implicit attitudes towards native and non-native speaker teachers. *System*, 37(1), 23-33.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.08.002>
- Wilson-Forsberg, S. (2014). “We Don’t Integrate; We Adapt.” Latin American immigrants interpret their Canadian employment experiences in southwestern Ontario. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 16(3), 469–489.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-014-0349-1>

- Winke, P., Gass, S., & Myford, C. (2013). Raters' L2 background as a potential source of bias in rating oral performance. *Language Testing*, 30(2), 231-252.  
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532212456968>
- Xue, L. (2008). Social capital and employment of recent immigrants to Canada. *Research and evaluation paper*. Ottawa: Citizen and Immigration Canada.
- Yazan, B., Canagarajah, A. S., & Jain, R. (2021). Autoethnography as research in ELT. Methodological challenges and affordances in the exploration of transnational identities. In B. C. Yazan, *Autoethnographies in ELT: transnational identities, pedagogies, and practices* (pp. 1-19). Routledge.
- Yssad, L. & Fields, A. (2018, December 24). *The Canadian immigrant labour market : recent trends from 2006 to 2017* . Retrieved from Statistics Canada:  
<https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/71-606-x/71-606-x2018001-eng.htm>
- Zhang, F. & Zhan, J. (2014). The knowledge base of non-native English speaking teachers: Perspectives of teachers and administrators. *Language and Education*, 28(6), 568–582. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2014.921193>
- Zhang, X. (2008, August). *The Post-childbirth Employment of Canadian Mothers and the Earnings Trajectories of Their Continuously Employed Counterparts*. Retrieved from Statistics Canada:  
<https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/11f0019m/11f0019m2008314-eng.pdf>
- Zygmantas, J. (2009). Understanding critical pedagogy and its impact on the construction of knowledge. *Acta Paedagogica Vilnensia*, 23, 63-78.