



An overview of artificial intelligence integration in English language education

Yingmei Luo¹

¹ Lecturer, Deakin University, Australia

Diep Nguyen²

² Lecturer, Deakin University, Australia

Van Thi Thanh Lai³

³ Lecturer, Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam

Abstract

In Australia, there is a large number of English learners, including students learning English as an Additional Language or Dialect (EAL/D) in school, adult migrants, and international students. This heterogeneous learner population makes English language education a strategically important yet increasingly complex sector. The field now faces unprecedented challenges and opportunities arising from the emergence and rapid evolution of artificial intelligence (AI), particularly generative AI (GenAI), which has fundamentally transformed pedagogical approaches and learning practices. Against this background, this paper aims to provide an overview of the application of AI in English language education. To achieve this, the paper first distinguishes between traditional AI and generative AI. It then describes how AI is applied in education, particularly English language teaching, and introduces common AI tools used in this field. The synchronous, interactive, and individualised nature of language learning makes AI particularly valuable in this domain, with research indicating that language learning represents the most dominant field for AI application in education. Therefore, the analysis critically examines the opportunities and challenges AI presents and describes implications for the future trajectory of English language education. By addressing these dimensions, it contributes to informed discourse on AI integration in English language teaching.

Correspondence

Yingmei Luo

yingmei.luo@deakin.edu.au

Publication

Received: 24 February 2026

Revision: 08 April 2026

Accepted: 30 April 2026

Published: 12 July 2026

Copyright

©2026 TESOL in Context



This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution – ShareAlike 4.0 International License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0/).

Keywords: *Generative AI; English language education; pedagogical innovation; educational challenges; future implications.*

Introduction

Australia, known for its multicultural society and education-export sector, is home to a large number of English language students with diverse learning needs. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2025), 31.5% of Australia's population was born overseas as of 30 June 2024. In the school system, Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority ACARA (2026) notes that about 31% of students at Australian primary and secondary schools come from a language background other than English, and national sector data indicate that more than 600,000 learners are formally identified as English as Additional Language/Dialect (EAL/D) students across government and Catholic systems (Australian Council of TESOL Associations [ACTA], 2021). Adult immigrant language learners also form a large, diverse, and strategically important cohort within Australia's English education landscape. Roughly 70,000 adult immigrants and other adult learners engage in government-funded English language learning through the combined Adult Migration Education Program (AMEP) (Australian Government Department of Home Affairs, 2026). In the meantime, international students share a significant proportion in the English education industry in Australia. According to Bonard Education (2024), 168,910 international students were hosted at English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students (ELICOS) providers in Australia in 2023, though the number dropped in 2025. Against this background, English language education is a vibrant yet challenging sector, constantly evolving to adapt to changing policy, socio-economic and technological landscapes. One of the recent challenges facing the sector is the emergence of artificial intelligence (AI) and its profound impact on English language teaching and learning practices.

The transformative power of AI in education in general and English language education in particular has been recognised by recent studies (Garzón et al., 2025; Wang & Fan, 2025; Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). Recent scholarship discusses how AI can enhance educational effectiveness, provide personalised feedback, and support automated assessment, while also raising ethical and pedagogical concerns such as academic dishonesty, equity of access, data privacy, and the potential disruption of higher-order thinking (e.g. Crompton et al., 2024; Hockly, 2023). The nature of language learning, which requires synchronous responses, individual feedback, and continuous interaction, makes AI tools particularly valuable in this domain. As noted by Garzón et al. (2025), among the different educational fields, the use of AI in language teaching and learning is the most dominant. Thus, this paper narrows its focus to examining the integration of AI in English language teaching and learning. This paper aims to delineate several key themes: the distinction between AI and GenAI, how AI has transformed education and English language education in particular, the opportunities and challenges AI presents and the implications for the future of English language education.

AI versus GenAI

Artificial intelligence itself has undergone significant evolution, from traditional AI to generative AI (GenAI), which includes the shift from symbolic AI and rule-based systems to machine learning, and further into neural networks and deep learning architectures (García Peñalvo & Vázquez Ingelmo, 2023). The key difference between traditional AI and GenAI lies in generativity. Traditional AI tends to perform classification, pattern recognition, and decision-making, whereas GenAI creates new content that mimics human creativity. GenAI is thus able to engage in interactive learning activities that are key to innovating English language pedagogical approaches.

Artificial Intelligence (AI) refers to the field of computer science and technology dedicated to creating systems capable of performing tasks that typically require human intelligence (Bordas et al., 2024; García Peñalvo & Vázquez Ingelmo, 2023). These tasks include learning, reasoning, problem-solving, perception, and language understanding. AI is built on the foundation of mimicking human cognitive processes, enabling machines to analyse data, recognise patterns, and make decisions. The concept of AI has evolved significantly since its inception, with early developments focusing on rule-based systems and symbolic reasoning. Today, AI encompasses a wide range of techniques, including machine learning, deep learning, natural language processing, computer vision, and robotics.

Generative Artificial Intelligence (GenAI) is a specialised branch of artificial intelligence focused on creating models capable of generating new, synthetic data that resembles the original dataset (García Peñalvo & Vázquez Ingelmo, 2023; Grimes et al., 2023). Unlike traditional AI, which primarily focuses on analysing, classifying, and organising existing information, GenAI emphasises the creation of novel outputs. Thus, the term "Generative AI" should be applied to "models that may produce new, previously unseen information dependent on the data on which they were trained" (García Peñalvo & Vázquez Ingelmo, 2023, p. 7). A recent systematic review encapsulates GenAI as AI systems that "create text, images, and/or various forms of media through the utilisation of generative models" by learning the underlying patterns and structure of training data and producing fresh instances that share similar characteristics (Sengar et al., 2025). This generative capability is rooted in the ability of GenAI models to learn the underlying structure and patterns of data, enabling them to produce outputs that are not direct replicas but are plausible within the context of the original data.

While GenAI has transformed education due to its capacity to generate content such as text and multimedia materials, it only represents one dimension of AI's broader impact. Other forms of AI, such as rule-based algorithms, adaptive learning, machine learning, intelligent assessment and management, profiling and prediction (Garzón et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2024), have significantly shaped pedagogical practices, curriculum design, learner engagement, and assessment. These forms of AI also present challenges and considerations that extend beyond those associated specifically with GenAI. Therefore, this paper discusses the integration of AI in general into English language education, encompassing but not limited to GenAI.

AI in education and in English language education

AI is rapidly transforming education, offering new possibilities for teaching and learning. While AI applications span various educational contexts, higher education and language learning have been the most studied areas (Garzón et al., 2025). A recent systematic review reveals a surge in research in AI applications in education since 2023, largely driven by GenAI tools such as ChatGPT (Garzón et al., 2025). AI is reshaping education by enabling personalised learning, automating administrative tasks, creating immersive virtual environments, and providing adaptive content that tailors to individual learner needs (Huang et al., 2021). In essence, AI is thriving in education because it aligns with constructivist and connectivist learning theories by enabling adaptive, interactive environments and facilitating access to diverse knowledge networks (Garzón et al., 2025). Constructivism argues that learners learn knowledge through social interaction rather than just receiving information (Vygotsky, 1978), and connectivism focuses on learning in digital age, where knowledge is acquired through different networks (Downes, 2012). Thus, the rise of AI in education is not simply about technological novelty, but about fundamentally changing how teaching, feedback, and learning can occur in more interactive and personalised ways.

Given these broader educational applications, English language education presents particular affordances for AI integration. The features of English language teaching and learning, which demands instant and personalised feedback, spontaneous interaction, and continuous autonomous practice, make AI a particularly valuable tool. One of the most common issues in language teaching and learning is the lack of quality feedback in speaking and writing activities (Ellis, 2009; Lyster & Saito, 2010). Both speaking and writing skills require timely and targeted corrective feedback to support effective language development. In speaking, learners often struggle with fluency and accuracy due to limited exposure to real-life English and the absence of immediate corrective input, which can hinder the development of communicative competence (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Mackey, 2012; Lyster & Saito, 2010). Similarly, writing is a complex skill that involves not only grammatical accuracy but also coherence, cohesion, and rhetorical awareness, making immediate guidance particularly valuable (Ferris, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2019). Empirical studies indicate that generic or delayed feedback is less effective, whereas focused, formative feedback helps learners notice and repair errors, reinforcing language forms and facilitating long-term retention (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ellis et al., 2006; Polio & Shea, 2014). In contexts where students may have limited opportunities to practise English outside the classroom, timely feedback is critical for guiding learners in applying linguistic and rhetorical conventions in both spoken and written forms. AI, including GenAI, provides a powerful tool to address this issue.

The rise of AI in English teaching and learning also coincides with learners' growing expectations for flexible, autonomous, and interactive language practice opportunities that extend beyond the temporal and spatial confines of formal classrooms. Research shows that

contemporary learners frequently seek mobile, personalised, on-demand tools that enable them to rehearse, refine, and experiment with language in self-directed ways (Richards, 2015; Liu & Zhao, 2026). Together, these developments illustrate that the integration of AI tools within English language education is not merely a technological innovation but a response to evolving learner expectations and pedagogical needs.

AI integration in English language teaching and learning has led to shifts in both tools and pedagogy. Literature indicates that AI applications are moving from isolated ancillary tools (e.g., grammar checkers, flashcard apps) to more integrated, interactive systems that facilitate fluent speaking practice, dynamic writing revision, and multilingual communication support (Kristiawan et al., 2024). For instance, learner-generated context frameworks combined with AI systems have been developed to support autonomous English learning, allowing students to set their own objectives and receive context-sensitive scaffolding (Lee et al., 2025). Meanwhile, reviews show that key research hotspots in AI-English language teaching now include Gen AI chatbots, prompt-driven writing assistance, and personalised speaking simulators rather than simply classification or correction tools. This pedagogical shift means that language teachers are increasingly required to reposition their roles: from sole deliverers of language input to facilitators of human-AI-learner interactions and ethical moderators of AI use in learning contexts (Lee et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2025).

English language teachers and learners benefit from understanding the available AI applications and their primary functions. Extant literature highlights several AI tools that target specific language skills and facilitate personalised, interactive, and adaptive learning experiences (Daud et al., 2025; Kristiawan et al., 2024). For speaking skills, the most widely used applications are Duolingo, Replika, ELSA Speak, AI-speak, and Google's Speech-to-Text API. To improve writing skills, Grammarly and large language model-based tools (such as ChatGPT) serve as writing co-pilots to assist in the composition process (Hsiao et al., 2023; Mekheimer, 2025). For vocabulary acquisition, Quizlet exemplifies AI-supported tools that facilitate customised vocabulary learning. Beyond individual skill-focused applications, Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS) and adaptive learning platforms represent more comprehensive approaches to AI-assisted language learning. These AI tools and applications have the potential to complement traditional classroom instruction and support learners in achieving more effective language development outcomes. The following section will explicitly discuss the opportunities that AI offers in English teaching and learning.

Opportunities presented by AI in English language education

AI has emerged as a transformative force in English language education, offering unprecedented opportunities for both innovative pedagogical practices and personalised learning. Recent systematic reviews (2015–2024) consistently highlight AI's potential to enhance personalisation, engagement, and efficiency in language teaching and learning, while

simultaneously reshaping teachers' roles (Crompton et al., 2024; Daud et al., 2025; Kundu & Bej, 2025).

Enhancement of pedagogical practices

AI integration enables educators to move beyond routine administrative tasks toward more creative and learner-centred practices. One of the most significant benefits is administrative efficiency: AI systems can automate grading, attendance tracking, resource collection, and feedback generation, reducing teacher workload and freeing time for higher-order instructional activities (Daud et al., 2025). For example, automated essay scoring and grammar-checking tools such as Grammarly allow teachers to focus on discourse-level features and critical thinking rather than surface-level errors, by quickly identifying grammar, punctuation, and spelling mistakes (Ekizoğlu & Demir, 2025).

Beyond efficiency, AI enhances teaching capabilities by providing granular insights into learner performance. Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS) exemplify this capacity. These systems analyse learner performance in real time and adjust instructional content according to individual proficiency levels, providing targeted scaffolding, personalised learning paths, and ongoing progress monitoring (Bibauw et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2023; Slavuj et al., 2015). Such differentiated instruction enables teachers to design lessons that respond to individual learner needs rather than relying on uniform approaches. Recent studies emphasise that data-driven personalisation supports learner-centred language instruction and can respond to diverse learner needs in EAL contexts (Daud et al., 2025; Liu & Zhao, 2026). By integrating feedback across multiple language domains - reading, writing, speaking, and listening - ITS platforms facilitate sustained, autonomous learning while allowing teachers to focus on higher-order instructional activities.

AI also facilitates innovative pedagogical approaches. Teachers can leverage AI-generated analytics to implement adaptive learning strategies and scaffold complex skills. Platforms like Duolingo and Babbel employ machine learning algorithms to adjust content dynamically, while GenAI tools such as ChatGPT, Co-pilot and Gemini assist in creating authentic communicative tasks and lesson materials (Al-khresheh, 2024). These affordances position educators as facilitators of critical engagement rather than mere transmitters of knowledge, signalling a paradigm shift in teacher roles (Almegren et al., 2025).

Personalised learning

Beyond these pedagogical enhancements, AI creates extensive opportunities for learners across multiple dimensions of language acquisition. Personalised learning is perhaps the most widely documented benefit. Adaptive algorithms in platforms such as Duolingo and Rosetta Stone tailor lessons to individual proficiency levels, creating situational learning plans that reduce

cognitive overload and enhance motivation (Jegede, 2024). This personalisation extends to multimodal skill development, with AI optimising learning across speaking, writing, reading, and listening.

AI also promotes enhanced engagement through gamification and interactivity. Learners often report feeling more relaxed when interacting with machines, which fosters low-anxiety environments conducive to risk-taking and experimentation (Wei, 2023). Gamified platforms sustain motivation by incorporating rewards, challenges, and progress tracking, while conversational agents simulate authentic dialogues, offering learners opportunities for extended practice without fear of judgment (Salmanova, 2025).

GenAI offers skill-specific opportunities in language learning, particularly in the productive skills of speaking and writing. For speaking skills, applications such as Replika, ELSA Speak, AI-speak, and Google's Speech-to-Text API provide learners with opportunities to engage in simulated, real-time conversations, addressing common limitations in classroom contexts, such as the lack of access to native speakers and insufficient oral practice time (Dai & Wu, 2025; Kristiawan et al., 2024). These tools use natural language processing and AI-driven feedback to improve pronunciation, fluency, and conversational competence.

In terms of writing skills, AI-powered systems like Grammarly provide immediate, automated feedback on grammar, vocabulary, coherence, and style, enabling learners to identify and correct errors in real time while also developing metacognitive awareness (Giray, 2024; Kristiawan et al., 2024; Wilson & Roscoe, 2019). Beyond Grammarly, large language model-based tools (such as ChatGPT) are now being explored in second-language classrooms for their potential to generate writing prompts, provide feedback, and act as co-pilots in the writing process (Hsiao et al., 2023; Mekheimer, 2025). Such systems not only reduce the burden on teachers by automating feedback, but also help learners internalise correct forms, expand lexical and rhetorical range, and develop self-regulation strategies for independent writing. Vocabulary acquisition also benefits from AI-driven spaced repetition systems, exemplified by Quizlet, which enhances retention through adaptive quizzes and personalised review cycles (Jegede, 2024). By incorporating spaced repetition, interactive games, and adaptive testing, Quizlet allows learners to retain vocabulary more effectively and practise in a context-sensitive manner, supporting both recognition and productive use (Gu, 2025; Kristiawan et al., 2024).

AI also supports autonomous learning by offering feedback and guidance with minimal teacher intervention. Intelligent Tutoring Systems provide structured learning paths and progress monitoring, while conversational agents such as Replika simulate human dialogue for conversational practice, promoting fluency and pragmatic competence (Peña-Acuña & Durão, 2024). Importantly, these tools deliver immediate feedback, allowing learners to correct errors in real time and engage in continuous improvement without waiting for teacher input (Jegede, 2024).

Recent empirical evidence reinforces these benefits. Studies report significant improvements in language proficiency, motivation, and self-regulated learning among learners using AI-

mediated instruction compared to traditional methods (Kundu & Bej, 2025; Wei, 2023). Learners consistently rate personalisation and instant feedback as highly beneficial, with 80% citing increased enjoyment and engagement (Jegede, 2024). However, most findings remain qualitative, and longitudinal research is needed to assess the sustainability of these outcomes. Overall, the opportunities afforded by AI are underpinned by diverse technological approaches, including machine learning, neural networks, natural language processing, and GenAI. These technologies enable core functions such as simulating human intelligence, automating feedback, and creating personalised learning contexts. In English language pedagogy, AI offers enhanced teaching capabilities and support for innovative pedagogical practices. By addressing individual students' learning needs, AI provides personalised learning, differentiated feedback, autonomous practice, and increased engagement (Jegede, 2024; Kundu & Bej, 2025; Wei, 2023). Collectively, these affordances signal a paradigm shift toward more adaptive, data-driven, and learner-centred models of English language education.

In the Australian context, English learners vary greatly in terms of age, social, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds. To cater for these students' language learning needs, AI is particularly valuable for supplementing teacher-led instruction and offering alternative solutions to ensure all learners receive personalised, high-quality, and immediate feedback. This supports inclusive education and promotes equitable language learning outcomes (Li & Hegelheimer, 2013; Goh & Vandergrift, 2021).

Challenges and risks in using AI in English language education

While the potential benefits of AI in English language education are substantial, they are accompanied by important caveats that warrant careful consideration. Increasing concerns over its challenges and risks are discussed in recent literature, including academic integrity, over-reliance on AI and the erosion of student capabilities, quality of AI responses, digital divide, privacy issues, and the need for teacher capacity building (Balalle & Pannilage, 2025; Kostka & Toncelli, 2023). This section discusses these issues in detail.

Academic integrity

A significant body of literature has identified academic integrity as one of the most pressing issues caused by integrating AI, particularly GenAI, in education generally and language education particularly (Cotton et al., 2024; Lodge et al., 2025; Sarfo, 2023). With more GenAI tools being created and deployed, teachers and institutions increasingly worry that GenAI can provide students with instant responses to tasks they are supposed to complete, leaving little opportunity for genuine learning (Cotton et al., 2024). If assessment tasks are not supervised or invigilated, it becomes difficult to ensure that students are completing the work themselves (Lodge et al., 2025). Specifically, ChatGPT, a popular GenAI tool released in 2022, was referred to as high-tech plagiarism that could not be detected by traditional plagiarism detection

tools like Turnitin (Sarfo, 2023). This concern has prompted fears that GenAI could threaten the future of education and undermine the teaching profession (Weissman, 2023).

In English language education, research has identified multiple reasons for student dishonesty when using AI, particularly GenAI tools, including poor learning motivation and attitude, lack of ideas, insufficient knowledge and AI skills, achievement pressure, and inadequate linguistic skills and resources (Cong-Lem et al., 2024). While these motivations to cheat may have existed prior to AI, Gen AI tools have exacerbated them through their ease of access and availability. Avsheniuk et al. (2025) found that students could submit AI-generated work with minimal personal input or critical analysis, leading to plagiarism in tasks involving vocabulary, grammar, and case study activities.

On a positive note, the academic integrity risks posed by GenAI are increasingly viewed as a catalyst for innovation in teaching, learning, and assessment. Lodge et al. (2025) emphasised that learners' identity must be reflected in assessment tasks to ensure genuine evidence of learning. In response, institutions are adopting "structured approaches that address academic integrity concerns and longer-term implications for learning, teaching and assessment design" (Lodge et al., 2025, p. 1). Similarly, Corbin et al. (2025) called for a shift toward structural assessment redesign in which validity is embedded within the assessment task itself rather than relying solely on educating students about appropriate GenAI use or student compliance with institutional rules. In English language education, this means learning and assessment tasks should be modified or redesigned to ensure that AI cannot replace the learner's own thinking, performance, or language use. Examples include assessing drafts, reflections, notes, in-class language production, and real-time demonstrations of language ability.

Over-reliance and its impacts on student skill development and interaction

Although AI tools have the potential to support learning through interactive teaching, personalised learning, and enhanced accessibility (Nguyen et al., 2024), literature highlights significant concerns about students' over-reliance on AI and its negative impacts on skill development and interaction. Studies show that English language students may become overly dependent on AI, relying on it more than on their own abilities (Edmett et al., 2023; Crompton et al., 2024; Avsheniuk et al., 2025). There is growing concern that when students believe AI can communicate for them, learning English becomes unnecessary (Edmett et al., 2023). This dependency poses the risks of students lacking motivation to learn the language themselves and lose confidence without AI assistance (Crompton et al., 2024). In a mixed-method study, Avsheniuk et al. (2025) found that participating students relied heavily on AI tools to complete language learning tasks such as vocabulary, grammar, and case study activities. Additionally, Gusman et al. (2024) noted that limited language exposure and lack of human interaction result from AI overuse among students in English language learning.

Over-reliance on AI tools may negatively affect language acquisition and the development of other essential skills such as independent learning, problem-solving, and critical thinking.

Nguyen et al. (2024) emphasise that such over-reliance negatively impacts students' interaction during class. Avsheniuk et al. (2025) similarly found that students' over-reliance on AI during group work tasks in English language classes limits genuine peer interaction and impedes the development of communication and collaborative skills, which impacts their ability to respond in real-time scenarios. Notably, students themselves recognise the risks of losing authentic interaction and genuine emotion when engaging with AI compared to human interaction (Al-khresheh, 2024; Viktorivna et al., 2022). These findings underscore the need for a careful pedagogical approach that guides students to avoid overusing AI in their learning, both during and outside the classroom, and to balance AI and human interaction.

Quality of AI responses

Another significant challenge identified in the literature concerns the quality of AI responses. Crompton et al. (2024) reported technical issues with AI tools, including technology malfunctions and limited capabilities leading to incorrect answers or unnatural interactions. Technology breakdowns refer to technical malfunctions and poor connectivity that result in incorrect output and compromise the trustworthiness and reliability of AI responses (Crompton et al., 2024; Edmett et al., 2023). Similarly, Zhou and Hou (2025) reported challenges associated with the accuracy and timeliness of AI responses, calling for proactive and critical approaches from teachers and learners. Additionally, AI tools may standardise languages and ideologies or introduce bias in their responses (Crompton et al., 2024; Edmett et al., 2023; Essien et al., 2024). For example, AI responses typically promote standardised language rather than recognising language nuances and dialects (Edmett et al., 2023). This poses a significant risk – language students may learn language forms that are not used in real-life contexts. AI algorithms often lack cultural sensitivity, resulting in cultural biases that may negatively impact certain groups of students (Miao et al., 2021). The inaccuracy and bias in AI output stem partly from the fact that training data may contain misinformation and disinformation (Kostka & Toncelli, 2023). Consequently, it is crucial that English language teachers focus on developing critical evaluative skills among students, enabling them to make informed judgements about AI-generated responses.

Digital divide

Recent literature highlights widened inequity in access to AI-integrated education due to the digital divide. This divide encompasses disparities in learners' digital literacy, internet connectivity, device availability, and access to AI tools (Ahmed, 2024; Dakakni & Safa, 2023; Edmett et al., 2023; Kostka & Toncelli, 2023). Not all communities have access to AI infrastructure, resources, and the skills needed to use AI tools, particularly those from low socio-economic regions. Edmett et al. (2023) argue that AI technology companies often prioritise wealthy and elite schools, leaving government schools and students from underprivileged backgrounds with limited access to AI tools and materials. Beyond AI

infrastructure, digital literacy significantly contributes to the digital divide. Students with limited prior exposure to digital tools often struggle to navigate AI-powered learning platforms effectively (Ahmed, 2024).

As AI tools increasingly support learning outcomes, the lack of access and skills risks widening and exacerbating the digital divide in education. This may limit opportunities for disadvantaged communities to benefit from AI-driven applications (Božić, 2023) and create disparities in learning outcomes between students with access to AI-enhanced technologies and those without (Choi et al., 2023; Rebolledo Font de la Vall & Gonzalez Araya, 2023). In other words, the divide creates inequitable advantages for some students while disadvantaging others in their overall learning experience. Ahmed (2024) therefore advocates for policies and practices that promote equitable access to AI-powered education and address the uneven distribution of AI resources. For English language education in particular, integrating AI cannot proceed without sustained efforts to enhance digital literacy and infrastructure, thereby bridging the digital divide and ensuring fair opportunities for all learners. This issue requires more attention in the Australian context where English language students come from diverse cultural, language and education backgrounds.

Privacy

The deployment of AI in teaching and learning introduces significant concerns related to data privacy, as AI applications require substantial learner data collection. Hockly (2023) and Edmett et al. (2023) emphasise that AI integration in English language education raises critical privacy concerns due to the massive collection and "datafication" of student information necessary to train and refine these systems. Hockly (2023) further notes that as institutions increasingly employ AI applications and educational technology tools, they accumulate vast amounts of learner data. This raises substantial concerns about privacy and the limited transparency surrounding how these tools gather, store, and utilise such data. This issue is particularly sensitive when collecting information about minors without proper informed consent. To address this, institutions and educators should implement clear data protection policies, ensure informed consent is obtained from students and parents, and select tools that comply with privacy regulations.

Teacher readiness and capacity building

As discussed earlier, AI tools present significant opportunities for teachers to enhance their practice through improved pedagogy, learning design, and assessment design. However, literature emphasises that realising AI's potential requires equipping teachers with digital literacy and pedagogical competencies necessary for effective AI integration (Edmett et al., 2024; Peña-Acuña & Durão, 2024). This is particularly essential when there is a global call for developing different skill sets for students such as higher-order thinking skills and digital and

AI literacy (Nguyen et al., 2025). In the meantime, teachers often lack adequate training in AI integration and effective pedagogical use. Consequently, AI technologies may remain underutilised in classrooms (Selwyn & Facer, 2021), or their integration may be less effective, limiting teachers' ability to guide students in using AI appropriately (Karki & Karki, 2025). Meanwhile, students are becoming increasingly sophisticated in their use of AI, particularly GenAI tools (AlinHE, 2025), underscoring the urgent need to build teacher capacity in this domain.

This underscores the necessity for targeted professional development to enhance teachers' capacity to integrate AI and adapt their pedagogy, curriculum and assessment to help students develop the critical skills to use AI effectively, responsibly and ethically. Training opportunities such as workshops and short courses can equip teachers with the skills needed to engage confidently and pedagogically with AI-integrated education (Ahmed, 2024). Without structured training, educators risk lacking AI literacy skills, misaligning instruction with learning objectives, or becoming over-reliant on technology, all of which could undermine English language learners' engagement and critical skills development.

Moving forward: Implications for English language education practices and research

As artificial intelligence reshapes educational contexts, this paper has examined AI's transformative impact on English language education. While literature demonstrates that AI has become integral to English language education and offers substantial benefits for teaching and learning quality, it simultaneously presents new challenges and inevitable risks. With AI now ubiquitous in English teaching practices, avoiding student use of GenAI and other AI tools is neither feasible nor practical. Instead, embracing AI strategically has become essential. The key consideration for institutions and educators is to maximise AI's positive impact on teaching and learning while carefully addressing the risks it poses.

The opportunities and challenges examined in this paper have significant implications for English language education practice. Critically, AI cannot replace educators in English classrooms due to the context-specific pedagogical expertise, interaction with real people, and human judgement they bring. Rather than diminishing educators' importance, AI fundamentally redefines their role, making educators more essential than ever before. Educators become facilitators of AI-enhanced learning, guiding students to use AI tools ethically and responsibly while developing the critical competencies students need to leverage AI effectively in their learning.

In this evolving context, curriculum and pedagogy must adapt to ensure meaningful learning outcomes for English language students. This adaptation should begin with redesigning learning outcomes to extend beyond language proficiency skills and explicitly develop higher-order thinking and critical digital literacy competencies. These competencies enable students

to use AI critically, responsibly, and ethically. The integration of such learning outcomes will inform curriculum design and the pedagogical approaches educators adopt in classroom contexts. The central challenge lies in combining AI affordances, such as personalised learning, interactivity, and automated feedback, with strong pedagogical design and robust ethical safeguards.

Furthermore, institutions must fundamentally rethink English language assessment. Rather than adopting a deficit-focused model that emphasises policing student use of AI, assessment design should leverage formative, task-based, and competency-based approaches to ensure students demonstrate achievement of intended learning outcomes. Traditional summative assessment such as essay writing may not be cheat-proof in an AI-enabled context, making redesign both necessary and urgent.

To support these systemic changes, institutions must establish comprehensive support systems for educators navigating new pedagogical demands. Educator capacity building is central to this architecture. English language educators should proactively develop skills for embedding AI meaningfully and appropriately into their teaching. Institutions can support this transition by providing targeted professional learning opportunities that enhance educators' AI literacy and capacity to adopt AI in pedagogically sound ways.

The integration of AI in English language education in Australia has significant implications, particularly given the country's highly diverse educational landscape. As noted in the introduction, English language learning contexts in Australia encompass a wide range of programs, including the AMEP, EAL support in mainstream schools, and international student pathway programs such as ELICOS. This diversity reflects the provision of English language education to learners from varied linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds. Within this context, AI-powered tools offer valuable opportunities for personalised learning, adaptive instruction, and real-time feedback, which can help address differing proficiency levels and learning needs. However, these benefits are accompanied by notable challenges, including the risk of widening the digital divide among learners with unequal access to technology, as well as potential mismatches between AI-generated language models and the sociolinguistic realities of multicultural Australian classrooms. These challenges are particularly evident in AMEP contexts, where some learners may have limited literacy and restricted access to digital technologies (Ahmed et al., 2025; Motevali Zadeh Ardakani et al., 2024; Tour et al., 2023). Furthermore, increased reliance on AI raises concerns regarding the maintenance of culturally responsive pedagogy and the extent to which diverse learner identities and communicative practices are adequately represented. Therefore, while AI demonstrates transformative potential, its implementation in Australia must be carefully aligned with inclusive, equitable, and context-sensitive approaches to English language education.

Finally, maximising AI's benefits in English language education will require coordinated action across educator capacity building, institutional infrastructure, developer practices, and research-informed policy. This paper recognises that key stakeholders beyond educators, including AI application developers and researchers, play critical roles in enhancing the quality

of English language teaching and learning. AI developers must address common concerns including data privacy, recognition of linguistic variation (non-native accents, dialects), equitable access to AI for learners in under-developed regions, and algorithmic bias. Researchers' role is critical to understanding the impact of AI on English language teaching and learning as well as what works and does not work. Meanwhile, empirical classroom-level and longitudinal research on these aspects in the Australian contexts remains limited. Therefore, practice-based and longitudinal studies are urgently needed to inform institutional policies and guidance for teachers and students alike in the fast-changing landscape of AI in English language education.

Acknowledgements

We acknowledge the use of Deakin Gem, an AI tool, for proofreading, and Elicit for sourcing relevant information.

References

- Ahmed, F. (2024). The digital divide and AI in education: Addressing equity and accessibility. *AI EDIFY Journal*, 1(2), 12–23. <https://researchcorridor.org/index.php/aiej/article/view/259/248>
- Ahmed, S., van Kooy, J., & Andersson, C. (2025). *English language skills of humanitarian migrants in Australia* (Policy brief). Australian Institute of Family Studies.
- AIinHE (2025). Students' perspectives on AI in Higher Education. Project by Monash University, The University of Queensland, Deakin University, UTS. <https://doi.org/10.26180/27915930>
- Al-khreshehm, M. (2024). The future of artificial intelligence in English language teaching: Pros and cons of ChatGPT implementation through a systematic review. *Language Teaching Research Quarterly*, 43, 54-80. <https://doi.org/10.32038/ltrq.2024.43.04>
- Almegren, A., Almegren, R. M., Hazaea, A. N., Mahdi, H. S., & Mohammed Ali, J. K. (2025). AI powered ELT: Instructors' transformative roles and opportunities. *PLoS ONE*, 20(5), e0324910. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0324910>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2025, April 30). *Australia's population by country of birth, June 2024*. <https://www.abs.gov.au/statistics/people/population/australias-population-country-birth/latest-release>
- Australian Council of TESOL Associations. (2021, October). *How many English as an Additional Language or Dialect (EAL/D) learners are there in Australian schools?* ACTA. <https://tesol.org.au/how-many-english-as-an-additional-language-or-dialect-eal-d-learners-are-there-in-australian-schools/>
- Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (Accessed on February 12, 2026). *Meeting the needs of students for whom English is an additional language or dialect*. Australian Curriculum. <https://v8.australiancurriculum.edu.au/resources/student->

[diversity/meeting-the-needs-of-students-for-whom-english-is-an-additional-language-or-dialect/](#)

- Australian Government Department of Home Affairs. (Accessed on February 12, 2026). *Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP)*. <https://immi.homeaffairs.gov.au/settling-in-australia/amep/overview>
- Avsheniuk, N., Seminikhyna, N., Ruban, L., & Sviatiuk, Y. (2025). Exploring overreliance on AI tools in English for specific purposes courses: Challenges and implications for learning and academic integrity. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)* Special Issue on Artificial Intelligence: 3- 20. <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/AI.1>
- Balalle, H., & Pannilage, S. (2025). Reassessing academic integrity in the age of AI: A systematic literature review on AI and academic integrity. *Social Sciences & Humanities Open*, 11, 101299. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssaho.2025.101299>
- Bibauw, S., Van den Noortgate, W., François, T., & Desmet, P. (2022). Dialogue systems for language learning: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning & Technology*, 26(1), 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.64152/10125/73488>
- Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. R. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing*. Routledge.
- Bonard Education. (2024, July 10). *Australia's ELT sector recovered in 2023 but warns of losses from current policies*. <https://www.bonardeducation.com/media/australias-elt-sector-recovered-in-2023-but-warns-of-losses-from-current-policies>
- Bordas, A., Le Masson, P., Thomas, M., & Weil, B. (2024). What is generative in generative artificial intelligence? A design-based perspective. *Research in Engineering Design*, 35, 427–443. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00163-024-00441-x>
- Božić, V. (2023). Artificial intelligence as the reason and the solution of digital divide. *Language Education and Technology*, 3(2).
- Choi, E. P. H., Lee, J. J., Ho, M. S., Kwok, J. Y. Y., & Lok, C. Y. W. (2023). Chatting or cheating? The impacts of ChatGPT and other artificial intelligence language models on nurse education. *Nurse Education Today*, 125, 105796. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2023.105796>
- Cong-Lem, N., Tran, T. N., & Nguyen, T. T. (2024). Academic integrity in the age of generative AI: Perceptions and responses of Vietnamese EFL teachers. *Teaching English with Technology*, 24(1), 28–47. <https://doi.org/10.56297/FSYB3031/MXNB7567>
- Corbin, T., Dawson, P., & Liu, D. (2025). Talk is cheap: Why structural assessment changes are needed for a time of GenAI. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 50(7), 1087–1097. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2025.2503964>
- Cotton, D. R. E., Cotton, P. A., & Shipway, J. R. (2024). Chatting and cheating: Ensuring academic integrity in the era of ChatGPT. *Innovations in Education & Teaching International*, 61(2), 228–239. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2023.2190148>
- Crompton, H., Edmett, A., Ichaporia, N., & Burke, D. (2024). AI and English language teaching: Affordances and challenges. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 55(6), 2503–2529. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.13460>

- Dakakni, D., & Safa, N. (2023). Artificial intelligence in the L2 classroom: Implications and challenges on ethics and equity in higher education: A 21st century Pandora's box. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*, 5, 100179. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2023.100179>
- Dai, L., & Wu, F. (2025). An AI-powered conversational system for college students learning English as a second language. *Education and Information Technologies*, 30, 23393–23417. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-025-13640-3>
- Daud, A., Aulia, A. F., Muryanti, M., Harfal, Z., Nabilla, O., & Ali, H. S. (2025). Integrating artificial intelligence into English language teaching: A systematic review. *European Journal of Educational Research*, 14(2), 677–691. <https://doi.org/10.12973/eu-jer.14.2.677>
- Downes, S. (2012). *Connectivism and connective knowledge: Essays on meaning and learning networks*. National Research Council Canada.
- Edmett, A., Ichaporia, N., Crompton, H., & Crichton, R. (2023). Artificial intelligence and English language teaching: Preparing for the future. British Council. <https://doi.org/10.57884/78EA-3C69>
- Ekizoğlu, M., Demir, A.N. The role of AI assisted writing feedback in developing secondary students writing skills. *Discovery Education*, 4, 454 (2025). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44217-025-00919-3>
- Ellis, R. (2009). A typology of written corrective feedback types. *ELT journal*, 63(2), 97-107.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 339–368. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S02722263106060141>
- Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research*. Routledge.
- Essien, A., Bukoye, O. T., O'Dea, X., & Kremantzis, M. (2024). The influence of AI text generators on critical thinking skills in UK business schools. *Studies in Higher Education*, 49(5), 865–882. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2024.2316881>
- Ferris, D. R. (2003). *Response to student writing: Implications for second language students*. Routledge.
- García Peñalvo, F. J., & Vázquez Ingelmo, A. (2023). What do we mean by GenAI? A systematic mapping of the evolution, trends, and techniques involved in generative AI. *International Journal of Interactive Multimedia and Artificial Intelligence*, 8(4), 7–16. <https://doi.org/10.9781/ijimai.2023.07.006>.
- Garzón, J., Patiño, E., & Marulanda, C. (2025). Systematic review of artificial intelligence in education: Trends, benefits, and challenges. *Multimodal Technologies and Interaction*, 9(8), 84. <https://doi.org/10.3390/mti9080084>
- Giray, L. (2024). "Don't let Grammarly overwrite your style and voice:" Writers' advice on using Grammarly in writing. *Internet Reference Services Quarterly*, 28(3), 293–303. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10875301.2024.2344762>

- Goh, C. C. M., & Vandergrift, L. (2021). *Teaching and learning second language listening: Metacognition in action* (2nd ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429287749>.
- Grimes, M., von Krogh, G., Feuerriegel, S., Rink, F., & Gruber, M. (2023). From scarcity to abundance: Scholars and scholarship in an age of generative artificial intelligence. *Academy of Management Journal*, 66(6), 1617–1624. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2023.4006>
- Gu, J. (2025). Digital tools in language learning: Optimising memory and attention for college students. *International Journal of Human–Computer Interaction*, 41(12), 7652–7662. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10447318.2024.2400384>
- Gusman, E., Gide, E., El Khodr, M., & Chaudhry, G. (2024). The benefits and challenges of using artificial intelligence in teaching English as a foreign language in higher education. In *Proceedings of the 21st International Conference on Information Technology Based Higher Education and Training (ITHET)* (pp. 1–7). <https://doi.org/10.1109/ITHET61869.2024.10837597>
- Hockly, N. (2023). Artificial intelligence in English language teaching: The good, the bad and the ugly. *RELC Journal*, 54(2), 445–451. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882231168504>
- Hsiao, Y. P., Klijn, N., & Chiu, M. S. (2023). Developing a framework to re-design writing assignment assessment for the era of large language models. *Learning: Research and Practice*, 9(2), 148–158. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23735082.2023.2257234>
- Huang, J., Saleh, S., & Liu, Y. (2021). A review on artificial intelligence in education. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 10(3), 206. <https://doi.org/10.36941/ajis-2021-0077>
- Huang, X., Zou, D., Cheng, G., Chen, X., & Xie, H. (2023). Trends, research issues and applications of artificial intelligence in language education. *Educational Technology & Society*, 26(1), 112–131. [https://doi.org/10.30191/ETS.202301_26\(1\).0009](https://doi.org/10.30191/ETS.202301_26(1).0009)
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (Eds.). (2019). *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Jegade, O. O. (2024). Artificial intelligence and English language learning: Exploring the roles of AI-driven tools in personalising learning and providing instant feedback. *Universal Library of Languages and Literatures*, 1(2), 6–19. <https://doi.org/10.70315/uloap.ullli.2024.0102002>
- Karki, B., & Karki, T. M. (2025). Integrating AI in English language teaching: Challenges and opportunities. *Dristikon: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 15(1), 13–28. <https://doi.org/10.3126/dristikon.v15i1.77118>
- Kostka, I., & Toncelli, R. (2023). Exploring applications of ChatGPT to English language teaching: Opportunities, challenges, and recommendations. *TESL-EJ*, 27(3). <https://doi.org/10.55593/ej.27107int>
- Kristiawan, D., Bashar, K., & Pradana, D. A. (2024). Artificial intelligence in English language learning: A systematic review of AI tools, applications, and pedagogical outcomes. *The Art of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TATEFL)*, 5(2), 207–218. <https://doi.org/10.36663/tatefl.v5i2.912>

- Kundu, A., & Bej, T. (2025). Transforming EFL teaching with AI: A systematic review of empirical studies. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education*, 35, 2281–2314. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40593-025-00470-0>
- Lee, S., Jeon, J., & Choe, H. (2025). Generative AI (GenAI) and pre-service teacher agency in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 79(2), 287–296. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccaf005>
- Lev Vygotsky (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.
- Li, Z., & Hegelheimer, V. (2013). Mobile-assisted grammar exercises: Effects on self-editing in L2 writing. *Language Learning & Technology*, 17(3), 135–156. <https://doi.org/10.64152/10125/44343>
- Liu, G. L., & Zhao, X. (2026). A scoping review of AI-mediated informal language learning: Mapping out the terrain and identifying future directions. *ReCALL*, 38(1), 111–130. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344025100359>
- Liu, J., Sihes, A. J. B., & Lu, Y. (2025). How do generative artificial intelligence (AI) tools and large language models (LLMs) influence language learners' critical thinking in EFL education? A systematic review. *Smart Learning Environments*, 12, Article 48. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40561-025-00406-0>
- Lodge, J. M., Bearman, M., Dawson, P., Gniel, H., Harper, R. Liu, D., McLean, J., Ucnik, L. & Associates (2025). *Enacting assessment reform in a time of artificial intelligence*. Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency, Australian Government
- Lyster, R., & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 265–302. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990520>
- Mackey, A. (2012). *Input, interaction, and corrective feedback in L2 learning*. Oxford University Press.
- Mekheimer, M. (2025). Generative AI-assisted feedback and EFL writing: A study on proficiency, revision frequency, and writing quality. *Discover Education*, 4, Article 170. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s44217-025-00602-7>
- Miao, F., Holmes, W., Huang, R., & Zhang, H. (2021). *AI and education: Guidance for policy-makers*. UNESCO. <https://doi.org/10.54675/PCSP7350>
- Motevali Zadeh Ardakani, A., Sellars, M., & Imig, S. (2024). Do you think I ever learn English? Experiences of limited technology access among Middle Eastern refugee mothers in regional Australia. *Journal for Multicultural Education*, 18(1–2), 114–125. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JME-10-2023-0104>
- Nguyen, A., Duong, A. T., Nguyen, D. T. B., Lai, V. T. T., & Dang, B. (2025). Guidelines for learning design and assessment for generative artificial intelligence-integrated education: A unified view. *Information and Learning Sciences*, 126 (7-8), 491–512. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ILS-11-2024-0148>
- Nguyen, A., Kremantzis, M., Essien, A., Petrounias, I., & Hosseini, S. (2024). Enhancing student engagement through artificial intelligence (AI): Understanding the basics,

- opportunities, and challenges. *Journal of University Teaching & Learning Practice*, 21(6). <https://doi.org/10.53761/caraaq92>
- Peña-Acuña, B., & Corga Fernandes Durão, R. (2024, November). Learning English as a second language with artificial intelligence for prospective teachers: a systematic review. In *Frontiers in education* (Vol. 9, p. 1490067). Frontiers Media SA.
- Polio, C., & Shea, M. C. (2014). An investigation into current measures of linguistic accuracy in second language writing research. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 26, 10–27. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.09.003>
- Rebolledo Font de la Vall, R., & Gonzalez Araya, F. (2023). Exploring the benefits and challenges of AI-language learning tools. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Invention*, 10(1). <https://doi.org/10.18535/ijsshi/v10i01.02>
- Richards, J. C. (2015). The changing face of language learning: Learning beyond the classroom. *RELC Journal*, 46(1), 5–22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688214561621>
- Salmanova, S. (2025). Gamification and AI in language learning – A new era of digital education. *Acta Globalis Humanitatis et Linguarum*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.69760/aghel.02500134>
- Sarfo, J. O. (2023). Artificial intelligence chatbot—ChatGPT and high-tech plagiarism concerns in a digital age: Is detection possible? *Journal of Advocacy, Research and Education*, 10(2), 55–58. <https://doi.org/10.13187/jare.2023.2.55>
- Selwyn, N., & Facer, K. (2021). *Digital technology and the futures of education: Towards “non-stupid” optimism*. UNESCO. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000377071>
- Sengar, S. S., Hasan, A. B., Kumar, S., & Carroll, F. (2025). Generative artificial intelligence: A systematic review and applications. *Multimedia Tools and Applications*, 84, 23661–23700. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11042-024-20016-1>
- Slavuj, V., Kovačić, B., & Jugo, I. (2015). Intelligent tutoring systems for language learning. In *2015 38th International Convention on Information and Communication Technology, Electronics and Microelectronics (MIPRO)* (pp. 814–819). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/MIPRO.2015.7160383>
- Tour, E., Creely, E., Waterhouse, P., Pham, X., Henderson, M., & Wallace, M. (2023). Navigating challenging digital literacy practices: The settlement experiences of adults from migrant and refugee backgrounds. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 73(4), 422–441. <https://doi.org/10.1177/07417136231180867>
- Viktorivna, K. L., Oleksandrovych, V. A., Oleksandrivna, K. I., & Oleksandrivna, K. N. (2022). Artificial intelligence in language learning: What are we afraid of. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Special Issue on CALL*, 8, 262–273. <https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/call8.18>
- Wang, J., & Fan, W. (2025). The effect of ChatGPT on students' learning performance, learning perception, and higher-order thinking: Insights from a meta-analysis. *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications*, 12, Article 621. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41599-025-04787-y>

- Wang, S., Wang, F., Zhu, Z., Wang, J., Tran, T., & Du, Z. (2024). Artificial intelligence in education: A systematic literature review. *Expert systems with applications*, 252, 1-19 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2024.124167>
- Wei, L. (2023). Artificial intelligence in language instruction: Impact on English learning achievement, L2 motivation, and self-regulated learning. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14, Article 1261955. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1261955>
- Weissman, J. (2023, February 8). ChatGPT is a plague upon education (opinion). *Inside Higher Ed*. <https://www.insidehighered.com/views/2023/02/09/chatgpt-plague-upon-education-opinion>
- Wilson, J., & Roscoe, R. D. (2019). Automated writing evaluation and feedback: Multiple metrics of efficacy. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 58(1), 87–125. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0735633119830764>
- Zawacki-Richter, O., Marín, V. I., Bond, M., & Gouverneur, F. (2019). Systematic review of research on artificial intelligence applications in higher education: Where are the educators? *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 16, Article 39. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-019-0171-0>
- Zhou, C., & Hou, F. (2025). How do EFL teachers utilise AI tools in their language teaching? *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 15(2). <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1502.10>
-

Dr Yingmei Luo is a Lecturer in the School of Education at Deakin University. She completed her PhD at Deakin University, with a focus on TESOL pedagogy in intercultural contexts. Yingmei has extensive experience as a language teacher and educator in both China and Australia. Her research interests include TESOL pedagogy, Chinese students' overseas learning experiences, discourse studies, internationalisation of education, and the integration of technology in English language teaching.

Dr Diep Nguyen is a Lecturer in the School of Education at Deakin University. She completed her PhD in Education at Deakin. Diep has worked in higher education for 20 years, bringing in extensive teaching and research experience across Australian and Vietnamese contexts at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Her research focuses on teacher capacity building, English-medium instruction (EMI), international education, international student engagement, and the use of artificial intelligence in education.

Dr Van Thi Thanh Lai is a Lecturer in the School of Languages and Tourism at Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam. She holds a PhD in TESOL from Monash University, Australia, and has extensive experience in English language education in both Vietnam and Australia. Her research interests include intercultural communication, intercultural competence development, English language education, teacher professional development, and the use of artificial intelligence in education.