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Editorial

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We are pleased to present this new issue of the Education and Learning Research Journal – GiST. This edition covers three main topics: the impact of English in a content class, the knowledges and competences required for pre-service language teachers, and the pedagogical uses of technological devices to foster skills. Our first contribution by **Maíz**, from Spain, describes how university lectures can take a different shape in terms of the type of questions posed when using English as a medium of instruction, instead of Spanish. For bilingual contexts, this study is really useful at underlining how teachers and students' use of questions varies depending on the language used for instruction.

The second topic concerning the articles, initial teacher education, is a key element in the advancement of the countries, since teachers are the ones who help to cultivate new generations of subjects able to respond to the increasing demands of society, such as the development of informed citizenship, the adaptation to multilingual and multicultural societies, and the talent to take advantage of an ever-changing technological world. Therefore, many professors in initial language education programmes are inquiring about the body of knowledge that might compose the education of pre-service teachers.

Arias-Cepeda and **Rojas** delve into Linguistics as one of the foundational disciplines of Foreign Language Teaching, but whose didactics has not been frequently explored. Therefore, they share some partial results of a study aiming to re-interpret the role of this discipline in the curriculum of a Bilingual Education Programme and the advantages it could offer to future English teachers.

Another concern in relation to teacher education is the way in which we can foster research competences. In this line of thought, **Camacho** looks into French theory, specifically Deleuze and Guattari's *Logic of Sense* and their notions of experimentation, in combination with inquiry-learning, to support research and argumentation skills to further the construction of teachers as transformative intellectuals.

Burgin and **Daniel** also approach a common subject of interest for teacher educators, which is how to address multilingual and multicultural contexts, in this case, represented by indigenous

communities in Ecuador. This study exemplifies the emergent interest in Latin American countries in how to promote local practices in relation to foreign language teaching which better respond to contextual educational needs.

Becoming a transformative intellectual who inquires about ways to respond to local needs also implies being able to communicate research findings to local and international academic communities, action which is mostly done through academic writing. Therefore, **Marulanda** and **Martínez** decided to take a multi-strategy integrated approach to strengthen this skill with a group of pre-service teachers.

To close with this common thread of language teacher education, **Bautista** shares a review of Kumaravadivelu's key work *Understanding Language Teaching. From Method to Postmethod*, which has been paramount in encouraging new language pedagogies aiming to identify and respond to local needs, to foster the professionalization of language teaching – instead of its categorization as art and craft –; and to analyse how wider educational issues, such as political, economic and social phenomena impinge on language teaching.

Finally, two of the articles in this issue demonstrate how professors are trying to make the most of technological tools by combining them with a pedagogical basis. This is the case of **Devia** and **García** who explored podcasting along with collaborative learning to promote oral skills in a group of tenth graders from a public school. Also, **Celis**, **Onatra** and **Zubieta** decided to use educational videos in combination with affective learning to help vocabulary learning in a group of fifth graders.

It is our hope that this edition serves to encourage fellow members in the educational community to share results of their projects and to bring about new research that helps to strengthen our network and to contribute to the work being done in schools and universities.

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Research Articles

Questions in English as a Medium of Instruction versus non-English as a Medium of Instruction Lectures[1]

Las preguntas en clases magistrales impartidas en inglés como medio de instrucción (EMI) frente a las clases no impartidas en inglés como medio de instrucción (non EMI)

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Abstract

University lectures are by far the most common method of teaching at Spanish universities. More recently, however, this knowledge transmission has become increasingly interactive. Students' participation and verbal output becomes especially important in classes where the language of instruction is not the students' mother tongue but a second or foreign language such as English since it gives them the opportunity to produce output in that second language. One of the ways to allow for students to participate is the lecturer's use of questions. The aim of this study is to compare the same lecturer's use of questions in her mother tongue or L1 (Spanish) versus her lectures in English (L2). More specifically, I intended to answer the following research question: Is the frequency and type of questions affected by the language of instruction (Spanish vs. English)? It is hypothesized that questions will be more frequent in English so as to boost verbal interaction between the lecturer and the students and allow them to produce verbal output in English. To test this hypothesis, a group of six lectures by the same lecturer (3 in English and 3 in Spanish) was analyzed, involving two groups of students taking the same subject albeit in one of these two languages. According to expectations, results show that English lectures display a slightly higher frequency of questions than those in Spanish.

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However, a qualitative analysis also reflects interesting aspects of the type (and characteristics) of questions in English.

Key words: Questions, English as medium of instruction (EMI), Tertiary education

Resumen

La clase magistral sigue siendo el método más común de enseñanza en las universidades españolas. Sin embargo, se ha experimentado un giro hacia una transmisión de conocimientos más interactiva en los últimos tiempos. La participación y producción oral de los alumnos cobra mayor relevancia cuando las clases se imparten en una lengua diferente (L2) a la lengua materna de los alumnos (L1), ya que se les da la oportunidad de emplear dicha L2 en un contexto más oral. Una de las maneras en que se permite participar a los estudiantes es el uso de preguntas por parte del profesor. Este estudio tiene como objeto comparar el uso de tales preguntas por parte de un profesor en clases impartidas tanto en su L1 (español) como en la L2 (inglés). Más concretamente, mi objetivo es dar respuesta a la siguiente pregunta: ¿se ven la frecuencia y el tipo de preguntas afectadas por el idioma empleado para impartir la clase (L1 frente a L2)? Mi hipótesis es que las preguntas serán más frecuentes en L2 con el fin de potenciar la interacción verbal entre el docente y sus estudiantes, permitiéndoles una mayor producción oral en inglés. Para testar dicha hipótesis, se analizó un grupo de seis clases magistrales impartidas por la misma profesora (3 en inglés y 3 en español) y recibidas por dos grupos de alumnos que cursan la misma asignatura, pero en uno de estos dos idiomas. Los resultados muestran que, parcialmente de acuerdo con lo esperado, las clases en L2 despliegan una proporción de preguntas algo mayor que las impartidas en L1. Sin embargo, un análisis de tipo más cualitativo también refleja interesantes conclusiones sobre el tipo (y las características) de las preguntas en L2.

Palabras clave: Preguntas, Inglés como medio de instrucción, educación universitaria

Resumo

A aula presencial continua sendo o método mais comum de ensino nas universidades espanholas. Porém, recentemente ocorreu uma virada com relação à transmissão de conhecimentos mais interativa. A participação e produção oral dos alunos adquire uma maior relevância quando as aulas são transmitidas em uma língua diferente (L2) da língua materna dos alunos (L1), posto que se dá pra eles a oportunidade de empregar a L2 em um contexto mais oral. Uma das maneiras em que os estudantes têm autorização de participar é com uso de perguntas por parte do professor. Este estudo tem o objetivo de comparar o uso de tais perguntas por parte de um professor em aulas transmitidas tanto na sua L1 (espanhol) quanto na L2 (inglês). Com mais exatidão, o meu objetivo é responder a pergunta a seguir: observa-se a frequência e o tipo de perguntas afetadas pelo idioma empregado para dar a aula (L1 diante da L2)? A minha

hipótese é que as perguntas ocorrerão com mais frequência em L2, com o fim de potenciar a interação verbal entre o docente e seus estudantes, permitindo-lhes uma maior produção oral em inglês. Para testar essa hipótese, foi analisado um grupo de seis aulas presenciais transmitidas pela mesma professora (3 em inglês e 3 em espanhol) e recebidas por dois grupos de alunos que cursam a mesma disciplina, mas em um destes dois idiomas. Os resultados sinalam que, parcialmente de acordo com o esperado, as aulas em L2 desdobram uma proporção de perguntas algo maior que as transmitidas em L1. Embora isso, uma análise de tipo mais qualitativa também reflete interessantes conclusões sobre o tipo (e as características) das perguntas em L2.

Palavras Chave: Perguntas, inglês como meio de instrução, educação universitária

Introduction

University lectures are by far the most common method of teaching at university level. This is usually the case in Spanish universities where lectures are the traditional, cost-effective and most practical way of transmitting information to large numbers of undergraduates. In recent decades, however, this knowledge transmission has experienced a change from a more monological nature towards a more interactive, conversational style where both the lecturer and the students co-construct the discourse (Ferris and Tagg, 1996; Flowerdew, 1994; Hyland, 2009; Morell, 2004, 2007; Sánchez García, 2016, among others) even if the control of the conversational floor still lies in the lecturer's hands. In Northcott's (2001, pp. 19-20) words, an interactive lecture can be defined as:

> A classroom learning event for a large (more than 20) group of students primarily controlled and led by a lecturer and including subject input from the lecturer but also including varying degrees and types of oral participation by students.

More recent studies on academic spoken discourse also reveal that interaction helps develop a good rapport between the lecturer and students; therefore, creating a more relaxing atmosphere that enhances participation by the latter (Crawford Camiciottoli, 2004; Fortanet, 2004; Morell, 2004a, 2004b, 2007; Ibrahim et al. 2009, among others). Participation thus becomes a welcome class routine where knowledge is not simply transferred from the teacher's notes to those of the students'.

However, the popularity recently gained by interactive lectures does not merely respond to a change in teaching styles or the desire on the lecturers' part to create a more relaxing atmosphere for students. It is also triggered by the deeply rooted belief that a more conversational, interactional style fosters the students' comprehension and knowledge acquisition which are, after all, the main aims of any lecture (Hall and Verplaetse, 2000; Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2006, *inter alia*). As pointed out by Walsh (2006, p. 36), "conversation is the essence of all classroom dialogue, the prime force through which meanings are negotiated, concepts explained and understood, exchanges of opinion given". This notion of interaction as the main motor for comprehension goes back to Vygostky's socio-cultural theory (1978). Social constructivist pedagogy places the emphasis on the active interaction between teachers and students in order to co-construct knowledge and promote understanding as opposed to the more traditional transmission pedagogy, where the focus lies on "transmitting information and skills articulated in the curriculum directly to students" (Cummins, 2005, pp. 113-114).

Enhancing interaction can become more challenging if the language of instruction is not the learners' mother tongue but a second language (L2). In these educational contexts like CLIL or classes where English is the Medium of Instruction (EMI henceforth), a more interactive style plays a vital role since it can help these learners to improve both their levels of understanding and their linguistic competence in the L2 by allowing them to produce their own output (Dalton-Puffer, 2006; De Graaff et al., 2007; Flowerdew, 1994; Flowerdew and Miller, 1996; Griffiths, 1990; Ibrahim et al., 2009; Nikula et al. 2013; Núñez and Dafouz, 2007; Sánchez García, 2011; 2016; Thompson, 2003; among others).

Interaction, however, is only real if lecturers both wish to provide for interaction and, more importantly, if they are aware of how to be genuinely interactive. One of the ways to allow for students to participate is the lecturer's use of questions (Walsh, 2006; Bamford, 2005; Crawford Camiciottoli, 2008; Dafouz & Sánchez García, 2013; Sánchez García, 2011; 2016) since, as argued by Chuska (1995, p. 7), "all learning begins with questions. Questions cause interactions: thought, activity, conversation or debate".

The aim of this study is to contrast the use of questions by the same lecturer in her L1 (Spanish) versus her L2 lectures (English). More specifically, I intend to answer the following research question: Is the type of questions (and their frequency) affected by the language of instruction? It is hypothesized that the type of questions employed (see Section 2) will vary according to the language of instruction, with each type being also affected with regard to its frequency. To that purpose, a university lecturer of Economics was video-recorded while delivering six lectures in the same subject ("Financial Accounting"), three of them in Spanish and the rest in English. Data was then manually analyzed from a quantitative[3] and qualitative point of view. Finally, a reflective feedback interview with the lecturer herself intended both to shed light on qualitative aspects of her teaching that the analyst might not have borne in mind and to raise the lecturer's awareness of her own classroom discourse so as to attain more effective instruction.

[3] Given the limited size of the dataset, however, the quantitative analysis does not include statistic tests but focused on the tendencies observed regarding frequency.

Literature Review

In his analytical framework, Walsh (2006, p. 67) distinguishes 14 interactional features[4]. Remarkably, four of these features are questions, which reaffirm their privileged status when it comes to promoting interaction between lecturers and their students. Questions have long been considered as the most appropriate instrument to promote interaction since they require a response from the students when performed by the teacher and vice versa. As Ibrahim et al. (2009, p. 96) point out, "questions during lectures serve as structuring devices to drive the talk forward, to introduce new topics and generally direct the focus of the interaction."

The importance of questions as specially interacting mechanisms explains the broad literature they have generated in second language education for several decades (e.g. Banbrook and Skehan, 1989; Cullen, 1998; White and Lightbrown, 1984; among many others). This interest has more recently extended also to CLIL and EMI contexts from primary and secondary education to tertiary education (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, 2006, 2007; Llinares and Pascual-Peña, 2015; Menegale, 2011; Nikula, 2007; Nikula et al., 2013; Pascual-Peña, 2010; Sánchez-García, 2010, 2016; to mention just a few). Since results still do not allow for generalizations (Nikula et al., 2013, p. 78), the present study intends to contribute to this area by providing additional data regarding the use of questions in EMI classes in tertiary education, more specifically in university lectures where English is used as the medium of instruction to teach contents other than language (e.g. economics and finance).

Even if all questions share the fact of being performed in the interrogative mood (or in the declarative mood with rising intonation); the functions they perform in the discourse are markedly different. Following previous taxonomies (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Sánchez-García, 2010; 2016), it is possible to distinguish five types in the corpus under study: rhetorical questions, display questions, comprehension checks, referential questions and clarification checks.

Rhetorical questions are those where the teacher asks a question for which s/he is not expecting any response whatsoever and hence does not provide listeners with any time to answer them. The main function of

[4] These interactional features of the Self-evaluation Teacher Talk (SETT) framework are: scaffolding, direct repair, content feedback, extended wait-time, referential questions, seeking clarification, confirmation checks, extended learner turn, teacher echo, extended teacher turn, turn completion, display questions and form-focused feedback.

these questions is to serve as a discursive landmark for the introduction of new concepts or to make listeners think about a particular concept. In rhetorical questions, the speaker may provide the answer herself or the answer "is left up it in the air" (Sánchez-García, 2010, p. 23). Examples from the corpus are (1) and (2)[5], both produced by the teacher, who asks and immediately answers her own question without producing any pause between the question and its answer, which shows they are not intended for the students to answer but as a rhetorical device:

> (1) [L1] What are the names that we use to call loans? Load debt, bank debt
>
> (2) [L4] *¿Tiene algún significado que yo ponga los gastos al haber y los ingresos al deber? No tiene ningún sentido.* [Does it mean anything that I put the expenses in Debit and the income in Credit. It doesn't make any sense.]

Display questions are those where the information is already known by the teacher (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Morell (2004, pp. 4-5) defines these questions as those which serve "to verify students' knowledge". Display questions encourage interaction in the sense that students are expected to provide a response. However, it is questionable whether they foster real interaction in as far as they do not involve real communication (although see Boyd and Rubin (2006) and Lee (2006)). As argued by Menegale (2011, p. 86), a major drawback of display questions is that by

> using this type of questions, teachers can keep control of the lesson procedure and of the time. Yet, as a result, with the answer being nearly a univocal solution, students could be afraid of responding if unsure of the response and this unease can limit their participation to a greater extent.

Display questions characteristically follow the IRF (initiation-response-follow-up move) structure found in general educational discourse (Sinclair and Brazil, 1982), as illustrated by examples (3) and (4) below, where the teacher (T) produces the initiation move as a question (to which she knows the answer as the content expert) and students (SS) reply. The students' correct response is positively evaluated by the teacher in the third move or follow-up:

[5] All the Spanish examples are immediately followed by their translation into English. In all the cases, each example is preceded by the number of the lecture [L…] where the example comes from.

(3) [L1] T: the company… purchases land and cash. Is ok? So, land, what it is a land?

SS: asset

T: assets, ok [T nods approvingly] current or not current, what do you think?

SS: not current

T: not current assets, ok. Ok? Ok, another more? Eh, Iñigo, please, read it.

(4) T: *Si tuviera el dinero limitado y hubiera que pagarle a alguno, ¿a quién le pagarías antes? ¿A los proveedores o a los acreedores?*

S1: *A los acreedores.*

T: (She looks at the students and smiles) *¿A quién?*

S2: *A los proveedores.*

T: *A los proveedores. Porque ellos son los que te están generando el beneficio luego si tú vendes. ¿Lo ves?*

[T: If I had limited money and had to pay somebody, whom would you pay before? The providers or the creditors? / S1: the creditors. / T: (She looks at the students and smiles). who? / S2: the providers. / T: the providers. Because they are the ones who are generating the benefit if you sell. Do you see it?]

Comprehension checks are questions where the teacher monitors whether the students are following her explanations. They are usually performed linguistically in the corpus by formulaic expressions like "is it ok?" or the Spanish "*¿vale?*". Example (5) illustrates another of these formulas in Spanish ("¿lo veis?" –i.e. do you understand?).

(5) [L4] T: [overlaps with student] *¡Las mismas! Pero si no hago nada, sí, de acuerdo. Pero algo habrá que hacer, ¿no? Porque mucha casualidad, mucha mucha casualidad tiene que pasar para que las existencias iniciales coincidan con las finales. ¿lo veis? Entonces, lo que tenemos que hacer aquí* [circles one part of the blackboard] es lo que se llama la regularización ¡qué nombre más feo! ¿verdad? Regularización de las mercaderías. [The same ones! But if I don't do anything, yes, okay. But something must be done, musn't it? Because it is a huge chance, very very big chance for initial stock to coincide with final stock. Do you see it? Then, what we have to do here is what is called regularization. What an ugly name, isn't it? Merchandizing regularization.]

As illustrated by (5), students are not really expected to respond to comprehension checks verbally as shown by the fact that the lecturer goes on holding the conversational floor without giving any response time. A non-verbal response –e.g. a nod –is enough to show students are indeed following the explanation. If they are not, they can produce a clarification request (see below).

In contrast to the former types, *referential questions* are genuine questions to which the teacher does not know the answer and hence trigger authentic output from the students (Musumeci, 1996; Sánchez-García, 2010). Examples (6) and (7) illustrate this type of questions in both languages:

> (6) [L1] T: No, first here. And you have to tell him the … what are you doing? Tell.
>
> S: (inaudible) [talks to the teacher and the other student at the blackboard]
>
> (7) [L5] T: *Ah jaja, buena pregunta. ¿Tú qué crees?* (1')
>
> S: *Que no.* [T: Ah, haha, good question. What do you think? /S: I think it doesn't.]

Referential questions are particularly interactive since they promote real communication between the student(s) and the lecturer insofar as a real question is taking place and the student usually has to provide a more "creative" answer rather than simply remembering a piece of information or answering with a yes-no answer (which can even be non-verbal). As stated by Dafouz and Llinares (2008, p. 51), "display questions generate interactions that are typical of pedagogic or didactic discourse, while referential questions generate interactions typical of social communication". Despite their highly interactive potential, however, referential questions tend to be sparsely used in classroom discourse (cf. Pascual Peña, 2010; Sánchez-García, 2010). For example, Pascual Peña (2010) found that only 17% of the questions used in her corpus were referential. However, not all referential questions boost interaction to the same extent. In this respect, it is worth pointing out the distinction between convergent and divergent referential questions. In Menegale's words (2008, p. 112):

> The difference between the convergent and divergent question is clear. Whereas the convergent question, also referred to as 'closed question' (Pica, 1994) as it is information-seeking in nature and results in simple elicitations of factual information, does not require original thought or critical reflection and the possible answers are limited, generally short and recall previously

memorized information, a divergent question requires the application of knowledge, not just the recalling of information.

Hence, divergent referential questions not only lead to high order thinking skills but also allow for more extensive students' output in the L2. On the other hand, convergent referential questions may ask for information unknown to the teacher but lead neither to the student's complex thinking processes nor longer conversational turns.

Clarification requests can be produced either by the teacher or the student and take place when communication has partially or totally failed and needs repairing, as illustrated by example (8), where the teacher had not heard the student's comment and asked for clarification:

(8) [L5] T (T has not heard S's question) ¿Perdona, cómo dices? [Excuse me, what did you say?]

In this case, the teacher had not properly heard the student's response and she sought for clarification, so that the student had to repeat his answer. It could be argued, hence, that clarification requests are not interactive mechanisms proper since they are intended as conversational repair strategies when, for example, noise impedes correct hearing of the previous utterance (Schegloff, 1992).

For the sake of clarity, Table 1 summarizes the different types of questions and provides a brief definition as well as an example of each type:

Type of question		Definition	Example
Rhetorical questions		The teacher asks and answers the question	"And how do we call it? We call it debit"
Display questions		The teacher knows the answer beforehand	"How do we call it?"
Comprehension check		The teacher monitors whether the students are following her explanations	"Do you follow?"
Referential questions	Divergent	The teacher asks an open question for which she does not know the answer, giving the student the chance to develop their critical thoughts	"So, what's your opinion about this?"
	Convergent	The teacher asks a closed question for which she does not know the answer, not giving the student the chance to develop their critical thoughts	"Sorry, what is your name again?"
Clarification checks		They are used to repair communication when broken by external circumstances (e.g. noise)	"Sorry? I couldn't hear you, can you say that again?"

Table 1. Types of questions

Methodology

The following section describes the methodology employed in the current study. More specifically, it starts by describing the participants and why they were chosen to be involved in the study. Secondly, it focuses on the data-gathering process itself and describes the corpus compiled and employed in the present study.

Participants

This study involves two groups of undergraduate students and their common lecturer. Each group consisted of approximately 50 students of an average age of 18-19 years old. These students were doing its first year of the degree in Economics and Finance at the Complutense University of Madrid in Spain. This degree is part of the university's pilot program where the same degree is being taught in Spanish with a simultaneous pilot version in English, which means both groups of students follow the same contents albeit in different languages. In this case, they also share the same teacher in the subject Financial Accounting as well as the same amount of teaching hours, with a total of four hours per week (two days a week).

Besides the students involved, this study focuses mainly on the lecturer. She is a Spanish female teacher who taught Economics at the Complutense University for more than a decade. Together with other colleagues, she took part in this pilot program without any special training, any previous experience of teaching in an L2 or any extra salary. However, she was extremely motivated and took part in this pilot project for five years. Before the actual study took place, there was a prior informal interview with the lecturer, where she was informed of the research and she expressed her motivation and willingness, in her own words, "to know if I'm doing things right". This led her to volunteer as a participant in our research group's project and be video-recorded during her lectures[6]. As for the students, all of them were asked for their consent before recording the lectures. They all expressed no disagreement to have their lectures recorded. In addition, all personal identification was carefully avoided to protect their privacy.

[6] The author would like to express her sincere gratitude to the lecturer who collaborated in this research. Many thanks go too to her research colleagues for their support and constructive criticism as well as to the anonymous reviewers for their insightful comments.

Data collection and corpus description

As already pointed out, the lecturer and students were previously informed about the research, and they all consented to be recorded. Hence, six parallel lectures on the same topic (three in English and three in Spanish) were video-recorded by this researcher and other members of the research group to which she belongs. To avoid altering the normal development of the lectures as much as possible, the camera was placed in a side of the lecture room, facing the teacher and with the majority of the students sitting with their backs to the camera. Researchers recording the sessions were present but refrained from speaking or moving around with the camera, which was fixed in the same position throughout all the sessions. This posed the advantage of not altering the normal developing of the lecture since both students and the lecturer admitted forgetting the camera was there after a while. However, it entailed a major disadvantage since the lack of mobility affected sound quality when the lecturer was distant from the camera and some of the students' responses (especially those far from the camera) were inaudible. In this case, this has also been indicated in the transcription in square brackets (i.e. [unintelligible]), as have pauses and other paralinguistic aspects.

The choice in the number of lectures followed Seedhouse's credo that "classroom research […] has considered between five and ten lessons a reasonable database" (2004, p. 87). The data gathered in this way amount to a total of 540 minutes and a word count of over 46,000 words. As already mentioned, transcription was kept simple for the sake of clarity and only pauses, inaudible segments or other paralinguistic information (e.g. the teacher raising her voice in anger when students were not paying attention) have been indicated by means of square brackets where this information is given. To ensure transcription was as loyal and valid as possible, several researchers compared their transcriptions and also counted on the lecturer's help to complete unclear fragments. To ease comprehension, the lecturer also provided the researchers with the visual aids she used in her lectures (e.g. Power Point presentations). Table 2 below summarizes the description of the corpus employed in the analysis in terms of number of words per language:

Language used	*Nº of lecture*	*Nº of words*
English	Lecture 1 [L1]	7,731
	Lecture 2 [L2]	4,433
	Lecture 3 [L3]	10,315
Spanish	Lecture 4 [L4]	6,052
	Lecture 5 [L5]	4,079
	Lecture 6 [L6]	14,067

Table 2. Description of the corpus

As can be seen, not all the lectures have the same number of words. This is due to the fact that, in some lectures where students were required to do exercises and tasks in class (e.g. lectures 2 and 5), there was more student collaboration in smaller groups whilst the teacher was monitoring their progress rather than lecturing as such.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Once transcribed, a manual search for questions in the dataset was carried out. Context (including co-text) was determinant to classify questions into the already mentioned five types: rhetorical questions, comprehension checks, display questions, referential questions and clarification checks. Manual search was favored over (semi)automatic programs given that some elements may clearly be multifunctional and an automatic search might fail to identify these different functions. For example, "ok?" can be used as a comprehension check, a referential question or clarification check depending on the context. To measure the global frequency of questions over other speech acts, the total number of utterances was compared with the number of questions and the corresponding ratio was thus calculated (see table 3). Secondly, the frequency of the different types of questions was calculated taking into account the total number of questions in the corpus (see table 4).

	Nº of utterances per lecture	*Nº of questions*	*Ratio*
Lecture 1	748	360	48%
Lecture 2	500	133	27%
Lecture 3	1,223	438	36%
Lecture 4	708	209	29.5%
Lecture 5	456	162	35.5%
Lecture 6	1,347	491	36%
TOTAL	**4,982**	**1,793**	**36%**

Table 3. Ratio of questions per total number of utterances

Results

In the corpus under study, it is possible to distinguish these five types according to whether they involve more or less interaction between the lecturer and the students (see Table 1). Inspection of the data shows that results prove to be partially expected since the lecturer employed different types of questions in L1 and L2. More specifically, the following tendencies regarding the type of questions used were observed as illustrated by Table 4 below:

Type of question	Rhetorical	Comprehension check	Display	Referential	Clarification check	Total
English	5.5%	39%	40%	7%	8.5%	100%
Spanish	15.5%	45.5%	33%	3.5%	2.5%	100%

Table 4. Type of questions used in the English and Spanish lectures

Close observance of the data reveals that *rhetorical questions* are much more frequently used by the lecturer in Spanish than English (15.5% and 5.5% respectively). As already mentioned, however, rhetorical questions do not trigger interaction proper but serve as discursive device. This higher frequency of rhetorical questions in the Spanish dataset may be due to Spanish language academic style where rhetorical questions are to be expected and characteristic of such a style (Vázquez, 2006). Examples (9) and (10) illustrate rhetorical questions in Spanish and English, respectively:

> (9) [L2] T: *En el examen no no podemos hacer la estructura que nos dé la gana, tenemos que hacer esta estructura, ¿por qué? Porque es la estructura de la ley.* [In the exam we can't, we can't do the structure we feel like, we have to follow this structure, why? Because it is the legal structure].
>
> (10) [L3] T: How? The answer is how I record for these expenses in the books of my company? No, so we we don't know. And the second question: what kind of information do you need to record in transaction? […] Do you know it? That's that's that is what we are going to learn today.

In (9), the teacher asks "why?" and immediately provides the answer herself, which shows this is intended as a rhetorical question. In (10) she does the same with "how?", answering her own question. However, after her second question in the same conversational turn ("And the second question: what kind of information do you need to record in transaction?"), she pauses slightly as marked by […] and tries

to elicit the question from the students ("Do you know it?"). However, she does not give any time to answer and uses her second question to frame the contents of today's lecture ("That's that's that is what we are going to learn today"). In this latter case, it seems the teacher initially intended the question as a display question but by not providing enough thinking time for the students to answer, it turned into another rhetorical question which helped frame the lesson's main contents.

With regard to *display questions*, results show that the teacher employs them slightly more often in English than in Spanish (40% and 33% of the cases). In fact, they are the most common type of question in the English dataset and the second one in the Spanish sample. This is to be expected, since her questions are primarily targeted at retrieving from the students the fundamental concepts and the way they are expressed in L2. Thus, even if the class is not a language class (or even a CLIL class proper), one of the mechanisms characteristic of EFL lessons is mirrored in these EMI lectures, as illustrated by examples (11) and (12) below, in English and Spanish lectures respectively, where the display question by the lecturer is the initiation move (I), followed by the response move by the students (R) and, finally, a follow-up by the teacher (F). This is the classic I-R-F sequence of classroom discourse (Sinclair and Brazil, 1982):

(11) [L2] T: Here you have the search strategy. How many?

SS: Three

T: Three.

(12) [L4] T: *¿Cuál es forma jurídica más usual en España?* [What is the most common legal regulation in Spain?]

S: *La sociedad limitada* [the limited liability company]

T: *La sociedad limitada.* [the limited liability company]

More interestingly, *comprehension checks* behave against expectations, since the teacher uses them slightly more often in Spanish (45.5%) than in English (39%). This is totally unexpected since it would seem more reasonable for the teacher to check comprehension when lectures take place in L2 rather than in the students' mother tongue. Quite remarkably, when asked in the feedback interview why she thought she acted this way, the lecturer claimed that students learning in L2 had the advantage of being what she called "blank slates" meaning that they did not come to class with the "vices" regarding terminology they had in their mother tongue. In other words, many of the concepts she explains in her classes had their Spanish colloquial counterpart

with, sometimes, a totally opposed meaning. For example, the Spanish word activo has a variety of meanings in Spanish but its technical meaning in this field is "Economic resources owned by a business that are expected to benefit future operations" (Moreno Alemay, 2008, p. 28). This polysemy, far from helping students understand better, may hinder their comprehension of the subject in their mother tongue. In contrast, learning such technical terms directly via a second language may actually help the students remember jargon better, since they are not influenced by their mother tongue. Moreover, students may be more motivated to learn technical vocabulary given that, as Moreno Alemay (2008, p. 28) points out:

> When students hear these examples, they realize the importance of studying the subject of accounting in a foreign language, and feel they are building their vocabulary, because all these are words seldom learned in a languages course.

Regarding *referential questions,* inspection of the data shows that those employed in the English lectures double those employed in Spanish (7% versus 3.5%, respectively). However, a qualitative analysis reflects that some of these questions may not really be referential questions. In fact, on the rare occasions where the lecturer employs these questions, she does so in two main contexts. On the one hand, she uses these questions in order to confirm students' names:

(13) [L6] T: *¿Eras Carolina también?*

"Was your name also Carolina?"

(14) [L1] T: Sorry, I forgot your name. What is your name?

On the other hand, the lecturer also seems to employ these questions as indirect requests –e.g. to ask for silence, to tell students off or to ask for a volunteer, as in (15) and (16):

(15) [L3] T: Silence, please. What happens today?

(16) [L4] T: No, first here. And you have to tell him the … what are you doing? Tell.

S: [inaudible] [talks to the teacher and the other student at the blackboard]

Hence, it could be argued that, even though the teacher does not know the answer, these are convergent referential questions where students can do with very short answers (i.e. their names) or even non-verbal responses (i.e. going to the blackboard to do the exercise at hand) rather than having a longer turn to produce their own output.

Finally, *clarification requests* are slightly more frequent in English than Spanish. When used by the teacher (0.5% in English versus 0.4% in Spanish), they act as repair mechanisms when she has not heard the student's answer[7], as in (17) and (18):

(17) [L3] S: the income statement?

T: what?

S: the income statement

(18) [L4] S: [inaudible]

T: *¿Perdón?* [Excuse me?]

However, clarification requests are typically carried out by students when they have a question related to the previous teaching or instructions, as exemplified by (19) and (20):

(19) [L3] S: …So can we… decide XX?

T: No, it's depending on the… the evolution of the content. I mean I have plan around the second, the second week of March

S: …Ok.

(20) [L5] T: A*hora dice que, durante el ejercicio dos mil nueve, compra cincuenta lavadoras, vamos a hacer la compra, multiplicamos eh las cincuenta lavadoras por ciento cincuenta…* [Now it says that, during the year 2009, he buys 50 washing machines, we are going to go shopping, we multiply eh, the 50 washing machines for 150…]

S: *¿por qué es un número distinto?* [why is it a different number?]

T: *Sí, porque lo he cambiado. Luego si queréis hacemos ese, pero quería hacerlo más sencillo todavía. ¿vale?* [Yes, it is, because I have changed it. We can do that one later, but I wanted to do it even easier, ok?]

In terms of frequency, clarification checks by students are more common in English than in Spanish (8% versus 2.1% respectively). This may be due precisely to the fact that it is harder for them to follow the class in a foreign language and they feel more need to clarify doubts and make sure they have understood correctly than when the lecture is delivered in their mother tongue. Quite interestingly, however, close

[7] The large size of the classroom and its orientation (teacher-fronted) makes it hard to hear students' comments, especially if they are sitting at the back. This was also a major limitation when video-recording the classes, since students' comments and answers were mostly inaudible (except for those sitting next to the video-camera).

inspection of the data also reveals that students' clarification checks follow a different pattern in Spanish compared to English. In the English lectures, students usually wait for the teacher's turn completion (or what learners intuitively regard as a relevant transition point). This is illustrated by extracts (21) and (22), where clarification checks by students have been marked in bold for the sake of clarity:

(21) T: credit, yes, thank you. Reserves and all the equity accounts are the credit balance. Just see, please, in this place (points at board), capital includes the, huh, credit balance, ok?

S: **so, is it the balance [pause]?**

T: yes, but we always use BALANCE, which means the difference between all the amounts in the debit and all the amounts in the credit. And the difference is the balance and ALWAYS the assets, always the assets account has debit balance. ALL the equity and liability account have credit balance, ALWAYS.

S: **[longer pause] (the student asks an inaudible question)**

T: yes!

S: **and the assets are called debit?**

T: yes, and expenses always the in the expenses account ALWAYS have debit balance, cause it's similar, the assets and the expenses are very similar. […] Be careful, credit, always credit it is an asset cause is the money that you lend to another person, to other huh firm

S: like clients

T: no, other firm, it's money, money that you. When you, when you ask for a LOAN, you receive money so you have a debt and we call bank debt.

S: **and the credit?**

T: and the credit is when you give money to other firm, this right we call credit.

S: ah

(22) S: ***¿Y el precio del coste es el mismo siempre o cómo?*** [S: and the costing price is always the same or how is it?]

T: *Ah jaja, buena pregunta. ¿Tú qué crees?* [ah, haha, good question. What do you think?]

S: ***Que no.*** [I don't think so]

T: *Vete a la vida real. La…* [Think about real life. The…]

S: ***Que no.***

In contrast to English (see example 21), where students wait for the lecture to reach turn completion, in the case of Spanish, the students tend to overlap with the lecturer (as in example 22) and do not wait for turn completion ("Vete a la vida real. La… / que no"). It is difficult to determine whether these overlaps are due to the Spanish fast conversational pace, where it is customary for overlapping and interruptions to take place (Nikleva, 2009; Gallardo-Paúls, 1993) or to the fact that students feel more confident when speaking their mother tongue than a foreign language. A combination of both factors seems to be the most plausible explanation. Confidence in the use of their mother tongue would also explain why students in the English lectures apparently take longer to ask for clarification than their counterparts.

Conclusions

The present study intended to provide an answer to the following research question, repeated here for the sake of clarity: Is the frequency and type of questions affected by the language of instruction (Spanish vs. English)? It was initially hypothesized that questions would be more frequent in English (L2) so as to boost verbal interaction between the lecturer and the students and allow them to produce verbal output in English so as to ease comprehension and acquisition of the contents and the language. In addition, it was also expected that the type of questions employed would vary according to the language of instruction. Table 3 presented the total number of utterances per lecture together with the ratio of questions. Graph 1 below is a visual summary of the ratio of questions per language of instruction:

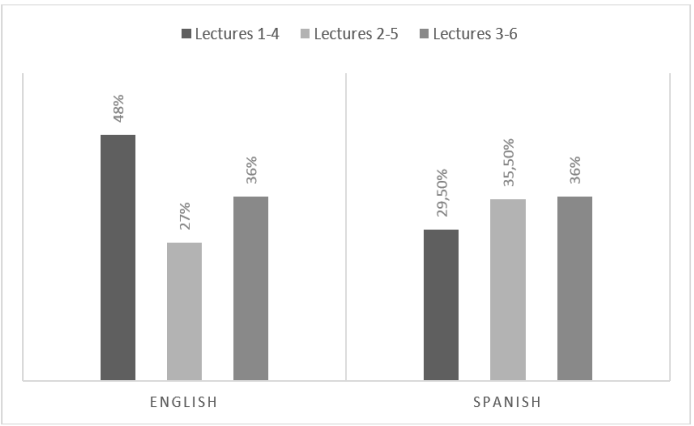

Figure 1. Global frequency questions depending on language of instruction

Inspection of the data reveals that the first hypothesis was only partially confirmed since, except for lectures 1 and 4, where lecture L1 (in English) presented a higher number of questions than its Spanish counterpart (L4), in the rest of the cases, the number of questions was the same (lectures L3 and L6) or slightly higher in Spanish (lectures L2 and L5). As for the second hypothesis, that the language of instruction (English or Spanish) plays a role in the type of questions used, results showed the confirmation of this hypothesis. Hence, the lecturer seems to favor some types in her Spanish lessons and other types in the lectures she carries out in English.

More specifically, rhetorical questions were more numerous in Spanish than in English (15.5% versus 5.5%, respectively) possibly due to the fact that the Spanish academic style traditionally favors the use of rhetorical questions as a way to organize discourse and to keep the audience's attention. With regard to comprehension checks, these occurred more frequently in Spanish (45.5%) than in English (39%). This result was unexpected since it was anticipated that a lecture in a second language seems to entail more difficulty for the students and hence the teacher might feel more prone to checking comprehension. When interviewed after the data had been analyzed, the lecturer herself explained this higher frequency of comprehension checks might be a result of the negative interference of Spanish, where most of these technical terms have an informal, ordinary meaning, usually remarkably different (if not totally opposite). This forced her to make sure the students comprehended the actual technical meaning; hence the more frequent use of comprehension checks in Spanish than in English. As for display questions, they were the type most commonly employed in English, maybe to make sure the students learned the technical vocabulary involved in the subject, which was new to most of them as they had never come across such terms in their general English lessons (Moreno Alemay, 2008).

With regard to referential questions, they were more frequent in English than in Spanish, doubling their occurrence in the second language. Even though it is difficult to explain this result and the lecturer herself was not aware of such a difference, it could be a positive way of letting students produce more output in English to improve their knowledge of the second language. In any case, however, referential questions were still low in frequency and the lecturer commented that she would try to increase their use in future lessons, showing that research can have very positive effects when combined with future action(s) in the classroom (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2011).

Clarification checks happened to be more frequent in English maybe because of the higher difficulty to follow these lectures in a language which is not the participants' mother tongue (either the lecturer' or the students'). Furthermore, clarification checks by students also displayed an interestingly different pattern in English and Spanish, with more overlap in Spanish as opposed to English. This may be due to self-confidence in the mother tongue and the intuitive grasping of the dissimilar conversational structures of Spanish and English, with the former displaying more overlapping and the second being more prone to wait for the transition relevant points (Tsui, 1994).

Finally, it is important to acknowledge an important limitation to the present study such as the fact that it focuses on just one lecturer's discourse. However, this also allows for controlling some variables such as age, linguistic background, teaching experience, since we are dealing with the same teacher. Furthermore, the three English lectures duplicate the three Spanish lectures, which also avoids other variables (content taught, academic field, etc.) from playing a role. Finally, even if generalizations are not possible in a limited study like the present one, we can still observe certain trends that can provide some tips towards most effective teaching styles based on self-observation. In fact, after the study was carried out, a reflective interview with the lecturer showed her willingness to implement future changes in her lessons such as the use of more referential questions, proving the importance of action research in the EMI classroom (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2011).

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Oral Skills Development Through the Use of Language Learning Strategies, Podcasting and Collaborative Work[1]

El desarrollo de la habilidad oral a través del uso de estrategias de aprendizaje de lengua, los podcasts y el trabajo colaborativo

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Abstract

This article describes an action research project carried out at a public school in Ibagué, Colombia. Through a qualitative approach, the project aimed to illustrate the impact of using podcasting, language learning strategies and collaborative work in the development of tenth graders' oral skills. The intervention involved planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating oral tasks including contextualized and meaningful settings; students' performance was analyzed with the help of surveys, questionnaires, and the podcasts themselves. The results evidenced how students were positively influenced by these strategies to improve their oral skills.

Keywords: Language learning strategies, metacognition, podcast, collaborative work.

Resumen

Este artículo describe un proyecto de Investigación-Acción llevado a cabo en una escuela pública en la ciudad de Ibagué, Colombia. A través de un método de investigación cualitativo, el propósito del estudio fue el de ilustrar el impacto del

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uso de podcasts, estrategias de aprendizaje de lengua, y el trabajo colaborativo en el desarrollo de las habilidades orales de estudiantes de décimo grado. La intervención incluyó la planeación, implementación monitoreo y evaluación de tareas de habla que hacían uso de escenarios contextualizados y significativos. El desempeño de los estudiantes se analizó con la ayuda de encuestas, cuestionarios, y los mismos podcasts. Los resultados evidenciaron cómo los estudiantes fueron influenciados de manera positiva por estas estrategias para mejorar sus habilidades orales.

Palabras clave: Estrategias de aprendizaje de lengua, metacognición, podcast, trabajo colaborativo.

Resumo

Este artigo descreve um projeto de Pesquisa-Ação realizada em uma escola pública na cidade de Ibagué, Colômbia. Através de um método de pesquisa qualitativo, a finalidade do estudo foi a de ilustrar o impacto do uso de podcasts, estratégias da aprendizagem de língua, e o trabalho colaborativo no desenvolvimento das habilidades orais de estudantes de 2º ano do Ensino Médio. A intervenção incluiu o planejamento, implementação monitoramento e avaliação de tarefas de fala que usavam cenários contextualizados e significativos. O desempenho dos estudantes foi analisado com a ajuda de enquetes, questionários, e os mesmos podcasts. Os resultados evidenciaram como os estudantes foram influenciados de maneira positiva por estas estratégias para melhorar as suas habilidades orais.

Palavras chave: Estratégias de aprendizagem de língua, metacognição, podcast, trabalho colaborativo.

Introduction

Being able to successfully communicate ideas orally is a fundamental skill in language learning and represents a huge challenge for beginners. Especially at a high-school level, students usually struggle with expressing themselves and would usually avoid active participation in communicative activities, which can hinder their language learning process and can affect their attitudes towards the language.

With that concern in mind, we decided to put into practice different Language Learning Strategies (LLS) which could make language learning more effective and also fun for students (Oxford, 1989), and at the same time involve Collaborative Work which could allow to generate more communicative opportunities, maximize learning (Crandall, 1999), and have a positive impact on students' relationships and psychological health (Smith, 1996). Complementary, it was decided to take advantage of Podcasts as a tool which could help create a more learner-centered pedagogy and generate authentic engagement (Middleton, 2009).

The objective of this project was to analyze the impact of taking into account LLS, Collaborative Work, and the usage of Podcasts for planning and performing speaking activities, on the development of students' oral skills, therefore, the questions that guided this research project were the following: *What implications does the use of cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective language learning strategies have in the students' speaking development? What and how language learning strategies are evidenced during the development of speaking activities by 10th graders?*

This project was carried out taking into account the cyclical process of Action Research (AR) as described by Kemmis & Mctaggart (1988), which involves intertwined cycles of observation, reflection, planning and acting. For this study, two interventions were applied where the voices of the students were heard, as their interests and ideas were considered in the planning of the tasks. It was found that students improved their fluency and accuracy and most of them were able to put new vocabulary into practice in a meaningful way; also, students appeared to be more confident and self-regulated their emotion when they had to participate in different oral activities in the classroom.

Literature Review

Language Learning Strategies

In order to understand what LLS refer to, it is necessary to recall some concepts from the cognitive theory. Shuell (1986) describes the way that individuals are said to 'process' information and defines the thoughts involved in this cognitive activity as 'mental processes'. Such processes are required in all learning procedures and according to their nature they have been classified under three categories: cognitive, metacognitive and social-affective. The strategies identified by different authors as being part of language learning, are called LLS.

Oxford (1989, p. 235) asserts that "Language Learning Strategies are behaviors or actions that learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable". With that in mind, the application of self-regulation procedures are determining in this implementation, given that even when students work collaboratively, each one has specific roles and duties that they self-regulate to lead to effectiveness of oral projects.

In view of that, LLS can be considered as those thoughts, actions, and decisions in the style of students' productive skills (speaking and writing) that configure the language background that students build with each communicative experience. In conformity with this theory, the construct of this analysis is based on types of strategies divided into higher categories of cognition, metacognition and social/affective strategies.

Cognitive learning strategies

Rubin (1981) identified six general strategies that may contribute directly to language learning:

Clarification/verification. This process is implemented by the students once they require information about meaning, pronunciation or the application of any communicative statement, in this way, students expand the formal knowledge of the language and validate the productions of words, phrases or sentences in order to communicate effectively.

Guessing/inductive inference. It refers to the kind of strategies which take into account already internalized knowledge coming from different sources in order to understand a particular concept or language form and deduce a precise rule for a given situation.

Deductive reasoning. Deductive reasoning has to do with a general decoding process of different communicative situations in

order to infer meaning for the understanding and the organization of the language as a whole.

Practice. It refers to the kind of strategies which help establish a sound source of information regarding language forms which the learner refers to while looking for accuracy. These strategies include: imitation, rehearsal and repetition

Memorization. It is the ability for retaining and storing any kind of information in our mind that is internalized and available to be used when necessary; this strategy is mediated by the use of repetition and practical uses to ensure the capture and retain the information.

Monitoring. It refers to strategies that learners use to verify the use of linguistic and communicative structures; the learner notices errors and face them to improve their production. This strategy requires a high level of engagement and consciousness for students to evaluate and validate their learning.

Metacognitive learning strategies

Metacognitive strategies can be defined as thinking about our own thinking. These strategies are meant to "oversee, regulate, or self-direct language learning" (Wenden & Rubin, 1987, p. 25), which means that learners try to take control of their own learning process by planning, monitoring and evaluating their learning activities (Wenden, 1982, 1986). Learners who use this kind of strategies are able to create profound learning and improve performance (Anderson, 2002) as they understand what is that they need to acquire knowledge.

Social/affective strategies

These strategies involve "either interaction with another person" or exercising control over emotional or affective responses to learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 45). Such strategies could involve asking questions for clarification or discussing one's worries about language learning with another person. Generally, they are considered applicable to a wide variety of tasks. Some strategies are:

- Cooperation, or working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity.
- Questioning for clarification, or eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or example.
- Self- talk, or using mental control to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

All strategies mentioned before were presented to students, and they were encouraged to use them as they required them. Accordingly, different strategies were used by students, depending on their needs and objectives and also the type of activities they were to carry out.

Collaborative Learning

Vygotsky (1978) affirms that Collaborative Learning is a method for helping students strengthen their confidence in themselves which can be achieved through performing tasks by groups or peer work. He also presents the idea of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in which a more experienced individual helps create an appropriate environment for the development of knowledge and skills in others and himself.

Accordingly, we understand cooperative learning as carefully structured group work which provides opportunities for students to learn and use the language by maximizing the peer interaction in the classroom, such work being the basic context for communicative practice (Crandall, 1999) and the development of collaborative dialogues which allow for language learning opportunities and the building of knowledge (Rivera, 2010).

Podcasting

In this study Podcasts were incorporated because they offer teachers one outlet for technology integration. Podcasting refers to the authoring of or subscription to audio and/or video files, these files can be downloaded and played back on a wide range of mobile devices such as MP3 players and iPods (Dale & Pymm, 2009). Podcasting holds the capacity to capture and share learning voices (Middleton, 2009) in an effort to communicate, create, and share ideas, it can also be a recording created by a teacher to enhance the learning and teaching process within and beyond the classroom or a podcast or radio program created by pupils. Increasingly, the term is also being applied to video (vodcast) as well as audio recordings.

The use of podcasts is said to have the capability of improving students' motivation (Hegelheimer and O-Bryan, 2007) and attitudes towards the class (Li, 2010), and when implemented as a form of cooperative work can also enhance students understanding of the subject matter and improve students interaction (Stoltenkamp et al. 2011). Furthermore, the implementation of Podcasts has also reportedly shown good results boosting students' listening and speaking proficiency (Lu, 2007).

Methodology

Research Design

Action Research (AR) as defined by Kemmis and McTaggart (1988, p. 1) "is a form of collective self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own social or educational practices". Hence, the implementations carried out during this research process attempted to guide the teaching and learning process towards more successful and appropriate practices.

This study made use of a qualitative approach to analyzing data with the aim of understanding how the blend of LLS, Podcasts, and Collaborative work could impact students' oral skills. The information collected through surveys, questionnaires, and podcasts was triangulated following the approach of Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007), to determine convergence of information from different sources, then it was analyzed following Glaser and Strauss' (1967) precepts of Grounded Theory (GT) to reconfigure the information into categories by comparing diverse content in the data collection. This methodology set the way for us to address and analyze data in order to deepen in the analysis and come to clear and meaningful results.

Context and Participants

This study was carried out with 40 students of 10th grade from a public school in Ibagué (Colombia) whose ages ranged from thirteen to seventeen. The school is located in the outskirts of the city and most of its students come from a low socioeconomic context. Consequently, students are not unfamiliar with different types of social issues which affect their school life and which are mostly related to parents' unemployment, dysfunctional families, sex, and drugs abuse.

Regarding English classes, different factors such as lack of institutional resources, educational policies, and students' conflictive contexts are believed to affect students' attitudes and proficiency in a negative way. In spite of difficulties, the educational community is characterized for being receptive and getting involved in students' activities; there is still a good atmosphere and students have positive attitudes when they are aware of what they can gain and learn if they modify some behaviors. Some limitations found in the study had to do with students' low language proficiency, some of their beliefs regarding group work, and also the amount of students and the limited time allowed to the English class.

Data Collection Instruments

The data were collected using instruments that provided relevant and sufficient information for a qualitative analysis.

Needs analysis survey. This was the initial instrument with four questions to identify which of the four communicative skills students wanted to improve, it triggered students' thoughts about what they wanted to learn in class, how they wanted the class to be, and their interests and ideas to improve.

LLS survey. This instrument was designed to collect information and quantify students' cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective, strategies. A second part of this instrument involved open questions about the students' perceptions regarding LLS, podcasting and collaborative work.

Podcasts. Two final podcasts were presented by the group of students, these were socialized with the teachers for feedback and later these were transcribed and analyzed in order to examine how students advanced or were jammed along the reaching of the goal.

Data analysis and Results

Once we had collected information, it was analyzed and triangulated in order to find patterns, furthermore, principles of GT (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) allowed us to determine commonalities or dissimilarities and revealed some code categories and subcategories related to feelings (fears, worry, nerves, stress, and anxiety), students' awareness or procedures (Self-regulation, self-monitoring, self-confidence, and LLS usage) and accuracy in oral production (vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation, and grammar). Each one of the categories were grouped in a chart for deeper analysis and triangulation revealing deeper patterns and categories related to (1) speaking improvement, evidenced enhancement on vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and fluency; (2) useful LLS, cognitive, metacognitive, and social or affective type; and (3) psychological resilience, students' improvement of fears, stress, nerves, and lack of confidence, and also self-regulation, self-monitoring, self-assessment, and self-confidence.

Speaking Improvement

For starters, the needs analysis survey allowed to identify that 74% of students wanted to improve their speaking skills more than listening (17%), reading (7%) or writing (2%). These results showed

how important it was for students to be able communicate orally in the target language, or as Hymes (1972) puts it, to have the capacity to communicate effectively within a particular speech community. In this area, the analysis showed that students were able to improve this capacity mainly in the following respects:

Vocabulary. The ability of learners to successfully expand their vocabulary, which is an essential aspect of learners' language development (Harmon, Wood, & Keser, 2009) (Linse, 2005), was dynamically expanded through this study. Comparatively speaking, at the beginning of the implementation students' were less aware of the importance of using the right words, and were therefore not interested in expanding their vocabulary. Nevertheless, as the study progressed it was evidenced how, through a planning stage, students could naturally increase their vocabulary without being forced directly to do that. The challenge for the students' improvement in this area was the chance to talk about their own life and real interests. The meaning of some words was reasoned through processes of inference and clarification, strategies from the cognitive order.

Grammar. Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of grammatical resources and the ability to put them into practice (Artunduaga, 2013), be it in a written or oral way. In this respect, during this study students evidenced a development of this competence and were able to orally express themselves with improved grammatical accuracy. At the beginning of the implementation, students frequently omitted subjects and produced syntactical mistakes, made inappropriate word choices, used wrong verb tenses, and showed lack of coherence and cohesion. These mistakes were noticed when podcasts were listened and transcribed. After the collaborative assessment, teacher's feedback and the identification of these mistakes, students were able to self-correct and self-regulate their mistakes and were more precise to record their dialogues, providing then more appropriate and carefully applied grammatical resources.

Pronunciation and fluency. Pronunciation has a great deal of responsibility for intelligibility (Seidlhofer, 2001), and consistently, in this study it was one of the aspects students were the most eager to improve as they felt the need to successfully communicate their ideas. Students felt motivated to achieve pronunciation accuracy and devoted a lot of time to the improvement of this skill, some of them repeated their intervention as many times as necessary, gaining confidence and self-regulating their linguistic processes. Students showed great awareness, hard work, and commitment in the process of improving their second podcast and more successfully express themselves

Most useful LLS

Data analysis allowed us to identify the students' learning strategies that helped them to improve their oral skills. The most relevant strategies found through all the instruments were:

Practicing. (Cognitive strategies) It was a behavior that students assumed in class and at home in order to attain high quality in their performance, given this would guarantee a cognitive contribution to them. Students said that such practice strengthened their learning every time they gave information or studied for their presentations.

Additionally, when students practiced together, they enjoyed and assisted each other, they gained confidence to ask freely about their doubts; accordingly, it could be inferred that students strengthened their self-esteem and found reasons and intrinsic motivation to enhance performance and keep going each time better than the last.

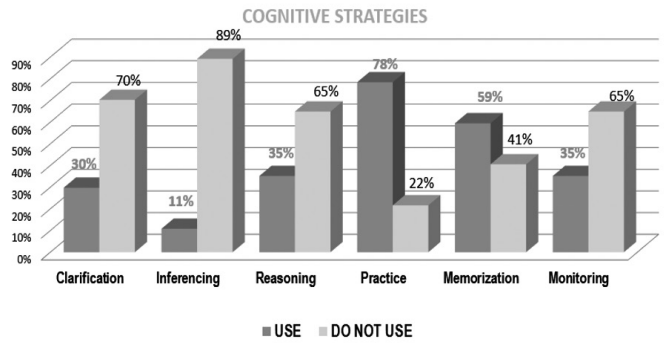

Figure 1. Percentage of students who use each one of the Cognitive Strategies.

Planning. (Metacognitive strategies). It was a quite necessary stage, Figure 2 displays that 70% of learners implemented this strategy. We found that when students had enough time to discuss about a topic, a task or even about their role, it became meaningful to them because they were actively involved on the reflection. In the same way, when they were autonomous to decide about something that was appealing to them, they negotiated, made decisions and transformed what may have been a boring task into a more engaging and productive activity.

Other procedures that emerged in planning had to do with monitoring and self-assessment, given that learners noticed errors (both linguistic and communicative) and observed how messages were received (Rubin, 1981).

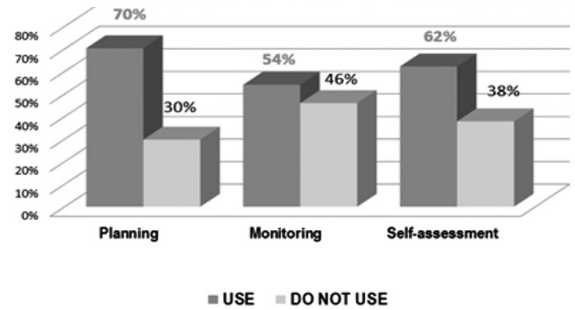

Figure 2. Percentage of students who use each one of the metacognitive strategies.

Cooperation (Socio-affective strategies) 76% of students selected cooperation from this group of strategies and it was one of the most relevant methods in this study, once into the groups of work, they discussed to help individual members better their attitudes therefore they were able to work together as a team. This experience was meaningful for the majority of students who took advantage of collaboration to improve individual challenges, some students affirmed that they helped, motivated and supported each other.

Smith (1996) revealed several positive outcomes from cooperation such as achievement/productivity, positive relationships, and psychological health, accordingly, we confirmed that students perceived cooperation as an opportunity to support each other, not only in terms of language proficiency but also to regulate their emotions.

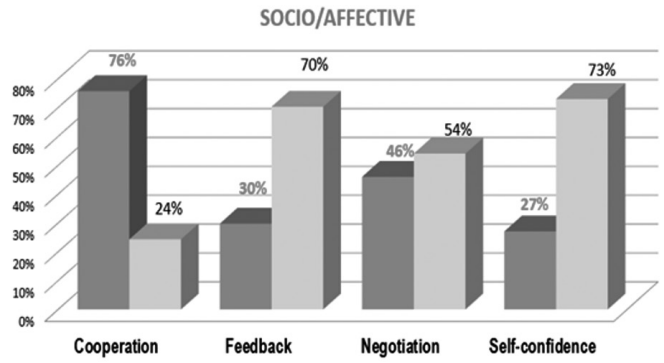

Figure 3. Percentage of students who used each one of socio/affective strategies.

Psychological resilience

Resilience refers to the "adaptation and survival of a system after perturbation, often referring to the process of restoring functional equilibrium, and sometimes referring to the process of transformation to a stable new functional state" (Masten, 2001, p. 9), in other words, it has to do with being able to adapt and recover from different psychological threats. In this study resilience was possible because of the safe environment activated by working in collaboration, which also facilitated students' to avoid feelings of stress, nerves, lack of confidence, and anxiety.

Moreover, students who had the capability to check inside and evaluate themselves evidenced the highest metacognitive levels that represent their own awareness to reflect upon what they were learning, how they were acting, and which could be the easiest way of learning. It was found that students self-assessed their behavior, their relationships with others, and their oral productions and attitudes; they also increased their self-confidence because socializing was an effective way to correct each other. Such behaviors were evidenced in comments such as the ones below:

"I'm giving the best of me and I want to achieve my goals, such words motivate me to change and keep going…" [3]

"I commit to improve my work and allot more time to present good quality activities…" [4]

"I have concentration and speaking problems, but I am progressing…"[5]

"In previous activities when I made wrong, I did not present my activities again, now in collaboration I felt sure and motivated to keep working and improve".[6]

[3] *"Estoy dando lo mejor de mí y quiero lograr mis metas,* ***palabras así me motivan a cambiar y seguir adelante…****"*

[4] *"Me comprometo a mejorar mis trabajos y* ***dedicarle más tiempo*** *para presentar actividades de buena calidad".*

[5] *"Tengo problemas de concentración, de habla pero voy avanzando".*

[6] *"En actividades anteriores, cuando me equivoqué, no presenté mis actividades nuevamente, ahora en colaboración, me siento más seguro y motivado para seguir trabajando y mejorar".*

Conclusions

Working with LLS could be one of the many alternatives that English teachers have around in order to guide and empower their students to strengthen their language skills. Yet, we find it essential that teachers introduce students to the use of cognitive, metacognitive and social or affective strategies through the use of Collaborative Work and technological tools such as Podcasting in order to construct better educational environments in general.

On the whole, LLS are behaviors or actions that learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable (Oxford, 1989); in this study we noticed how students strengthened their mental processes, increased their own consciousness regarding their own learning development, and helped them to control their emotions and gain self-confidence and self-esteem, all of which was evidenced in their performances in which linguistic features such as fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar were visibly improved.

The use of technological tools such as podcasting was suitable to help these tenth graders improve their oral skill, students felt comfortable to perform in class because through the process of creating the podcasts they overcame fears and concerns and felt prepared and self-confident to do their oral interventions directly, face to face. Podcasting facilitated students to self-regulate and self-monitor their performance as they could listen to their recordings many times and make corrections to produce better utterances improving pronunciation, fluency and grammatical issues.

Collaborative work was supportive as it involved processes of psychological health in participants since students were able to control their fear, stress and, anxiety they started to enjoy the task. In collaboration, students felt secure and sure to participate in class, they uncovered great abilities they did not even know they had. The challenge to work in groups encouraged their patience, creativity, organization of ideas and task design. All the groups improved together and exchanged genuine ideas towards the same objective.

The use of LLS, Collaborative work, and Podcasts can help students to understand and regulate the quality of their performances and learning overall and contribute to the development of the language system that the learner constructs and that affect learning directly (Rubin, 1987). Moreover, as it was evidenced during the implementation of this project, students can enhance their motivation, achieve higher levels of self-confidence and self-esteem (psychological resilience) when they are given the opportunity of developing and presenting their own ideas.

Allowing students time for planning is fundamental for the development of meaningful and contextualized learning processes, given that students have the time they need for organizing ideas and interacting around tasks which require involvement, analysis, reflection, and production.

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Improving English Language Learners' Academic Writing: A Multi-Strategy Approach to a Multi-Dimensional Challenge[1]

Mejorar la Escritura Académica de Aprendices de inglés: Un efoque de multiestrategia a un desafío multideminesional

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Abstract

The demands of the academic field and the constraints students have while learning how to write appropriately call for better approaches to teach academic writing. This research study examines the effect of a multifaceted academic writing module on pre-service teachers' composition skills in an English teacher preparation program at a medium sized public university in Colombia. Four written samples from sixteen students were analyzed throughout the two academic periods of 2016. Analytical rubrics measured six writing features quantitatively. Results showed that this multifaceted academic writing module significantly improved pre-service teachers' competences such as discourse, syntax, vocabulary, mechanics and language conventions.

Key Words: Academic writing, peer review, tutoring, writing lab, systemized feedback, TOEFL practice, Process Approach

Resumen

Los requerimientos del área académica y las limitaciones de los estudiantes al aprender a escribir exigen mejores estrategias para la enseñanza de la escritura académica. Esta investigación examina el efecto de un módulo multifacético de

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escritura académica en las habilidades de composición de maestros de inglés en formación inicial en una universidad pública mixta de mediano tamaño. Cuatro muestras escritas de dieciséis estudiantes fueron analizadas a lo largo de los dos períodos académicos de 2016. Rúbricas analíticas midieron cuantitativamente las características de escritura de los estudiantes. Los resultados mostraron que este módulo multifacético de escritura académica mejoró significativamente las habilidades de escritura de los maestros de inglés en formación inicial a nivel local y global.

Palabras claves: Escritura académica, evaluación entre pares, tutoría, centro de escritura, retroalimentación sistemática, práctica TOEFL, Enfoque basado en procesos

Resumo

Os requerimentos da área acadêmica a as limitações dos estudantes quando aprendem a escrever, exigem melhores estratégias para o ensino da escritura acadêmica. Esta pesquisa examina o efeito de um módulo multifacético de escritura académica nas habilidades de composição de professores de inglês em formação inicial em uma universidade pública mista de tamanho médio. Foram analisadas quatro amostras escritas de dezesseis estudantes no curso dos dois períodos acadêmicos de 2016. Rubricas analíticas mediram quantitativamente as características de escritura dos estudantes. Os resultados mostraram que este módulo multifacético de escritura acadêmica melhorou significativamente as habilidades de escritura dos mestres de inglês em formação inicial ao nível local e global.

Palavras chave: Escritura académica, avaliação entre pares, tutoria, centro de escritura, retroalimentação sistemática, prática TOEFL, Enfoque baseado em processos

Introduction

Academic writing tasks pose real difficulties to English language learners (ELL) at all levels of education and school subjects, especially to those students with limited academic literacy skills in their native languages (Schleppegrell, 2004; Gomez, 2011; Zhu, 2001). Indeed, once students enter universities and become part of learning communities, writing becomes more of a daunting task. As cognitive, content, and academic demands increase, the development of ELL's writing skills becomes a multi-dimensional challenge for students and for professors and institutions. Students struggle with the processes of learning to write while writing to learn (Marinetti, 1985).

At the college level, there is a need to learn how to read and write for multiple purposes. The nature of writing tasks, mainly argumentative and expository texts, involves critical literacy and it requires synthesizing information from a variety of linguistically-demanding sources. Professors from different faculties often expect that students enter universities with the required reading/writing competences to embrace academic writing tasks (Zhu, 2004). Furthermore, many of them believe that teaching writing is solely the responsibility of language teachers, and paradoxically assume that learners will get to write better on their own; as a consequence, when they assign elaborate complex academic papers to their students, with little or no support, they often get low-quality written products. After all, "writing tasks are assigned without clear guidelines for students about how a particular text type is typically structured and organized" (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 2).

Grounded on Cummins' (1991) Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis, which suggests that learners of a second language draw upon skills from their native language, and according to studies reported by Garcia (2009) on transferability, students' writing performance in English can be affected by their literacy competences in Spanish. Furthermore, the demands of writing tasks at the college level require more sophisticated levels in the argumentative and interpretive dimensions of language.

Students' lack of knowledge of academic genres' rhetorical features, combined with very limited writing experiences that involve argumentation and interpretation, constitute a multi-dimensional challenge in this pre-service teacher program.

These teachers in development need to learn the language of the academia, which is often very structured and complex (Snow, 1987). These highly literate contexts require students to master advanced levels of grammatical forms and sophisticated vocabulary to interpret

and produce a variety of texts from different genres. As future English teachers, they must overcome their academic discourse limitations while learning to teach English reading and writing. In fact, in order to graduate from the program, students must reach a C1 language proficiency level, measured by a standardized test.

In response to years of professors struggling in their English teacher preparation classes with large, heterogeneous groups of students across different English writing proficiency levels, a new academic writing course was created in 2016. The goal was to design an academic, genre-based curriculum that was closely connected to the writing tasks students were typically assigned in other courses, and that offered support mechanisms such as peer review and ongoing tutoring in order to develop academic writing skills and foster transferability among the classes.

This two-semester action research study seeks to explore the impact that the new academic writing course has on the pre-service teachers' academic writing skills. This article provides a description of the instructional strategies that have been used in the academic writing course throughout the two semesters the class has been offered, and presents a quantitative analysis of four different academic writing tasks carried out during semesters one and two of 2016.

The leading question of this research study is: How has a newly-created, multi-strategy approach to teaching academic writing impacted English pre-service teachers' composition skills?

Literature Review

This newly-created, Multifaceted Academic Writing Module has four key components that are supported by research findings regarding the effectiveness of the Process Approach to writing, the positive aspects of teacher and peer review, the latest insights gained from several universities' writing labs, and the significant effects on students' academic discourse of on-going practice of the TOEFL Integrated Writing Task.

Process Approach to Writing

After gaining attention in the 1960s, second language (L2) writing has become more of an important skill to develop for language learners. The literacy demands of information technologies have brought about more focus to writing, which now transcends classrooms and positions itself as a daily-life need (Onozawa, 2010). Decades ago, writing was

seen as a rigid skill inseparable from grammar instruction and, as Susser (1994) asserts, its focus was "on controlled composition, correction of the product and correct form over expression of ideas" (p. 36). However, despite the deterministic acknowledgement of some authors of the usefulness of this product-oriented approach to writing (Dykstra, 1973; Paulston & Bruder, 1976), new visions came upon writing as discussions about first-language (L1) composition transferred to the ESL (L2) field. Opposing grammatical proficiency, adherents to the expressionist movement believed that "the primary emphasis should be upon the expressive and creative process of writing" (Zamel, 1976). Since the 1980s, the Process Approach to writing in L2 has evolved, and according to Susser (1994), it also has encountered several opponents in regards to its validity as a pedagogy. Nevertheless, its importance for composition studies is undeniable. Nowadays, the Process Approach keeps shedding light on how writing happens and what actions writers follow when composing texts. As indicated in Graph 1, adapted from Coffin (2003), writing happens as a recursive progression with different stages that range from prewriting to editing and where writers exercise different thinking skills in order to shape their work. This cycle Susser (1994) suggests, "helps make students aware that writing is a process, and that there are different processes for different kinds of writing." (p. 34). Therefore, L2 writers avoid following strict and narrow schemes and get to suit themselves to the different tasks they are assigned. Current analysis like (Onozawa, 2010) and research studies like (Goldstein & Carr, 1996; Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006; Akinwamide, 2012; Bayat, 2014) demonstrate the positive impact of the Process Approach as a pedagogy that is both reliable and rewarding.

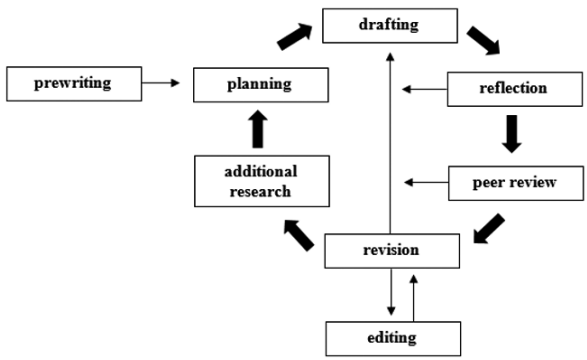


Figure 1. Process Writing Cycle. Adapted from Coffin (2003).

Systematized feedback provided by teachers and peers

Feedback is particularly valuable for learners of a foreign language. When it comes to writing, corrective feedback can guide students in textual and compositional features in order to improve their final product. Written feedback needs to be properly provided so students can benefit from it, however, "research shows that most ESL writing teachers make similar types of comments and are more concerned with language-specific errors and problems" (Maarof, Yamat & Li, 2011, p.30). As has been shown in recent research (Williams, 2003), inappropriate feedback results in students' writing frustration and apprehension. This implies that feedback must be restructured if teachers aim to have better writing learning outcomes. One possibility that has been envisioned is supplementing teacher feedback with peer-reviewing. Peer review can be understood as feedback provided by learners to learners at the same level. For Jahin (2012), peer reviewing gives learners a purpose to write as well as multiple views on their written work. Also, he asserts that "Much research has indicated the positive effect of peer reviewing on the writing process and on the writer's product" (p. 61), leading not only to local and general improvements in learners' composition skills, but also in their confidence and affective filter. Additionally, peer reviewing finds support in theoretical frameworks such as Process Writing and Collaborative Learning (Hansen & Liu, 2005). Despite the fact that several studies cast doubts on the effectiveness of peer review when compared to teachers' thorough observations, Maarof, Yamat and Li (2011) conclude from their study that the majority of students had a positive perception of the use of both teacher and peer feedback since they both improve and enhance their writing skills.

On-going tutoring in a writing lab

Tutoring has also found a place in the formation of students' composition skills. In the present, several educational institutions, specifically universities, have writing centers or labs with trained tutors who provide personalized support to the community both face-to-face and online, one example being Purdue's OWL (Landsberger, 2001). However, as reported by Molina Natera (2014), there are currently less than ten universities with writing labs which offer support only in Spanish. Nevertheless, when in place, tutoring can serve as an advantageous underpin for the development of writing. As Sullivan and Cleary (2014) show by citing Topping (1996):

> Claims made about the benefits of peer tutoring for both the tutor and tutee include the development of metacognitive skills,

> improved cognitive processing, increased interaction/reduced isolation, more immediate feedback and prompting, lower anxiety, a higher level of disclosure and increased learner autonomy (Sullivan & Cleary, 2014, p. 57).

This means that tutoring sessions can benefit the written product per se and also enhance writers' attitudes and beliefs regarding text composition. In a study conducted by Adams (2011), students reported positive outcomes of tutoring sessions claiming they "fully enjoyed [the session] and left the meeting feeling positive about the future of my assignments." (p.114). Even though providing tutoring might result cumbersome and costly for institutions, if well implemented, it can be conducive to learning. Furthermore, Shrestha and Coffin (2012) found that tutoring "is an effective way of providing the kind of reflective, dynamic mediation that is able to effectively support students' academic writing development" (p. 57). Writing complexity can therefore be lessened if learners feel supported throughout the process of composition.

Standardized test-taking practice (TOEFL)

As taken from the concept of washback (Bailey, 1999), which is the impact of test results on students' attitudes, standardized tests can influence both teaching and learning. However, limited studies have investigated the effects of high-stakes language tests on both practices (Green, 2007; Soleimani & Maahdavipour, 2014). Although investigations like (Hill, Storch & Lynch, 1999) call into question the relation between language proficiency measured by standardized tests and academic performance, the rapid growth of the demand of these tests to gain access to advanced education force students to be familiar with the dynamics that exams like TOEFL or IELTS contain, which tend to be academic in nature. Indeed, as shown by Hosseini, Taghizadeh, Abedin and Naseri (2013), students' knowledge does not suffice to be successful in academic contexts, and thus, they must become proficient in such academic tasks, particularly those targeted in standardized tests. Additionally, recent research points out the favorable view both teachers and students have on standardized test practice and its effect on academic performance (Read & Hayes, 2003). It has also been noted that standardized test companies have made their tasks more authentic, fostering a better measurement of writing skills (Soleimani & Mahdavipour, 2014). Despite the reputation of these exams becoming too pervasive in academic curricula, their usefulness in the language teaching classroom remains to be explored more deeply.

Methodology

Research Design

Action Research was selected for this project since, as proposed by (Dörnyei, 2007), it encourages participants to reflect on pedagogical practices, their effectiveness, shortcomings and possible ways to modify them to ensure positive effects on teaching/learning processes.

The research study is based on the quantitative measurement of students' progress in the production of academic texts on a one-to-five-point analytical rubric. Researchers collected data from February to June of 2016 (first semester of new academic course) and from August to December of 2016 (second semester of the course implementation).

Context and Participants

This research study has been conducted in an English teacher preparation program at a medium-sized, public, coeducational university in Colombia. Students' age ranges between 18 and 25 years old, they speak Spanish as a native language, and their English level oscillates between A2 and B1, according to the Common European Framework of References for Languages (2001). This population is characterized by the limited exposure to academic writing experiences in high school and its weak literacy skills in their native language, as it is the case for the majority of students in public universities in Colombia, as reported by Gómez (2011).

The new academic writing class is a four-credit course offered in seventh semester with an intensity of four hours a week. The course started out in 2016 (semester one) with some elements of a former composition class whose curriculum focused on grammar and sentence writing review. Currently, the structure of the academic writing course encompasses four key elements: the development of several genre-based tasks using the Process Writing approach, systematized feedback provided by the professor and peers, on-going tutoring to students in a writing lab, and repeated test-taking practice on TOEFL writing tasks.

First of all, the course's main objective is to engage students in the construction of several writing pieces from different academic genres through the use of the Process Writing approach in order to foster awareness regarding the cyclical nature of writing (Coffin, 2003). In other words, students are taught to maximize on the fact that written language can be reviewed and polished as opposed to oral discourse. In addition, students are exposed to the particular discourse features

of academic genre such as descriptions, summaries, reflections and argumentative essays.

Task-specific rubrics, developed by the course's professor, are designed to guide students through the development of each product. These assessment tools become instrumental for the professor and students to provide systematized, integrated feedback. Sometimes students evaluate each other's texts before turning them in; in other occasions, students pair up to analyze the feedback provided by the professor. The nature of the feedback provided in this class is systematized in the sense that it targets specific features (e.g. organization, cohesiveness, language mechanics, etc.), depending on pre-determined foci. This targeted and systematic way of giving feedback facilitates students editing work, and it prevents learners from feeling overwhelmed. Moreover, the feedback students receive is integrated so that teaching and revising are combined.

Another fundamental aspect of this Multifaceted Academic Writing Module is the support offered in an academic writing lab to students with writing difficulties. There is a virtual platform where materials are posted as lessons' reinforcements and grammar reviews, in addition to personalized tutoring provided by monitors. The tutorial sessions are focused on the improvement of specific macro and micro writing features depending on students' needs and professor's observations.

Last but not least, is the incorporation of the TOEFL writing tasks as an instructional tool. This is a refreshing way to look at standardized tests since it helps students become familiar with real testing conditions and it engages them in highly-targeted academic writing tasks.

In the first semester of 2016, there were 16 students in the class, and eight students (Cohort One) were selected randomly as participants in the project. The same sampling procedure was used for Cohort Two (second semester).

Role of the researchers

There are two researchers conducting the study: one is the Academic Writing Course professor who acts as a participant observer since the analysis is based on her insights regarding the evolution of the class and its students. The monitor, who works with the students in the writing lab, is also a participant observer given the fact that he was involved in the analysis of students' samples as a way to cross examined data results.

Data collection instruments

For the data collection, four writing samples from each cohort were selected as representative of the work that was produced throughout each of the semesters. These written products were scored with rubrics with levels of performance that ranged from 1 to 5 (low to high, respectively).

Cohort One: Descriptive and summary paragraphs, descriptive essay and TOEFL integrated essay.

Cohort Two: Descriptive paragraph, reflective essay, opinion essay and TOEFL integrated essay.

These writing pieces were scored using analytical rubrics to assess students' progress at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of each of the semesters, in terms of the following language features: discourse (task purpose and audience), organization, coherence, sentence structure, conventions and vocabulary. The features analyzed in the rubrics were selected based on emerging patterns of difficulties and strengths students presented in their written work. Furthermore, these linguistic features play significant parts in the development of well-structured academic texts as "the ability to adopt linguistic features of 'literate-style' language enables students' success in a variety of school-based tasks…" (Schleppegrell, 2004, p.34).

Data analysis and interpretation

Four writing samples representative of different academic genres were analyzed in terms of discourse, syntax, vocabulary, conventions, and language mechanics for each of the 16 participants. Discourse evaluates students' ability to address the task purpose and audience; organization relates to coherence and cohesion; syntax assesses students' mastery of sentence construction; vocabulary focuses on the range of academic lexicon, and conventions determine students' grammatical competences, and the appropriate use of capitalization, parts of speech and punctuation.

The students' scores obtained in each of the writing tasks, based on the aforementioned language features, were collected and averaged in order to measure progress throughout the semester, considering that each task was incrementally more demanding, as seen in Tables 1 and 3 (Cohort 1) and Tables 2 and 4 (Cohort 2).

In the first semester of the project's implementation, all participant students exhibited high-level performances in academic writing features such as discourse and text organization. These two aspects of

writing were emphasized in many tasks throughout the semester, not only during class sessions but also in the writing lab's tutorials.

As seen in Table 1, academic vocabulary scores were high possibly due to a number of reasons. First of all, the topics selected for each of the writing pieces were academic in nature (e.g. reflective paper based on classroom observation, description essay about best teacher). Indeed, the TOEFL topics and prompts were highly academic as well (e.g. large-class vs. small-class advantages and disadvantages, lecture and discussion types of teaching styles, etc.). Finally, the reinforcement exercises provided in the virtual component of the writing lab were taken from academic writing textbooks (Savage & Mayer, 2005). Vocabulary was also heavily worked through the TOEFL practice sessions. The TOEFL writing tasks, particularly the integrated, are based on a two-million, academic-word data bank, taken from educational institutions in the United States, as reported by Fox, Wesche, Bayliss, Cheng, Turner and Doe (2007).

On the other hand, awareness and control of the syntactical and grammatical organization of academic texts represented the biggest challenge for students in Cohort One. As a matter of fact, as shown in Table 1, five out of eight students scored below four in language conventions (grammar, spelling, punctuation). A grammatical component was not part of the academic course syllabus since students take several English courses as prerequisites for this class and grammar is taught up to advanced levels. Nevertheless, the results shown in Table 1 raised an important issue related to the need of incorporating grammar reviews in the academic writing course.

However, considerable work was done around sentence construction and combination of clauses. Such practices helped students grow in the elaboration of sentences but they still struggled with the process of combining them to construct a text.

Table 1. Writing features average in cohort 1.

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8
Discourse	5	4.75	5	4.5	5	5	5	5
Organization	5	4.5	5	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.75
Syntax	3.75	4.25	4	3.75	4.75	4.25	5	4.25
Vocabulary	4.75	4.75	4.5	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.25
Conventions	3.75	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.25	4.5	3.5	4.5

During the second semester of the course implementation, students' performance in language conventions (grammar, spelling and punctuation) and syntax improved considerably since systematic reviews of complex grammatical structures and sentence construction were incorporated in the writing lab exercises. In fact, as illustrated in Table 2, only one student out of eight received scores below four. Discourse and text organization scores continued to be strong as they were for Cohort One given the course's revised orientation, the Process Writing Approach, repeated TOEFL test-taking strategy video lessons and practice, as well as the continuous support provided to the students in the writing lab's tutoring sessions (see Table 2).

Table 2. Writing features average in cohort 2

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8
Discourse	5	5	5	5	4.25	5	5	5
Organization	5	4.75	5	4.75	5	5	5	4.75
Syntax	4.75	4	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.75	5	5
Vocabulary	4	4.75	5	5	4.75	5	5	5
Conventions	3.5	4	5	4.25	5	4.75	4.75	4.75

In terms of students' performance in tasks (different genres) written throughout the first semester of the project, most of the students performed very well on summary and descriptive writing products since these were two of the academic genres that were taught and practiced several times during the course, both in classes and in the writing lab's sessions (see Table 3).

The TOEFL integrated essay scores were lower than the rest, even though it was the final task of the semester; as seen in Table 3, two out of eight students scored below four in their compositions. The explanation for this may be twofold. First of all, for the most part of the semester, time was spent writing at the paragraph level, focusing on syntax. Secondly, students were under pressure since this task was their final exam.

Table 3. Task performance average in cohort 1.

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8
Summary Paragraph	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.2	5	4.6	4.4	4.8
Descriptive Paragraph	4.8	4.8	4.6	4.4	4.8	4.4	4.6	4.4
Descriptive Essay	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.6	4.8	5	5	4.8
TOEFL Essay	4	3.8	4.2	3.8	4.2	4.6	4.2	4.2

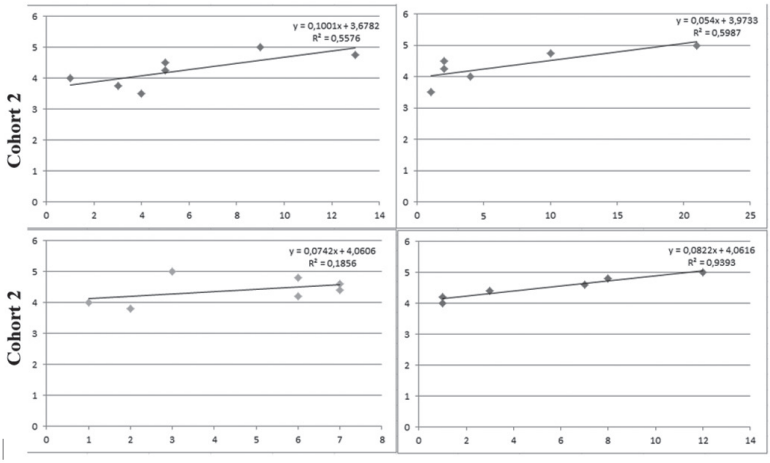
In spite of the fact that the tasks carried out during the second semester were more academically demanding, students' performance was much higher than in Cohort One (see Table 4). There are several hypotheses that may explain the improvements in students' written products such as curriculum modifications, more grammar and syntax reviews, a better selection of academic tasks, and more systematic student participation in the writing lab. There were changes made to the course syllabus in order to incorporate the argumentative genre; also, the number of products was decreased to allow more time to work one of them. In the virtual component of the writing lab, numerous exercises were uploaded to practice advanced grammatical forms and syntax such as nominalization, phrasal verbs, reduced adverb clauses, among others. These variables might have influenced the quality of the written products.

Table 4. Task performance average in cohort 2.

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8
Descriptive paragraph	4.2	4	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.8	5	4.8
Reflective essay	4.4	4.6	5	5	5	5	4.8	5
Opinion Essay	4.6	4.6	5	4.8	4.6	4.8	5	5
TOEFL Essay	4.6	4.8	5	4.6	4.8	5	5	4.8

In terms of data dispersion (Table 5), graphs A, B and D, particularly the latter, showed that there is an impact of the strategies utilized throughout the Academic Writing course on students' writing skills. However, graph C illustrates that students from Cohort 1 had difficulties in applying their improved usage of writing features to the academic writing tasks assigned.

Table 5. Data dispersion of writing features (graphs A&B) and task performance (graphs C&D)



Conclusions and Recommendations

From the data obtained, it can be inferred that in order for students to write college-level, academic products, they must have a solid foundation on the grammatical and syntactical features of complex texts. Such finding has significant implications for the Teacher Preparation Program of this study since it calls for an evaluation of the content and standards of prerequisite courses that supposedly address the sub-skills required for an academic writing course.

The positive results of students' written work throughout the first two semesters of the implementation of the new Multifaceted Academic Writing Module could be explained by the combined use of the multiple instructional and assessment strategies mentioned throughout this study.

Moreover, students must be continuously reminded, required and supported to use academic writing across all disciplines, being mindful of content-specific lexicon. This is especially crucial in a context where students are future English teachers who have the responsibility of breaking vicious cycles of educational inequity and poor academic literacy skills.

In order to obtain a more comprehensive view of the impact of the academic writing course on students' academic writing abilities, the quantitative results obtained in this study should be cross-examined through questionnaires and interviews to assess students' and

professors' perceptions regarding the development of the writing skills and transferability to other courses.

Grounded on the data obtained from Cohort 1, in terms of writing features and performance in academic tasks, several curricular modifications were made (e.g. extended practice of academic genres and grammatical exercises), also tutoring sessions were extended as well as systematized feedback. Such modifications, as shown in Table 5, resulted on Cohort 2 students' overall improvement of their academic writing skills.

Nevertheless, further research must be conducted to explore the effectiveness of the Process Approach, systematized feedback, and on-going tutoring in increasing students' metalinguistic awareness and the quality of their academic written products.

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Educational videos: a didactic tool for strengthening English vocabulary through the development of affective learning in kids[1]

Videos educativos: una herramienta didáctica para el fortalecimiento del vocabulario en inglés mediante el desarrollo del aprendizaje afectivo en niños

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Abstract

The following paper seeks to develop a proposal, observing to what extent educational videos and affective learning can strengthen vocabulary in an EFL setting. This action research study was done with fifth grade students belonging to a public school, who showed a low degree of motivation in the English class, making it difficult to acquire the language. The instruments that were applied are pre/post-tests, pre/post questionnaires, field notes and class workshops. Grounded theory was implemented for the data analysis. Results evidence the enhancement students had in vocabulary acquisition along with educational videos and affective learning.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language, Educational Videos, Affective Learning, Vocabulary.

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Resumen

El presente trabajo busca consolidar una propuesta, observando hasta qué punto los videos educativos y el aprendizaje afectivo pueden fortalecer el vocabulario en un entorno de inglés como lengua extranjera. Este estudio de investigación acción se realizó con estudiantes de quinto grado pertenecientes a un colegio público, quienes mostraron un bajo grado de motivación en la clase de inglés, dificultando la adquisición del idioma. Los instrumentos que se aplicaron son diagnóstico inicial y final, cuestionario inicial y final, notas de campo y talleres de clase. Se aplicó la teoría fundamentada para el análisis de datos. Los resultados demuestran la mejora de los estudiantes en la adquisición de vocabulario con videos educativos y el aprendizaje afectivo.

Palabras clave: Inglés como lengua extranjera, Videos educativos, Aprendizaje afectivo, Vocabulario

Resumo

Este trabalho procura consolidar uma proposta, observando como os vídeos educativos e a aprendizagem afetiva pode reforçar vocabulário em um ambiente de Inglês como língua estrangeira. Este estudo de pesquisa-ação foi realizado com alunos do quinto ano (do sistema educativo de 11 anos), de uma escola pública, os quais demonstraram pouca motivação na aula de Inglês, causando dificuldade na aquisição do idioma. Os instrumentos utilizados para medir o aprendizado são: o diagnóstico inicial e final, questionário inicial e final, notas de campo e atividades de aula. Foi aplicada a teoria fundamentada para a análise dos dados foi aplicado. Os resultados demonstram a melhoria dos estudantes na aquisição de vocabulário, com vídeos educativos e a aprendizagem afetiva.

Palavras-chave: Inglês como língua estrangeira, vídeos educativos, Aprendizagem afetiva, Vocabulário.

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to describe to what extent innovative teaching tools can facilitate English learning, particularly in the area of vocabulary. This refers to a research proposal applied with fifth graders, who showed a lower degree of motivation for English classes, making it difficult to acquire the language. Hence, the importance of looking for different methodologies was evident, which encouraged in students the interest to learn a foreign language.

According to the objectives of this study, activities are implemented in order to impact the child from the emotional side (affective), using technology, in this case, "educational videos" (taken from different online sources), to create new perspectives in the acquisition of a foreign language. Considering the above, this study is based on the following three constructs, first, vocabulary, that is the topic to be strengthened in pupils. Second, educational videos, as the main motivating agent, and finally, the affective learning that facilitates a change in accordance with the social needs of the target population.

Now, going further, it is important to consider the research methodology that embraces the approach: type of research, intervention and analysis, (which shows the action plan to reach to the pedagogical solution for the target population). Finally, the paper will draw the conclusions to answer the query of the present study: to what extent the use of educational videos and affective learning help to strengthen the acquisition of vocabulary.

Literature Review

Vocabulary

The first construct to be addressed in this research corresponds to vocabulary. According to Schmitt & McCarthy (2011), vocabulary represents one of the most important points around the teaching-learning process of any language. Some of the frequent questions, we, as researchers have asked, are: what does vocabulary mean? What comprises students' acquisition? What should be the basic knowledge to master a language? How should an approach be adopted for the student to successfully learn, when the context is not centered in learning? Based on those queries, we begin by describing what the concept of vocabulary is from some experts' viewpoints, which are going to be mentioned below.

According to Nation (2001), one of the relevant things when

learning a foreign language is vocabulary. It takes into account level, accuracy, motivation, ages and aptitude, among other factors, which are the basis of a learning process. In other words, the communicative emphasis is on vocabulary, not as a complex system far from the students, but as a means of bringing the context closer to them, and at the same time to daily reality. In the same respect, Schmitt (2000) establishes that "lexical knowledge is central to the communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language" (p. xi). It means, vocabulary has the power of creating and enhancing communication among people, due to the pragmatic use to express ideas.

In relation to vocabulary, probably the first idea that arises is words. That formulation was admirably suited for non-professionals, but for anyone interested in exploring the subtlety and magic of lexicon, the word "term" is too general to encapsulate the various forms of vocabulary. Taking the latter into consideration, Schmitt (2000) conceived vocabulary, not as individual words, but as complex forms that must be analyzed. Consequently, these postulate multiplicity of meanings according to the context in which they are used. For example, these five words represent the meaning of death: "Die, Expire, Pass away, Bite the dust, Kick the bucket, Give up the Ghost Among", Schmitt (2000, p. 1). Previously we could find, not only the typical way to refer to death, but also to propose, describe or exemplify the meaning of the word according to idioms. That is, vocabulary can be considered as the words of a language, including individual parts or several words that are grouped into meanings.

On top of that, vocabulary also means communication among people, as Wilkins (1972) says, cited by Lessard (2012): "while without grammar very little can be expressed, without vocabulary nothing can be transmitted." (pp. 111-112). In any language, it is essential to possess a certain number of words so that there is a good productive development in a context, communicatively speaking. However, vocabulary is mistakenly conceived as a grammatical approach, as Schmitt (2010) establishes it, "students carry dictionaries and not grammar books to communicate with" (p. 4), this implies that vocabulary is the channel for interacting with others, their learning is vital, not through grammar, but from individual and social development.

Educational videos

The concept of educational videos, according to Bravo (2000), refers to the use of audiovisual material, which provides skills in the teaching-learning process. In addition, Nikitina (2009) states that the

use of videos in classes is necessary because the language develops the learning teaching process through other contexts. Also, Coleman (1992), cited in Kumagai, López-Sánchez and Wu (2016), discusses that the visual process of the video provides an interesting and enjoyable learning experience for students. Hence, this procedure activates language skills as the linguistic or communicative ones, strengthening new vocabulary leading learners to imitate a real world from images.

In this way, the student acquires a linguistic and sociocultural awareness through images. What is more, as mentioned by Goldfard (2002), the potential of the video contains millions of elements to boost content in teaching a language; the convergence of technology with students' real life sets new standards as long as they are active and creative. Likewise, these tools are proposed to motivate students towards social interaction, acquiring the knowledge like a source of memory or significant learning. Also, educative videos, according to Cavallero (2010), are taken as a developer of the learning process, as a connection between reality and classroom environment. All of this is possible thanks to the easy way in which the video is promoted and because, it is always to the reach of people.

Therefore, regarding the application of educational videos, the integration of contents in the classroom is vital. It should be noted that the objectives of this implementation are linguistic; this does not indicate that they should be presented only structurally, but on the contrary, a purpose for the video should be found. It has to be contextualized with multiple elements that direct the students' attention and provoke an adequate motivation-setting in the classroom. Hence, educational videos are a very practical tool since the use of these is an expressive support to any class as a means for the development of teaching. This situation leads to a motivation in class that has to do with the next theoretical construct.

Affective Learning

Another important construct presented here, on which this research is based, is the affective influence that is currently proposed in the teaching-learning of a foreign language. Most studies have suggested a relationship between affect and performance present when learning a foreign language. Some of which have showed that students may perform very poorly due to factors such as lack of interest, self-confidence, teaching method, previous negative emotions, among others. In this respect, Brown (2007) makes a complete definition of affective factors as the origins of the affective learning, through the

Krashen's affective filter. All of this is about how the feelings of a human being are, proposed as the main factor in the educative process, because what is related to the emotional part controls the way how knowledge can be supported.

Likewise, Oxford (1990) states that this type of learning refers to affective activities, all of which contribute to foster students' autonomy, meaning an environment of student dialogue, cooperative learning, role play, video viewing. All of the above are directed by the teacher, who creates patterns of control and at the same time has dynamic classes, generating new expectations in the learners to fulfill their goals, influenced by individual development, cognitive styles and motivation. Furthermore, Gano-Phillips (2009) establishes that affective learning brings the possibility to present students' internal and external feelings. This means how the personal emotions impact the learning process through the point of view of a person. In other words, motivation, reactions, bullying and all the factors presented in the classroom are the focus of education especially around learning a foreign language.

According to King (2009), motivation is related to a hierarchy of the needs of human development, such as physiological, safety, love, belonging, self-esteem and self-fulfillment. Likewise, it is possible to conceptualize that this is the opportunity the student has for construction of knowledge. For example, as Csizér & Dörnyei (2005) state:

> "along with aptitude, motivation is the variable that influences in a determinant way in the learning of a foreign language, since although a person has aptitude, if there is no motivation he will not learn the target language or not will do with maximum effectiveness; on the other hand, if someone does not have a great aptitude, this lack can be compensated with a high degree of motivation " (p.39)

As a result, the student's motivation is proposed as one of the main factors for a successful learning process from students to the society. According to Gardner (2007), the student is generally influenced by social surroundings and culture, since the apprehension of knowledge depends on the perspective that the subject has of its context. Here is where video and affective learning play an important role due to they recreate a reality as a goal, without having a direct contact with native speakers or real contexts of the language. Also, it is important to recognize the role of inner emotions in a person at the moment of learning a foreign language.

Methodology

Context and participants

The population chosen for the development of this project was a 5th grade class of a public school, located in Engativá, Bogotá. This course comprises a mixed group of students aging between 11 and 12 years old, with 24 learners enrolled, 10 boys and 14 girls. Their social stratum was 2 and 3. We noticed students' problems were low vocabulary level, their lack of motivation for learning English, scarce participation and other troubles during the scholar process. As a result, this project sought to give a solution to those specific situations in the classroom.

Research design

This Action Research proposal consists of the implementation of educational video activities. It was used as a dynamic tool for strengthening vocabulary, while implementing affective learning as an influential factor in the development of the teaching-learning process making an effective environment for the English as a foreign language class. Hence, the implementation of data instruments is carried out according to the construction based on the use of educational videos and affective learning in class. In this way, the results were organized in eight interventions inside the class as follows:

Table 1. Implementations of educational videos.

Classes	Topic	Videos	Activity
1.	Family members	Family Members Song	Make a photo with your family.
2.	Jobs and occupations	Talking about Jobs and Occupations: English Language	Worksheet and play of roles.
3.	Celebrations	Holidays All Around the World	Cultural posters
4.	Daily routine	Daily Activities Present Tense ESL Classics - songs for learning English	Make my day, flyer.
5.	Classroom objects	Classroom Vocabulary: Rock Star Kids What's This?	Collect pictures.
6.	Free time	Weekend or Leisure Activities Kids Learning Cartoon Videos	Reflection.
7.	Sports	Sports Song - Educational Children Song - Learning English Sports for Kids	Puzzle.
8.	Food and drinks	Food Song Learn 15 Food and Drinks Learn English Kids	Cooking in class.

As it can be seen the researchers applied eight video-based interventions. These videos were taken from different online sources with a pedagogical purpose. Topics were according to the syllabus proposed by the researchers taking into account the Standards of Foreign Languages by the Colombian Ministry of Education (2006). Activities encouraged students to participate actively in class. In relation to the development of the study, the following figure shows how the affective learning was used; this is the proposal of this study.

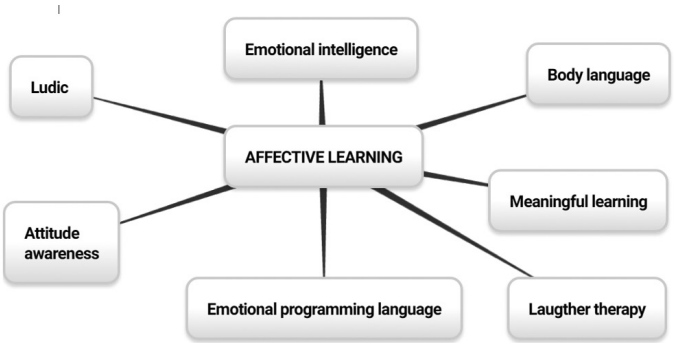

Figure 1. Affective learning methodology

Data Collection Instruments

Pre-test and post-test

At first, the pretest was an instrument to demonstrate that students' vocabulary level was low, however, after the implementation, the results increased. Hernández, Fernandez & Baptista (2014) defined this instrument as "a form of evaluation creating an organization process machinery that is related to one or more variables." (p. 217) In this case two diagnostic tests were carried out, one at the beginning of the classes and another after the implementation.

Initial and Final Questionnaire

To know the interests or opinions, we gathered all the questionnaires as a form to consult both students and teachers about English learning as a foreign language. Tamayo (2004) indicates that the preparation of the questionnaire requires researching prior knowledge of the phenomenon under investigation, which must be done in the first stage

of the work. In this sense, Eyssautier (2002), affirms that the questions must be carefully prepared based on the relationship of the problem being investigated and the hypotheses to be checked. In this case two questionnaires were applied in order to investigate the students' initial and final opinion, which were important for the development of this study.

Field journals

The purpose of this instrument was to find out the teacher's experiences inside the classroom, due to we could help to get a better contextualization of situations in the research project. Ten field journals were carried out throughout the process. Hernández, Fernandez & Baptista (2014) refer the following about it: "It is common that the annotations are recorded in what is called a field diary or logbook, which is a kind of personal diary (pp. 373 - 374)

Class Workshops

Finally, we implemented class workshops as a method to integrate competences into the pedagogical implementations. We developed in total eight class workshops in this project. According to Quintana & Montgomery (2006), "The workshop is a technique for collecting information, analyzing and planning" (p.72). In this case, the class workshops were working at the end of each class involving the process of feedback around knowledge.

Data analysis and interpretations

The present analysis is based on grounded theory. This introduces the research methodology used for this study and how it guided data collection, analysis and development of theory. Barney & Strauss (2012) propose the grounded theory as a form of giving sociological views for quantitative data. It also implies to analyze the obtained information in order to present it in a clear way for all people. At the same time, the researcher can find and show how the results were obtained, through the details of the process, all of this could not be divorced one from another when data and analysis come from the research method.

Also grounded theory is the focus on everyday life experiences and valuing participants' perspectives. This theory can be applied by requesting some information interactive process between the researcher

and respondents, describing and relying on student's descriptions. The data collection and analysis for this study follows a cyclical process typical for Grounded Theory, by using early findings to shape the ongoing data collection. In accordance with the development of the research, this study proposed some strategies in order to achieve an approach according to students' needs in relation to the proposed question: "To what extent is the use of educational videos and affective learning strengthening English vocabulary in fifth grade students?"

Results

The results obtained show that the video along with affective learning, lead students to feel motivated to learn a foreign language, strengthening their vocabulary as a goal for each class. They also participated in all the activities proposed and their attitude was critical. Taking into account the above, this analysis will show a main category and three emerging subcategories, after having carried out the process of open, axial and selective coding, where it is sought to answer the research question. The central or core category is Emotional videos as vocabulary builders and the subcategories are presented in Figure 2, they will be developed later on.

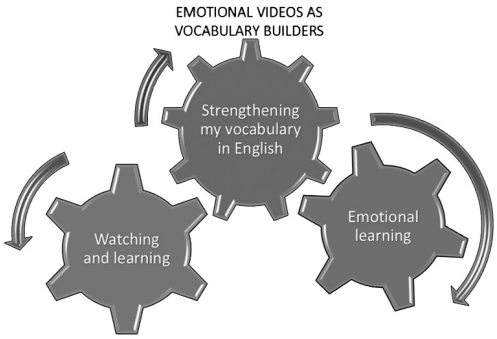

Figure 2. The Core Category and Subcategories

First subcategory: Strengthening my vocabulary in English refers to how students can use methods to learn different words in a foreign language acquiring motivation and emotional knowledge.

The analysis applied in all the instruments evidences an increase in vocabulary. For example, in the question, do the English classes

encourage you to learn more vocabulary? The students answered between 1 and 5; 1 being the lowest value, and 5 the highest. Prior the implementation the average was 3.5, indicating that learners were aware of taking the English class as a way for them to strengthen their vocabulary. Subsequently, in the final survey, the same question was asked again, obtaining from the students' view a new perspective, the average was 4.8. This result supports that the English class had innovative strategies where learners were enhancing vocabulary.

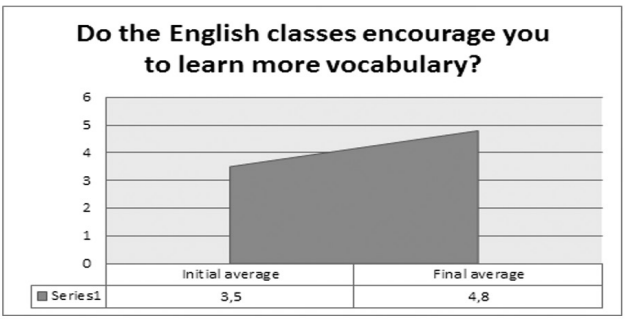

Figure 3. Students' Questionnaire

Also, another instrument that showed improvement in vocabulary was the pre and posttests. The results presented in Figure 4 correspond to the evaluation of vocabulary through a series of implementations with educational videos, this test has a scale from 1 to 5, with 1 as the lowest value, and 5 as the highest. In the pretest, 70% of students had scores between 1-3, and the other 30%, between 3 and 4. So, as it can be analyzed, they did not reach a grade of 5. However, when students did the posttest, the results obtained after the proposal, supported that educational videos were an effective strategy as an emotional method, where the results were that 100% of students improved their test grade surpassing the average level.

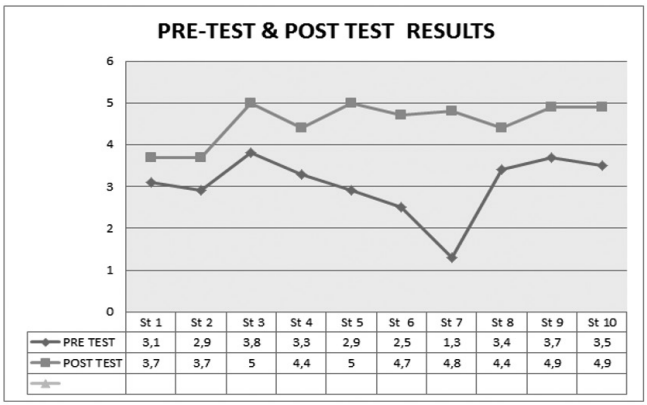

Figure 4. Pre-test & post-test results

Additionally, questionnaires showed improvement in vocabulary as well. They had a question about students' likes in the English class in both, before and after the implementation. These were the answers by the students:

What do you like from the English class? (Pre-questionnaire)

"I learn to speak English, to write well in English and many things".

What did you like from the English class? Why? (Post-questionnaire)

"We learned about videos and vocabulary. Also, we learned a lot of things in English".

The answers provided by the students show that at first they were learning English as a general thing, and after the intervention, they were focused on educational videos and vocabulary. The English class was a space where pupils could learn, enjoy and practice along with the teacher. Moreover, it intended to be one of the classes where topics may be significative for them.

Finally, in the reflection that students did in the class- by-class process, one student wrote this after the following question:

What topics did you learn today in class?

"Comida y bebida [Food and beverages]: 1) hot dog, 2) milk, 3)water, 4)hamburger, 5)egg, 6) salad, 7) juice, 8) lemonade"

This student wrote items in English, it means a lot since the student was actually strengthening his vocabulary. Furthermore, the linking process between videos and a real context goes beyond class. As Nikitina (2009) says, the student needs to see the learning process in other contexts, a world different from the one given at the school, where people could get the knowledge without any problem.

Second subcategory: Watching and learning defined as a process where the student feels motivated visualizing educational topics while easily learning vocabulary in English. The video was characterized as an essential tool, since it requires the ICT use, which is related to knowledge, making a meaningful appropriation of contents during the reception of the message. When referring to a learning process in a foreign language, it is important to talk about new resources that engage students in the classroom creating new projects. This study suggested eight implementations with educational videos in English promoting new perspectives as a pattern base for positive results.

For instance, in Figure 5, it is showed how the use of educational videos has enhanced the English learning in the target population. It was evident, not only in terms of building knowledge, but also as a motivational tool. The last affirmation is very close to what Almenara, Sánchez & Ibáñez (2000) establish about the motivational function of videos.

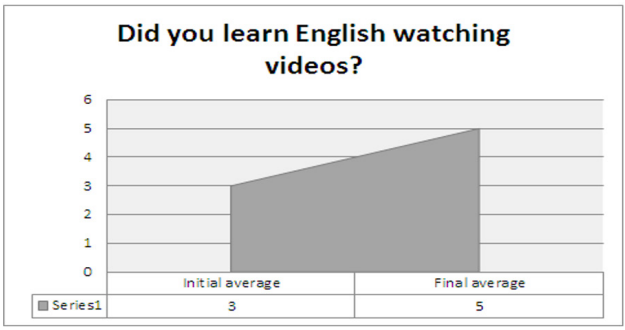

Figure 5. Students' Questionnaire

As it can be seen, the results present that prior the implementation, 100% of students scored learning with videos with a 3,0. In comparison with the final questionnaire, it is evidenced the change around students' perspectives, demonstrating that the average increased after the intervention. Thus, educational videos make the development of

positive attitudes towards the possible contents. According to Zhu (2012), educational videos imply an important advantage during the teaching-learning process. They extend the students' curiosity; in this case, because videos not only show pictures or sounds, they are known as a motivating tool. In the post questionnaire, there was a question, whose answer supports this subcategory:

What did you like from the English class? Why? (Post-questionnaire)

"The videos because I ended up learning what I had not before".

Many times students have questions, but social pressure inside the classroom is so strong that pupils prefer not to ask. For that reason, something is necessary to recapitulate and build knowledge, in this study, educational videos were the tool provided to have an adaptation to the English class, recycling what students had seen previously. Another question from the post questionnaire will be referred below.

Has the methodology used in the English class impacted you in any way? How? Why? (Post-questionnaire)

- *"Because the videos impacted me, I learn in a very fun way and also we play in fun ways and I learn".*
- *"Yes, especially the games, the videos that teach something, because sometimes the teacher makes questions, I have to participate and when we watch the videos or play".*

We would like to highlight the word "impact" because it implies a strong feeling in people's lives. In other words, the opportunity of acquiring knowledge, through other ways is meaningful for students, because they need a backdoor to learn, even it is necessary to make use of resources according to pupils' age and likes. Teachers have to adapt to their students, and technological devices are demonstrated to be an important tool in class to make it different and enjoyable.

Third subcategory: Emotional learning. Motivation is related to how the students work in class, it is shown as a positive influence to acquire knowledge. Also, with motivation the feelings are an excellent option for learning a new language as a factor to increase the degree of interest. According to the statistics, the results presented in Figure 6 seem to corroborate that the proposed model of affective learning was a great choice due to the initial average students had regarding motivation, it was 4.5, and at the end of the project, it was 4.9, promoting the confidence, self-esteem and participation as a good strategy to engage learners.

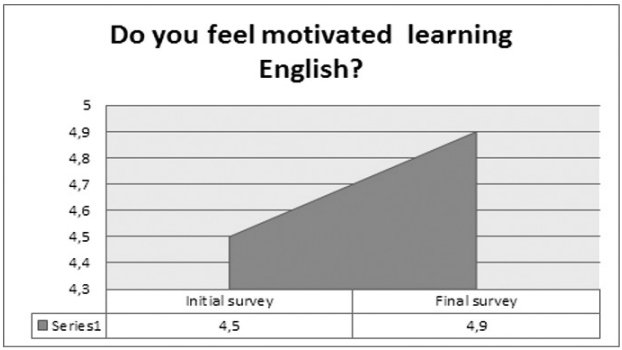

Figure 6. Students' Questionnaire

As it can be seen in the figure above, students increased their motivation to learn English after having experimented the affective learning process. In this case, it is possible to refer to Dörney (2005), who says that motivation is the variable that influences, in a determinant form, the learning process in a foreign language. Also, in figure 7, students manifested that they enjoyed the activities carried out in class, which in the present study were educational videos. This led the learning process to be successful and at the same time fun for students.

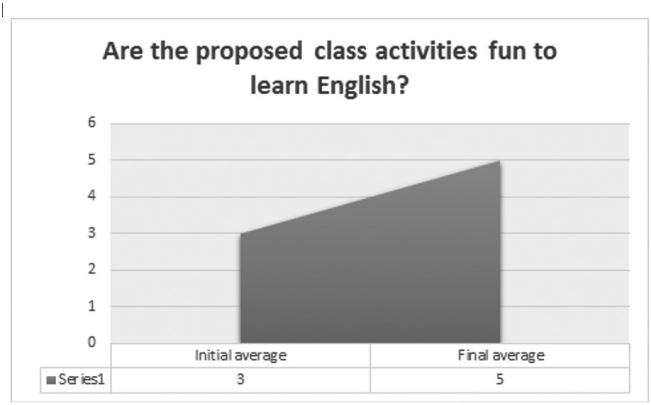

Figure 7. Students' Questionnaire

Another instrument that showed how students felt in class was the questionnaire applied to the students after the implementation. These were the answers of the following question:

What did you like from the English class? Why?

"I liked the English class because we made "Master Chef" and it was awesome. Thanks for everything".

"Everything that the teacher does and I like the activities we do with him. The teacher is very fun and he makes an effort when teaching".

As it can be observed, students showed a very positive attitude towards the English class, the activities and the teacher's role. In addition, the affective learning was an important ingredient in the relationship between the teacher and students, both inside and outside the classroom, reinforcing interaction and motivation at the same time that pupils were learning.

Conclusions

Firstly, it should be emphasized that the results obtained in the data analysis show that educational videos and affective learning are an adequate method for students, due to their vocabulary was strengthened. Secondly, it must be highlighted that the use of affective learning is an important methodology for teaching and learning a foreign language. This is because the model is effective in involving students to acquire new vocabulary since they feel motivated to learn.

Thus, from the point of view of personal efficacy, students work on emotional intelligence making possible the construction of emotional attitudes, meaningful learning, social integration and other values. Additionally, educational videos and affective learning led to different social functions, for instance, the ability to create a new critical and meaningful perspective. This means that the student has the opportunity to learn about other people's contexts, appropriating new knowledge through curricular practice while using technology in the classroom in a suitable environment.

Furthermore, based on our experience as educators, this study intends to emphasize the importance of the teacher's' role, not just for transmitting knowledge of immediate use, but also for a change, generating new actions that produce in the student a motivation for learning. As a result, the classroom signifies more than a place of study, a space where students can experiment meaningful experiences when learning a foreign language.

Finally, as a way of recommendations, we number the following: Create spaces that encourage the practice of affective learning, seeking

to motivate students to approach a foreign language. Promote between teachers the usage of new technological visual tools, which can make easy the language learning. Implement audio, visual and affective strategies that could promote vocabulary strengthening. Introduce students to the benefits of learning a foreign language. Increase the number of hours for the English class, because the teaching-learning process can be improved through the student-teacher interaction.

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The Logic of Sense incorporated to the notion of Inquiry as an Orientation for Learning: two classroom experiences[1]

La lógica del sentido incorporada a la noción de investigación como una orientación para el aprendizaje: dos experiencias en el aula.

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Universidad del Tolima

Abstract

A reflection about two classroom experiences is presented in the attempt to incorporate the Logic of Sense into the notion of inquiry for learning. The author used the method of Experimentation introduced by Deleuze and Guattari, who based its principles on philosophical conceptions by Baruch Spinoza. The first experience is conducted with students from the subject called Reading and Speaking workshop from the BA in English Teaching at Tolima University. The researcher designed a reading protocol which, in an initial stage, allowed students to comprehend the texts assigned for the class. Afterward, this protocol enabled students to reach levels of application and evaluation through the formulation of questions based on the Series of the Logic of Sense. The second experience was carried out with students from the Masters in English Didactics from the same University. The same reading protocol format was used; but, this time the questions constructed let students envision perspectives in the design of new curricular proposals.

Key Words: Experimentation, Innovation, Inquiry for learning, Logic of Sense.

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Resumen

Se presenta una reflexión en torno a dos experiencias de aula en las que se incorpora la Lógica de Sentido a la noción de indagación en el aprendizaje. El autor utiliza el método de Experimentación, propuesto por Deleuze y Gauttari, y el cual a su vez se basa en principios filosóficos de Baruch Spinoza. La primera experiencia se realizada con estudiantes de la asignatura Taller de Lectura y Conversación, perteneciente al programa de Licenciatura en inglés de la Universidad del Tolima. El investigador diseña un protocolo de lectura para desarrollar inicialmente niveles de comprensión de los textos asignados para la clase. Posteriormente, los estudiantes alcanzan niveles de aplicación y evaluación a través de la formulación de preguntas basadas en las series de la Lógica del Sentido. La segunda experiencia se aplica con estudiantes de la Maestría en Didáctica del Inglés. El mismo formato de protocolo, utilizado con estudiantes de pregrado, es aplicado; pero, esta vez las preguntas formuladas permitieron visualizar perspectivas en el diseño de nuevas propuestas curriculares

Palabras claves: Experimentación, Innovación, Indagación para el aprendizaje, Lógica del Sentido

Resumo

É apresentada uma reflexão ao redor de duas experiências de sala de aula nas que se incorpora a Lógica de Sentido com relação à noção de indagação na aprendizagem. O autor utiliza o método de Experimentação, proposto por Deleuze e Gauttari, o qual ao mesmo tempo se baseia em princípios filosóficos de Baruch Spinoza. A primeira experiência é realizada com estudantes da disciplina Oficina de Leitura e Conversação, que pertence ao programa de Licenciatura em inglês da Universidade do Tolima. O pesquisador desenha um protocolo de leitura para desenvolver, em princípio, níveis de compreensão dos textos designados para a aula. Logo, os estudantes alcançam níveis de aplicação e avaliação através da formulação de perguntas baseadas nas séries da Lógica do Sentido. A segunda experiência é aplicada com estudantes do Mestrado em Didática do Inglês. O mesmo formato de protocolo, utilizado com estudantes de graduação, é aplicado; mas, dessa vez as perguntas formuladas permitiram visualizar perspectivas no desenho de novas propostas curriculares.

Palavras clave: Experimentação, Inovação, Indagação para a aprendizagem, Lógica do Sentido

Introduction

"En vez de preguntar y responder dialécticamente, hay que pensar problemáticamente" (Foucault, 1995, p. 27)

Knowledge at school seems not to be constructed, or even contradicted. It is, most of the times, assumed as a product, which students need to learn. In this way, questions are most of the time a kind of mechanism that enables the assimilation of pre-established knowledge. They function as a strategy that enables to confirm the pure comprehension of the theory (dialectical thinking in the words of Foucault). For this French philosopher, questions should go beyond comprehension (Foucault, 1995). They should envision problems, which are understood as a possibility to think differently: Nowadays, we come across the idea of knowledge as a problem: Thinking the unthinkable, emphasize the difference and see the statements as happenings (Wiesner S, 1999, p. 10) 3

There have been many attempts to change these dialectical practices. Among these attempts, I can highlight: Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) founded on the bases of Vigostkian theory, Global Citizenship Education (GCE) which intends to connect education with the idea of forming global citizens through the principles of Emancipation proposed by Paul Freire, and Inquiry-oriented Curriculum.

This reflective article is based on a qualitative study that seeks for new manners of conceiving the concept of "problem" in the perspective of an inquiry-oriented curriculum through the use of the Logic of Sense (Deleuze G, 1989). I experimented with the concept of problem proposed by Deleuze and Guatari in the construction of a learning proposal that changes the dialectical role of questions. The experience was conducted in two groups of students from Universidad del Tolima:

Experience 1: The course called Reading and Speaking Workshop. Fourth Semester B.A. Program in English Teaching.

Experience 2: The Course called Curriculum: Design, Implementation and Evaluation, Second Semester, Masters in English Didactics.

The model was applied to both groups with different purposes. The data collected was analyzed in terms of the possibility of conceiving an inquiry-oriented curriculum.

Translated by the author for publication purposes.

Literature Review

The notion of "problem" for the Logic of Sense

In order to understand the concept of problem for Deleuze (1989), we need firstly to elucidate the images that people commonly have about the concept of "problem". Most of the times, a problem is seen as an obstacle. It is frequently associated with a solution. If a problem exists, there must be a solution; or at least we need to look for one.

For the Logic of Sense, a problem does not necessarily imply a solution. When a problem finds a solution, it dies, it is not a problem anymore. From this perspective, the problem seems to have a positive connotation. Deleuze (2005) understands the problem as the crossing of three series: The series of concepts, which is composed by images and ideas; the series of questions, and the series of happening or events.

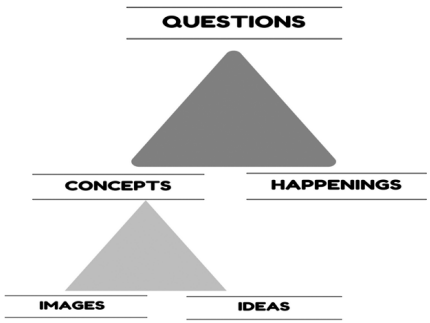

Figure 1: The problem for the Logic of Sense

According to this model, problems do not exist - they are constructed through questioning the concepts inside the discourse:

> Problems and questions are not defined according to lack. It is not that subject does not know something and therefore has a problem and asks questions. Instead, problems determine objects and cannot eliminate the problem as determining, since the evolution and genesis of objects, their singularities and signs, are determined by the problem. So, in the same way that instances problems and generating questions for a body of knowledge allow it to be understood better, the problem and questions are a positive aspect of the object rather than a lack or insufficiency to be negated and eliminated (Williams, 2013, p.88)

As a result, concepts are made of images or ideas that need to be contradicted by means of questions that become new possibilities, new ways of seeing. They are made of paradoxes that allow us to turn the concepts around. A question is problematic when it makes us see a happening; but a happening is not what commonly occurs in daily life; on the contrary, a happening is an accident, a turning point in our lives, a possibility, a proposal, a new state, a new dimension.

Inquiry as an Orientation for Learning

Gordon Wells (2002) presents an interesting approach to what Inquiry means in the organization of a curriculum. Through clear examples, he lets us realize on the importance of questions in the establishment of problems that define not only the content of a syllabus, but also the sequence of learning by considering the singularities and interests of learners. In a typical lesson about the time, beyond learning how time is measured, students question the same essence in the idea of measuring time: Why is it necessary to measure time? How did ancient civilizations keep track of time? Could there be other ways of measuring time? The notion of time is something that everyone assumes as a fact, without hesitating or doubting it. Inquiry as an orientation takes students to the field of questioning notions that we assume as part of our daily routines. We use time every day, but we never think about it: can time be conceived in a different way? What could happen if an innovative method to measure time were invented?

Bearing the former idea in mind, we can see the connection of the Logic of Sense with Inquiry as an Orientation for Learning: both of them expose students to think the unthinkable.

With regards to the learning and teaching act, for Wells (2002), problems have the following characteristics:

1. They may be spontaneous; they need to be opened to unplanned situations.
2. They are social constructions and as such have to be understood from the perspectives of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT)
3. They arise in the course of ongoing activities in which students are affectively and intellectually engaged.
4. They have no single correct answer; nevertheless, a solution has to be constructed for the participants to be able to continue to act effectively and responsibly.

M. Foucault and Gilles Deleuze would disagree with the fourth characteristic of problems stated by Wells in the sense that the reason of being in the problem is the problem itself and not the solution:

Problems as complex themes resist a seventh postulate of the image of thought whereby truth and falsity are said to apply solutions of problems rather than to problems themselves. There are no technical, practical or theoretical solutions to problems that finally dispel their capacity to regenerate and raise novel questions and challenges (Williams, 2013, p 139)

In other words, it is the problem the one that keeps the mind looking for new alternatives; some of them become happenings when they are in the way of innovation.

Methodology

Research Design

I applied Experimentation as a method (Lichilín, 1999, p 16-18) in the sense that the philosophical foundations on the Logic of Sense were incorporated to the notion of Inquiry oriented learning and teaching. In the first experience, the Logic of Sense was applied in the subject of Reading and Speaking Workshop from the B.A. Program in English Teaching through the creation of a Reading Protocol (Appendix A) that problematized concepts in the text that were part of the syllabus. The reading protocol asked students in item 5 to make problematic questions based on the contents of the text. These questions must accomplish the conditions presented in Figure 1. In the second experience, students from the Masters in English Didactics used the Logic of Sense as part of the procedure to design an innovative curriculum proposal.

As Lichilín (1999) says, Experimentation as a method is not the same as the Experimental method from research traditions. The latter aims at scientifically demonstrating the effectiveness of a research variable by applying it to an experimental group in reference to a control group that is not intervened (Griffee, 2012, p. 71-72). The former must be understood as a relation with the plan of immanence in Baruch Spinoza. For this philosopher, a thing is not defined by its form, its organ, its function, its substance or its subject, but because of its velocity, affective states and dynamic charges (Deleuze, 1988)

In this order of ideas, the research problems for experimentation would be located in the realm of immanence or consistency. That is to say, changes that transform an established state of things are those that

affect its essence; while a change that modifies, the form belongs to the realm of organization or extension. Deleuze (1998) gives a typical example of the two planes when he says that the change from the result of pouring a jar of water into two cups is in the plane of extension, while boiling a jar of water and pouring it into two cups will not result in 50 degrees Celsius each. Temperature is a quality that cannot be subdivided.

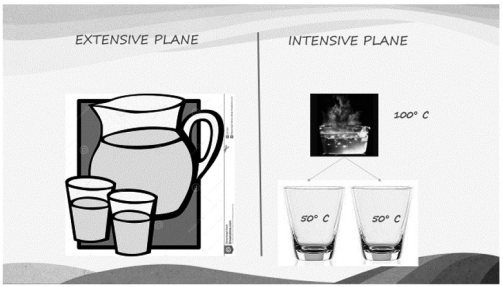

Figure 2: Experimentation as a method: the extensive and the intensive planes

From this assertion, we can tell that real changes in education will not occur in the extensive plane: when more desks are put into a classroom, more rooms are built in a school or more teachers are trained; but in the intensive plane: when there is a relation of affection with knowledge that moves a community to learn.

In this sense, the question that leads the conducted research study is located in the intensive plane, since it wants to affect students' perception of knowledge through the idea that this is not a universal truth legitimized by its scientific denomination, but a singular act that becomes a creation of mind, when knowledge is contradicted:

What could happen when the notion of problem taken from the Logic of Sense is incorporated to an inquiry oriented learning experience?

What new insights will students be able to see in the reading texts when questions are created to contradict the authors' concepts through the use of the Logic of Sense?

Learning Experiences

Two learning experiences were designed for the two groups of students already described.

Experience 1: A Reading protocol

The aims of this tool were firstly to ensure comprehension of the texts that were part of the syllabus of this subject; and secondly to lead students to inquire on the content of these texts through the application of the Logic of Sense. The protocol consisted of 5 steps: title, author(s), key words, thinking map and problematic questions. The first three parts were intended for students to identify the texts, the thinking map enabled the comprehension of the texts through the organization of information according to the purpose of the author(s). Thinking maps consist of eight established maps, each one of them connected to the development of a mental skill (see Appendix B). Students were trained in the identification of each map, and the association of them to the purpose of the reading passage. That is to say, in the text called "Teaching ESL vs Teaching EFL. Principles and practices" by Daniel Krieger (2005), and as the author describes similarities and differences, the proper map to use from the eight proposed by Thinking Maps is a double bubble map (Yeager and Hyerle, p. 37)

Finally, the problematic questions were constructed by using the following model:

The author says/establishes/asseverates that " _____ "; however/nevertheless, what could happen if/ what if/ how could it be _____ ?

The model to construct the question corresponds to the three series proposed by Deleuze in the Logic of Sense: the series of concepts, which is composed by images and ideas, the series of questions, and the series of happenings or events (see figure 1)

Experience 2: A model for designing an innovative curriculum proposal

As a final project of the course called Curriculum: design, implementation and evaluation, students were required to design an innovative proposal and present it at the end of the semester in a poster session. The proposal was based on a needs analysis conducted at the institutions where the MA candidates worked and it had to consider

the main concepts constructed during the development of the course. It could be related to any of the curricular elements or combination of them, such as: syllabus design, methodology, materials, or evaluation.

Designing an innovative curriculum proposal is not an easy task and the hardest part seemed to be: "How to guide students to construct a problematic question that let them see a clear proposal for the design?"

The experience of learning consisted of three stages:

1. Students were encouraged to reflect on their teaching and learning habits and beliefs by reading and discussing the text "Examining Our Beliefs and Practices through Inquiry" by Kathy G. Short and Carolyn Burke (1996). The authors present some change stories to exemplify the ways curriculum may be reformed. In one of these stories the authors show:

   A belief: As teachers we remain in control of the standards and the communication, mostly by sending home report cards and announcements.

   A question: How can schooling be a collaborative venture among parents, teachers, and students?

   A proposal: Establish a three-way communication by using exchanging dialogue journals.

2. Students were exposed to the idea that an obstacle, a difficulty or scarcity may be an opportunity to see innovative ways of conceiving learning. To achieve this purpose, I showed the group a video entitled "Embrace the Shake" (2013) in which Phil Hansen developed an unruly tremor in his hand that kept him from creating the pointillist drawings he loved. Hansen was devastated, floating without a sense of purpose. Until a neurologist made a simple suggestion: embrace this limitation ... and transcend it.

For the purpose of the model, the video was summarized by equating Deleuze original triad:

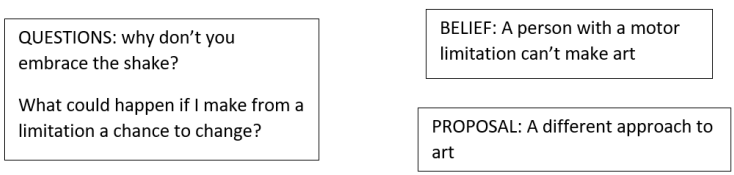

Figure 3: Summary of the Video "embrace the shake"

3. The original triangle proposed by Deleuze in the Logic of Sense was transformed in order to include beliefs and habits that teachers commonly have about the curriculum. These beliefs and habits were questioned by using the base "what could happen if/what if / how would it be?"

Application

The two learning experiences were applied under the following conditions:

Experience 1: The group of 16 students from the fourth semester wrote 4 reading protocols. Each protocol was part of a learning unit that lasted 4 weeks. Students wrote protocols on these texts:

Protocol 1: The Role of Metacognition in Second Language Teaching and Learning (Anderson, 2002)

Protocol 2: Tips for Reading Extensively (Ono L, Day R, and Harsch K, 2004)

Protocol 3: The Teaching Tool Box. Reconciling Theory, Practice, and Language in Teacher Training Course (Vanderwoude A, 2012)

Protocol 4: Using the Simpsons in EFL Classes (Ruckynski J, 2011)

Experience 2: The model to design an innovative curricular proposal was administered in the group of 7 students from the second Semester of the Masters in English Didactics during three sessions of 12 hours each. Each student designed a curricular proposal that was presented in a poster session and a written report.

Data Collection

Experience 1

The data from the Reading Protocol model was collected by using a language portfolio. The problematic questions content in the protocols were taken and analyzed in two moments: one in the middle of the process and the last one at the end of the semester. The purpose of this division was to evaluate the effectiveness of the model in the construction of problem questions and make further decisions on the sequence of learning.

Experience 2

The seven curricular proposals were presented in a written report that included an introduction; the problem question connected to the habits, beliefs and concepts, as well as the happening that resulted from the crossing of the first two series. Besides, students presented a poster which contained an abstract of the paper orally.

Data analysis and Interpretation

Experience 1

Students from 4th semester wrote a total of 57 reading protocols: 13 students wrote protocol 1, 14 students wrote protocol 2, 14 students wrote protocol 3, and 16 students wrote protocol 4. As I said before, I divided the total of protocols into 2 groups: the first group comprised protocols 1 and 2, and the second group comprised protocols 3 and 4.

These are the results of the first group of questions:

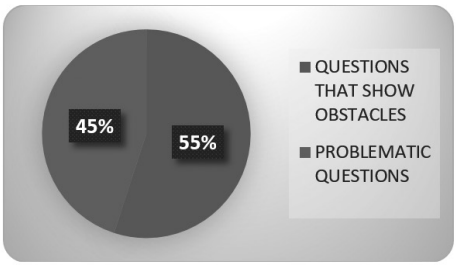

Figure 4: Data from the first group of questions

This is the data collected from the second group of questions:

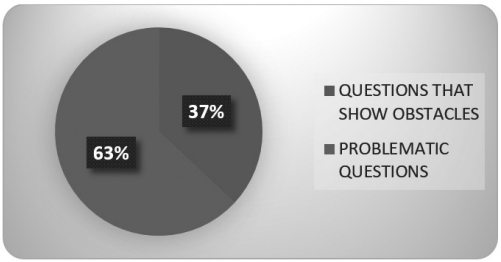

Figure 5: Data from the second group of questions

As can be seen in figure 5, most of the questions formulated by the group of students included obstacles; nevertheless, after providing extra practice, the number of questions that included a proposal increased an 8%. I can infer that more practice in the use of the model could enlarge the percentage of problematic questions.

Experience 2

The information of the seven curriculum innovation proposals is presented in the table below:

Table 1: Curricular innovation proposals from the Masters in English Didactics Students

Belief/habit/concept	Question(s)	Title of the proposal
Students are given books, but they cannot work on them	What could happen if the 21 students from 401 at Suba Compartir School designed their own material as a support to work on their everyday English classes?	Learning model based on the design of Material for the English Class
Students at UT Language Center resigned as levels in the program increase.	How can a needs analysis enable teachers to design the curriculum? How can a curriculum be developed by taking into account the educational community?	Needs Analysis: A case Study to an Innovation in the Curriculum design
Political and social issues are hardly considered to be part of English Teaching Classes	What could happen to students' critical thinking skills when they are exposed to social and political debates?	Fostering Critical Awareness Through hypothetical situations: social and political debates
Students are not self-confident to speak the language. English is not seen as a real necessity	How would it be possible to have students being confident in the process of learning a second language by working on their own and having them participating in the learning process?	The use of an online recording voice program to help students increase self-confidence in oral production skill
Objectives are given by the Common European Framework or performance Standards provided by the Ministry of Education	What could happen if the objectives of the syllabus are constructed based on needs analysis?	Constructing objectives based on students' needs
In our culture, teachers and students are used to be told what to do We adopt top-down education models	How to design a curriculum that enables students to react and solve problems from their surroundings?	Design of an inquiry-oriented curriculum based on CHAT and post-method theories
Students must work in a book that is grammar-focused	What could happen if critical-thinking based material is integrated in the English classroom?	A learning proposal based on the exploration of feelings at Sargento Inocencio Chincá Military School

Results

Experience 1

In the first group, as it can be seen in figure # 4, most of the questions showed an obstacle instead of a proposal. This is an example of a question as an obstacle that students wrote in their reading protocols: The author explained that activities to work with the Simpsons' show are just thought to be worked in class; however, what could happen if students have already watched the episode we want to use for the class at home?

This is an example of a problematic question that contains a proposal: The authors say that in order to understand the content of American TV shows like the Simpsons, viewers need to be culturally literate; as a result, how could it be a learning unit if a cultural aspect such as political humor is discussed without watching the episode?

Taking into consideration that most of the students tended to formulate questions that contained an obstacle (false questions in terms of Deleuze) I found it necessary to make an intervention in the group in order to make students aware of this phenomenon. I provided further practice in the way problem questions should have been formulated and expected to see the improvements in protocols 3 and 4 (see figure # 5 for analysis of data).

Experience 2

Bearing in mind the notion of Logic of Sense proposed by Deleuze, previously explained in the conceptual background through figure # 1, it was found that 85% of the questions in the curriculum proposals were formulated in terms of providing what Gilles (2005) defined as a "happening": A happening is not what commonly occurs in daily life; on the contrary, a happening is an accident, a turning point in our lives, a possibility, a proposal, a new state, a new dimension.

To refer to only one case, at a Suba Compartir school in Bogotá, students are used to having access to a book bank in each classroom. Students count on the books, but they are not allowed to solve the exercises or write side notes. This habit is questioned by asking: What could happen if the 21 students from 401 at a Suba Compartir school designed their own material as a support to work on their everyday English classes?

This question takes the problem into a new insight in the moment that the in-service teacher who wrote the proposal sees the possibility of changing the idea that resources, in this case books, are elements that are provided to the teacher and students. Instead, he considers the idea of incorporating students' needs, likes and interests in the design of the material; also, he sees that the learning process starts in the moment when students and parents are involved in the analysis of needs, the development of the materials and the evaluation of the process.

Conclusions

After analyzing the two experiences and taking into account the initial research question, the most important findings were: In the formulation of questions, postgraduate students were able to link English teaching with other areas of knowledge and aspects of human dimensions; especially what Wells and Claxton denominate as the principles of CHAT. This group of students tend to be more skillful than undergraduate students at linking theory with practice. Being in contact with real teaching environments enables graduates to detect cultural needs, habits and beliefs. I also found that setting examples such as the video about "Embrace the Shake" and formulas like the inquiry triangle enable comprehension and ease the path to get to a problem question; however, examples and formulas tend to minimize students' mental effort. Besides, problems established through the formulation of questions fostered students' engagement in both groups. This aspect may be an interesting area for further research.

Students from both groups focused more on solving the task than on being aware of the rules of the language. As a result, language acquisition was unconscious, and reduced levels of anxiety.

As an English teacher, I learned that the Logic of Sense and Inquiry as an Orientation for Learning seem to be a path to be what Kumaravadivelu (2003) calls a Transformative Intellectual: an educator committed with introducing change to the community where he lives.

The current study allowed me to see that students struggle with the formulation of problem questions. There is a tendency to make questions that present obstacles more than proposals to the established habits, beliefs or concepts; moreover, most of these obstacles function like "tags" that students use for every question. In this way, these tags become excuses that block any type of change. On the other hand, getting to a problem question demands time and effort from the teacher as well as from students. The effort implies the use of mental capacities and think what have not been thought. Students appear not to be prepared to formulate questions and, what is worst, they look like not being exposed to formulate questions before.

With regard to language use, proficiency limitations seem to be an obstacle to develop high order thinking skills, which are a requirement to inquire.

Finally, since this study is in the field of experimentation, little has been said about the use of the Logic of Sense and Inquiry as an Orientation applied to language learning, the author of this article

has carried out other studies where the former method has been used to criticize learning philosophies like the Thomas the Aquinas pedagogical model (Camacho, 2013) and the pedagogical project of Tolima University (Camacho, 2013). The Logic of Sense proposed by Deleuze may be a valuable research tool to open new insights in the dominant educative discourses, and as a result, propose new ways of conceiving teaching and learning.

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Appendix A

READING PROTOCOL #	
STUDENT NAME:	
SUBJECT:	GROUP:
DATE:	

1. TITLE:

2. AUTHOR(S):

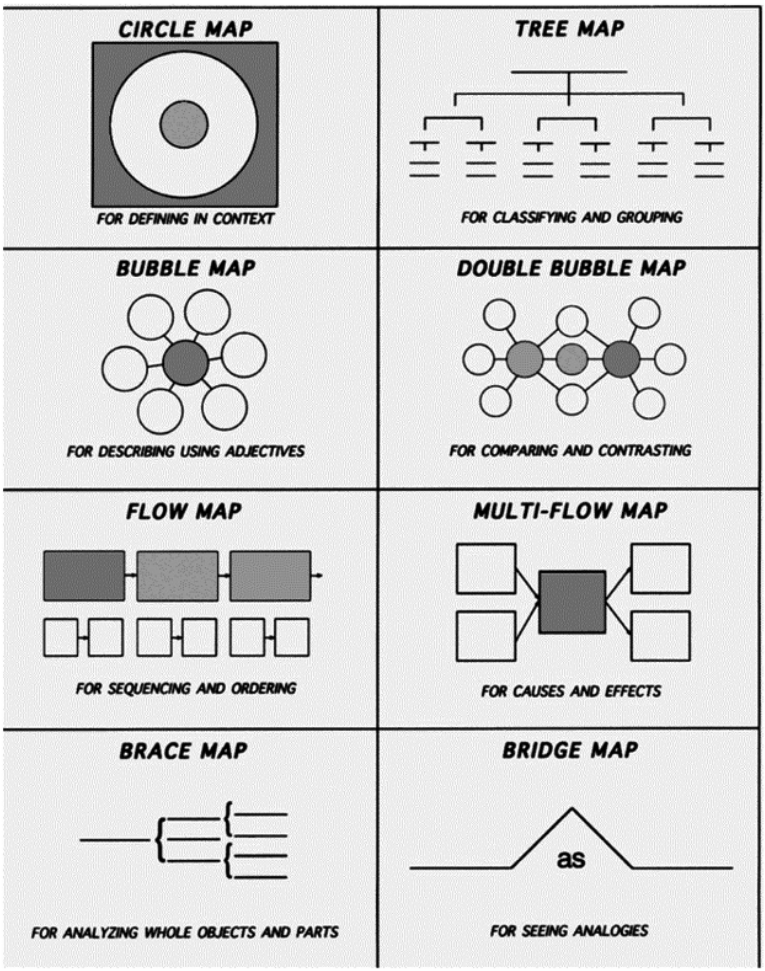
3. KEY WORDS (from 5 to 10)

4. SUMMARY OF MAIN IDEAS (USE A THINKING MAP)

5. PROBLEMATIC QUESTIONS ABOUT THE TEXT

Appendix B

Thinking Maps a Language for Learning



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Exploring English Language Teaching in an Ecuadorian Urban Secondary Institution[1]

Explorando la enseñanza del idioma inglés en una institución secundaria urbana ecuatoriana

Ximena Burgin and Mayra Daniel[2]*
Northern Illinois University

Abstract

This article presents a case study focused on the pedagogy of nine English language teachers' pedagogy in Ecuador. The significance of this study is its potential to inform practitioners, teacher educators, and policymakers in countries where teachers need to be prepared to teach in multilingual settings, such as Ecuador. Data analyses of nine observations of practicing teachers seems to suggest the curriculum used to prepare English teachers does not fully meet the educational needs of teachers or students. Observations of secondary level English teachers were conducted using the Classroom Observation Checklist (2010). This instrument is useful to analyze teachers' delivery of content, lesson organization, classroom interactions, verbal and non-verbal communication in the classroom, and integration of media during instruction. One major theme emerged from data analyses; English language teaching appears to follow teaching as a foreign language paradigm. The validation of the results of this exploratory study through the participation of a larger sample size of classroom teachers would be important to provide a more robust conclusion regarding teaching diverse student populations.

Key Words: Teacher Preparation, Multilingual Students, Multilingual Educational Context, English Language Teaching

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Resumen

Este artículo presenta una investigación exploratoria que examina la pedagogía de nueve maestros de inglés en Ecuador. Este estudio ofrece posibilidades para informar a maestros, profesores, y líderes gubernamentales en países multilingües como Ecuador. Se utilizó la Escala de Observación (2010) para observar a nueve maestros. Este instrumento facilita la observación de la pedagogía en la práctica dividiendo lo observado en cinco categorías: la forma de presentar el contenido de las lecciones, la organización de las lecciones, las interacciones en el aula, la comunicación verbal y no verbal, y el uso de la tecnología como parte integra de la instrucción. El tema principal que emerge del análisis de las observaciones es que la enseñanza del inglés en Ecuador refleja la pedagogía del aprendizaje de un idioma como lengua extranjera. En el futuro, validar los resultados de este estudio exploratorio con un mayor número de participantes sería importante para proporcionar conclusiones más sólidas sobre la enseñanza de estudiantes en Ecuador.

Palabras Clave: Preparación de Maestros, Estudiantes Multilingües, Contextos Educacionales Multilingües, Enseñanza del Inglés

Resumo

Este artigo apresenta uma pesquisa exploratória que examina a pedagogia de nove mestres de inglês no Equador. Este estudo oferece possibilidades para informar a mestres, professores e líderes governamentais em países multilíngues, como o Equador. Foi utilizada a Escala de Observação (2010) para observar a nove mestres. Este instrumento facilita a observação da pedagogia na prática, dividindo o observado em cinco categorias: a forma de apresentar o conteúdo das lições, a organização das lições, as interações na sala de aula, a comunicação verbal e não verbal, e o uso da tecnologia como parte integral da instrução. O tema principal que emerge da análise das observações é que o ensino do inglês no Equador reflete a pedagogia da aprendizagem de um idioma como língua estrangeira. No futuro, validar os resultados deste estudo exploratório com um número maior de participantes, seria importante para proporcionar conclusões mais sólidas sobre o ensino de estudantes no Equador.

Palavras Chave: Preparação de Mestres, Estudantes Multilíngues, Contextos Educacionais Multilíngues, Ensino do Inglês,

Introduction

This case study of nine English language teachers in Ecuador offers future English language educators insights into effective instructional practices in multilingual and multicultural contexts. In Ecuador, many learners grow up speaking an indigenous tongue at home and in their communities, studying in Spanish at school, and even English since the current curriculum includes its study as an additional language at many levels (Malik, Esaki-Smith, Lee & Ngan, 2015). Most Ecuadorians might therefore be considered multilingual speakers because, first, they are expected to achieve literacy in the dominant language of their society, Spanish, and many speak the indigenous languages of their communities (Ethnologue, 2016). Indigenous languages merit validation because they provide links to the cultures of the past and knowledge of these facilitate communication in the present. English language teaching (ELT) introduces students to the cultures of the English-speaking world, and is the foreign language of choice in Ecuador. Thus, Ecuadorian language educators face numerous challenges in addressing the different educational needs of the learners in their classes.

Three teacher educators whose work focuses on the preparation of teachers to work with culturally and linguistically diverse students collaborated on the research reported in this article. Two of the researchers are native speakers of Spanish, and all are highly proficient in this language. One researcher was born in Ecuador and completed an undergraduate engineering degree. Another, a native of Cuba, attended elementary school up to the sixth grade in her country. She is a Spanish-English-French trilingual speaker. The third investigator completed a master's degree in Mexico. An experienced English language teacher who resides in Ecuador was invited to mediate the collaboration across both countries, Ecuador and the United States (U.S.). She became the main contact who helped organize the logistics to implement the study in Ecuador.

Data gathered in this investigation is relevant for educators in diverse educational environments. This case study impacts practical issues, including the design of teacher preparation programs tailored for educators who work in multilingual communities. Drawing from qualitative data, including teacher observations and open-ended questions, this work aims to uncover what teachers need to gain in teacher preparation programs. Based on findings limited by the context and the number of participants, recommendations are suggested for future research and dialogue focused on identifying what tertiary program curricula is needed to prepare English language educators to work in diverse contexts.

This study began with an informal conversation related to recent and significant educational reforms occurring in Ecuador, a multilingual context for language teaching and learning. The research team explored the implications of government issued educational reforms on teachers that addressed literacy such as Ecuador's *National Plan of Good Living* and the *Ten Year Education Plan* discussed by Van Damme, Aguerrondo, Burgos & Campos (2013) and Gallegos (2008). They consulted the Organic Bilingual Law Decree 1241/ Reglamento General a la Ley Orgánica de Educación Intercultural Decreto No. 1241 (2012) which guaranteed free public education to all learners through the high school years, including provision of books. They examined federal mandates per Ecuador's constitution (2011), and considered governmental mandates aimed at raising the level of English proficiency for the country's future citizens (Gordon, 2015).

Ecuador's leaders are evidencing a systemic effort to raise the levels of literacy (Organic Law, 2012) and also to add effective models of ELT across the curriculum (Gallegos, 2008). The constitution decreed that "It is the right of every person to engage in inter-personal inter-cultural communications in all dimensions." (Constitución de la República del Ecuador, 2011). Ecuador's Ministry of Education reported that between the years 2010 to 2011, a total of 171, 970 teachers took part in at least one professional development course (Van Damme, Aguerrondo, Burgos & Campos, 2013). These efforts aimed to improve both teachers' pedagogy and their English language proficiency through professional development offered in Ecuador and at select universities in the U.S. (Ambrecht, 2014). With support from the U.S. Embassy a modified version of the TESOL Standards was developed for the Ecuadorian context (Serrano, et al., 2015) and models of teacher preparation were aligned to the Standards for Preparing Teacher Professionals set forth by the Teachers to Speakers of Other Languages Organization (TESOL) (2009), an international evaluative body for tertiary teacher preparation programs.

The research team discussed the role of multicultural and multilingual factors in the Ecuadorian educational context, both at the tertiary level and at pre-K-12. The overarching goal of this study was to examine the pedagogy being implemented in English language classrooms. In order to begin to explore this objective, we conducted formal observations of nine practicing teachers in classes focused on English instruction. Participating teachers were also asked two open-ended questions focused on (1) how they adjust their literacy/reading strategy instruction for bilingual students and, (2) what they do to create a welcoming classroom environment that validates the multiculturalism

of Ecuador's demographic. This study was guided by the following research question: What philosophies of ELT undergird participants' practice?

Literature Review

Language Diversity in Ecuador

Considering Ecuador's linguistic and cultural diversity is key to offering an equitable education to all students (Constitución de la República del Ecuador, 2011). Students who come to school with mastery of indigenous languages and are better able to express their thoughts in their home language rather than in Spanish, the dominant language of society, cannot be expected to learn through a tongue they do not know (Daniel & Burgin, 2016: García & Wei, 2014; Bialystok, 2011; Grosjean, 2008; Cummins, 1991).

Ecuador 's diversity is evident in its demographic. It is a Latin American nation where many citizens are multilingual speakers of the country's official language, Spanish, and an indigenous language. Chisaguano (2006) documented 13 indigenous languages spoken in Ecuador, the newspaper *El Tiempo* (2015) identified 14, and *Ethnologue* (2016), a reliable source of information for world languages, traces 25 individual indigenous languages for the country with 24 in the category of living languages, and 21 categorized as indigenous. These facts require consideration in the schoolhouse.

Rationale for Exploring English Language Education in Ecuador

Ecuador's leaders espouse visions of equity and multiliteracy for its citizens. The country is engaged in a process to advance its educational system and develop teachers' expertise to serve multilingual populations (Cariola-Huerta, 2015; Constitución de la República de Ecuador 2008, 2011; Cevallos-Estareda & Bramwell, 2015). Curricular requirements for K-12 students in the year 2015 added English language instruction (Cevallos-Estaredas & Bramwell, 2015; Malik, Esaki-Smith, Lee & Ngan, 2015). English is now taught as part of the elementary curriculum at public and private schools; beginning at age 5 (Initial 2nd level) in private schools and in the 8th grade in public school settings (Cevallos-Estarellas & Bramwell, 2015).

In order to begin to frame ELT in Ecuador it is important to analyze what participating Ecuadorian teachers' instructional paradigms reveal to be their challenges as they plan and deliver English language

instruction. No one could argue that methodological approaches to ELT delineate and control teachers' instructional methods. Teachers' pedagogical knowledge base and what they were taught is effective practice directly impacts learners' academic achievement. Without a doubt, a consideration of equity and social justice are an integral part of effective ELT (Daniel, 2016a: Freire & Macedo, 2005: Vygotsky, 1986; Atkinson, 1997).

This study's theoretical framework considers what the professional literature suggests equates to best practice for ELT (Daniel, 2016b; Choi & Morrison, 2014; Coleman & Goldenberg, 2010; Brisk, 2008; Hornberger, 2002) while emphasizing the sociocultural context of learning (González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005). This case study is based on an exploration of the philosophies underlying ELT instructional methods as evidenced in practicing teachers' work in Ecuador. We asked if educators in Ecuador are encouraged to "…adopt a conceptualization of *integration* of language practices in "*…the person of the learner*" as they plan instruction that makes it possible for "… bilinguals to enter into a text that is encoded through language practices with which they are not quite familiar,," and "..to truly show what they know.." (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 80).

This Study

Examining ELT in Ecuador offers an initial glimpse to how current reforms are changing this nation's educational system. Gallegos (2008) proposes that the requirement of English study for learners up to the high school level is a scaffold to economic success and to building a nation where all citizens have equitable access to life -success. Exploring pedagogy in ELT through teacher observations and open ended questions seems an appropriate step to document the effects of reforms aimed at ensuring learners in Ecuador master English.

This research investigates the current study of English as a mandatory part of the curriculum in Ecuador's schools. To date few studies have been conducted solely focused on ELT in Ecuador (Daniel & Burgin, 2016: Cevallos-Estarellas & Bramwell, 2015). Serrano, Vizcaíno, Cazco & Kuhlman (2015) summarized their findings of what composes a key instructional problem in ELT in Ecuador. They stated unequivocally that "the majority of English teachers in Ecuador have neither the language proficiency nor the methodologies to teach English effectively in the schools" (p. 109). This claim is alarming yet reported and it invites Ecuadorian researchers to conduct a deeper analysis of ELT in Ecuador.

Methodology

Research Design

This case study addressed observed components of English language teachers' practice in Ecuador. The overarching question asked What philosophies of English language teaching (ELT) undergird participants' practice? Observations of practicing teachers focused on how English language educators:

1. Consider the multiculturalism and multilingualism in their society in instructional planning?
2. Organize the delivery of their lessons to present content?
3. Encourage the direction of student to student and student to teacher classroom interactions?
4. Address verbal and non-verbal communication in the classroom context?
5. Incorporate current technologies in classroom instruction and student tasks?

Context/Participants

The study was performed in a secondary level public institution located in a northern province of Ecuador. Observations of nine practicing teachers were conducted with each participant observed once for 90 minutes. Participant volunteers were invited to participate by the Ecuadorian educator who served as the mediator for this research. Participants received a consent form indicating that the purpose of the project was to observe classroom teachers and to interview them using open-ended questions focused on factors related to instruction of linguistically and culturally diverse learners (monolinguals and multilingual). Six participants were females and three were males. All nine teachers were mestizo. In addition, participants' teaching experience varied from four to 28 years.

Data Collection Instruments

This study utilized a classroom checklist to observe teachers' practices and two open-ended questions to explore the level of multicultural understanding among the participants. The Classroom Observation Checklist, originally written in English (Appendix 1) (Center for Educational Innovation, 2010) was modified and translated

to Spanish (Appendix 2). After the translation, two additional Spanish teachers reviewed the instrument to ensure that the constructs, language, and scale were applicable to the Ecuadorian context. The instrument included five categories with a total of 39 items. These are: (1) Content – seven items, (2) organization – eight items, (3) interaction – seven items, (4) verbal/non-verbal – 12 items, and (5) use of media – five items. Each item was evaluated based on a five-point Likert scale (1 = very poor, 2 = weak, 3 = average, 4 = good, 5 = excellent, NA = not applicable). In addition, participants were asked the following two open-ended questions: Do you adjust your reading strategy instruction/ interventions for bilingual students? and, do you strive to create a multicultural classroom environment?

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Mean, median and frequencies were calculated for each item and by each category of the observation scale (see Appendix 3). The two open-ended questions were analyzed individually to determine if there were patterns among the participants' responses or practices. In addition, the questions were analyzed to decide if the participants' practices compared to current practices and strategies recommended by the professional literature.

Results

Participant responses to two open-ended questions provided a beginning scaffold to understanding ELT within a multilingual context and to identify recurrent themes in teachers' comments. We follow our analysis of the open ended responses with analyses of data gathered in the quantitative analyses of observations conducted using the Classroom Observation Checklist. Data analyses of the observations and open-ended questions from nine participants yielded data that served to paint a picture of ELT at the secondary level in one Ecuadorian institution and to analyze what the impact of systemic governmental movements and expenditures have been up to this moment in time as acknowledged by the Instituto Nacional de Evaluación Educativa (2016).

Open Ended Interview Questions

In this section we discuss findings after examination of responses to the following two open-ended questions asked of the nine participants observed.

1. In what ways, do you adjust your instruction/ strategies for instruction/interventions for bilingual students?
2. How do you strive to create a multicultural classroom?

Adjusting English Instruction for Bilingual Students

An open-ended question asked the nine participants to share how they modify instruction for bilingual students. Four participants indicated that they do not adjust their instruction for bilingual students. Out of these four participants, two did not share any information about bilingualism affecting learning. The other two participants indicated that adjusting instruction was necessary. One of them stated that "it is not necessary [to adjust instruction] because our institution is not bilingual." In addition, one participant commented that students are not interested in learning only interested in being promoted to the next level. The other participant mentioned that "learning is not impacted [by bilingualism] because students are used to the influence of both languages so students apply them based on their needs."

It appears that the participants may not share a common definition of what it means to be a bilingual student or what it takes to reach biliteracy. We wonder if biculturalism is a consideration for Ecuadorian teachers or if perhaps the greater focus is on teaching following EFL models and the cultural and contextual nuances are not a consideration. While some of the teachers stated they adjust instructional strategies/ interventions for bilingual students in their instruction, the definition they hold of multiculturalism and multilingualism represented by students' understanding of other cultures and languages is unclear. Ecuador is a multilingual nation and one would expect teachers to note this diversity within their student demographic and instructional planning. It is a concern that two of nine teachers shared that they do not adjust the reading strategies they teach nor their implemented instructional interventions for bilingual students, because they do not consider their institutions to be bilingual.

Creating a Multicultural Classroom

Conversations related to the second open-ended question are significant for this case study because six participants did not answer the question and the three teachers who provided responses indicated they make efforts to create a multicultural environment in their own classrooms. One participant stated that "a multicultural classroom

involves learning about the ideas of great authors that express political, cultural and learning in Latin-American and European societies." Another participant indicated that a multicultural classroom is created when "the student uses known vocabulary in home language and then use those words in the language he/she is learning." A third teacher emphasized that a multicultural classroom can be created when "a needs assessment is performed to diagnose multiculturalism and then the teacher adapts instruction based on the students' needs." Based on the data collected, we interpret that the participants' responses suggest that not enough attention is given to this in programs of teacher preparation and/or in professional development. Participants' responses document that their exposure to multiculturalism occurs from studying international literature, subsequent interpretation of ideas in the home language, and through translation of materials from Spanish to English. Although according to the Ministry of Education (2017) a total of 15 million hours of professional development were given to teachers between 2014 to 2016, participants in this study did not indicate that professional development about multiculturalism occurred. Thus, it would be beneficial to conduct further research with a larger sample to corroborate these findings.

Analyses of Data Using the Observation Scale

In this section, we interpret the data gathered using the categories in the Classroom Observation Checklist (Center for Educational Innovation, 2010); manner of presenting content, lesson organization, media use (technology infusion), classroom interactions (leadership roles), and verbal/non-verbal communication. We use mean, median and frequencies to develop the story of ELT in the context of this case study. We address three recurrent themes using the foci of the categories of the Observation Scale:

1. ELT in Practice
2. Leadership Roles
3. Components not Present in Lessons

ELT in Practice

The focus of lessons was English instruction centered on the language devoid of a focus on contextual factors. Learners' cultural capital and an awareness and consideration of how this facilitates higher levels of comprehension was not observed. Six of the teachers

read a book in class to their students focused on the objectives of the lesson, asked the learners to repeat some words and responded to questions. Although three teachers stated they adjust instruction to learners' cultural background, and this suggests there is an awareness of constructivist perspectives that places teachers and students in the role of collaborators, observational data does not provide evidence of this in practice. The teachers gave students definitions of the meaning of unknown words and did not appear to consider how meaning making could occur during the process of interpreting text. Evidence of the philosophy that students will achieve greater comprehension of text when reading the word and the world (Freire & Macedo, 2005) was not observed. Data indicate professional development has not addressed the possibility of teachers and students functioning as co-learners in the classroom.

Components of Teachers' Lessons and Organization

In our observations, we hoped to establish if the organization and presentation of lessons reflected selection of lesson topics that were "relevant, culturally comprehensible, reflective of the learners' realities, and not offensive (Daniel, 2016b, p. 32). If evident, this would provide evidence that the backgrounds of multilinguals learners are a consideration. Three of the nine teachers observed incorporated materials in their lessons aimed at helping students with a multilingual/ multicultural background gain access to lesson topics.

We documented many positives in teachers' instructional design and their efforts to organize and deliver lessons. The teachers observed transitioned effectively from one activity to another, began lessons with a clear intent to capture students' attention, and demonstrated an ongoing concern that their efforts needed to lead students to understand. Their lessons evidenced their ability to scaffold instruction (even if this did not consider learners' cultural capital), and the ways they summarized their daily lessons at the end of the day addressed what they had covered as they linked the day's work to past and future lessons. During lessons the teachers effectively held the students' attention even when curricular materials were not selected keeping in mind students' cultural capital. The questions that remain relate to whether or not teachers' expertise has been tweaked to address ELT, and if teachers' professional development has been adequate given the priority that it should receive.

Observations related to lesson delivery document that the teachers implemented skills based English instruction. They used appropriate

body movements to illustrate content, made good eye contact with their students, and modeled English well because they spoke the language in a comprehensible manner and did so at an appropriate rate of speech. In contrast to these positives, only four of the teachers appeared aware that language and verbal cues are an important factor in cross/linguistic communication in the classroom. We ask if only instructional components related to ELT have been incorporated in teacher preparation. Social justice in ELT was not a focus in lesson planning. The power that English holds in the world as well as the need to validate indigenous languages was not a part of classroom conversations. Pedagogy that would promote greater economic success for all students, including its indigenous, was not a focus in the teachers' pedagogy.

Leadership Roles in the Classroom

Classroom interactions between the teachers and students were teacher directed. Teachers asked questions and students answered. Teacher led instruction included asking students to share examples written in English and responding to their questions in order to clarify concepts. The teachers engaged in an ongoing evaluation of students' comprehension and did not deviate from what appeared to be their lesson plans for the day. Teachers were the instructional leader whose word was not questioned by the students. This may have been because classroom activities were limited to questions and answers and/or because teachers may have been teaching exactly as they were taught prior to the mandates of the 2008 constitution (Constitución de la República del Ecuador, 2011

Components Missing in Lessons

The mean, median and frequency values revealed what was present and what was noteworthy due to its absence in ELT in Ecuador. In this section, we present data from the Classroom Observation Checklist in an interpretation of teachers' use of current technologies.

Current Technologies

It was evident that governmental investments had resulted in the availability of the current technologies in the classrooms. Four teachers were observed to use a computer and a projector. No students were assigned tasks that involved using computers.

Conclusions and the Future

This exploratory case study addressed how nine English language teachers in Ecuador address their society's multilingualism and multiculturalism in their instruction. Ecuador's 2008 and 2011 Constitutions proposed far reaching modifications were needed to ensure education was equitably offered to all of its citizens; from young ages to students at the university level (Constitución de la República del Ecuador, 2011). In this article, we also considered if changes in teacher preparation programs, such as requiring teacher candidates to complete clinical hours, was evidenced in the teachers' instruction.

Themes documented in this investigation highlight that practicing teachers need ongoing professional development that will allow them to pass the baton of leadership to their students. We viewed much teacher led instruction with few opportunities for the students to take on the role of leader. We noted the absence of opportunities for students to engage in debates or to present their ideas as most instruction reflected a question and answer format. The teachers welcomed student questions but they were the sole providers of the answers.

Implementing critical thinking paradigms will require teachers to incorporate more dyadic and small group work in their classroom. This will change the schoolhouse completely because it will introduce the possibility that students, and not just the teacher, will have answers. This research suggests that more time is needed for changed paradigms of instruction to become the norm but that changes have begun. These will support governmental efforts to empower all learners.

Helping future Ecuadorian teachers to critically analyze text as they teach English would empower them and provide a medium for them to voice their ideas. We noted transmission models of education rather than proactive models of advocacy. Students are encouraged to ask the teachers questions to clarify their understandings rather than to state and justify their point of view. No observations revealed a focus on empowerment in the pedagogy of the nine observed teachers.

This case study data suggests this study's participants are open to widening their knowledge to the education needs of multicultural/ multilingual students. There appears to be a push for constructivist perspectives in the Ecuadorian schoolhouse but more work is needed to help the teachers achieve this goal. Teachers need time to explore how to address constitutional mandates and incorporate a thoughtful focus on multicultural communications in the classroom. Nevertheless, it is encouraging that professional development is taking teachers in new directions and, in some instances has been guided by a modified

version of the TESOL Standards developed for the Ecuadorian context (Serrano, et al., 2015).

Observations of teachers suggest ELT incorporates classroom tasks such as games, dialogues, group work, and experiential activities based on everyday events. While students are required to memorize songs, translate narratives, and then discuss what they read in English, curricular design does not reflect a teaching philosophy that recognizes the society's language and cultural diversity. Teachers want to begin this process but have not been taught how to more deeply examine the societal context in learning.

This research supports teachers' need for professional development that addresses their English language proficiency and asks them to implement learner-centered pedagogy (Serrano, Vizcaíno, Cazco & Kuhlman, 2015). Once teachers engage in ongoing models of professional development, it will be essential to collect data to analyze how they experiment and implement revised instructional paradigms. Evaluation of students' outcome data will provide a better understanding of the effectiveness of the interventions implemented. It is important to recognize that the processes of changing educational paradigms is painstaking and a long-term endeavor which requires learning, exploration, and reflection.

At this juncture, we wish to ask a few questions of Ecuador's educational leaders. Given the massive government funding to improve the schoolhouse, do they note sufficient changes? We were privy to both positive and negative thoughts and perceptions on the part of educators. A teacher commented that "Government expenditures have improved the infrastructure in schools. Now schools have enough space for students and the number of students per classroom is restricted." Teachers' comments merit being part of a larger conversation with educational leaders.

It is important that teachers know how to improve their pedagogy not only by implementing tools and strategies to address the subject matter, but also using data they themselves gather to draw conclusions that will lead them to develop new instructional approaches. We propose Ecuadorian teachers could participate in professional development that places them in the driver's seat and makes it possible for them to follow educational mandates that validate teachers' significant role in student academic achievement. We note some possible areas for improvement in the Ecuadorian school system that would be effectively addressed if professional development were improved and perhaps guided by more teacher input. We interpret the

following observations as challenges. First, student examination results are being interpreted to reflect teacher competency when examinations are most likely not designed for assessment of teachers. Secondly, teachers may be evaluated for their knowledge of state mandated curriculum and not necessarily on their teaching practices. Lastly, teachers are afraid to lose their jobs if they do not do well on their evaluations. We want to encourage educational leaders in Ecuador to keep in mind that "Learning is enhanced when teachers prepare learners to critically analyze their world. Problem-solving pedagogy welcomes learners to co-design new ways of interacting in communities (Daniel, 2016, p. 34)."

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Appendix 1

Observaciones

Fecha de la observación: _____

Grado: _____ Materia:_____

Género: ☐ M ☐ F Experiencia en la docencia: _____ años

SECCIÓN I

Observación del docente de aula

Escala de clasificación
(1= muy pobre, 2 = débil, 3 = promedio, 4 = buena, 5 = excelente, NA = no aplicable)

CONTENIDO

Las ideas principales son claras y específicas	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Suficiente apoyo para la información	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Ideas relevantes fueron claras	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Pensamiento critico o de orden superior era necesar	1	2	3	4	5	NA
El instructor relacionó ideas con conocimientos previos	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Se compartió el significado del vocabulario	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Contenido es modificado de acuerdo a los antecedentes culturales de los estudiantes	1	2	3	4	5	NA

ORGANIZACIÓN

La introducción capturó la atención de los estudiantes	1	2	3	4	5	NA
La introducción indicó la organización de la lección	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Las transiciones fueron efectivas (con resúmenes claros).	1	2	3	4	5	NA
La lección fue bien organizada	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Concluyó resumiendo ideas principales	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Conectó otras clases anteriores	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Conectó con materiales de clases futuras	1	2	3	4	5	NA
La organización ayudó a los estudiantes multilingües y multiculturales	1	2	3	4	5	NA

INTERACCIÓN

Preguntas del instructor son a diferentes niveles ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Da suficiente tiempo para las respuestas..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Los estudiantes pregunta..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Comentarios del instructor sobre los trabajos de los estudiantes los ayudan ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Instructor incorporó las respuestas de los estudiantes ... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Hay una buena relación con los estudiantes ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

El profesor fue sensitivo/a con los estudiantes multilingües y multiculturales..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

VERBAL/NO VERBAL

La explicación fue comprensible ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Articulación y pronunciación clara..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Ausencia de pausas verbalizadas (eh, ah, etc.) ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Instructor habló espontáneamente..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Acento no distrajo los estudiantes..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Calidad de voz efectiva..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Volumen de la voz fue suficiente para ser oído..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

La información fue compartida a velocidad apropiada.. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

El movimiento del cuerpo y gestos fueron eficaces..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Contacto visual con los estudiantes ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Confiado y entusiasta ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Uso del lenguaje verbal y no-verbal es entendido por todos los estudiantes con diversos antecedentes culturales y varias lenguas. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

USO DE LOS MEDIOS DE COMUNICACIÓN

Contenido expresado fue claro y bien organizado ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Las materias visuales se leen fácilmente ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Instructor proporciona una guía/manual ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Instrucción computarizada es eficaz ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

La tecnología promueve al aprendizaje de los estudiantes multilingües y multiculturales ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

SECCIÓN II

Ajusta sus intervenciones/estrategias de lectura para estudiantes bilingües? ☐ Si ☐ No

¿En caso afirmativo, podría darnos un ejemplo?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Si la respuesta es NO, sabe acerca de cómo el desarrollo del aprendizaje de lectura se ve afectada por el bilingüismo? ☐ Si ☐ No

_____

_____

_____

_____

Sabe cómo creara un aula multicultural? ☐ Si ☐ No

¿En caso afirmativo, podría por favor darnos un ejemplo?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Sabe cómo usar investigación-acción para ajustar la instrucción en el aula? ☐ Si ☐ No

¿En caso afirmativo, podría por favor darnos un ejemplo?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix 2

Classroom Observation Checklist

Date of the Classroom Observation _____

Grade: _____ Subject: _____

Gender: ☐ M ☐ F How many year as a teacher:: _____

SECTION I

Classroom Teaching Observation

Rating scale
(1 = very poor, 2 = weak, 3 = average, 4 = good, 5 = excellent,
NA = not applicable)

CONTENT

Main ideas are clear and specific	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Sufficient variety in supporting information	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Relevancy of main ideas was clear	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Higher order thinking was required	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Instructor related ideas to prior knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Definitions were given for vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Content modified according to student cultural background	1	2	3	4	5	NA

ORGANIZATION

Introduction captured attention	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Introduction stated organization of lecture	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Effective transitions (clear w/summaries)	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Clear organizational plan	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Concluded by summarizing main ideas	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Reviewed by connecting to previous classes	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Previewed by connecting to future classes	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Organization aided in understanding for multilingual/multicultural students	1	2	3	4	5	NA

INTERACTION

Instructor questions at different levels ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Sufficient wait time ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Students asked questions..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Instructor feedback was informative..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Instructor incorporated student responses..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Good rapport with students..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Instructor was sensitive to language minority status ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

VERBAL/NON-VERBAL

Language was understandable ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Articulation and pronunciation clear ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Absence of verbalized pauses (er, ah, etc.) ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Instructor spoke extemporaneously ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Accent was not distracting..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Effective voice quality ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Volume sufficient to be heard ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Rate of delivery was appropriate ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Effective body movement and gestures ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Eye contact with students ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Confident & enthusiastic..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Use of language and non-verbal cues
understood cross-culturally/linguistically..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Language was appropriate to scaffold
multilinguals understanding..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

USE OF MEDIA

Overheads/chalkboard content clear
& well organized ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Visual aids can be easily read ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Instructor provided an outline/handouts ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Computerized instruction effective..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA
Use of media enhanced learning for
multilingual/multicultural learners ..... 1 2 3 4 5 NA

SECCIÓN II

Do you adjust your reading strategies/interventions for bilingual students? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, could you please provide an example?

_____

_____

_____

_____

If no, do you know about how reading development is impacted by bilingualism? ☐ Yes ☐ No

_____

_____

_____

_____

Do you create a multicultural classroom? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, could you please provide an example?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Do you use action research to adjust instruction in the classroom?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, could you please provide an example?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix 3:

Observations of Content Presentation

CONTENT	MD	M		5		4		3		2		1
Q1. Main ideas are clear and specific	5	4.56	7	78%	0	0%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%
Q2. Sufficient variety in supporting information	5	4.22	6	67%	1	11%	0	0%	2	22%	0	0%
Q3. Relevancy of main ideas was clear	5	4.78	7	78%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Q4. Higher order thinking was required	4	3.78	4	44%	2	22%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%
Q5. Instructor related ideas to prior knowledge	5	4.33	5	56%	3	33%	0	0%	1	11%	0	0%
Q6. Definitions were given for vocabulary	4	4.33	4	44%	4	44%	1	11%	0	0%	0	0%
Q7. Content modified according to student cultural background	3	2.78	3	33%	0	0%	2	22%	0	0%	4	44%

1 = very poor, 2 = weak, 3 = average, 4 = good, 5 = excellent

Observations of Lesson Organization

ORGANIZATION	MD	M		5		4		3		2		1
Q8. Introduction captured students attention	5	4.56	7	78%	0	0%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%
Q9. Introduction stated organization of lecture	5	4.11	5	56%	2	22%	0	0%	2	22%	0	0%
Q10. Effective transitions (clear w/summaries)	5	3.89	5	56%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%
Q11. Clear organizational plan	4	4.33	4	44%	4	44%	1	11%	0	0%	0	0%
Q12. Concluded by summarizing main ideas	5	4.33	6	67%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%	0	0%
Q13. Reviewed by connecting to previous classes	5	4.11	5	56%	1	11%	2	22%	1	11%	0	0%
Q14. Previewed by connecting to future classes	4	3.22	4	44%	1	11%	0	0%	1	11%	3	33%
QIN15. Organization aided in understanding for multilingual/ multicultural students	2	2.56	2	22%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%	4	44%

1 = very poor, 2 = weak, 3 = average, 4 = good, 5 = excellent

Observations of Classroom Interactions

INTERACTION	MD	M		5		4		3		2		1
Q16. Instructor questions at different levels	5	4.33	6	67%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%	0	0%
Q17. Sufficient wait time for students' answers	4	3.78	4	44%	1	11%	3	33%	0	0%	1	11%
Q18. Students asked questions	5	3.89	5	56%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%
Q19. Instructor feedback was informative	4	4.00	4	44%	2	22%	2	22%	1	11%	0	0%
Q20.Instructor incorporated student responses	5	4.44	6	67%	1	11%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%
Q21. Good rapport with students	5	4.78	7	78%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Q22. Instructor was sensitive to language minority status	4	3.44	4	44%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%	2	22%

1 = very poor, 2 = weak, 3 = average, 4 = good, 5 = excellent

Observations of Verbal / Non verbal Communication

VERBAL/NON VERBAL	MD	M		5		4		3		2		1
Q23. Language was understandable	5	4.44	5	56%	3	33%	1	11%	0	0%	0	0%
Q24. Articulation and pronunciation clear	5	4.67	7	78%	1	11%	1	11%	0	0%	0	0%
Q25. Absence of verbalized pauses (er, ah, etc.)	4	4.00	4	44%	2	22%	2	22%	1	11%	0	0%
Q26. Instructor spoke extemporaneously	5	4.33	6	67%	1	11%	1	11%	1	11%	0	0%
Q27. Accent was not distracting	5	4.44	6	67%	2	22%	0	0%	1	11%	0	0%
Q28. Effective voice quality	5	4.44	5	56%	3	33%	1	11%	0	0%	0	0%
Q29. Volume sufficient to be heard	5	4.56	7	78%	0	0%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%
Q30. Rate of delivery was appropriate	5	4.44	5	56%	3	33%	1	11%	0	0%	0	0%

Q31. Effective body movement and gestures	5	4.89	8	89%	1	11%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Q32. Eye contact with students	5	4.78	7	78%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Q33. Confident & enthusiastic	5	4.33	5	56%	2	22%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%
Q34.Use of language and non-verbal cues understood cross-culturally/linguistically	4	3.89	4	44%	2	22%	2	22%	0	0%	1	11%

1 = very poor, 2 = weak, 3 = average, 4 = good, 5 = excellent

Observations of Media Use

USE OF MEDIA FOR COMMUNICATION	MD	M		5		4		3		2		1
Q35. Overheads/ chalkboard content clear and well organized	5	4.33	5	56%	2	22%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%
Q36. Visual aids can be easily read	5	4.11	6	67%	0	0%	1	11%	2	22%	0	0%
Q37. Instructor provided an outline/handouts	5	4.33	5	56%	2	22%	2	22%	0	0%	0	0%
Q38. Computerized instruction effective	3	2.78	2	22%	2	22%	1	11%	0	0%	4	44%
Q39. Use of media enhanced learning for multilingual /multicultural learners	3	3.00	2	22%	2	22%	1	11%	2	22%	2	22%

1 = very poor, 2 = weak, 3 = average, 4 = good, 5 = excellent

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Rethinking curriculum in the linguistics component of a major on bilingual education[1]

Repensar el currículo en el componente lingüístico de un pregrado en educación bilingüe

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to report the partial findings resulting from a phenomenological study that intends to document the theoretical and empirical sources to inform a curricular proposal for the linguistic component of a major on bilingual education. From the theoretical point of view, this paper will present several perspectives about curriculum in tertiary education and the role of linguistics in a major on bilingual education. As for the empirical data, the paper will document how some professors in the second language teaching and linguistics fields, when analyzing the linguistic component of the curriculum in the major, advocate for a conscious use of metalanguage, the choice of content that empower student teachers to build their praxis and compete in their field, the use of the first and second language for instruction, and a switch towards the problemic nature of the object of study rather than the subdiscipline fragmentation of knowledge. This paper also triangulates some of the participants' perspectives with existing theory in an attempt to reach more informed grounds for a curricular proposal.

Key words: linguistics, curriculum, bilingual education, tertiary education.

Resumen

El objetivo de este artículo es reportar los resultados parciales derivados de un estudio fenomenológico que intenta documentar las fuentes teóricas y

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empíricas que sustentan una eventual propuesta curricular para el componente lingüístico de un programa de pregrado en educación bilingüe. Desde el punto de vista teórico este artículo presentará algunas perspectivas acerca del currículo en la educación terciaria y del papel de la lingüística en un pregrado de educación bilingüe. En cuanto a los datos empíricos, el documento reportará cómo profesores en las áreas de la enseñanza de una segunda lengua y de la lingüística, cuando analizan el componente lingüístico en el currículo del programa de pregrado, advocan el uso consciente de metalenguaje, la selección de contenidos que empoderen a los futuros docentes para construir su praxis y competir en su campo del conocimiento, el uso de la primera y segunda lengua como códigos y objetos de instrucción en lingüística y un cambio de enfoque hacia la naturaleza problémica del objeto de estudio en lugar de la fragmentación subdisciplinar del conocimiento. Este escrito además triangula algunas de las perspectivas de los participantes con la teoría existente con el objetivo de lograr unas bases más sólidas para la propuesta curricular.

Palabras clave: lingüística, currículo, educación bilingüe, educación terciaria.

Resumo

O objetivo deste artigo é reportar os resultados parciais derivados de um estudo fenomenológico que tenta documentar as fontes teóricas e empíricas que sustentam uma eventual proposta curricular para o componente linguístico de um programa de graduação em educação bilíngue. Desde o ponto de vista teórico, este artigo apresentará algumas perspectivas acerca do currículo na educação terciária e do papel da linguística em uma graduação de educação bilíngue. Em relação aos dados empíricos, o documento reportará como professores nas áreas do ensino de uma segunda língua e da linguística, quando analisam o componente linguístico no currículo do programa de graduação, defendem o uso consciente da metalinguagem, a seleção de conteúdos que dê poder aos futuros docentes para construir a sua práxis e concorrer na sua área de conhecimento, o uso da primeira e segunda língua como códigos e objetos de instrução em linguística e uma mudança de enfoque com relação à natureza problemática do objeto de estudo em vez da fragmentação subdisciplinar do conhecimento. Este escrito também triangula algumas das perspectivas dos participantes com a teoria existente com o objetivo de conseguir umas bases mais sólidas para a proposta curricular.

Palavras chave: linguística, currículo, educação bilíngue, educação terciária.

Introduction

Curriculum does not only work as a static and monolithic document that dictates the selection, organization, and delivery of contents based on the conceptual basis, the underlying theory, and the praxis to (Gimeno & Pérez, 2008), but rather it works as an active process in which continuous planning, acting and evaluating are intrinsically related to the teaching praxis (Grundy, 1987). Based on this fluid nature, it seems intrinsic to the nature of curriculum that those who enact it take a leading role in reflecting on it, reconceptualizing it, revising the scope of its achievements and redesigning it.

The rationale behind curricular innovation could be triggered by the problematization of the knowledge discipline, the role of instruction, or the role of individuals in society. In fact the logical dynamics of knowledge production result in the obsolescence and banalization of contents (CEPAL, 1992), which might inform curricular revision. A pivotal factor in explaining a curricular update of content, is the progress in teacher's development (Diaz, 2003) -be it the result of teaching experience or further academic appropiation. Currently, the need to empower individuals to exercise citizenship and be more competitive (Dussel, 2005) is a tenet that also drives attempts for curriculum innovation.

The study reported in this article aimed at the gathering of principles to inform a proposal for the linguistic component of the curriculum in a ten- semester long undergraduate program on Bilingual Education (Spanish-English) at a private college in Bogotá. Putting together a proposal for the linguistics curricular component of the major was a response to teachers' and students' perception of overlapping of linguistic contents, as well as to the need to strengthen student-teachers' grounding on linguistics to boost their decision making as language learners, language users, and language (and content) educators.

When conducting the study, the main purpose was to identify principles that could be used to inform a proposal that cared about the choice of contents, didactic practices, and practices within the linguistics component of the curriculum. Thus, in its initial documentation stage the study resorted to three sources of data: i) a quest of the literature on the theoretical principles for the teaching/learning of linguistics in bilingual education majors; ii) the emic intersubjective perspective of graduates from the university regarding their needs and the assets resulting from their learning of linguistics in the undergraduate program; iii) the emic intersubjective perspective of professors teaching either second language, linguistics, or pedagogy. The principles were eventually

applied to the crafting of a proposal that was piloted and implemented as part of the curricular innovation that is allowed and promoted through the curricular committee's maneuvering, this article is focused particularly on the stage previous to the crafting of the proposal.

Literature review

The covert interests behind curriculum construction

The extensiveness of the conceptual terrain that can be embraced by the term curriculum, which can be blurry enough to include dissimilar features such as the disciplinary content of a subject, the program of study, the students' experiences of learning, and the dynamics of teaching and learning (Fraser & Bosanquet, 2006; Posner, 2005). Such inclusiveness offers space for the emergence of a critical perspective that considers curriculum as the space in which, by making choices about content and conceptualizing about education in a field, there is a struggle of power centers and social forces (Englund & Quennerstedt, 2008). This means that curriculum and curricular change are conceived as intrinsically related to the social, the economic, and the political forces that generate curriculum and curricular change (Murphy & Adams, 1998).

O'Neill (2015) acknowledged that curriculum design is marked by the influence of contextual filters which include the international, the national, the institutional, and the program and disciplinary regulations. These contextual filters can be enacted by means of formal, implicit, or prudential policies (Kridel, 2010) and shape and instrumentalize the purposes of curriculum at the tertiary level through controlling curricular change at the mechanisms such as the involvement of universities in dynamics beyond the institutional domain; namely, practices of accountability like the quality accreditation processes, examinations, qualifications, and the establishment of authoritative figures (García & Malagón, 2010; Diaz, 2003).

The instrumentalization of curriculum at the national level aims at materializing the intrinsic correlation between human thought and production dynamics. Schooling reinforces the social anatomy of the nation through two context levels: a production context (material or symbolic) by which curriculum aims at constructing interpretations of material objects, knowledge, and social relations based on the premise of satisfying the needs of the existing social structures; and a reproduction context which aims at the transmission of an education that replicates the conditions of production despite the generation shifts, thus giving

curriculum an instrumental nature in the task of preserving the national social structures (Lundgreen, 1992).

On the other hand, the global filter, particularly at the tertiary level of education, instills the choice of contents and teaching/learning approaches that aim at allowing or even promoting the mobility of learners (O'Neill, 2015). Bentolila, Pedranzani, & Clavijo (2007) explain this as a logical consequence of the discursive construct of the global village, the neoliberal policies, and the dizzying pace of ICTs, which subject knowledge, as it happens with capital, to worldwide transactions.

A critique to the instrumentalization of curriculum

Claussen & Osborne (2013) and Bourdieu (2000) argue that the formal education system is used to legitimize knowledge by means of imposing the cultural capital of a ruling social group to the rest of the social structure – which can be named as a 'cultural arbitrary' (Bourdieu, 1986), an epistemologic injustice (Gónzalez, 2015) or hermeneutic marginalization (Fricker, 2007). This "contributes towards reproducing the power relations" (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977 p. 31) and becomes a gatekeeper that discriminates between those individuals who have belonged to the privileged social group from which the cultural capital chosen has been accumulated through their habitus, and those for whom owing this capital is rather an institutionalized demand (Jenkins, 2002). Nonetheless, such cultural arbitrary is disguised in discourses of essentialism and intrinsic merit of contents emerging from the choice, which aims at a normalization discourse in education (Foucault, 2006).

Schooling achievement, then is influenced by social inequality making education as a good to be traded, which is exemplified by parents having to pay for complementary educational services to make sure their children fit and do well in schooling (García & Malagón (2010). Nonetheless, Claussen & Osborne (2013) consider that schooling should keep a focus on those students "whose habitus does not readily provide access to the dominant forms of cultural capital" (p. 64) and try to alleviate and challenge the 'symbolic violence' emerging from the choice of a dominant cultural capital (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977) by strengthening the literacy, knowledge, and criticality of the underprivileged populace.

Thus, as ironic as it might seem, it is by exposing the underprivileged to the discourses of the dominant cultural capital that social mobility can be made possible (Brown, 2006). Curriculum,

paradoxically, becomes a factor that both helps individuals conform to the existing social structures and emancipate from them, and it is through this clash between freedom and conformance that curriculum/ schooling are shaping the agentive roles of learners.

Curriculum as the space of convergence of cognitive and social interests

The recognition of schooling and, therefore, curriculum as instrumental to the preservation of the existing social structures implies that curricular innovation also becomes a space of permanent power struggles. Curricular innovation, then, is like a game where the participants need to acknowledge the cultural capitals (related to knowledge, ideas, values, etc.) that are at stake and be willing to compete by using their habitus to abide by the rules of the game (Bourdieu, 2003).

The transformation of cognition can set ground for social transformation; thus the social interests behind the construction of curriculum also end up shaping and being shaped by cognitive interests. To that respect Habermas' (1984) acknowledgement of three cognitive interests is very illustrative: the *technical* cognitive interest considers knowledge as simply owned, transmitted, and accumulated; whereas the *practical* cognitive interest offers space for interpretative approaches in the pursuit of using knowledge to improve reality. The *emancipatory* cognitive interest allows individuals to acknowledge and challenge the existence of hypostatized powers in the pursuit of free consciousness.

Grundy (1987), who applied Habermas' cognitive interests to the understanding of curriculum, described technical interests taking the form of classes in which technical interests predominate, thus giving a crucial role to the possibility of controlling the environment through empirical rule-following action. Such curricular attitude towards knowledge results in an implicit interest in controlling pupils' learning. In this way the approach towards their citizenship (their knowing, their doing, and their being) is a conformist one.

Grundy (1987) also defined the practical interest as fundamental "...in understanding the environment through interaction based upon a consensual understanding of meaning" (p. 14). A practical interest then gives a more agentive role to the dialogic nature of knowledge construction and highlights the importance of interaction as not limited to the top- down transmission of knowledge (Popkewitz, 2008). Instead, the focus is on the generation of novel understandings of the world and society and the

development of abilities that ease the discovery and inquiry; the emphasis is less on what the individuals should *know*, and has shifted more towards what they should do or be like (McEneaney, 2003).

Regarding the emancipator cognitive interest, Grundy (1987) considered it as "a fundamental interest in emancipation and empowerment to engage in autonomous action arising out of authentic, critical insights into the social construction of human society" (p. 19). Thus, this perspective genuinely intends to bridge the disciplinary nature of curricular content with the problem solving required to make a fairer society.

Reflecting about the linguistics component of curriculum

Adopting an informed perspective on what the linguistics component of the curriculum should be like in a major on bilingual teaching is essential provided that such epistemological choice will not just become instrumental to the learning/teaching of (a) language(s), but ultimately will have an effect on the theoretical appropriation of language, the framework for the production of knowledge in the field, and the pedagogical decisions that learners and teachers should make. Therefore, it is not enough for linguistics to be made explicit, linguistics problematization should also shift from the positivistic approach to theoretical linguistics, and even further to an interpretative one that can generate new knowledge within a socio ethnographic description of learning realities, thus reaching even applied linguistics (within a critical framework, also) to the teaching of languages.

Explicit linguistic instruction seems to be a reasonable choice for the learning of a second language due to pedagogical and theoretical grounds. Examples include the examination of the belief that exposure to metalanguage along with communicative practice can facilitate a shift from the declarative to the procedural knowledge of a given language feature (Ellis, 2007), or the seemingly contradictory view that explicit linguistic instruction will only generate metalinguistic knowledge, without contributing much to the acquisition of implicit knowledge (Doughty, 2003).

This dialogue between pedagogy, English and Spanish as objects of study, and linguistics is necessary due to the demands of a professional identity of bilingual teachers. The implicit needs of such identity include the development of high order thinking and communicative skills in both languages, as well as the understanding of what language is (both as contextually-independent and as contextually-situated), and

the understanding of educational principles that align with the learning and teaching of languages.

Regarding the distinctive learning needs of a major on second language education, Correa (2014) acknowledges that learning linguistics in this kind of major differs from learning linguistics in a major on linguistics in English. Also Treffers-Daller (2003) claims that, whereas the learning of linguistic content in major on linguistics works on generating knowledge about cognition, learning linguistics in a major on second language education is pivotal in facilitating the language learning process of those who will eventually teach language

Nonetheless, it is not just the learning of the second/foreign language that is boosted thanks to the inclusion of linguistic contents in the curriculum of a bilingual education major. It is unfair to expect the linguistic course in a language department to merely work as an instrument to facilitate language learning. In fact, the knowledge of linguistics also empowers pre service teachers in terms of their eventual teaching of the second language, since knowing the metalanguage can become the asset with which non- native speaker teachers compete in a field where the learner tends to favor the native-speaker and his/her intuitive authority as language users-even if they do not hold language teaching majors (Correa, 2014).

Going beyond the positivistic approach towards the role of linguistics in the learning and teaching of a second language, Widdowson (2000) acknowledges that being fully knowledgeable of metalinguistic knowledge does not guarantee success in language teaching. Ellis (2012) seems to agree when asserting that having a vast command of a language is not enough for the purpose of teaching it either. Effective language teaching then might be the result of solid of reflective practices in the learning of a triad of contents that includes language pedagogy, applied linguistics, and theoretical linguistics as its pillars (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000).

The development of a professional identity for bilingual education teachers implies somehow a new epistemological viewstand. One in which there is not the classical detachment between subject and object to be studied. This makes sense considering that knowledge about linguistics will eventually be more than the sheer content that will be used in the teaching, but also, as noted before, it constitutes a relevant resource for the development of the individual's identity as a learner and teacher to be.

Thus, it is keen to consider that devicing the linguistic curricular component for the undergraduate program implies shifting from the

positivistic epistemology (which prescribes teaching recipes) to the interpretative epistemology (which advocates for the ethnographic descriptions of classroom learning realities), as Johnston (2009) suggests. Such espistemological shift will allow to consider the three dimensions of learning: the declarative knowledge (savoir), the procedural knowledge, or know-how (savoir faire), and the existential competence (savoir être), as Delors (1996) would acknowledge.

This three- dimensional understanding of linguistic knowledge urges for an understanding of linguistics within the linguistics turn, which is rooted in the discipline itself, to generate ways of knowing about the language, but also to frame the knowledge within the social sciences. This latter approach will help learners/teachers-to-be understand language as a social phenomenon that is highly situational and contextually- dependent. Furthermore, the path should be explicitly open for understanding the post- structural, and post-colonial turn that unveils the historical complicities between linguistics and colonialism and the call for linguistics and epistemological justice (Pennycook, 2001).

Therefore, it would be savvy to adopt a new conception of the linguistics component of the curriculum that aligns with such understanding. Ultimately, the approach that is given to curriculum will not be just accountable for the mastery of the language, and the existing language methodologies but will also result in the development of bilingual teachers' identities (Kumaradivelu, 2003) as passive technicians (whose teaching practices will be led by others' expertise) reflective practitioners (who are not just consuemers of knowledge, but also producers of knowledge who deal with problem solving in their immediate teaching settings) and/ or asr transformative intellectuals (who take active part in curriculum development efforts and challenge the existing social structures).

Methodology

Research design

The study is framed into a qualitative research paradigm that allows the intertwining of facts and values (Marshall & Rossman, 2006) that tandem with the dialogic construction of knowledge to gather the data to answer to the question:

Which theoretical and empirical sources can be used in the proposal of restructuration of the linguistic component of the undergraduate program on bilingual education?

Such inquiry implied the need of resorting to i) the theoretical constructs that can inform a proposal to reform the linguistic component of curriculum, and ii) the validation of experiences and needs observed by professors (with experience teaching linguistics and/or second language at the tertiary level of education in similar majors) and graduates (from the bilingual education program at the university) as input to be considered in the crafting of a curriculum proposal for the linguistics of the major. The construction of the principles that make up the curriculum proposal seen through the lens of multiple individuals (researchers' appropriation of literature included) imply that the approach being followed is a phenomenological one (Creswell, 1998).

Context and participants

The study was conducted at a Bilingual education teachers' college in Bogotá. Colombia. At the moment that the study started, the existing contents in the curriculum included subjects that dealt with linguistics from the social/post structural turn in the beginning of the major. Content such as 'Intercultural communication', 'communication theory', or 'sociolinguistics' was dealt with in the early stages of the major. The classes were conducted in the foreign language in the pursuit of helping learners develop language through content and content through language. No linguistics subject was being taught in the learners' first language. Besides, towards the seventh semester students were exposed to systemic linguistics classes (where they were expected to learn about language as a system).

The intention of the study is to inform an eventual curriculum proposal for the linguistic component of the major without sacrificing the existing quality of the student -teachers as certified by positive results obtained in Pruebas Saber Pro and MIDE, which are two standardized high stakes assessment procedures from the MEN (National Ministry of Education) in aspects like critical reading and written communication, and way above the reference group in English. The main concern is offering an informed proposal for the restructuration of the linguistics curriculum with the premise of maintaining, and, if possible, improving the evident quality of the education offered till then by the college in its curriculum design and curricular practices.

The participants in this research included 8 linguistic and language teachers with experience in EFL (English as a foreign language) education majors, 5 graduates with a highly reflective profile and a furtherly developed career path. There was a phenomenological convenience sampling; professors and graduates' profile allowed their

informed reflection based on experience and knowledge of pedagogy, languages and linguistics with an emic (insider's) perspective due to either having taught at similar majors (in the case of professors) or having graduated from the college and pursued a career in teaching (which for most of the participants included even further graduate studies).

From interviewing the students, graduates, and teachers, one could read that this approach to linguistics seemed to generate both satisfying results in the generation of a professional identity but also some setbacks (namely overlapping contents, or the feeling that the understanding of language as a system came in too late in students' learning path). Graduates' perceptions towards their linguistic learning allowed the emergence of a consciousness of language and linguistics as a body of knowledge that they had often accumulated declaratively, but which was difficult to manipulate for the purposes of handling with 'out of the norm' challenges when teaching the language (e.g. the challenge of helping large classes learn the pronunciation of th sounds or simple past, the teaching of third person conjugation in present tense, etc.).

Data collection instruments

The study was conducted by resorting to three main sources of data, intending to gain insight on the theoretical and empirical sources that could be used in the proposal of restructuration of the linguistic component of the undergraduate program on bilingual education (which the research question aimed at). The three main sources of data were: i) literature and state of the art (related to curriculum, linguistics, and ESL/ bilingual education teaching), ii) interviews to 8 teachers, linguists, and professors who have experience teaching linguistics and/ or second language at the level of tertiary education, and iii) interviews to 6 college graduates with solid academic profile and experience teaching.

The data collected from the sources was used for the purpose of addressing theory, experience, and expectations and also to align with the vision of a curriculum that can address the educational, the experiential, and the existential dimensions (Council of Europe, 2010), as explained in the review of the literature.

Results

The meatalinguistic discourse permits the belonging to a society of knowledge

Metalinguistic knowledge allows student–teachers to resort to theory and research- based explanations for their learning and eventual teaching of language(s), and also permits that they generate knowledge in the EFL field by being able to name and document their own learning and teaching experiences as a valid researchable sources. The participants pointed out that learning the metalanguage resulting from instruction on linguistics facilitates the development of knowledge.

> "A common discourse facilitates the cognitive divulgation, the academic rigor, and the acceptance within the academic community." (Interviewee 2).

Such perspective seems to be theoretically backed up since language teacher education does have a tradition of including training on linguistics (LaFond & Dogancay-Aktuna, 2009), and at the tertiary level education programs do not give much value to superficial knowledge that is purely declarative (Biggs & Tang, 2007). Through their learning of linguistics, student- teachers gain 'knowledge of how language is structured, acquired, and used'(Johnson & Golombek, 2002, p. 8) and empower themselves to be able to understand and diagnose student problems better, provide better explanations and representations for aspects of language, and have a clearer idea of what they are teaching (Bartels, 2005).

The metalanguage facilitates that language educators rationalize their role as language acquirers, language users, and language makers (Gomes de Matos, 2014), thus boosting their opportunities of generating new knowledge about language. It is this epistemological dimension in which the knowledgeable subject is as important as the object to apprehend in which knowing the linguistic terms can offer an agentive role to the student-teacher as a source of linguistic knowledge and boost him/her as a researcher. As an example, despite the fact that research on linguistics has resorted to the consolidation of linguistic corpora (an initiative that might be rooted in the quantitative approach), there is need for an inquirer, someone who intuitively asks questions, generates hypotheses, and interprets data departing from the linguistic corpus data (Kabatek, 2014).

Cots and Arnó (2005) view the language teacher as a professional who fulfils roles involved in language, linguistics, and teaching, thus being a language user, a language analyst, and a language teacher. The pre-service teacher does not come as a tabula rasa, neither does s/he

simply analyze linguistic data. S/he is an empathic linguist (Kabatek, 2014): a language user and language maker who in his/her own activity as speaker –hearer develops the ability to identify noteworthy phenomena not just from the (system) language itself but also from the languages s/he knows and learns.

As bilingual beings who have acquired a mother tongue and have taken instruction to learn a foreign language, the pre-service teachers have a metalinguistic background that allows them to analyze their language use, identify deviations of norms, categorize and hypothesize phenomena, and inquire systematically to generate new knowledge of language, languages, and language teaching/learning. The premise is that the speakers can observe their own linguistic activity and judge not just whether a sentence is grammatically correct or not, but also can generate contrastive linguistic inquiries, and can examine learning from an *emic*, experiential view point that can later inform their instruction, and eventually generate knowledge about the content (linguistics), its teaching, and its learning.

The need for a balance between homogeneity and heterogeneity in the choice of content

Participants agree that the choice of content for the linguistic component of the major needs to be coherent with the vision that the institution ascribes to the role language and linguistics in the construction of the professional profile of its graduates. Such vision must keep a balance between homogeneity and heterogeneity when compared to the value given to linguistics by similar majors in other universities.

Homogeneity of content choice (choosing contents similar to the ones provided by similar majors in other universities) guarantees that the graduate from the college will be competitive when compared to other professionals in the field:

> "A language program needs a serious foundation on linguistics… four, five, six subjects of linguistics that have contents that are established everywhere. Generally, there is a course of sociolinguistics. Which are the topics of a sociolinguistics class? The same ones everywhere… the socio-phonic variables, socio-lexical variables, socio- grammatical variables, bilingualism, etc. That means that there are some topics in the linguistic courses that are instructed worldwide at the undergraduate level. Contents are relatively standardized" (Interviewee 1).

This participant argues that homogeneity is a requirement that allows graduates to be ready to compete at the local and the international academic contexts:

> "If one deviates from the common contents, it is likely that the graduates become less competitive at the international level, and that is relatively harmful" (Interviewee 1).

Such homogeneity in the choice of content (when compared to other similar majors in other universities) seems to be applicable to the study of language from an intradisciplinary perspective, which seems to align with Pastor's (2001) idea that a sine qua non choice in linguistic contents is the understanding of language as a system—Phonology and phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics. Such kind of intradisciplinary perspective is also favored by the content choice of similar majors in Latin America.

Heterogeneity of content choice, on the other hand, can result in the generation of an added value for the major when compared to other competitors in the area.

> "The program profile is established by the universities when they state "We want this sort of professionals." The subjects are chosen based on such profile. Even optative subjects are chosen based on it. They can offer a course on conversation analysis, a course on linguistics applied to computerized teaching of languages… there are numberless courses that can be created in that space…they are some sort of identity mark, an added value". (Interviewee 1)

The offer of either compulsory or elective courses on some of the sub- disciplines of linguistics seems to be for this participant one of the reasons why a conscious content choice can strengthen the university identity giving the learners competitive advantages over other colleagues once they graduate.

Changing the focus: Problematizing rather than specializing content

Nonetheless, (and radical though it might seem) another participant asserts that it is not necessary to label the linguistic courses (e.g. phonetics, syntax, etc.), since by naming them one is arbitrarily isolating instruction and producing some sort of fragmentation of knowledge. She considers that such fragmentation does no guarantee learning.

> "If it is necessary to include labels, they should be thought always as the result of the binding emerging from problems found in the teaching praxis". (Interviewee 5).

This latter participant (along with what could be read from the data collected of other participants) inclines for a change of focus that prioritizes the problemic nature of instruction over the sub- discipline level of content specialization.

The relevance of theoretical and structural content, according to the participants' opinions, could/ should be accompanied by a practical focus:

> "In the didactics of linguistics, one has the possibility of making the student- teachers work on concrete problems from day one of instruction (…) Concrete problems that can be solved the very moment explanatory instruction is provided" (Interviewee 1).

This convergence on content as resulting from the problematization of the object of study advocates for a synthetic approach (rather than an analytic one) to the generation of knowledge. This based on the fact that reality is not as fragmented as the sub- discipline specialization of content implies. From that view, curricular proposals should depart from the object of study and its problemic nature to eventually allow the convergence of the disciplines and sub-disciplines in a field for the appropriation of knowledge.

> "The labeling of content subjects is a fatidic fact since it compartmentalizes knowledge. It separates phonetics from semantics, and both from pragmatics, instead of joining them. The isolation of contents results in a poor, less meaningful, learning. If it is necessary to label the subjects, such labeling should be thought as the result of the connections and be always based on problems that have been determined in the teaching practice. Phonetics connects with English and its teaching- . It is difficult to understand how a first semester learner can start to learn English without getting familiar with the sounds, without distinguishing which sounds we do not have in Spanish. That is why they always say /tri/ to mean the number. If phonetics is not worked communicatively from the beginning such familiarization is difficult" (Interviewee 5).

A bilingual student-teacher needs ample knowledge of the structure of the language and its usage, but also competences to apply such knowledge to his/her immediate reality. The learning and teaching problems that emerge out of experience can urge the individual to join a systematic and collective search for solutions. Joining a research group, for instance, allows students to acknowledge and appropriate the links

between disciplines and thus find meaning for their learning events (Jurado, 2014). The teaching and learning challenges occurring inside the classroom and the teachers and students' approach to them become valuable input for the teacher to exert his/her role as a responsible active citizen who will not be a giver of methodology or content, but rather someone who will understand his /her profession as subjected to constant change.

Code of instruction: Using the 'language as a resource' perspective rather than the 'language as a problem' when teaching linguistics in a bilingual education major

The 'language as a resource' perspective (Baker, 2006) conceptualizes language diversity as a capital promoted by the discourse of human capital flow and global citizenship (Rasool 2004). For the purpose of understanding linguistics and the knowledge of language as a cultural construction, as vehicle of cognition and as a functional system, the fact that the learners can resort to two languages (L1 and L2) should be considered an advantage and not a problem.

The language (tongue) used to get knowledge of language should be a solid instrument and not an obstacle. Learners must be able to use the language they are using as code of instruction for a linguistics class as a tangible materialization to recognize linguistic phenomena (e.g. distinguishing allophones), make grammatical judgments, or simply understand content of theoretical linguistics; however, after even some 6 or 7 semesters of instruction in a second language, students are not fully capable of doing all of this in the L2 (Correa, 2014).

Five of the participants acknowledged that it is necessary to approach the understanding of the language by departing from the mother tongue as the vehicle of instruction, and then, progressively, incorporating the foreign language.

> "I would lean for formal teaching of linguistics in the first language and then to deepen it in the second language" (Interviewee 1).

> "It is important that the learner have knowledge in the mother tongue and then use it to move on to the second language" (Interviewee 2).

Such position does not exclude the learning of linguistics in the early stages of the EFL learning:

> "It is necessary that both codes play a role in the early stages of formation in an alternate and balanced manner" (Interviewee 3).

Nonetheless, for one of the participants it is pivotal that the content of linguistics be not detached from the learning of the language(s) (the L1 and L2), neither should it be detached from research or pedagogy.

An integrative perspective as such in the learning of linguistics is intended to facilitate the understanding of the linguistic features of the mother tongue, the language being learned, and the more informed choice of tools so that the linguistic knowledge boosts eventual pedagogical decisions and the critical analysis of theories of bilingualism in the immediate and further contexts.

This set of opinions from the interviewed participants suggests that we avoid demonizing any of the linguistic codes (languages) in any stage of linguistics teaching. One of the participants even suggests that the learning of linguistics be aided by professionals in the two languages:

> "We should understand bilingualism as the co-existence of two linguistic codes in perfect harmony, thus both codes should be accepted. Two languages in one same subject- English classes with readings in Spanish, and the other way around, for example." (Interviewee 4).

This interviewee's opinion validates both languages as the objects and means of study linguistic phenomena; language is viewed both as human construction and a capability (Jiménez, 2011) that is worth looking in depth at.

Pastor (2001) considers the contrastive analysis of languages essential to disentangle the linguistic distance between first and second language thus improving our acknowledgement of the most common mistakes caused by language interference. That seems to be in agreement with one of the participants' perspective, who advocates for not demonizing the use of the first language:

> "We need to make the bilingual student- teacher understand that the two languages are not a threat to one another but there are mechanisms of construction of knowledge in a language that can be used in the learning of the other one. It is important that the educators then be 'very bilingual' in order to help understand such mechanisms. The native Spanish speaker who has a very competitive command of English and has gone through the exercise of analyzing his own language and the one he has been learning, can really help the bilingual learner" (Interviewee 5).

Thus, the first language is a resource that can be used not just as a vehicle to transmit the knowledge of linguistics but also as an instrument to understand language's system and structure more

tangible. Besides, the use of the L1 as the code for linguistic content can facilitate the appropriation of the concepts and its application to generate more sophisticated knowledge of the mother tongue and further its sophisticated development. The beliefs of experienced teachers, include the idea that a solid knowledge of the first language should be fostered, since it facilitates an eventual contrastive analysis with the L2 (Cortés, Cárdenas & Nieto 2013).

Conclusions

Linguistic instruction in bilingual education has mostly been problematized from an intra-disciplinary edge with contents that consider language as a functional system (phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics, etc.), and as a discipline that is fed with interdisciplinary contents (which signals the ties that linguistics has with other fields of knowledge from the social sciences resulting in sub disciplinary labels such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, etc.). However, the curricular needs of bilingual teachers urge for an appropriation of applied linguistics, and particularly linguistics for the teaching of (content in) English for speakers of Spanish as a mother tongue. Decisions to innovate in the existing curriculum of an undergraduate program on bilingual education cannot be taken, not even proposed, without having a responsible glance at the myriad of sources that from theory and from experience can inform a curriculum proposal.

Both literature and participants converge in the principle that linguistics is necessary for such a major, but that not any linguistics, but one linguistic approach that matches the needs of bilingual student-teachers. That is, linguistic contents that are not solely chosen on the basis of the traditional fragmentation of knowledge, but rather based on the problemic nature of the object of study: the language, and the languages. Thus, the particularity of the academic bilingual context implies the recognition of both languages not just as valid codes of instruction, but also as examples of the materialization of the principles by which language as a human construct works.

The restructuring of the linguistic component of the curriculum can be fed with the pedagogies used in teaching in general, and in the teaching of the second language in particular. Such conclusion also resulting from the data analyzed out of interviews carried out, can be gathered to align with principles of constructivism, the competences of the 21st century, problem based learning, project and task based learning, linguistics as an instrument for the construction of peace, and the organization of contents by departing from thematic units that foster authentic performance.

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Understanding Language Teaching From Method to Postmethod B. Kumaravadivelu,[1]

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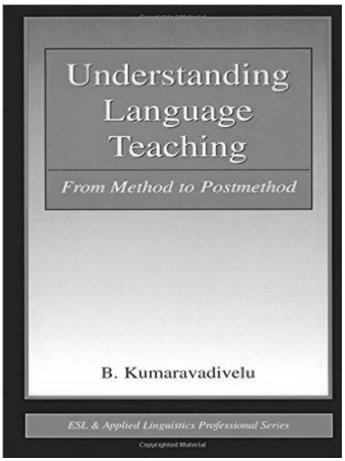

Reviewed by Nancy Bautista Perez[2]*
Universidad del Tolima

Professor B. Kumaravadivelu presents his second widely-acclaimed book, *Understanding Language Teaching*, about the macrostrategy framework designed to empower both beginning and experienced language teachers to develop their own theory of practice which gives them autonomy. This book is a response to the many challenges teachers have to face in their English classroom, but at the same time is a calling out for a coherent and comprehensive framework for teacher preparation in these times of globalization,

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rapidly accelerating social, technology, cultural and economic changes and trends that implies that new studies advocate the construction of pedagogies of world Englishes and English as a lingua franca as suggested by Jenkins (2006) are needed; and the postmethod framework is a great opportunity to start this process.

This macrostrategy framework is considered by many scholars and practitioners as the answer to years of limitations of the traditional methods or as defined by Kumaravadivelu "The Postmethod Pedagogy is an alternative to method rather than a method, while alternative methods are primarily products of top-down processes, alternatives to method are mainly products of bottom-up processes" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.33); this postmethod framework is considered the most comprehensive because it includes key concepts and combines elements of the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) of both Allwrigth's and Stern's frameworks previously to Kumaravadivelu's thoughts , which is founded on three parameters based on social, cultural, economic and politic dimensions that have permeated the process of language teaching, at the same time those parameters are complemented by ten macrostrategies or classroom principles. (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Although, this gripping book was published in 2008, the postmethod pedagogy is considered a sustainable approach to language teaching in Latin America because it is sensitive to local particularities and involves a critical awareness of local conditions and needs. Therefore, in countries such as Brazil and Argentina researchers and language teachers have carried out projects to analyze and develop their own pedagogies inspired and based on this framework; an example of it can be found in one of the Mercer's articles published in 2013 in Brazil. Also, in the 39th FAAPI conference in Argentina in 2014, researchers and scholars emphasized on the benefits for the bilingual education that this pedagogy offers. However, in Colombia little implementation and studies have been conducted and most of them are about teaching culture, influenced by the post-method thoughts as Fandiño, (2014) shows his concern about the incorporation of culture into the teaching of English as a foreign language within the context of Colombia Bilingüe, in his article, Teaching culture in Colombia Bilingüe: From theory to practice. Thus, the author has called this book "the pattern which connects" all the elements to what language teachers are expected to do in the classroom nowadays (Kumaravadivelu, 2008. P. xiii); it means that the teacher should be a mediator and generator of learning opportunities by connecting the classroom with the local and global community, as stated by Byram and Risager (1999) teachers act as mediators between cultures.

The text is divided into three main parts and each part is split up into chapters and most of the chapters are characterized by presenting a review of theories regarding the fundamental features of language, language learning and teaching along with critical reflection and examples from real classroom practices.

Part One: Language, Learning, and Teaching. Addresses general features and contributions that applied linguistics has done to L2 is highlighted by the author. It is divided into three chapters: *Chapter 1: Language, Concepts and Precepts* explores the fundamental concepts of language and introduces three different pedagogical concepts: Language as a system, as discourse and as ideology and discusses the principles of each one from different researchers and scholars. *Chapter 2: Learning: Factors* and Processes analyzes the concepts of intake, intake factors, and intake process to understand the factors and processes that will contribute to successful learning or non-learning of L2 (Second Language Acquisition) and how the language teacher should construct a pedagogy to promote language learning in the classroom. *Chapter 3: Teaching: Input and Interaction.* This chapter focuses on some aspects of input, interaction, and syllabus design that impact classroom instruction and consequently the language acquisition.

Part two: Language Teaching Methods. It is divided into three chapters; four, five and six. The author takes a critical look at some established and well-known language teaching methods and connects them to the fundamental features addressed in Part One; then concludes with the theoretical principles and classroom procedures of language-learner-, and learning-centered methods. *Chapter four: Constituents and Categories of Methods,* which explains and provides rationale behind the categorization of language methods presented in the book. It distinguishes between Method and Methodology: Approach, Method and Technique, Approach, Design and Procedure, Principles and Procedures. It also classifies the language teaching methods: Language-Centered Methods, Learner-Centered Methods, Learning-Centered Methods, and summarizes them into a figure and introduces the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT). *Chapter five: Language-Centered Methods* clarifies how language teaching methods have evolved and improved over time due to dissatisfaction, therefore a new one emerged. Also, it discusses some historical, psychological, and linguistic factors that shaped the language-centered pedagogy for almost 25 years. In addition, it reviews some theoretical principles and the classroom procedures, and how the dissatisfaction with the language centered pedagogy motivated the search for a better method resulting on the advent of the communicative language teaching as an example of the learner-centered pedagogy. Chapter six: Learner-Centered Methods

explains how this pedagogy has influenced in the classroom procedures that emphasizes in the communicative language teaching from its earlier and later versions. However, some experts like (Nunan,1987 and Thornbury, 1996), revealed without any doubt that the so-called communicative classrooms are anything but communicative. Nunan concluded that in one of the classes he observed "there is growing evidence that, in communicative class, interactions may, in fact, not be very communicative after all" (Nunan, 1987,p.144). *Chapter seven: Learning-Centered Methods or Pedagogy* defines and describes the theoretical principles and classroom procedures regarding to the Natural Approach and Communicational Teaching Project that represents the learning-centered pedagogy and how to develop appropriate interactional activities, for example Krashen himself laments that the "only weakness" of the NA "is that it remains a classroom method, and for some students this prohibits the communication of interesting and relevant topics" (Krashen, 1982, p. 140). This chapter discusses and concludes about the limitations of the concept of method and highlights some of the attempts to transcend those limitations.

Part Three: Postmethod Perspectives. It is the last part of the book and it shows, in three chapters, the new challenges and opportunities that the new millennium has brought to the learning and teaching pedagogies and classroom procedures. Scholars such as Allwright (1991), Pennycook (1989), Prabhu (1990), and Stern (1992) have not only cautioned language-teaching practitioners against the uncritical acceptance of untested methods but they have also counseled them against the very concept of method itself. Also, it analyzes how methods go through endless cycles of life, death, and rebirth. And presents what the author has called the postmethod condition as an alternative to the new challenges to ELT, English Language Teaching field. *Chapter eight: Postmethod Condition* shows the limits of method as, the meaning of method and the death of method. Most of the definitions about method coincided that is something planned and implies an order. In addition, it analyzes five myths about methods according to what research has disclosed. For example, Kumaravadivelu, (1993), Nunan, (1987); Swaffer, Arens, & Morgan, (1982) have revealed four interrelated facts that Kumaravadivelu (2008, p. 166) summarizes like this "In other words, teachers seem to be convinced that no single theory of learning and no single method of teaching will help them confront the challenges of everyday teaching. They use their own intuitive ability and experiential knowledge to decide what works and what does not work". To sum up, this chapter attempts to deconstruct the existing concept of method, the antimethod sentiments and delineates the emerging postmethod condition. *Chapter nine:*

Postmethod Pedagogy discloses the foundation for the construction of pedagogies that can be considered postmethod in their orientation. The author considers that the proposals that have the requirements are only three: 1.Stern's Three-dimensional framework, Allwright's Exploratory Practice framework and his own, Kumaravadivelu's macro-strategic framework. In this chapter he analyzes and exemplifies each of them. Furthermore, this chapter introduces the pedagogic wheel which has an axle represented by the three parameters; particularity, practicality, and possibility interconnected with the ten macrostrategies. Finally, the aim of this framework is to empower teachers to construct their own macrostrategies and microstrategies (tasks) according to local context needs. It clarifies that this is the first step and this framework is still evolving. *Chapter ten: Postmethod Predicament* considers the challenges and changes teachers should face when trying to implement the postmethod pedagogy. There are two main barriers the pedagogical and the ideological. It concludes by arguing that the transitional path from the long established methods-based pedagogy is, no doubt, paved with challenging barriers.

The way this book was written "based on theoretical, experimental and experiential knowledge, teachers and teacher educators have expressed their dissatisfaction with method in different ways". Kumaravadivelu (1993b), offers a unique opportunity to language teachers to reflect upon their teaching practice through the analysis of different experts' opinions, microstrategies and examples taken from real classrooms. It captivates and helps readers to be aware of what pedagogical practices are required today and what teachers who are concerned with the ethical, sociocultural, historical, and political issues that impact the students' lives are expected to do to prepare them as local and global citizens.

To sum up, this book is a great contribution to the ELT field since it empowers institutions, language teachers and students to be more aware of the importance of teaching and learning English and the status it has as an international language. "A language achieves a genuinely global status," observes David Crystal (2003, p. 3), the author of English as a Global Language, "when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country." And finally, the role of the 21st century education which is to establish links with society and prepare students for the demands of the social necessities and working world by developing competences that students need to use in the workplace and society; these competences are clearly exposed in each macrostrategy of the postmethod framework that recognizes that the nature of any language pedagogy should be socially-realistic and contextually-sensitive.

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RBLA, Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada, ISSN: 1676-0786, Belo Horizonte, V.13,n.2,p.375-398. 2013. rblasecretaria@gmail.com, Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais. The text is available at:https://flteducation.wikispaces.com/file/view/kumaraPosmethod.pdf

This book review has not been previously published, and is not being considered for publication elsewhere.

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