MONOGRÁFICO

INTERFACES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Editor temático: Jesús García Laborda

Tejuelo

Nº 31, Revista de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura
Año XII. Enero de 2020

Grupo de investigación "Literatura infantil y juvenil desde la Didáctica de las Ciencias Sociales y las Literaturas" (SEJ036), de la Universidad de Extremadura

Dr. Ahmet Güneyli, Lefke European University, Turkey.
Dra. Badrie, EL-Daw, Lebanese University, Lebanon.
Dr. Ali Rahimi, Bangkok University, Thailand.
Dra. Aydan Irgatoglu, Baskent University, Ankara, Turkey.
Dr. Fatih Yavuz, Balıkesir University, Turkey.
Dra. Mukaddes Sakallı Demirok, Near East University, Nicosia, Cyprus.

Dra. Ozge Hacıfazlıoğlu, Hasan Kalyoncu University, Turkey.
Dra. Elsa de Jesus Roma Nunes, Escola Secundária André de Gouveia, Évora, Portugal.
Dra. Inmaculada Clotilde Santos Díaz, Universidad de Málaga, Spain.

La revista, especializada en la Didáctica de las Lenguas y de las Literaturas, en Literatura Infantil y Juvenil y en Educación, está indexada en los siguientes medios de documentación bibliográfica.

Bases de datos de citas

ESCI. "Emerging Sources Citation Index" de Thomson and Reuters: http://ip-science.thomsonreuters.com/cgi-bin/jrnlst/jlresults.cgi, desde el 20 de noviembre de 2015.

SCOPUS de Elsevier: https://www.scopus.com/search/form.uri?display=basic (desde 2018).

Sistemas de evaluación y e-Sumarios

Journal Schoolar Metrics (Arts, Humanities and Social Sciencie) de EC3 Research Group: Evaluación de la Ciencia y la Comunicación Científica (Universidad de Granada). Periodo 2010-2014. Incluida en tres categorías: Educación, Q3; Lenguaje y lingüística, Q2; Literatura, Q1. En este periodo la revista obtuvo en el H5 Index (6) y H5 Median (12) de un total de H Citations (80).

Clasificación en MIAR: ICDS 2018: 9.5; ICDS 2016: 9,4; ICDS 2015: 3.845; ICDS 2013: 3,699; ICDS 2012: 3,602; ICDS 2011: 3,477.

Erih plus: incluida desde el 28 de julio de 2015.

Ulrich's Periodicals Directory: Incluida en la categoría lingüística y literatura.

Clasificación según ih10 en Inrecs: Incluida como la revista nº 36 dentro de la especialidad de Educación en el índice H de las revistas científicas españolas (Delgado López-Cózar, Emilio; Ayllón Millán, Juan Manuel; Ruiz Pérez, Rafael (2013). "Índice H de las revistas científicas españolas según Google Scholar Metrics (2007-2011)", EC3 Reports, 3. Granada, 9 de abril de 2013). H index 3 y Media H= 5.

Clasificación según ih10 en Inrecs: Incluida como la revista nº 38 dentro de la especialidad de Educación en el índice H de las revistas científicas españolas (Ayllón, Juan Manuel; Ruiz Pérez, Rafael; Delgado López-Cózar, Emilio (2013). "Índice H de las revistas científicas españolas según Google Scholar Metrics (2008-2012)", EC3 Reports, 7. Granada, 18 de noviembre de 2013). H index y Media H= 4.

Clasificación según ih10 en Inrecs: Incluida como la revista nº 49 dentro de la especialidad de Educación en el índice H de las revistas científicas españolas (Ayllón, Juan Manuel; Martín-Martín, Alberto; Orduña Malea, Enrique; Delgado López-Cózar, Emilio (2015). "Índice H de las revistas científicas españolas según Google Scholar Metrics (2010-2014)", EC3 Reports, 13. Granada, 23 de octubre de 2015). H index 6 y Media H= 12.

Clasificación en DICE: valoración de la difusión internacional 4,5; Internacionalización de las contribuciones 31,25. Incluida entre la 10 revista del área.

Clasificación en Latindex (directorio y catálogo): 36 criterios cumplidos.

Sherpa Romeo: color "grey".

CIRC 2018 (Clasificación Integrada de Revistas Científicas): Ciencias Sociales C; Humanidades C.

DIALNET. Dialnet Métricas: Impacto 2017: 0,070; Revista 153 de 225.

REDIB. Clasificación global: 389. Percentil Factor de Impacto: 60.454

MLA (Modern Language Asociation).

DOAJ

REDIB

REDINED

CARHUS PLUSH +

Preliminares/Preliminary

Interfaces in language teaching

Editor's word

There is no doubt that there is an increasing importance of language teaching in the world. The undeniable reasons for such increasing attention are the traditional world globalization due to the international economy, the human labor, travel and tourism and the innate interest of not a few students in learning the language per se. A few months ago, the editors of Tejuelo suggested us the edition of a special issue of outstanding papers coming from the WCLTA 2018 conference on Education held in Torrejón de Ardoz (Madrid) and the Conference on Bilingual Education 2018 held in Alcalá de Henares sponsored by the Instituto Franklin-UAH. The quality of the papers had been amazing in both cases so we organized a call for papers in January 2019. The peer review process guarranteed the quality of the papers

selected for this special edition. At first we have received over 70 full papers and only 19 were accepted. After a second and third peer review, only 12 papers were finally accepted. As a result, the reader will be able to access high quality research articles that have gone through a very long process of writing and revisions. The final result is a compilation of different papers that will address many of the readerships' interests. Following a long standing tradition of the journal Tejuelo, papers in both English and Spanish have been accepted in order to make reading more appealing both for our English speaking community as well as the Spanish speaking community from all around the world.

The first paper, El Fomento del Pensamiento Crítico a través de la Modificación de Verbos Interrogativos en Actividades de Escritura: Un Estudio, is one of the papers submitted to the journal through the journal's traditional submission and therefore has followed the regular peer review system. This interesting paper analyzes critical thinking skills of the 9th graders in the Spanish educational system (3rd year of Compulsory Secondary Education, ESO). The researchers developed a didactic unit focusing on developing students' higher thinking skills. The authors conclude that critical thinking should be fostered all through the curriculum and that the final goal of education is not content itself but growing critical citizens. Sure enough, Dr. Julio Cañero Serrano, the author of the second paper entitled La literatura norteamericana para universitarios millennials y centennials: *Reflexiones en torno a un modelo ecléctico de enseñanza,* would agree since what he considers cultural wars it refers to a revision of the Western traditional "American values" since the 90s. He especially analyses the perspective of "*mujeres, inmigrantes, clase trabajadora, o minorías étnicas, raciales o de orientación sexual"* which can trigger positivist criticism among the Spanish university students. This obviously leads to a perspective of teaching literature more committed with our society.

A second group of papers in this special issue is related to bilingual education. Dr. Bianca Vitalaru, in her paper Sociocultural Awareness, Cultural Perspectives and Strategies in Language Assistants' Academic Papers in Spain analyses the academic papers of the Language Assistants (LAs) enrolled in the 'Teach & Learn in Spain' program at Instituto Franklin-UAH. The analysis shows the LAs' high level of sociocultural awareness and the relation that cultural awareness can have on interlinguistic communication and second language teaching. It underlines strategies used in the papers to provide practical solutions for the specific needs detected through the LAs' own experience and research. Finally, the paper shows how the Master's Theses shape the teaching quality of the program by considering the socio-culturization that the assistants experience in Spain and providing an academic opportunity to share their life lessons. This leads to the traditional *see-learn-share-understand-assimilate* process for culture learning, which is a must in the development of an authentic bilingual education as the Bilingual Preogram in Madrid. The study presents both quantitative and qualitative reseach and this paper will serve as the introduction of Dr. Mary Frances Litzler's paper about the Native English Speakers in Madrid's Classrooms: Difficulties Reported by Assistants. Her paper studies the difficulties shaped in the portfolios of 40 native "English-speaking language assistants working in classrooms in Madrid". Through their comments, Litzler finds that teaching for these students is very challenging due to dramatic changes in language teaching methodology, changes in the didactics of these students' core subjects, the lack of experience to deal with students with special needs, their solitude in many of the schools (where communication is sometimes a challenge due to their own lack of Spanish language skills), the concept of classroom discipline and educational culture which can be shocking for most of the international assistants. As stated in the paper Implementing polylingual space into the process of training future primary school teachers, the new needs, new teachers in Kazakhstan or Spain need to develop polylingual self which responds to the many interfaces that can be found nowadays in education such as the modernization of teaching methodologies, the increasing role of

technology, the significant increase of the role of globalization and international cooperation. Due to these circumstances, schools would require a new curriculum which is explained in depth in this paper by Zhumabayeva and her team. Precisely, this specific training also must have an influence in bilingual education teachers who, according to Martín-Macho Harrison and Faya Cerqueiro have to approach the teaching and content as a non-linguistic discipline. However, in L1 in CLIL: The case of Castilla-La Mancha article, it is claimed that on may occasions the first language is under-represented. According to this research, the use of the mother tongue specially in Content Language Integrated Learning, would benefit students and, in this sense, specific policies should be implemented to associate CLIL with the current curricula of the different regions in Spain. This is certainly supported by Dr. García Laborda Alcalde Peñalver in Attitudinal trends in CLIL assessment: A pilot study who addressed the main kay issues found in CLIL contexts by both in service and in training teachers. The paper concludes that other additional attitudinal studies would accurately reflect on the current challenges that many teachers face in bilingual education classrooms including knowledge of language or content teaching.

A third group of papers of this special issue relates to technology use in the classroom with the use of blogs and flipped classrooms. Salvador Montaner-Villalba, an outstanding specialist in blogging, states that the use of cooperative work in writing through blogs benefits their written production in EFL specially focusing at A-level. Students benefit significantly, in quality, quantity and motivation. Similar outcomes are achieved by Cristina Calle Martínez with Tourism students at the University.The paper aims to analyse the use of flipped classroom in higher education learners to improve productive and receptive skills through the VoiceThread program.

This special issue concludes with Dr. Emine Yağcı *et al.* paper from North Cyprus, Evaluation of the impact of gender factor in the teaching and inspection of Turkish language.

The current special issue compiles a number of outstading reseach papers. Overall, the selected papers share some common ideas regarding the teaching experience and focusing on the crucial role of human factors in the use of technology, methodology and theoretical approaches. Our main goal is to provide to our readers a special volume that they can enjoy, at least as much as we did while we compiled it.

Jesús García Laborda
Instituto Franklin-Facultad Educación, Universidad de Alcalá

Angela Sauciuc y Iulia Vescan
Instituto Franklin, Universidad de Alcalá

Artículos /Articles

El fomento del pensamiento crítico a través de la modificación de verbos interrogativos en actividades de escritura: un estudio

Promoting Critical Thinking through the Modification of Questioning Verbs in Writing Assignments: A Study

Pablo Agustín Artero Abellán
Universidad Complutense de Madrid
pabloagustinartero@ucm.es
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4779-2506

Resumen: Este estudio propone un objetivo doble. Por un lado, un análisis del pensamiento crítico y su aplicación a través de la escritura en alumnos de 3º de la ESO Para ello, se modificó el lenguaje de las preguntas de escritura del libro de texto. A continuación, se implementó una unidad didáctica que destaca la importancia del pensamiento reflexivo para el desarrollo de textos más ricos. Por tanto, el objetivo del estudio es la modificación de verbos de susodichas preguntas por otros en niveles altos de la taxonomía de Bloom. Esta información se recogió a través de observación, cuestionarios inicial y final, y una unidad didáctica con actividades de escritura evaluadas.

Palabras clave: Pensamiento crítico; Composición; Taxonomía de Bloom; Motivación del estudiante; Preguntas/ Enunciados.

Abstract: The aim of the present study is twofold. First off, an analysis regarding 3rd ESO students' critical thinking application was procured from their performance from a piece of writing. To promote critical thinking, modification of the language of questions in the course book was purposely executed. This was then followed by an implementation of a whole Didactic Unit designed to enhance the role of reflective questions in the creation of more complex writings. This language modification was erected through the use of verbs contained in Bloom's taxonomy higher orders. The changes that led students to write longer texts or express more elaborate ideas are also addressed. The data was collected via observation, pre and post questionnaires, and writing assignments.

Keywords: Critical thinking; Writing; Bloom's taxonomy; Student motivation; Questions.

Introduction

"I think, therefore I am". Just as accurate as that. Descartes' most iconic and forever lasting quote stresses one among the many and most relevant functions a human being never stops: thinking.

The meaning behind the assemble of letters for "thinking" is often notably understood and conceptualized by almost every reader. Ever since early ages, parents raise their children around the exercising of thinking to survive, succeed and achieve goals. Thinking then has turned to an almost innate and unnoticeably performed reflex. Yet still, what is indeed meant by the word thinking? And, in any case, how does critical in the expression critical thinking relate to thinking? The Oxford Dictionary refers to thinking as [1] "the process of considering or reasoning about something" or [2] "a person's ideas or opinions". Considering these, thinking may be reasserted as a natural process; a natural process by which people assess possibilities and how to proceed in a variety of given situations, be them either expected or unexpected.

Nonetheless, when thinking is matched to 'critical', a re-consideration of the expression might be done (Caroselli, 2009). In these terms, critical thinking has been an issue extensively subjected to study by many researchers who have devised different ways in which defining 'critical thinking':

> Critical thinking is the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. It is used to describe thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal directed to the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, alculating likelihoods, and making decisions when the thinker is using skills that are thoughtful and effective for the particular context and type of thinking task (Halpern, 2003: 8).

According to Halpern's (2001), when a person is told to think critically, they will presumably need to make use of cognitive skills or strategies in order to acquire an expected result. This idea of individuals using their cognitive skills is not unique to Halpern but also to Dr. Evelyn Bean and Mr. Houston Markham (2008: 6).

Further on this, taking the stance of 'thinking' as an innate capacity humans have, a great amount of thinking is done for humans as babies. It is indeed parents who are in charge of deciding what is best for their children. Only at the point where human beings reach the adequate age, do they start acknowledging their surroundings.

By then, the process of thinking is in its course to full development. Thinking will be engraved in simple actions such as choosing a certain toy to play with. Hence, 'thinking' is so far at a considerable distance from procedures or actions that would rather involve high complex-thinking (Fitzgerald & Baird, 2011).

What's more, critical thinking cannot be assumed to developed individually solely or as if by magic. It needs specific training (Halpern 2001; Walters, 1990). To make matters worse, the result of such 'training' in assorted scenarios –say a classroom, may lead to considerably unpredictable outcomes. In plain, this may go hand in hand with the views of experts such as Global Sociology, who contend

that critical thinking is just not naturally generated but instead requires the intervention of further agents (Monnier, 2010: 1).

On these grounds, the school stands out as one of the cornerstone agent of socialization. Yet, although meeting new people, mingling, conversing or developing relationships make children move forward cognitively speaking, there is as much veracity too in affirming that without the teachers' job to provide them with opportunities and guidance, students would fail to develop thinking skills adequately.

In light of this, teachers are to be conceived as the ultimate figure in charge of making students ready to get by on their own. Throughout the years, the role of a teacher has been evidently and many a times forcefully accompanied by that of a common utensil: a book. It is hard to imagine a teacher without a book in hand these days.

In spite of the prominence stamped upon critical thinking throughout these lines, as observed through correction of writings, it is still the case these days that critical thinking encounters severe contrariety in the classroom.

The main obstacles seem to be the approach or standards upon which books are generally manufactured[1]. Whether this study has specifically featured a sole manual, *Interface 3* by the editorial *Macmillan,* it may come as no surprise to find at a very quick, heartbeat looks at any 3rd ESO manual for Spanish students of English that they throw no or almost none critically demanding questions. In essence, this means that in search of Bloom's high-order questions –questions where students are invited to develop longer texts by the insertion of cognitively harder engaging verbs, the final count would barely reflect any.

Questions in *Interface 3* –and likely alike manuals, appear similarly uttered, as if massively produced according to rigid and non-negotiable patterns. Typically, the usual protagonists are short sentences

---

[1] This study only analyzed the book *Interface 3* by Macmillan.

featuring simpler verbs, as in: *Have you ever been on a long journey? Where did you go?*

While in other countries such as United States teachers and books endorse critical thinking as a major competence for personal growth (McPeck, 1981), the books used in Spanish academic environments, yet more specifically there where *Interface 3* is used, did not appear to provide with these opportunities. Reasonably, this circumstance is quite obviously produced by the way questions are worded, formulated, constructed. *Macmillan* makes sure to include questions with simple and task-simplifying yet redundant and creativity-limiting verbs such as *describe, tell, answer,* etc., with little or no room for imagination and freedom.

For all the above-mentioned, this study aims at first, demonstrating that students prone to compose longer texts when the questions are longer and have more "complex and/or reflective verbs and language". This last is to be done basically by changing the whole wording of questions, making them more reflective and demanding, through the use of questioning and high-order verbs in Bloom's Taxonomy (see *Methodology*).

Last but not least, the second and last aim is to start a debate on whether books in general by extension but specifically *Macmillan's Interface 3,* could improve their questions to motivate students. In this section a point is made towards taking action through Bloom's taxonomy.

1. Literature Review

1. 1. The relevance of thinking critically: reasons for 'critical thinking' instruction in high school classrooms

Over the last few decades, academically speaking and critical thinking has acquired major importance (McPeck, 1990; Guichard, 2006; Cuseo, 2013;). Many are the studies that have addressed discussion on its relevance for students who ponder whether pursuing

university degrees (Halx and Reybold, 2006; Gadzella, Ginther & Bryant, 1997). Yet, judging critical thinking as a skill reserved for those students planning to go to college would be utterly erroneous. Because, ultimately, it oozes maturity and independence (Paul *et al.* 1990; Tsui, 2002). According to Elder (1999: 4):

> There is nothing more practical than sound thinking. No matter what your circumstance or what your aim, you are better off if your think is sound. As a shopper, teacher, student, business person, citizen, moral agent, lover, friend, parent- in every real and circumstance of your life good thinking pays off. Poor thinking inevitably causes problems, wastes time and energy, and ensures frustration and pain.

The importance of –sound– thinking does not only have a bearing on students yet on anyone stuck in life, regardless their circumstance. It is in these terms that Elder refers to 'sound thinking', a terminology that goes hand in hand with sheer critical thinking (1999: 4):

> Critical thinking is simply the art of ensuring that you use the best thinking you are capable of – in some set of circumstances and given your present limited knowledge and skill. […] If you play tennis, and you want to play better, there is nothing more advantageous than to look at some films of excellent players in action and then compare how they address the ball in comparison to you. You study your performance.

Although critical thinking should or may not be considered a 'high school-centered' skill, academics and researchers have lately established no disagreement that in spite of that, it should certainly be one of the main concerns in high education, to regard it even as a mandatory one (Halpern, 2001). Along the same line, Tsui (2002) underscores the value of high-order cognitive skills leading to Bloom's taxonomy (2002: 740):

> Higher-order cognitive skills, such as the ability to think critically, are invaluable to students' futures; they prepare individuals to tackle a multitude of challenges that they are likely to face in their personal lives, careers, and duties as responsible citizens. Moreover, by in-stilling critical thinking in students we groom

individuals to become in-dependent lifelong learners-thus fulfilling
one of the long-term goals of the educational enterprise.

This widespread and well-known scholastic phenomenon of
critical thinking does not seem to have a correlation in 'the practice'
however by for instance taking account of the cases of the United States
or Canada. The issue of implementing 'more thinking' in schools of
Canada and United States has long been subject to a debate that still
wags its tail. In words of Zascavage *et al.* (2007) and Clark, (2009),
putting 'critical thinking' into practice goes for sure down the line of
enrolling undergraduate institutions and studies, yet however, it may be
as well of resort and usefulness once an adult, in areas as common as
looking for a job. Extrapolating this notion to the Spanish context, this
was thought relevant enough as to be included in the educational law
passed under the name of *LOMCE*, in 2013. New competences, or
arguably the title of *point six*, '*sentido de la iniciativa y espíritu
emprendedor'*, accounts for it.

For Tsui (2002), despite that Americans are nowadays more
educated than ever before, the input they are presented with in
American classrooms go in the direction of 'subject matter content
coverage'. This, again, clashes with the unavoidable loss of enabling
and allowing students the time and resources to acquire other skills
(2002). In the same vein, Halpern (2001: 270) argues that "there has
been a growing trend among colleges in the United States and Canada
to require all students to fulfill a requirement in 'critical thinking' as
part of their general education program.

On the other hand, interesting debates on critical thinking as a
'stand-along' subject or domain or in contrast, attached and embedded
into other specific areas has also been brought to the front. As evinced
by McPeck (1990) 'the thinking skills movement' has always had
specific programs in the study programs[23]. These study designations
essentially place the process of reasoning before content or what is

---

[2] McPeck makes reference to Feurstein's *Instructional Enrichment Program* (1978).
[3] Here McPeck cites De Bono's *Cort Thinking Lessons* (1974).

pointedly taught, something that has been longed for years now in the US as well.

Be that as it may, finding a way around incorporating critical thinking into the study program to then put it to use is no *minutiae*. Yet, for a considerable amount of authors (Paul *et al.* 1990; McPeck, 1981, 1990), it's necessary that teachers get students ready to function as independent humans in the real world; a world which eagerly awaits their contributions. Producing autonomous thinkers is linked to critical thinking, a skill in need in the sense that humans are not just born ingrained with the required knowledge or skills to attain such goal.

1. 2. Is it possible to teach critical thinking? The relation between teachers and the textbook

In the lines coming next, a series of authors' theories on the relation teacher-critical thinking is put forth. A 'pairing' that still resonates as unclear and controversial for many.

To start with, Paul *et al.* (1990: 1) stand by the idea that critical thinking unveils assiduously and routinely in the life of adults but also children, namely in the shape of consuming, civism, and love or human and personal relations.

By attempting to generate opportunities to thinking nimbly in class, both students and teachers feel a gratitude that emanates from usefulness and success when duly applied. On these grounds, studies carried out by Tsui (2007) and others such as Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) agree that students experiencing critical thinking in their secondary education do better once they are in college, and that, additionally, there is substantial evidence to suggest that critical thinking can be enhanced by purposeful instruction.

Others nevertheless hesitate about the real and feasible outcome indexing that 'teaching to think' could somehow spawn any significant conclusions. In this degree, as Walton's experiments (2000) have proved, methods and techniques appropriately applied failed to show success in discovering a mechanism to solve the problem of getting

advanced thinkers. Moreover, Van Gelder (2001) adds the problem that, as referred by Walton, many teachers suspect that their efforts make little difference therefore giving up to discouragement.

The other side of the coin have it that these latter negatively-resulted studies are the minority (Fitzgerald & Baird, 2011). In opposition, a great amount of scholarly work discloses positive outcome thus encouraging policy-makers and educators to continue in their efforts. In Pascarella's words (1991: 10):

> Evidence suggests that critical thinking can be taught, although the average effect is based on a rough estimate and is quite modest in magnitude. Students who receive purposeful instruction and practice in critical thinking and/or problem solving skills appear, on average to gain an advantage in critical thinking skills.

Pascarella, Zascavage *et al.* (2007) studies also echo the probability of succeeding in teaching essential critical thinking skills resorting to proof. This is to say, using goal-oriented intervention modules, students truly show an increase in critical thinking abilities[4].

Promoting critical thinking through practicing it in class is only a small piece of a larger puzzle. In brief, even by admitting that tests and research may be able to demonstrate the efficacy of teaching to think critically, the greatest walls or obstacles are believed to be the secondary school course books (Van Gelder, 2001; Elder, 1999; Paul, *et al.*, 1995a; Pascarella, 1991) and to a lesser extent, the way teachers approach critical thinking itself (Tsui, 2002; Paul *et al.*, 1995b).

Tsui (2002) takes in the issue from a more humanistic stance. For the author, teachers are lately teaching in a faulty way because "…rather than devote so much effort to teaching students what to think, perhaps we need to do more to teach them how to think" (2002: 740).

---

4 Zascavage *et al.* allude to enhancing *Critical Thinking Skills and Dispositions of Pre-service Teachers* by Kong and Seng (2004), *Teaching for critical thinking: Helping College Students Develop the Skills and Dispositions of a Critical Thinker* by Halpern (1999) and *Prediction of Performance in an Academic Course by Scores on Measures of Learning Style And Critical Thinking* by Gadzell *et al.* (1997).

Paul *et al.* (1995a: 299) goes beyond that to hold that the origin of it all is undoubtedly the teachers themselves. This authors' perspective is in Paul's views, during their college training period, most teachers make it through their majors mainly by "learning 'the standard textbook answer' and were neither given an opportunity nor encouraged to determine whether what the text or the professor said was 'justified by their own thinking'. McPeck (1990) coincides that "the attitude of the teacher, and the learning atmosphere in the class, is likely to have real and important effects on the success of nurturing such autonomous thinking" (1990: 35).

The results of such poor practices are, in the views of Paul *et al.* of a resounding failure: "students on the whole, do not learn how to work by, or think for themselves. They do not learn how to gather, analyze, synthesize, and assess information" (1990: 339).

Further views on the topic involve as well other variables such as calls on supportiveness towards students building critical thinking, or how the hardships involved in producing complex is not about "simply checking a box" (1993: 243). Additional thought is put on the role of the teacher as a helper or facilitator rather than a 'doer', for they cannot interchange with the students and think critically for them (Cohen, 1993).

Last but not least, course books display other weaknesses to bear in mind and bring to the fore. Former investigation conducted by Paul *et al.* (1995a) in their *Critical Thinking Handbook: High School* disclose reveals that, for instance, different approaches to learning usually tend to focus on the same, a superfluous layer:

> Grammar texts, for example, present skills and distinctions, then drill students in their use. Thus, students, not genuinely understanding the material, do not spontaneously recognize situations calling for the skills and distinctions covered. Such 'knowledge' is generally useless to them. They fail to grasp the uses of and reasoning behind the knowledge presented to them (1995a: 299).

Likewise, in Paul *et al.*'s (1995) view, the time devoted to elaborate reliable 'pure' thinking is a partially mistaken concept. This is also share by Paul *et al.* (1995b) who describe how scarce time is devoted to phrasing stimulating questions. Students are expected to welcome the knowledge passed on to them as in opposition to be encouraged to question what they see written or are told.

Students' personal points of view or philosophies of life seem to be considerably irrelevant in educative environments, possible due to the restrictive and constraining study program. Ninety percent of questions require no higher process or effort beyond 'recalling'. The content taught stands as dense and hasty and then typically followed by content-specific testing (1995b: 41). This is similarly depicted in Walters' (1990: 452) and Elder's *et al.* (1999), who deviates the attention from textbooks to strengthen literature, where critical thinking is to be ultimately found (1999: 4, 40):

> Textbooks typically pay scant attention to big ideas, offer no analysis, and pose no challenging questions. Instead, they provide a tremendous array of information or '*fact lets*', while they ask questions requiring only that students be able to recite back the sample empty list.

1. 3. Bloom's taxonomy: Modifying the language and verbs of the questions

Figure 1
Bloom's taxonomy

Source: Sosniak, 1994: 1

Among the great problems that students experience in class is reportedly motivation (Freeman, Alston & Winborne, 2008; Schunk, Pintrich & Meece, 2008). Instead of thriving participation, students

stand on the other side of the end, remaining silent or having fun while loafing around. To make matters worse, another problem that students commonly face is over repetition, where often what a teacher asks for is rather new ideas (Paul, *et al.*, 1990). This phenomenon, also known as 'boredom' leads to a misconception: students' apathy and lack of motivation. Paul (1989) holds the theory that far from that, students are just extenuated from drilling. In general lines, answers are much more driven by questions than by answers (1989: 33-43):

> Feeding students endless content to remember (that is, declarative sentences to remember) is akin to repeatedly stepping on the brakes in a vehicle that is, unfortunately, already at rest. Instead, students need questions to turn on their intellectual engines and they need to generate questions from our questions to get their thinking to go somewhere. Thinking is of no use unless it goes somewhere, and again, the questions we ask determine where our thinking goes.

As to enumerate other linguists who understand questions strength over reflection, Garrison (1991) underscores the weight of profound questions as the core of any good discussion, making them directly responsible for nurturing reflective thinking. Cohen (1993) adds up to Garrison's by enhancing a Socratic and self-critical perspective: students should be given the opportunity to define and value the nature of a problem and in the sequel, its solution.

In this regard, discussions in a higher education atmosphere have been proved to be limited to merely examining problems and solutions, thus missing the essence on how ideas are built. On the whole, as discussed by researchers, the fact that questions –and more explicitly verbs– shape and delimit the type of answers is beyond doubt. On this subject, experts (Tsui, 2007) agree that 'critical thinking' is irrefutably seen to encompass higher-order thinking processes that are by way of illustration shown in the higher orders of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Sosniak, 1994: 1).

Likewise, Halpern (2001) reports results from a research that took place in Venezuela and United States. In such study, psychologists from both countries devised sixty lesson plans dealing with topics such

as ordering and classifying events, verbal reasoning, problem solving, decision making, inventive and creative thinking. Last, they were handed out sheets with exercises that asked them to understand tricky language. Halpern notes that "results obtained from hundreds of students showed that students who received specific thinking instruction outperformed control subjects on standard tests of thinking skills." (Halpern, 2001: 278).

This evidence also matches Bean *et al.* (2008) figures. Articulated in their *A Mini-Guide for Teaching Critical Thinking* is how much of the information that a teacher gives can be set into the different levels of Bloom's Taxonomy regardless of adversities and *ifs.* Such is the case that they literally implement Benjamin Bloom's Taxonomy of learning "as a guide" (2008: 6).

For Zascavage *et al.* (2007) teaching to interpret and evaluate language, typically from questions, through the lens of Bloom's taxonomy for instance to undergraduate students might effectively raise their critical thinking ability. This instructing methodology based on Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is not new nonetheless. Authors such as Tsui (2007) or Zascavage *et al.* (2007) had already looked at the popular categorization to measure thinking levels, thus proving a useful gauge.

As a matter of fact, Bloom's taxonomy profitability may go as far back as 1977, when Johnson managed to immerse students in an experimental training by which *Integrating Educational Theory and History* was born:

> Bloom's taxonomy proved to be a useful tool. […] The taxonomy did help to clarify objectives and sharpen the critical, analytical, and creative skills of the students. We felt the course worked and that the result more than justified our cautious optimism. Indeed, of the courses I have taught over the past ten years this was one of the most enjoyable and creative" (Johnson, 1977: 431).

With this in mind, a series of researchers called Benson, Sporakowski and Stremmel (1992) published an article called *Writing Reviews of Family Literature: Guiding Students Using Bloom's*

Taxonomy of Cognitive Objectives in which they went through all the levels of Bloom's taxonomy breaking down one by one, providing helpful information about all of them. As proposed in the article, from an investigative perspective, and in connection with prior research, isolating each 'Bloom's level' in analysis may be compelling as to then implement on different activities in the classroom with a wide range of verbs (Tsui, 2007).

To conclude, Bloom's taxonomy has been used for other different means. And in some occasions some more practical ones. An example is that of Kastberg who in 2003 employed the so-mentioned taxonomy for high school students' assessment and grading (2003: 402).

2. Methodology

This study became an idea and was made possible only after several weeks of observation at a high school in which students of 3rd ESO were exposed to a great variety of work and tasks. A defined amount of time was also allotted to watch students' class behavior, writing patters, attitudes and overall performing observation. This would also typically involve monitoring attitude towards exams, participation, their role in class and so forth.

During this observational period, there were many instances where as an intern, I would go over the exams in detail in search of potential room for improvement, detecting minor flaws if anything that could 'ignite the spark' towards improvement.

After several weeks, it struck me that students were given little or no opportunity to either write long texts or express their ideas. Checking with them for the elementary reasons they did not, it was very much the case that they got the impression from the questions that they were asked to respond briefly. This, in my opinion, had long been originated due the language of the question. The next step consisted of revising a considerable meaningful amount of these exercises, where to

my bewilderment it was made clear that students barely developed thoughtful long ideas, nor made lengthy compositions.

Besides, it was soon noted too that this was not an isolated fact uniquely common to exams *per se*. Exams handed by the teacher in class seemed to leave substantial gaps waiting to be filled with further creativity and thinking. Alongside exams, textbooks offered the same pattern repeated: a total lack or very small sample of high-order verbs prompting students to think creatively and critically, meaning no deep ideas and 'longer' compositions were expected or encouraged. What would happen otherwise, if students were stimulated by more complex verbs?

In this regard, the research questions of this project were:

- Do course books, and specifically *Interface 3* by *Macmillan* propose questions whose verbs and language stimulate students to write more –or longer- than usually?
- Would students compose longer texts if the language of these appointed questions was different -more profound or complex?

And thus, the consequent hypotheses:

- Students write longer texts when the language of the questions is more profound and complex.
- Using Bloom's taxonomy to replace 'Low Order Thinking' verbs typical of habitual course books and specifically *Interface 3* by *Macmillan* such as *describe* or *tell* by 'High Order Thinking' verbs such as *hypothesize* or *imagine* make students reflect more and think of more ideas, thus making longer texts also.
- Books, and concretely *Interface 3* by *Macmillan* as representative, do not enhance enough critical thinking as a direct consequence of disdaining higher order verbs

thus making shallower questions to be answered by the student in no more than three lines.

As for other instances, the dependent variable of this research project initially was the amount of ideas that students managed to produce and write. With regards to the independent variable consider first Bloom's taxonomy and second the alteration of language, i.e. questioning verbs.

This research consisted of a sample of 16 of 3rd ESO (also known as compulsory higher education) students. *English as a Foreign Language* was, specifically, the subject in which the study was developed at a high school in Alcorcon, a southern village in the Community of Madrid. The participants of this investigation had a middle-low level of English – somewhere between A2 and B1- although none of them needed curriculum modification. The group consisted of 10 female and 6 male students, thus a 62,5% of females and 37'5% of males. Moreover, the rate of immigration was about 25%, making 4 students. Their origins are varied, from countries such as Ecuador, Colombia and Portugal.

The main instrument devoted to instruct or teach was a partially goal-oriented didactic unit designed specifically on purpose that pointedly encompassed materials from the course book for the sake of complying with the syllabus for this year.

Concerning the actual material from where students would later on be assessed, in each photocopy 'question one' – the low order thinking question- remained exactly the same as the question provided in the writing section of the book. In opposition, 'question two' –the higher order thinking question- was redesigned on purpose yet sticking to the same topic of that in question number one.

Figure 2
Bloom's taxonomy low and high order thinking verbs

Low Order Thinking verbs (LOT)	High Order Thinking verbs (HOT)
Describe, Tell, Write, List, Identify, Explain.	Hypothesize, Evaluate, Critique, Justify, Create, Analyze.

Source: Original content purposely designed by author

Finally, with a view to grading each writing precisely, a rubric was designed based on *Harmer's Teacher Knowledge* (2012) and subsequently, *e-asTTle* writing marking rubric (2012). There were three evaluative worksheets[5] taken into grading that consisted on:

1. Evaluative Worksheet #1: students imagine they were the president of the USA back to 1848 and immediately after, describe the situation and why people were coming to California. Similarly, question two, encouraged them to *imagine* they were the president of the USA back to 1848, then *evaluate* the situation and *tell why* they believed it would be good to come to California, *making their own critique.*

2. Evaluative Worksheet #2: the first question was about describing the clip they had just watched with respect to travelling the world with only a backpack. Question two dealt with the same topic, yet, students were emboldened to *hypothesize* with respect to travelling the world the way they have seen in the video, but this time *justifying* their answer.

3. Evaluative Worksheet #3: the first question of this third worksheet was designed to make students write a short e-mail describing a journey going wrong. Equally, question two also incited to imagine a trip going wrong and then *creating* an e-mail in which *analyzing* the emergent problems and the way to overcome them.

---

[5] The worksheets may be available through contact at *pabloagustinartero@ucm.es.*

3. Analysis and Interpretation of Results

Disclaimer: here next, readers will find a series of specific and meaningfully selected results worked out in order to adapt them into the length constraints proper to publication issues. For the sake of originality and getting the full scope, the project is accessible through the master de profesorado at Complutense University of Madrid website. If in need of further information you may contact the author at pabloagustinartero@ucm.es

Next, a series of final graphics containing the definite averages and percentages in each field in which students were assessed is shown henceforth for the sake of providing a clear and detailed parse analysis.

To start with, despite the hypothesis confirmation, students seemed to obtain low grades only. This was regardless the worksheet, the activity or whether exercises were done in class or by contrast, given as homework.

Note that for what follows next, *Question 1* refers to questions strictly retrieved from the book, those initially seen as 'the problem'. In this fashion, they were mirrored onto the worksheets. *Question 2* is distinctively what stands as the experimental question outlined, concretely, for the students' hypothetical provocation to ideally result in a stream or flow of ideas and wit.

Figure 3
Analysis of results 1
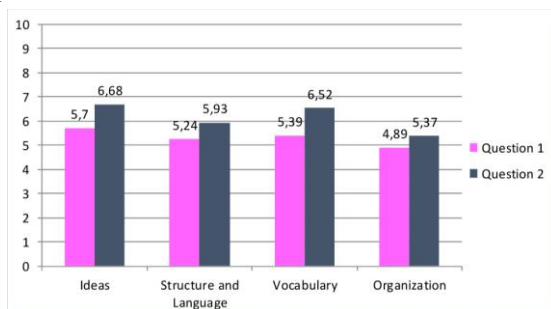
Source: Original content purposely designed by author

As observable in *figure 3*, students did better at *ideas* and *vocabulary*, almost reaching a 'good' or *grade 7*. For most standards both questions got similar grades, except for *organization* in question 1. This may be explained by the fact, broadly speaking, that a great majority of writings for question one were too short to even consider whether there was any sort of organization.

Even though it is certain that question 1 has one value under the mark that resolves a *pass* or *fail,* specifically *organization* , the definite mean screens a 'fair' mark, let alone according to the rubric[6] used as a tool for assessment. As a result, even though the bar representing question two also marks a 'fair', it could be stated that critical thinking was achieved as question two overtakes question one in 0.84 points.

Figure 4
Analysis of results 2
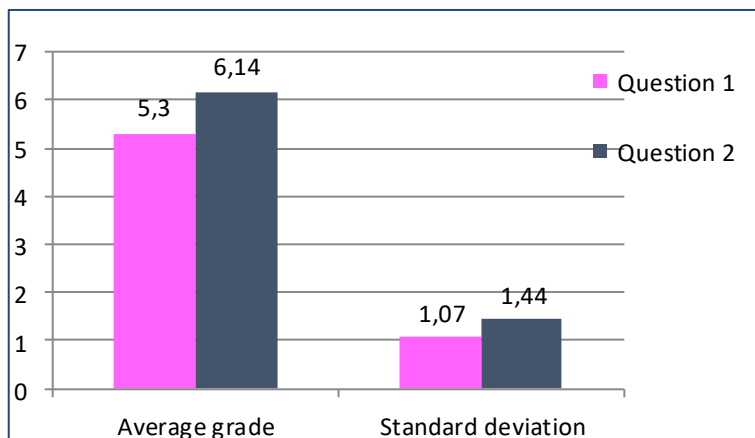
Source: Original content purposely designed by author

There are two clear conclusions to draw from *Figure 4.* On the one hand, the confirmed theory that the grades, averagely speaking, came to be higher where Bloom's high-order verbs were implemented. As for the second conclusion nevertheless, the standard deviation the element marking uniformity or regularity, constancy throughout the

---

[6] Contact the author for more information on the rubric and related issues.

assessed papers was higher too, revealing more irregularity and heterogeneity. What this may bespeaks is that while a great percentage of students developed similar writings in length, others, for whatever reason, wrote extremely less. In all fairness, this feature embodies a common claim or behavior when it comes to high school students' compositions. In more detail, length stands as one of the most regular variables.

Figure 5
Analysis of results 3
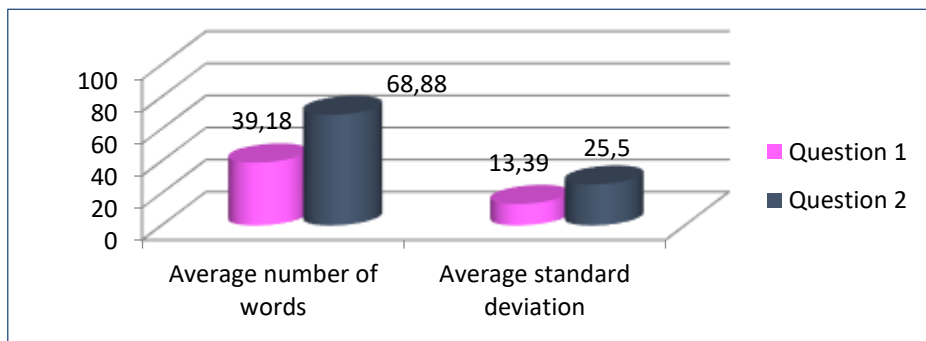
Source: Original content purposely designed by author

In regards to drawing conclusions from the quantitative analysis as well, *figure 5* depicts roughly the same verdict as that in the qualitative analysis. While the total amount of words increased as much as 29.27 units –confirming the initial hypothesis, the imbalance between the *quantity of words* in each composition was also ampler. In other words, there was much more variation and disparity when it comes to the compositions length.

Come this point, it appears safe to claim that in spite of considerable differences between the amount of words produced by different students, all of them incorporated more of them, leading to a summary where verb-replacement practice is what triggered longer texts and subsequently, validate all three hypotheses.

Figure 6
Analysis of results 4
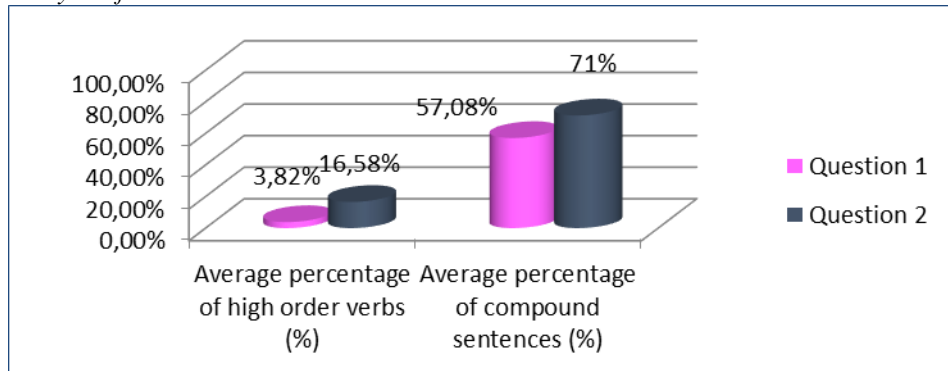
Source: Original content purposely designed by author

Figure 6, unfolds relevant information likewise. The average percentage of the *higher-level* verbs students' brought out in question two distances from question one at a remarkable 12.76%. Without much doubt, this study has shown advance on for one thing, making students write a greater number of high order verbs.

The second element this study looks at is the average percentage of *compound sentences*: they reflect a growth of nearly 14%. Nevertheless, *question one* 57% of *compound sentences* exhibits that, regardless of the type of the question, students already developed more than half of their texts using these complex syntactical structures.

The charts offered so far are, in all, a compendium of approximately other fourteen graphs were information and numbers were laid out much more explicitly.

3. 1. *Questionnaire results*

Aspiring to gather as much information from students as possible, after the study was done and the worksheets handed in, a questionnaire comprising seventeen questions (14 closed and 3 open sentences) was provided. Students were told to respond sincerely, filling as many questions as they desired.

Essentially, the questionnaire gave them the chance to express their position with respect to three different issues: motivation, recognition of the task –how difficult they conceived the method had been– and usefulness and efficiency of the activities.

The analysis of the data obtained was arranged separating each block so that the percentages in each answer are competently evaluated. Once again, the data displayed in the forthcoming lines is a selection of a 'broader picture' that can be consulted any time at the *Complutense University* portal.

Figure 7
Questionnaire – motivation block
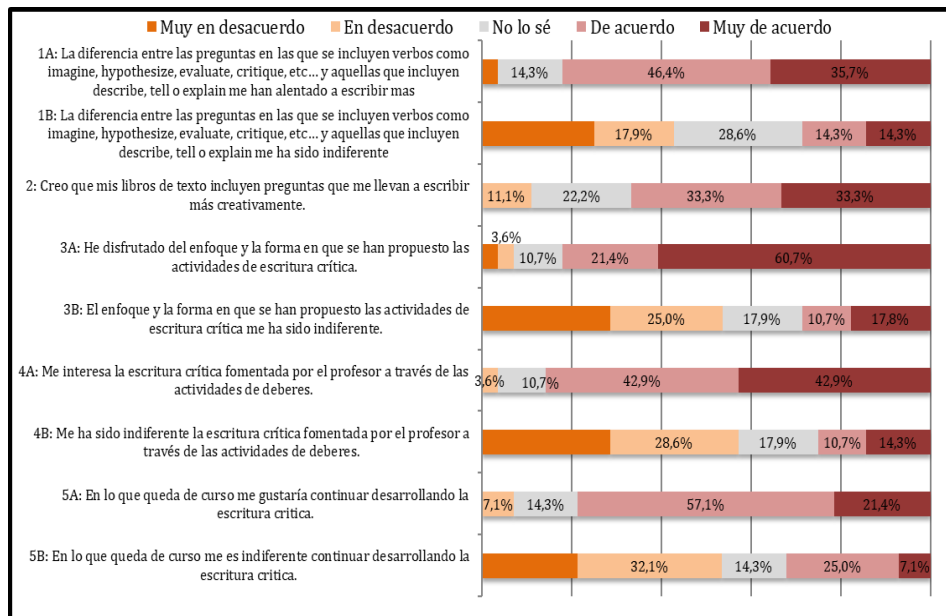
Source: Original content purposely designed by author

This first block has to do with *motivation*. The *first two questions* refer to the difference between *high order verbs* and *low order verbs*. A rate of 46% students showed their understanding that the inclusion of *high order verbs* encouraged them to write more. Moreover, another 35% totally agreed with this affirmation, making a whole 77%.

In this regard, for *question two*, asking the opposite, whether high order verbs had been indifferent, 42% of students expressed total disagreement or sheer disagreement. Another 28% could not seem to be able to tell.

Question two nevertheless showed unexpected results or inconsistency. The answers given for *questions 1A and 1B and 2* did not match. This is, 66% of students ticked '*agree*' and '*totally agree*' with the fact that *Interface 3* by *Macmillan* included questions that inspired their creativity, falling into a potential limitation of the study. Students may have not understood, at least not fully, what high and low order verbs were. Additionally, it may also suggest that critical thinking as a variant or sub discipline has never been explained to them. *Question 6* in the next block corroborates to that by a not-insignificant 53%.

On the other hand, *questions 3A and 3B* featuring the topic of enjoyment revealed a positive change thanks to the experimental units. The result for *questions 4A/4B and 5A/5B* were quite alike. Looking at these results in perspective, it can be said that students liked both the way this research fostered critical thinking – 86%– as well as their consent to potentially continuing developing critical thinking/writing by a 78%.

Figure 8
Questionnaire – on tasks featuring high and low order verbs
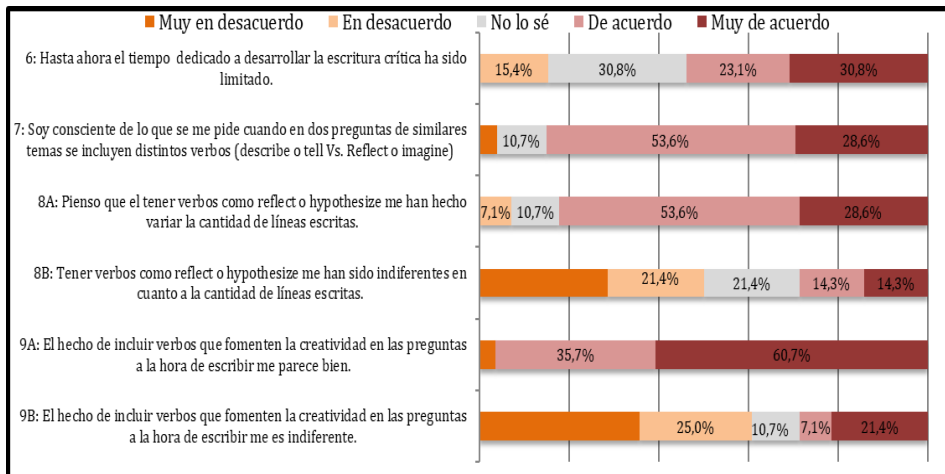
Source: Original content purposely designed by author

In addition, *figure 8* depicts the students' opinion on the writing tasks they were presented with during the research period, meaning, specifically, the replacement of low-order verbs for a range of high-other verbs. The questions discussed next thus were selected after the percentages they show to corroborate on the hypotheses.

An example of this is *question 7:* an 81% revealed that students were aware at all times of what they were required when different verbs in different questions were set. In the same way, *question 9A* evinces through an impressive 96% how higher order verbs such as *hypothesize*, made the participants want to vary the length of their compositions. *Section 3: Analysis and interpretation of results* gives account of this same pattern.

Figure 9
Questionnaire – tasks efficiency
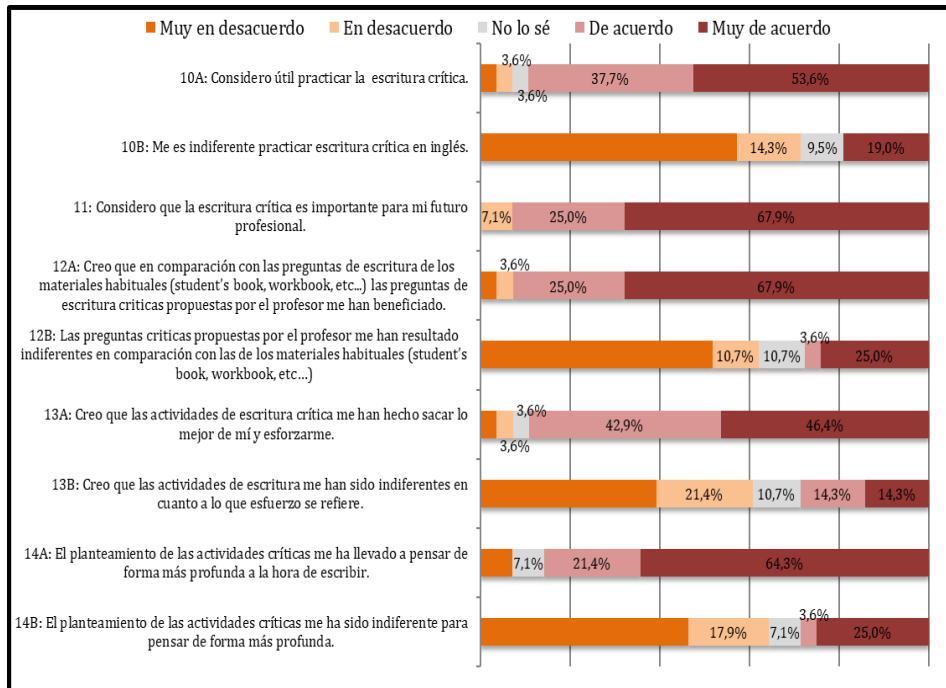
Source: Original content purposely designed by author

Finally, *figure 9* submits the efficiency and/or the differences that students noticed –if any– after the questions/writing tasks were implemented.

Hence, *questions 10A and 11A* draw very positive results. This is to say, a 91% of respondents thought that practicing 'critical writing' was useful. Likewise, *question 11,* successfully accounted for a 92% 'agree' or 'totally agree'. In other words, they presumed critical writing was or could be important for their near future.

As a brief synthesis for the remaining questions, *12A* portrays an aspect of primordial relevance as well: students believed inasmuch as a 93% that the 'modified questions' were beneficial in comparison to usual normative questions in the book. Likewise, for an 89% of the participants –question *13A*, the way the questions were proposed led

them to do better or make an extra effort. For another 85%, this experiment or approach utilized drove moved them as to think deeper or more creatively/critically.

Conclusions, limitations of the study and lines for further investigation

Regarding the answers provided first-hand by students through questioners as well as the previously exposed quantitative analysis can be both pointed at as the confirmation for the initial hypotheses and research questions. The mission was, except for the limitations to take into account, fully accomplished.

At first, the conducted study was addressed to analyze whether critical thinking could be promoted or not within the framework of high school education, particularly through the modification of questioning verbs in writing assignments provided in the course book –*Interface 3* by *Macmillan* editorial.

The initial premise of a students' potential production of longer texts, filled with more complex or richer ideas uniquely from a verbs' replacement policy led to a search of professionalization when it comes to marking. Certainly, the difficultness to assess and give a faithful mark as far as ideas were concerned led to use a rubric to make it as accurate as possible. In this sense, a limitation of the study might be, arguably, that the grades were to some extent subjectively given. It is worth highlighting however that grading objectively continues to be a controversial area with much room for improvement. There is no official way or procedure to give an idea, a thought, one mark or another. What's more, it is often the case that teachers grade same pieces of writing differently.

Even admitting that the percentages of improvement were moderate, they still appear sufficient to claim that in the hypothetical case that students were provided with high-order-verbs questions, they would definitely be swayed to think deeper and write longer.

Qualitatively speaking, all through the research period, students improved their grades an average by means of one point. By virtue of the quantitative analysis though, students also managed to ameliorate the three aspects assessed: the amount of words per writing, (increase of 42%), the inclusion of higher order verbs (rising about 12%) and lastly, a higher amount of compound sentences too (an additional 14%).

Judging by the numbers and percentages laid out, it is our point of view that *Interface 3* and maybe other course books as well should consider a restructuration in regards to the questions' language and specifically, verbs.

On account of this, the hypothesis referring to *Interface 3* by *MacMillan* particularly on their failure to sufficiently promote the skill of critical thinking proved right too since the questionnaire showed students perception that the questions in such book were hardly to be answered in more than 3 lines. In this fashion, the definite re-counting that included both questions showed a positive imbalance of 30 words in favor of question 2, where the original verbs had been replaced for other higher in Bloom's Taxonomy: question 1 revealed an average of 38 words per writing; question 2 accounted for 68 words on average. This difference may as well evince a much worrying feature: at present, *Interface 3* and probably course books in general may be formulating their writing questions poorly from a 'critical thinking' point of view.

To such a degree, it may be reasonable to affirm that if as a general rule, students wrote longer compositions for question two, reflective verbs such as hypothesize or imagine indeed influenced them as the key for such change.

Another limitation to consider may be the pairing 'prompt-teacher'. Whether the teacher remained silent during the completion of both questions 1 and 2, and in fact no further explanation, interpretation or detail were not given for the sake of impartiality, solidity and reliability as it was the specific purpose of the study, close attention

should be put into the matter, meaning that this may well be laid out here as a possible limitation of the study equally.

Taking all this into account, the outcome is irrefutably positive and edifying and was not only a success from an academic point of view. Instead, students expressed their most honest gratitude for having had the opportunity to work innovatively, through different approaches and technique. They claimed to have been inspired to think 'out of the box'.

Going further, this study was able to prove that through motivation and innovation yet applied to the same materials, students performed better in general lines. As a matter of fact, their writings could be also linked to other variables such as: a higher grade average, much more confidence, a more positive atmosphere, greater participation or a stronger will and mindset towards facing challenges or demanding subjects that additionally seek to avoid boredom as much as possible and enhance creativity.

Teaching critical thinking nevertheless remains somewhat an unsolved field that headed towards perfection but as of today still in need of deeper and prospective investigation (Tsui, 2002). Authors such as Paul *et al.* (1995) also share such view and offer further reflection upon other future possibilities to help teachers designing original instructive ways for a better student command of thinking. This studio has laid out the relation between critical thinking and students' performance in exams as a potentially interesting and perhaps productive field to explore.

In relation with this another proposal that may be worth addressing consists of re-casting this same analysis including, even, the same questions and materials. The variation would come with regards to the groups with which the hypothesis would be tested. This means that two groups would be needed. Hypothetically, *group A,* would complete the first question, that of the book, including no modification whatsoever. This would be the *control group. Group B* would be the group subject to the same question except for verbs which would

undergo change in terms of a higher level within Bloom's Taxonomy. This way, an afterwards comparison may announce objectively as well possible changes.

Assuming this other way may as well be worth of carrying out and so reading, I personally doubt that it should necessarily be regarded as a more reliable experiment since each student has their abilities and strengths. What this means is that comparing two different questions from two different students that, bear in mind, would undoubtedly have their unalike strengths and weaknesses or even excel at complete opposite subjects would seem, to my mind, unjust and biased. It is my personal stance that comparing two writings from a same subject will always appear more objective since they will continue to have their same skills and 'defects'. Yet, as previously said, such study may as well shed light upon other fields or areas or even within the same. That, for now, remains to be seen.

Working with a view to discovering new 'powerful thinkers' has also been suggested by William, Oliver and Stockdale (2004) who have in the past upheld the yet to discover potential behind *critical thinking*.

Teaching or fostering critical thinking in the classroom should be neither stopped nor given scarce prominence come this point. This being so, "critical thinking is at the heart of our future because we live in a world of flagrant dogmatism and relativism, radically lacking in intellectual discipline" (Elder *et al.*, 1999: 34).

Bibliography

Bean, E. & Markham, H. (2008). A Mini-Guide for Teaching Critical Thinking. Retrieved 2015, 20-February from The Air University:
http://www.au.af.mil/au/awc/awcgate/eaker/teaching_critical_thinking.pdf.

Benson, M. J., Sporakowski, M. J. & Stremmel, A. J. (1992). Writing reviews of family literature: Guiding students using bloom's taxonomy of cognitive objectives. *Family Relations*, *41* (1), 65-69.

Caroselli, Marlene (2009). *50 Activities for Developing Critical Thinking Skills*. Amherst, Massachusetts: HDR Press.

Clark, M. M. (2009). Beyond critical thinking. *Pedagogy*, *9*(2), 325-330.

Cohen, M. (1993). Making critical thinking a classroom reality. *PS: Political Science & Politics, 26*(02), 241-244.

Cuseo, J. (2013). Los Angeles Valley College. Retrieved 25-February, 2015, from http://www.lavc.edu/profdev/promotethink.pdf.

E-asttle (2012). e-asTTle. Retrieved March 25, 2015, from e-asTTle:http://easttle.tki.org.nz/content/download/1556/6262/file/easTTle%20generic %20rubric.pdf.

Elder, L. & Paul, R. (1999). *Critical thinking: Basic theory & Instructional structures*. Dillon Beach, CA: The Foundation for Critical Thinking.

Fitzgerald, J. & Baird, V. A. (2011). Taking a step back: Teaching critical thinking by distinguishing appropriate types of evidence. *PS: Political Science & Politics, 44*(03), 619-624.

Freeman, K. E., Alston, S. T., & Winborne, D. G. (2008). Do learning communities enhance the quality of students' learning and motivation in STEM? *The Journal of Negro Education*, 77 (3), 227-240.

Gadzella, B., Ginther, D. & Bryant, G. (1997). Prediction of performance in an academic course by scores on measures of learning style and critical thinking. *Psychological Report*, *81*, 595-602.

Garrison, D. R. (1991). Critical thinking and adult education: A conceptual model for developing critical thinking in adult learners. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *10*(4), 287-303.

Guichard, J. (2006). Shifting pedagogy: Integrating critical thinking and artistic practice in the voice and speech classroom. *Theatre Topics*, *16(2),* 145-166.

Halpern, D. F. (2001). Assessing the effectiveness of critical thinking instruction. *The Journal of General Education*, *50*(4), 270-286.

Halpern, D. F. (2003). *Thought and knowledge: An introduction to critical thinking*. New York: Routledge.

Halx, M. D., & Reybold, L. E. (2006). A pedagogy of force: Faculty perspectives of critical thinking capacity in undergraduate students. *The Journal of General Education*, *54*(4), 293-315.

Harmer, J. (2012). *Teacher Knowledge*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education.

Johnson, J. P. (1977). Integrating educational theory and history. *History Teacher*, 425-433.

Kastberg, S. E. (2003). Using bloom's taxonomy as a framework for classroom assessment. Mathematics. *Teacher-Washington then Reston Va*, *96*(6), 402-405.

McPeck, J. E. (1981). *Critical thinking and education*. New York: St. Martin's.

McPeck, J. E. (1990). *Teaching Critical thinking: Dialogue and Dialectic*. New York: Routledge.

Monnier, C. (2010). GlobalSociology. Retrieved February 20, 2015, from Globalsociology: https://globalsociology.pbworks.com/w/page/14711154/Agents%20of%20Socialization.

Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (1991). *How college affects students*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Paul, R. (1989). *Critical Thinking Handbook: High School. A Guide for Redesigning Instruction. Center for Critical Thinking and Moral Critique.* Sonoma State University.

Paul, R., Binker, A. J. A., Jensen, K., & Kreklau, H. (1990). *Critical thinking handbook: 4th-6th grades. A guide for remodeling lesson plans in language arts, social studies, and science.* ERIC.

Paul, R., Binker, A. J. A., Martin, D. & Adamson, K. (1995a). *Critical thinking handbook: High school*. Rohnert Park, CA: Sonoma State University.

Paul, R., Binker, A.J.A., Martin, D., Vetrano, C. & Kreklau, H. (1995b). *Critical thinking handbook: 6th-9th grades*. Rohnert Park, CA: Sonoma State University.

Schunk, D., Pintrich, P., & Meece, J. (2008). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications* (3rd edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Sosniak, L. A. (1994). *Bloom's taxonomy*. L. W. Anderson (Ed.). Chicago: Univ. Chicago Press.

Tsui, L. (2002). Fostering critical thinking through effective pedagogy: Evidence from four institutional case studies. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *73*(6), 740-763.

Tsui, L. (2007). Cultivating critical thinking: Insights from an elite liberal arts college. *The Journal of General Education*, *56*(3), 200-227.

Van Gelder, T. (2001). How to improve critical thinking using educational technology. *Meeting at the Crossroads: Proceedings of the 18th Annual Conference of the Australasian Society for Computers in Learning in Tertiary Education*, 539-548.

Walters, K. S. (1990). Critical thinking, rationality, and the vulcanization of students. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *61,* 448-467.

Zascavage, V., Masten, W. G., Schroeder-Steward, J., & Nichols, C. (2007). Comparison of critical thinking in undergraduates and graduates in special education. *International Journal of Special Education*, *22*(1), 25-31.

Native English Speakers in Madrid's Classrooms: Difficulties Reported by Assistants

Hablantes nativos de inglés en las aulas de Madrid: Dificultades señaladas por auxiliares

Mary Frances Litzler
Universidad de Alcalá
mf.litz@uah.es
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8857-5455

Resumen: This article examines difficulties encountered by 40 native English-speaking language assistants working in classrooms in the Madrid region, as reported in their teaching portfolios, a requirement of the Master's degree programs they completed during the same period. The 187 comments obtained were analyzed by sorting them according to theme; the findings confirm those of prior studies while bringing to light challenges not mentioned to date in research. Some aspects discussed by the native English speakers were differences in classroom methodology and discipline, the need for increased communication with local teachers, the policy to use only English at the schools, an inability to help students with special needs effectively, and responsibilities that go beyond those of a language assistant.

Palabras clave: Bilingual Education; Teacher Aides; English (Foreign Language); Native Speakers.

Abstract: Este artículo trata las dificultades encontradas por 40 auxiliares de conversación hablantes nativos de inglés que trabajaban en centros de enseñanza en la Comunidad de Madrid, según ellos informaron en sus portafolios durante los programas de Máster que realizaron en el mismo periodo. Los 187 comentarios obtenidos se analizaron para clasificarlos en grupos temáticos; los resultados confirman ideas de estudios previos, a la vez que remarcan retos no mencionados hasta la fecha. Algunos aspectos señalados fueron diferencias en las metodologías y la disciplina en el aula, la necesidad de una mayor comunicación con los profesores de los centros, la política de emplear sólo el inglés en las escuelas, una falta de capacidad para ayudar a los alumnos con necesidades especiales de forma eficaz, y responsabilidades que sobrepasan el papel del auxiliar.

Keywords: Educación Bilingüe; Auxiliares Docents; Inglés (Lengua Extranjera); Hablantes Nativos.

Introduction

Numerous countries around the world employ native English speakers to teach or assist in their schools. The Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (JET) has been in operation since 1987, while the English Program in Korea (EPIK) was set up in 1995, and the Native-speaking English Teacher Scheme (NSET) began in Hong Kong in 1998. As a result of European Union initiatives to promote plurilingualism among citizens described, for example, by the Council of Europe's *Recommendation R (98) 6*, the different regions of Spain have also been hiring native speakers to work alongside local teachers. The Madrid region itself has several programs. One of these is an association of charter schools that receive public funding, which is supported through collaboration with several universities and was involved in this study. Programs such as these are based on the notion that native speakers, with their superior language competence (Medgyes, 1992), can provide a model of native-speaker pronunciation and increased opportunities for conversation and they can serve as representatives of the L2 culture (Méndez Garcia & Pavón Vázquez, 2012; Tajino & Tajino, 2000). At the same time, they cater to a

tendency of students to prefer having a native-speaker teacher (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002), and can serve to boost student learning as long as they are motivated at their positions within their schools (Meerman, 2003).

Many articles have been written on different schemes that involve the use of native speakers of English, and especially on those in East Asia. Some of the programs have encountered difficulties in incorporating them in the foreign classroom effectively as reviewed by Herbert and Wu (2009), but little has been published on the subject specifically from the point of view of the native speakers themselves. Nevertheless, their insights can be valuable for finding ways to improve their adjustment to and effectiveness in this type of programs. The present study involves 40 native English speakers who participated in a combined Master's degree program and teaching practicum in charter schools belonging to the association of private institutions mentioned above. It examines the statements made in their teaching portfolios, a requirement of the postgraduate degree program, to determine trends regarding challenges that they encountered in their school placement in the foreign setting. The comments were written freely in response to broad questions provided to the participants at the beginning of the academic year and, hence, can be considered unbiased by researcher influence.

1. Theoretical Framework

Studies focusing on the presence of native speakers and non-native speakers of English in classrooms around the world have led to a wide body of research beyond Widdowson's (1994) notion of ownership of English and Kachru's (1992) three circles of English. Some work addresses the question of native speakers and non-native speakers in the foreign language classroom (for example, Canagarajah, 1999; Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Medgyes, 1994), including the advantages of each or ways to take advantage of the strengths of each (Dormer, 2010; Luo, 2010; Medgyes, 1992; Tajino & Tajino, 2000). Other contributions deal with different programs, such as JET and EPIK, and their successfulness or lack thereof (Alderson, Pizorn,

Zemva & Beaver, 2001; Carless, 2006; Garton, 2013; Herbert and Wu, 2009; Jeon, 2009; Seargeant, 2011). Students' and teachers' attitudes towards the two groups in the classroom (Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Coşkun, 2013; Jenkins, 2007; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Wang, 2013) and workplace conflict and hiring practices (Houghton & Rivers, 2013) are also the subject of publications. Finally, the actual language characteristics of the two groups of speakers in the classroom are yet another area of research (Cots & Díaz, 2005; Dafouz & Hibler, 2013; Park, 2014; Rámila Díaz, 2009). In Spain, the presence of native speakers of English in the country's bilingual educational systems is now showing up in a small body of research focusing specifically on the figure of the "conversation assistant" or "language assistant." In particular, a few theses have been written or are now in progress. Like the present paper, these studies have the aim of finding ways of making the native speaker program more effective and satisfactory for everyone involved, including teachers, language assistants and students.

A number of common issues have been reported in terms of programs employing native speakers of English alongside non-native English-speaking teachers in primary and secondary schools in different countries. Carless (2006), Copland, Davis, Garton & Mann (2016), Herbert & Wu (2009) and Houghton & Rivers (2013) provide thorough discussions of difficulties reported in the literature regarding the programs in Hong Kong, Korea and Japan. For instance, the native speakers have often been viewed as not having enough training to teach and they are unable to discipline their classes. At the same time, the roles of the native speakers have been seen as unclear or in need of further development. Cultural differences including differing ideas on methodology because the local schools tend to place a heavy emphasis on exam preparation are also reported. The inability of the native speakers of English to use the host country language can add to the potential for cultural clashes, yet this lack of communicative ability reinforces their appeal as representatives of the target language and culture (Breckenridge & Erling, 2011; Seargeant, 2009). Finally, busy teaching schedules on the part of the local teachers have hindered chances for coordination with native speakers (Copland *et al.*, 2016).

The relatively recent body of research on language assistants in Spain echoes many of these difficulties, albeit with small groups of participants involved in studies to date. As is the case of many other programs both in and outside the country, the programs in the Madrid region normally require candidates to have completed some or all of their coursework towards a university degree, but they do not need to have a degree in Education (British Council, 2019; Colegios Bilingües Cooperativos, n.d.; Consejería de Educación, 2019; Ministerio de Educación, n.d.). The main function of the native speakers is to reinforce students' oral skills; they are not to manage groups, deal with discipline on their own, or be responsible for testing or curriculum design (Dirección General de Innovación, 2018a,b). Nevertheless, despite meeting the application requirements and sometimes surpassing them (Dafouz & Hibler, 2013), the native speakers have been viewed as needing more training (Buckingham, 2016; Gerena & Ramírez Verdugo, 2014; Hibler, 2010; Méndez García & Pavón Vázquez, 2012; Sánchez Torres, 2014; Scobling, 2011). There have also been calls for more information to guide teachers and assistants in collaborating and in understanding their roles and responsibilities (Buckingham, 2016; Méndez García & Pavón Vázquez, 2012; Tobin & Abello-Contesse, 2013). In fact, Hibler (2010) indicates that some language assistants had the impression they were going to be ambassadors of their countries' culture, while the classroom teachers were asked to team teach with them, although the regional school board does not consider the native speakers to be actual teachers. As a result of these experiences, an online training course for language assistants in the Madrid region was started by the Directorate General of Innovation, Scholarships and Teaching Aids. In addition, material on different ways of collaborating with a language assistant is now becoming available online (for example, Sauciuc & Vescan, n.d.).

Communication is another area that has been highlighted in studies carried out in Spain. The assistants in Hibler's (2010) study indicated that they wanted more information from the classroom teacher and, in fact, the aspect they liked least about their jobs was "working in an unplanned manner" (41). In similar studies, Scobling (2011) and Buckingham (2016) stress the need for communication as a form of

support for young native speakers who are adjusting to jobs and life in a new country. Difficulties related to discipline have also been reported. This can become an issue when native speakers are asked to work with small groups of students in a separate location (Hibler, 2010). Behavior management struggles may also be related to required class attendance, the relaxed atmosphere that native speakers promote when working in small groups, or the insistence that students speak using only the target language when they may not yet be prepared linguistically to do so (Ortega Cebreros, 2000).

Because few studies focus specifically on the point of view of native English-speaking conversation assistants and because the numbers of participants in the research conducted in Spain are generally limited, additional research on this area is of benefit. The present study examines the difficulties assistants report when working alongside local teachers in a foreign setting. It seeks to answer to the following questions:

1. What difficulties do native English-speaking language assistants report in working with local teachers?
2. Which of the problems are reported the most often among the schools?

2. Participants and Method

In order to examine the challenges that native English speakers encounter when working with local teachers in Madrid, this study worked with forty students enrolled in Master's degree programs in Bilingual and Multicultural Education and in International Education in the Instituto Franklin's Teach & Learn in Spain program during the 2014-2015 academic year. Both degree programs involved a nine-month teaching practicum as a language assistant at one of the cooperating schools, where they taught between 18 and 24 hours per week. The participants (henceforth, assistants) were mainly in their twenties and came mostly from the United States but a few from other countries also took part. Eight of them were men and 32 were women. An examination of their resumes, included in their teaching portfolios

for the Master's degrees, revealed that the members of the group as a whole were interested in foreign languages, particularly Spanish, and they had some experience in the classroom but did not necessarily have formal preparation to work as teachers.

Twenty-one different charter schools were indirectly involved in this study. The schools are located in different areas throughout the region of Madrid and, therefore, operate in various socio-economic backgrounds. Although the semi-private nature of the schools and the special nature of their association's bilingual project surely had an effect on the participants' perceptions, the varied contexts in which the schools are located assured a certain degree of representativeness of the schools. This means that the difficulties encountered by this group of native English speakers can quite probably be extrapolated to those of language assistants working in different schools in the other bilingual programs in Madrid.

As part of the requirements for the Master's degrees, the assistants were asked to complete a teaching portfolio, the main objective of which was for them to reflect on their teaching practicum experience in relation to their academic studies. In this sense, it was an opportunity for them to personalize the experience in writing, to review the contents of their courses considering their interests and experience, and to provide evidence of their teaching practice. The data for this research were taken from two required sections entitled "Most common problems and solutions" and "Suggestions." In the former, the participants were instructed to describe difficulties that they encountered and the solutions that they found to improve their situation at their teaching practicum, while the latter was a place for them to voice their ideas about how the classroom and/or Master's degree programs might be modified in the future. They were given no further instructions than those listed in the Appendix in order not to bias them in the content of their responses.

After the students submitted their final portfolios, the entries for the two sections were typed into a table in Word and then analyzed inductively to determine common themes based on their wording.

Hence, the categories emerged from the data. This analysis involved a combination of "key word analysis," as described in Nunan and Bailey (2009), and a digital version of "the card sort technique" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), which involves deciding whether each comment is addressing a similar or different theme to the others. In some cases, the entries were divided into several comments based on linguistic cues if more than one concern was addressed. The findings provide insight into challenges that may exist in the school system and their relative frequency so they can be taken into account by the schools and teachers.

3. Results

A total of 187 comments were obtained from the 40 portfolios. Each participant made between 1 and 12 comments, with a mean of 4.6 and a median of 5 per person. Table 1 lists the topics discussed in order of frequency that the participants mentioned them.

Table 1
Categories of problems mentioned by the assistants in their portfolios

Topic	Number of comments	Number of schools	Number of assistants
Teaching methodology	48	15	24
Discipline and classroom management	34	17	24
Communication	32	16	22
English	27	13	19
Materials	16	9	14
Assistants' role	14	10	11
Training in teaching English as a foreign language	7	5	6
Miscellaneous problems	9	6	7

Source: Original content purposely designed by author

Each school received between 1 and 16 comments. However, some schools employed only one assistant, while in other cases, up to seven of them were working at the same school. Hence, the number of native speakers affected the number of comments obtained by that particular school.

3.1. Teaching methodology

Concerns about the teaching methodology were the most numerous among the data. This category covers comments about how the subject matter was taught or about how the schools organized groups for teaching and it has been divided into four different subgroups. The fact that 24 language assistants at 15 of the 21 schools discussed these issues indicates that the situation was not isolated to a small number of schools or group of native English speakers, but instead that it was more widespread within the program and is worthy of note. The largest number of comments in this category, twenty, give the impression that the classroom teachers followed what the assistants considered to be a "traditional" methodology:

> Unfortunately, most learning is done out of books, an aspect that I see as endemic to the Spanish education system as a whole… Every topic, regardless of how theoretical, should have some hands-on element incorporated (IE 10)[1].
> They [teachers] do not guide discovery or open creative pathways towards self-directed learning (BI 9).

A second group of comments assigned to the category of teaching methodology relates to the assistants' opinions that the schools had assigned them a large number of groups. Eleven people from different schools mentioned this matter. A number of the cooperating schools tend to distribute the practicum teaching hours into slots of as little as one hour per week per group so that the maximum number of students attending the school can have contact with a native speaker of English. The result is that the assistant can have up to fifteen or more groups but there is no further contact with them until the following week, a situation that has also been reported in South Korea (Egginton 1997, in Herbert & Wu, 2009; Jeon, 2009) and in Japan (Breckenridge & Erling, 2011). According to six of the eleven the comments, this distribution hindered the language assistant from getting to know the

---

[1]The different participants in the study are identified with the abbreviations BI and IE for the Masters' degrees in Bilingual Education and International Education respectively and their unique number.

students in the classrooms, creating a bond with them or encouraging them to learn as individuals. At the same time, the participants stated that they were unable to have continuity from one lesson to the next, and, therefore, could not see progress among their students. Another result of this organization of the groups, according to five of these participants, was that they had to prepare for too many classes and felt "spread too thin" (IE 6). The comment below is representative:

> I teach 32 classes a week spanning across 8 different levels (26 in pre-school, 2 in primary, 3 in middle school and 1 in high school)… It is nearly impossible to remember every student's name, which can be frustrating (BI 20).

A third aspect related to teaching methods that appears in the portfolio comments concerns students with special needs or immigrants in the mainstream classroom. The native English speakers were interested in helping these pupils but felt unable to do so because they did not receive guidance from the schools and/or teachers. Teachers in the Madrid region have actually indicated that additional help to assist students with special learning difficulties would be beneficial (Fernández & Halbach, 2010). In some cases, however, the native speakers in the present study were shocked at the classroom teachers' attitudes because they interpreted them as being racist. Seven of the comments, all from different schools, related to special needs, and are exemplified below:

> Children with learning difficulties do not have a study plan and the teacher with the class does not usually have the knowledge or training to work with the child and try to incorporate them into the classroom. In English class they often seem very confused and quite regularly disrupt the class because they feel bored or frustrated (BI 12).

> They [teachers] will often mention that all Chinese kids are especially smart and advanced, so they are not concerned with teaching them when they are struggling, because they will "quickly catch on, like all Asians do" (BI 23).

The remaining comments assigned to the category of teaching methodology include a variety of different concerns. For example, two

of the native English speakers questioned the effectiveness of the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) methodology, one at the theoretical level and the other at the practical level in terms of how his school was implementing it. Another three assistants mentioned concerns about testing, an issue that appears in other places in this study below. In one case, the native speaker indicated that the oral exam criteria were "subjective" and that "no one seems to know exactly what is being evaluated" (BI 8), while in the other two cases, the assistants commented on the importance placed on preparation for Cambridge and Trinity exams in class time starting in January.

3.2. Discipline and classroom management

The next major category observed in the results, Discipline and Classroom Management, relates to student disruptions in class and the classroom teachers' reactions to this behavior, as well as the day-to-day running of the classes. Again, a large number of native speakers (24) and schools (17) means that this area is worth examining in detail, as it most likely represents a situation that extends beyond this bilingual program. Nevertheless, it should be noted that one school received seven comments in this category. Twenty-seven comments, the majority, mentioned children's talking, getting out of their chairs or other behaviors during class, and/or teachers' reactions. The native English speakers were surprised at the level of "noise" heard in the classes and indicated that there is less talking in classrooms in their home countries. At the same time, they were shocked to observe that many teachers resorted to "yelling" to call their groups to order, normally in Spanish, a practice that disrupted the flow of activities in the classroom. Some illustrative examples of comments follow:

> It is nearly impossible to expect students to be able to engage in meaning-making when the classroom culture is chaos. Unfortunately, in many of the classrooms I have participated in at my practicum, the content and good intentions of the teachers are overshadowed by a lack of behavior management strategies. There are very few classrooms with clear expectations for behavior incentives, and consequences (BI 1).

For most U.S. teachers, if one kid talks out of turn, it is enough for us to take action (BI 10).

One of the comments indicated that the native speaker would have liked more assistance from the regular teachers in disciplining the classes: "Even though I was told that there would always be another teacher for discipline in my classes, there is sometimes not…" (IE 2). Five of the comments related to student misbehavior in special extra-curricular classes set up to help students reinforce their language level. The reason for disruptions suggested in two cases was the fact that students did not receive a grade for the classes, a situation also reported in South Korea (Jeon, 2009): "Since there is no grade given for the extracurricular classes, there is little motivation to participate or do better" (BI 24).

The remaining seven comments related to classroom management. They covered a variety of issues, such as working towards motiving the students and teaching them to raise their hands. Mention was also made of assuring that everything was "fair and equal between students" (BI 17), and assisting students to become more responsible in coming prepared to class, submitting homework, and putting away materials at the end of class time. Another comment indicated that there was a high level of competitiveness amongst the students.

3.3. Communication

The subject of communication was the third most frequent issue observed among the data. The fact that 16 of the 21 participating schools were represented by 32 comments from 22 teachers again reveals a situation that most likely extends to more schools and bilingual programs. Overall, the data in this category indicated that the assistants wanted more information from classroom teachers as well as the administration. This perceived lack of communication began as early as day one, as one language assistant indicated that she was not expected on the first day of school and another two people mentioned not having a schedule when they started. The most frequently reported type of communication problem (12 comments) was difficulties in

coordinating with various classroom teachers. If an assistant works with 5 or more teachers, each of whom has a different timetable, meeting with them on a regular basis is extremely difficult. Complicating this matter is the fact that some teachers find integrating assistants into classes time consuming (Gerena & Ramírez Vergudo, 2014) and the finding that teachers themselves indicate that they have little time for meetings (Fernández & Halbach, 2010). Yet, the native speakers would have liked an idea of the overall curriculum plan and the week-to-week work to be covered so that they could prepare for their classes. While it was not mentioned in the portfolio comments, some of these assistants may have expected from the start to participate in the planning of lessons, as was the case among the participants in Buckingham (2018). Another common issue (8 comments) was that teachers and/or schools did not inform the native English speakers in advance of class cancellations or modifications to timetables. The following are representative comments of this category:

> Early on in the teaching practicum I found that setting up a time to meet with my teachers to plan lessons was a bit complicated. It was difficult to know what was expected of me in class when I was unaware of the lesson or topic of the day (BI 13).

> A typical class goes like this: I walk into class and the teacher tells me where she left off and how much she wants me to get through for that class period (IE 5).

Nonetheless, the native English speakers viewed the lack of communication as a product of disorganization, as opposed to ill intentions. Reported misunderstandings were rare. Two, nonetheless, were found, as observed below:

> When there is a need to communicate about a problem, it is very indirect. For example, in my English class with three-year students, I had been instructing without any apparent problems and the main teacher would always greet me warmly and work with me as I requested. The other Auxiliaries [sic] had the same experience. But later, the older Auxiliary [sic] told us that these teachers wanted us to move the students around more. We all wondered why these teachers did not tell us directly because, if they had, we would have

been happy to change it. This is a problem because I want to help the teachers and not hinder them (IE 5).

Since I am in this class only once a week, it was hard to maintain contact between the two of us and I was never updated on the lesson plans or activities the students were doing in class. Because of this reason, the teacher took the lead and did all the lessons while I simply watched her. After the lessons were finished, I would help the children with their classwork and assignments but I was never able to lead any exercises… She thought I was uncomfortable with the material in the book and I thought she did not want me teaching the class (BI 4).

These two cases reflect differing styles of communication and are worthy of note. Nevertheless, the assistants and classroom teachers were able to adapt to each other's communication styles and expectations later in the school year according to additional comments in the portfolios.

3.4. English

The final major category observed among the data relates to different aspects of English, including the English-only policy language assistants are required to follow in the bilingual program, the levels of English encountered in the classroom, and the perceived lack of confidence on the part of children in using the language. The overall number of comments (27), schools (13) and assistants (19) represented here was slightly lower than the first three categories discussed but they are still worthy of note as they represented about half the participants. Thirteen of these comments discussed the policy of using only English in the classroom. Five of these concerned the classroom teachers' speaking Spanish in class and another five indicated that the students did not understand instruction in English or had difficulties in the foreign language classroom setting. Three of these comments about the teachers' speaking Spanish related specifically to discipline but have been counted here as opposed to in section 3.2 because they explicitly mentioned the issue of the English language policy, and the other two indicated that the teachers used Spanish for instruction. Some examples are as follows:

The lack of English used in 'normal' English classes taught by Spanish English teachers results in increased problems for native English speaking teachers where classes are expected to be conducted 100% in English…. They [students] are often confused in class (BI 24).

When a teacher conducts the class in their first language, they [students] lose all incentive to attempt communication in English (IE 10).

The remaining three comments about the language policy concerned the assistants themselves and their having difficulties using English all day in class (for example, indicating that it was exhausting), and the specification that some staff did not know English.

Another nine comments in the overall category of English referred to the assistants' impressions of class levels. Six of the entries pointed out differences in levels within the same classroom, while the other three revealed that the native speakers thought the overall class levels were low. It should be highlighted here, however, that the six comments corresponded to two schools only, and in the case of the other three comments, the participants had no prior experience as English teachers, so they may have expected a higher level from the start.

The final five entries related to English stated that the students in the classes did not have confidence when speaking English. As a result, they needed some time to "acclimate to being taught in English" (IE 12). The students also seemed to feel "intense pressure… from their peers when speaking English in front of other students" (BI 17).

3.5 Other categories

The remaining categories were the subject of far fewer comments than the four categories in the above sections. For example, seven of the sixteen comments regarding materials related to the fact that a recently founded school had few books and other materials. There were also three complaints about the photocopying procedures at

different schools and five indications of ICT problems such as faulty internet connections or unreliable computers.

The role of the language assistant is the most interesting of these minor categories as it is fundamental if the native speakers are to be used productively, yet it only yielded 14 of the 187 comments. At the same time, the subject of roles has come up in a number of prior publications. For example, Hibler (2010) indicates that the participants in her study were unsure about their responsibilities and Buckingham (2018) found that the initial expectations and later experiences of the assistants answering her questionnaire did not match, while Gerena & Ramírez Verdugo (2014) found that the assistants' responsibilities varied from school to school. Seven of the comments in the present study, all from different schools, related to the assistants' feeling that their role was unclear or that the different classroom teachers had varying ideas regarding their role in the classroom. Two of these comments indicated that the native speakers had expected and wanted to be able to observe more classes than they were able to do. In addition, at times the schools violated the guidelines of the Madrid regional educational authorities (Dirección General de Innovación, 2018a, b), which prohibit the language assistants from having full responsibility for classes. The next example is revealing in this regard:

> When I first entered the classroom as an Auxiliary [sic], none of the teachers understood what to do with me. Some allowed me to sit and observe, while others handed me the book and expected me to create a lesson on the spot. And still in other cases, I was given a classroom full of students and told I was their main teacher for the year (IE 5).

Another challenge that appeared in two comments on the role of the assistant was the expectation that the native English speaker should evaluate the students and that they should have sole responsibility for preparing them for official exams, tasks which the assistants felt unprepared to do and which they should not be assigned (Dirección General de Innovación, 2018a, b). The participants in Buckingham (2018) did not expect to have this responsibility either, yet the majority actually performed similar duties.

Two more comments indicated that the native speaker would have liked more responsibility. However, one of these was made by a participant who had been trained as a classroom teacher and had more than five years' experience and can, therefore, not be taken as representative of language assistants' feelings. The remaining comments regarding the role related to the non-native speakers' expectations, for example, the teacher's presumption that the assistant should know how to pronounce scientific words on demand.

The next category, training, normally brought out feelings of insecurity, as seen here:

> The auxiliaries [sic] are required to teach both Cambridge preparation and Conversation classes, but unlike in Primary, we teach them without a lead teacher… We are not trained in Cambridge preparation as auxiliaries [sic] and often times we feel hopeless and confused (BI 4).

The seven comments regarding training reflected the native speakers' needing more background in test preparation (3 comments) and their not feeling like teachers yet (2 comments). Another person mentioned difficulties related to not knowing differences between British and American English and the last comment reported that the EFL coordinator of the school had difficulties providing the assistants "adequate training" (BI 2).

The nine comments in the final category were grouped as "miscellaneous" as they related to situations affecting only one native speaker in each case. For example, one assistant mentioned having to substitute for the other native speakers because they took time off without providing any reason for doing so. In another case, an assistant had been asked to work on a business project for the classes for five months with the result that the students missed other class content.

4. Discussion

This study brings to light three issues in classrooms that make use of native speakers as language assistants to which little attention has been paid in published research. The first of these is related to the English language. It is interesting to note that the data collected here revealed that both local teachers and students, as well as some of the language assistants, had difficulties in following the English only policy in force at the schools. It may be of interest to allow some flexibility in the policy, for example, when language assistants want to take charge of disciplining their classes during an activity they are leading so as not to lose face with the students when the classroom teacher does so, or when they notice student fatigue. In fact, Méndez García and Pavón Vázquez (2012) have already documented cases when the main classroom teachers and native English assistants use the students' mother tongue for a variety of purposes including clarification of difficult content. This is an example of what Macaro (2005) refers to as the "message-oriented functions" of codeswitching, "a useful communication strategy" because it saves time (69). Copland *et al.* (2016) also recommend considering judicial use of the students' native language.

A second issue raised in this study concerns testing. This situation was reported by ten assistants from eight schools across the different categories observed in the data, so it is not an isolated case. Even though the native speakers of English were surprised at the exam emphasis and the washback effect it had on classes, this was not the most significant problem here. Instead, it is of more concern that some schools appeared to have violated the Madrid regional policies in assigning assistants the responsibilities of preparing rubrics for internal exams or evaluating students, the latter of which was also found in Buckingham (2018). In addition, the assistants had not been trained to perform these duties and did not feel confident to do so. A new online course offered by the Madrid regional school board does include samples of external exams and resources as part of its syllabus, which is a step towards providing the assistants with help regarding external exam preparation, but measures need to be taken to ensure that the native speakers are not used primarily for the this purpose (Dirección

General de Innovación, 2018a, b). The fact that a large percentage of the 81 assistants surveyed in Buckingham (2018) felt that one of their contributions to their schools was exam preparation reveals that this is, in fact, a common practice.

The third new finding in this study is related to students with special educational needs including recently arrived speakers of other languages. Seven comments representing different schools revealed that the native speakers of English felt that they did not receive guidance on how to assist these members of the classroom and/or that they had interpreted local teacher comments as racist. This issue may be linked to the assistants' expectations based on their experience in their home countries. In the United States separate classrooms and additional support for students with special needs or those learning English upon arrival in the country can be provided by schools, and foreign language classes can be taught using the students' first language. Further research is needed to examine in more depth the assistants' view of teacher comments as being racist so that measures for improved understanding and practices can be undertaken.

The remaining findings in this study support those reported for other programs employing native English speakers. In particular, differences in expectations regarding teaching methodologies and discipline in the classroom have been noted both here and in studies around the world. This situation could stem from differences in the orientation of education and schools in the English-speaking countries compared to other countries, as the participants in the Master's degree program have tended to prefer experience-based learning and a more practical focus, as opposed to learning based on memorization of facts and use of a textbook. Because this issue has been reported in other countries, and not just in this study, it can safely be asserted that this difficulty has not arisen from the native speakers' learning about these methodologies in their M.A. courses, though it could be an additional factor. Nevertheless, a way must be found to tap into the native English speakers' educational experiences while respecting and upholding the local educational tradition. Increased dialogue and flexibility between the parties involved at all levels is a first step.

In terms of discipline, the native English speakers' lack of ability to use the local language has been suggested as a cause for this problem in some cases (Ahn, Park & Ono, 1998, and Boyle, 1997, both in Herbert & Wu, 2009). However, the comments collected from the teaching portfolios here suggest that the problem may be related to cultural differences, students' not receiving a grade for some of the classes taught by the native speaker of English, or the policy of using only English in the classroom despite knowledge of the host country language of Spanish. This could also be a question of lack of teaching experience as the assistants were generally not trained and practiced teachers and, hence, may have lacked confidence. Assistants need to be forewarned of differences in classroom behavior to assist them in their adjustment.

Another frequent problem observed in this study, communication, also echoes findings in the other studies from Spain described above, suggesting that this is a local issue that must be addressed in this country. The language assistants in this research indicated that they wanted more guidance more often from the local teachers. They claimed that the classroom teachers did not have time to coordinate with them, so they had to improvise and, as in Hibler's (2010) study, felt uncomfortable having to do so. At the same time, some of them did not receive warning in the event of changes in timetables. These findings coincide with the OECD's TALIS report (2009), which ranks teachers in Spain lowest among all the participating countries in terms of professional level collaboration. Nevertheless, increased effort is being made to coordinate with assistants, even if it is at an informal level (Lova Mellado, Bolarín Martínez & Porto Currás, 2013), especially since communication and planning are vital for successful partnerships between native and non-native teaching pairs (Copland *et al.*, 2016). While the situation appears to be a cultural difference, some of it may also relate to the assistants' having limited teaching experience. Given these two factors, assistants should be provided early on with a clear indication of what (not) to expect in their schools, an idea of what local teachers and schools expect of them (for example, independence and initiative), and

practical, feasible ways of being an asset to the classroom. In addition, schools need to find a channel to communicate early on basic information such as changes in schedules. The language assistant program guide for schools (Dirección General de Innovación, 2018a) is a step in this direction as it provides suggestions for schools and teachers on what and how to communicate effectively with assistants.

A challenge reported less frequently in this study, the role of the language assistant, seems to be a larger issue in Asia, and in the other studies from Spain discussed in Buckingham (2018), as opposed to the program examined here. Nevertheless, the fact that the native speaker's role has come up in a variety of studies suggests that it should not be taken lightly despite the present findings.

Conclusion

This study brings to light some difficulties encountered by native English-speaking classroom assistants that have not been reported in earlier research but are likely to exist beyond the participants here given a certain degree of representativeness of the schools involved, as explained in section 2 above. Two of these findings, challenges related to the English only policy in the schools and a lack of guidance for helping students with special needs, probably reflect cultural differences and expectations. Another finding of this study is that some schools appear to be assigning their language assistants duties such as evaluation of students that have been listed as not being the responsibility of the assistants in the handbook for the program. For this reason, a review of schools' use of these native speakers is in order. Finally, this study echoes the findings of earlier work both in Spain and elsewhere that reveals that the assistants found it difficult to adjust in this order of reported frequency to the "traditional" teaching methodology with a heavy focus on exams, the discipline practices in the classroom, and a lack of communication.

It would be of interest to confirm whether cultural differences and expectations, as well as limited teaching experience and training,

are at the root of these difficulties. Further research using more objective, in-depth methods can lead to the development of measures beyond an online training course and a guidebook for schools in order to assist the native speakers in adjusting to working in classrooms in Spain and to help them to feel more comfortable in their roles so that they can perform optimally in their work. Their points of view, in particular on teaching methodology and discipline, contrast sharply with the practices of many of the classroom teachers in this study, so a way to take advantage of the positive aspects of the different forms of education must be found.

Acknowledgements

Bibliography

Ahn, S. W., Park, M. R., & Ono, S. (1998). A comparative study of the EPIK and the JET program. *English Teaching*, *53* (3), 241-267.

Alderson, J. C., Pizorn, K., Zemva, N., & Beaver, L. (Eds.) (2001). *The Language Assistant Scheme in Slovenia: A Baseline Study*. Ljubljana: The British Council.

Benke, E., & Medgyes, P. (2005). Differences in teaching behaviour between native and non-native speaker teachers: As seen by the learners. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession* (pp. 195-215). New York: Springer.

Boyle, J. (1997). Native-speaker teachers of English in Hong Kong. *Language and Education*, *11* (3), 163-181.

Breckenridge, Y., & Erling, E. (2011). The native speaker English teacher and the politics of globalization in Japan. In P. Seargeant (Ed.). *English in Japan in the Era of Globalization* (pp. 80-100). Houndsmills, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

British Council (2019). Teach abroad as an English language assistant. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/study-work-abroad/outside-uk/english-language-assistants.

Buckingham, L. R. (2018). Defining the role of language assistants in the bilingual classroom. *TCyE, 9,* 38-49.

Buckingham, L. R. (2016). *The role of language assistants in a bilingual primary school: Theory, practice and recommendations. Unpublished doctoral dissertation*. Universidad de Alcalá, Spain.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). Interrogating the 'native speaker fallacy': Non-linguistic roots, non-pedagogical results. In G. Braine (Ed.). *Non-Native Educators in English Language Teaching* (pp. 77-92). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Carless, D. R. (2006). Good practices in team teaching in Japan, South Korea and Hong Kong. *System*, *34*, 341-351. doi:10.1016/j.system.2006.02.001.

Colegios Bilingües Cooperativos (n.d.). Auxiliares de conversación nativos como embajadores de su cultura. Retrieved from https://colegiosbilinguescooperativos.com/auxiliares-conversacion/.

Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deportes de la Comunidad de Madrid (2019). Auxiliares de conversación. Retrieved from https://comunidadbilingue.educa2.madrid.org/solicitudes.

Copland, F., Davis, M., Garton, S., & Mann, S. (2016). *Investigating NEST Schemes around the World: Supporting NEST/LET Collaborative Practices*. London: British Council.

Coşkun, A. (2013). Native speakers as teachers in Turkey: Non-native pre-service English teachers' reactions to a nation-wide project. *The Qualitative Report*, *18*, 1-21.

Cots, J. M., & Díaz, J. M. (2005). Constructing social relationships and linguistic knowledge through non-native-speaking teacher talk. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession* (pp. 85-105). New York: Springer.

Council of Europe Committee of Ministers (1998). *Recommendation No. R (98) 6 of the Committee of Ministers to Member States concerning Modern Languages (Adopted by the Committee of Ministers on 17 March 1998 at the 623rd meeting of the Ministers' Deputies)*. Retrieved from https://rm.coe.int/16804fc569.

Dafouz, E., & Hibler, A. (2013). 'Zip your lips' or 'Keep quiet': Main teachers' and language assistants' classroom discourse in CLIL settings. *The Modern Language Journal*, *97* (3), 655-669. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.12026.x.

Dirección General de Innovación, Becas y Ayudas a la Educación, Comunidad de Madrid (2018a). *Guía del Auxiliar de la Comunidad de Madrid Curso 2018-2019*. Retrieved from https://comunidadbilingue.educa2.madrid.org/web/educamadrid/princip al/files/8c5dec3a-4665-4b9d-a373-46ab12fbef6b/Documentos/Gu%C3%ADa%20del%20Auxiliar%20de%20conversaci%C3%B3n%202018_19%20optimizada.pdf.

Dirección General de Innovación, Becas y Ayudas a la Educación, Comunidad de Madrid (2018b). *Programa Auxiliares de Conversación 2018-2019 Guía del Centro.* Retrieved from

http://innovacion.educa.madrid.org/auxmadrid/docs/guia_del_centro_2018_2019.pdf.

Dormer, J. E. (2010). Strength through difference: Optimizing NEST/NNEST relationships on a school staff. In A. Mahboob (Ed.), *The NNEST Lens: Non-Native English Speakers in TESOL* (pp. 285-304). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Egginton, A. (1997). *Looking Forward. The JET Program: Ten Years and Beyond.* Tokyo: Ministry of Home Affairs.

Fernández, R., & Halbach, A. (2010). Analyzing the situation of teachers in the CAM bilingual project after four years of implementation. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe, J.M. Sierra & F. Gallardo del Puerto (Eds.), *Content and Foreign Language Integrated Learning: Contributions to Multilingualism in European Contexts* (pp. 241-264). Bern: Peter Lang.

Garton, S. (2013). Unresolved issues and new challenges in teaching English to young learners: The case of South Korea. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *15* (2), 201-219. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2014.858657.

Gerena, L. & Ramirez Verdugo, M. D. (2014). Analyzing teaching and learning in bilingual education in Madrid, Spain: A Fulbright scholar collaborative research project. *Gist Education and Learning Research Journal, 8*, 118-136.

Herbert, P. & Wu, C. H. F. (2009). Cultural diversity in the classroom: Shortcomings and successes of English co-teaching programs in East Asia. *Zeitschrift fur Interkulturellen Fremdsprachenunterricht, 14* (1), 11-S.

Hibler, A. (2010). Effective collaboration between native and non-native speakers in the Spanish CLIL context: The case of the language assistants in primary education. Unpublished Master's thesis, Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Spain. Retrieved from http://eprints.ucm.es/12796/1/Hibler_Abbie.pdf.

Houghton, S., & Rivers, D. (Eds.). (2013). *Native-Speakerism in Japan: Intergroup Dynamics in Foreign Language Education.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a Lingua Franca: Attitude and Identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jeon, M. (2009). Globalization and native English speakers in English Programme in Korea (EPIK). *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *22* (3), 231-243. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07908310903388933.

Kachru, B. B. (1992). Teaching world Englishes. In B. B. Kachru (Ed.), *The Other Tongue: English across Cultures*, 2nd ed. (pp. 355-366). Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press.

Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J. M. (2005). What do students think about the pros and cons of having a native speaker teacher? In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession* (pp. 217-241). New York: Springer.

Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J. M. (2002). University students' perceptions of native and non- native speaker English teachers of English, *Language Awareness*, *11*, 132–42. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658410208667051.

Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry.* Newbury Park, California: Sage.

Lova Mellado, M., Bolarín Martínez, M. J., & Porto Currás, M. (2013). Programas bilingües en educación primaria: Valoraciones de docentes. *Porta Linguarum, 20*, 253-268.

Luo, W. H. (2010). Collaborative teaching of EFL by native and non-native English-speaking teachers in Taiwan. In A. Mahboob (Ed.), *The NNEST Lens: Non-Native English Speakers in TESOL* (pp. 263-284). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Macaro, E. (2005). Codeswitching in the L2 classroom: A communication and learning strategy. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession* (pp. 63-84). New York: Springer.

Medgyes, P. (1994). *The Non-Native Teacher*. London: Macmillan.

Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal, 46* (4), 340-349.

Meerman, A. D. (2003). The impact of foreign instructors on lesson content and student learning in Japanese junior and senior high schools. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 4* (1), 97-107.

Mendez García, M. C., & Pavón Vázquez, V. (2012). Investigating the coexistence of the mother tongue and the foreign language through teacher collaboration in CLIL contexts: Perceptions and practice of the teachers involved in the plurilingual programme in Andalusia. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 15 (5), 573-592. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.670195.

Ministerio de Educación (n.d.). North American language and culture assistants in Spain: Frequently asked questions 2019-2010. Retrieved from http://www.educacionyfp.gob.es/eeuu/dam/jcr:f15f27bf-18c1-438d-bb28-973fd8cc0634/faq-2019-20.pdf.

Nunan, D., & Bailey, K. M. (2009). *Exploring Second Language Classroom Research: A Comprehensive Guide*. Boston: Heinle, Cengage Learning.

OECD. (2009). *Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from TALIS*. Retrieved from http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/creatingeffectiveteachingandlearningen vironmentsfirstresultsfromtalis.htm.

Ortega Cebreros. A. (2000). *Factores sociopsicológicos implicados en el contexto de interacción hablada entre el alumno y el auxiliar de conversación en lengua extranjera.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Granada, Spain. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/10481/14584.

Park, J. E. (2014). English co-teaching and teacher collaboration: A micro-interactional perspective. *System*, *44*, 34-44. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.02.003.

Rámila Díaz, N. (2009). A comparative study of native and non-native teachers' scaffolding techniques in SLA at an early age. *Estudios Ingleses de la Universidad Complutense, 17*, 57-73.

Sánchez Torres, J. (2014). *Los papeles que desempeña el 'auxiliar de conversación' y el 'profesor-coordinador' en centros bilingües español/inglés en Sevilla: Un estudio de casos*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Seville, Spain. Retrieved from https://idus.us.es/xmlui/handle/11441/31276.

Sauciuc, A. & Vescan, I. (n.d.). Working with language assistants. In M. Irún, A., Sauciuc, A. & I. Vescan (Eds.), *Let's CLIL*

(pp. 45-60). Madrid: Richmond Santillana. Retrieved from https://clil.santillana.es/file/repository/Lets_CLIL_sample.pdf.

Scobling, C. (2011). *El auxiliar de conversación como herramienta de motivación en la enseñanza y aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras en la educación secundaria y bachillerato en España.* Unpublished Master's thesis, Universidad International de la Rioja, Spain. Retrieved from http://www.mecd.gob.es/dctm/sede/catalogo-tramites/profesores/extranjeros/auxilares-conversacion-espana/2011-proyec-investiga-candy-scobling-sobre-auxiliares-conversacion.pdf?documentId=0901e72b810b75ce.

Seargeant, P. (Ed.) (2011). *English in Japan in the Era of Globalization*. Houndsmills, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Seargeant, P. (2009). *The Idea of English in Japan: Ideology and the Evolution of a Global Language.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Tajino, A., & Tajino, Y. (2000). Native and non-native: what can they offer? Lessons from team-teaching in Japan. *ELT Journal, 54* (1), 3-11.

Tobin, N. A. & Abello-Contesse, C. (2013). The use of native assistants as language and cultural resources in Andalusia's bilingual schools. In C. Abello-Contesse, P. M. Chandler, M.D. López Jimenez & R. Chacón Beltrán (Eds.), *Bilingual and Multilingual Education in the 21st Century: Building on Experience* (pp. 203-230). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Wang, L. Y. (2013). Non-native EFL teacher trainees' attitude towards the recruitment of NESTs and teacher collaboration in language classrooms. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research 4* (1), 12-20. doi:10.4304/jltr.4.1.12-20

Widdowson, H. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*, 377–89.

Appendix

Extract from the instructions on completing the Teaching Portfolio. The sections relevant to this study are in italics.

The portfolio should be approximately 50 pages (45-55 pages). It should specifically include the sections listed below and each one should start on a new page. The numbers indicate a suggested number of pages to be written about each subject.

- Title page: title, your name, the course name: "Memoria," professor name, the name of the Master's degree, and the date of submission. 1 page
- Table of contents. 1 page
- A description of the current teaching practicum: name of the school, address, detailed description of the classes taught and responsibilities, an explanation of the materials developed and any participation in school projects, etc. 2-3 pages
- A description of what the current teaching practicum experience means to you. Why did you want to do the teaching practicum? What other things are you getting from the experience? 2 pages
- An evaluation of the school and cooperating teachers. Include the teacher observation forms from the beginning of the school year (cut and paste or scan them, as opposed to retyping them). Then reflect on how your opinion has changed since submitting the forms in the fall. 2-3 pages plus 2-3 forms.
- *The most common problems encountered at the school and strategies for dealing with them. This is a place where you can show how you are proactive in handling difficult situations. Mention the problem and the circumstances surrounding it, and then indicate what you did to improve the situation. 2-3 pages*
- *Suggestions and comments. Here you can describe the situations that are out of your control but that you think should be considered. 1-2 pages.*
- Reflections on your experience in the Master's Degree courses. Explain your overall impression of the program and the courses here. 1-2 pages.
- Personal reflections on the course contents. There should be three separate sections on areas of interest to the student teacher. 4-5 pages each.
- The future (optional). Where do you want to go from here in the teaching profession? What steps, if any, have you taken in this direction? 1-2 pages.
- Documentation. 15-20 pages.

Flipping the Classroom for higher Education Learners to Improve Productive and Receptive Skills

Invertir la clase con estudiantes universitarios para mejorar las destrezas productivas y receptivas

Cristina Calle Martínez
Universidad Complutense de Madrid
cristinacalle@filol.ucm.es
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6646-6685

Resumen: This study examines the ability of Tourism students to deal with customer complaints by using the flipped classroom approach combined with the implementation of the online *VoiceThread* programme. The study was carried out with a group of 49 EFL students in the Degree of Tourism at the University Complutense of Madrid. The study was carried out in 3 phases: (1) students were provided with audio material containing some useful expressions related to customers' complaints. This material was made available on the Virtual Platform (Campus Virtual) so students could consult it as they needed before the following class. (2) In the computing room, students were asked to listen to a customer complaint and to give a solution by recording their own voices. (3) In order to gather students' opinions about this experimental activity, students were asked to fill in a *Google form* questionnaire. Overall, the results of the study have shown the positive impact of this method on the teaching/learning process in the EFL classes for Tourism students, contributing to their motivation and development of their professional skills.

Keywords: Flipped Classroom; EFL; Tourism; Customer Complaints; Professional Skills.

Abstract: Este estudio examina la capacidad de los estudiantes de Turismo para abordar las quejas de clientes utilizando el enfoque de aula invertida combinado con la implementación del programa en línea *VoiceThread*. El estudio se llevó a cabo con un grupo de 49 estudiantes ILE en el Grado de Turismo en la Universidad Complutense de Madrid. El estudio se llevó a cabo en 3 fases: (1) a los estudiantes se les proporcionó material en Campus Virtual con expresiones útiles relacionadas con las quejas de clientes, que los estudiantes debían consultar antes de la siguiente clase. (2) En el laboratorio de idiomas, los estudiantes debían escuchar una queja de un cliente y darle una respuesta satisfactoria mediante grabación de su propia voz. (3) Para recabar información sobre la opinión que tenían de esta actividad experimental, a los estudiantes se les pidió que cumplimentaran un cuestionario Google. En general, los resultados del estudio han demostrado el impacto positivo de este método en el proceso de enseñanza/aprendizaje en las clases de ILE para los estudiantes de turismo, contribuyendo a su motivación y al desarrollo de sus habilidades profesionales.

Palabras clave: Aula Invertida; ILE; Turismo; Quejas de Clientes; Habilidades Profesionales.

Introduction

Technology is growing and the classroom is evolving. These are all facts and this reality is penetrating deeply into tourism management (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Thus, flipped classrooms are becoming more important as digital technologies are expanding rapidly (Delich, 2005), and it seems to better respond to the learning needs of students living in today's ever more conected world. Particularly, flipped classrooms have been found to provide many advantages to teachers and students, such as maximising students' time to interact with their classmates and instructor (Davis, 2016), increasing students' level of achievement as well as their interest and engagement with the contents (Fulton, 2012), mitigating levels of anxiety (O'Flaherty and Philips, 2015), or representing an "added learning experience" (Murphy *et al.*, 2017: 167). However, while most studies have shown the pedagogical benefits of flipped classrooms, further research is needed on the way flipped learning can contribute to the development and improvement of communicative and vocational skills, which are central pillars in tourism curriculum and language courses design (see, for instance,

Fidgeon, 2010; Musarat *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, this study shows an experimental activity aimed to develop tourism students' linguistic and pragmatic competences for dealing with complaints using the online *VoiceThread* programme.

1. Theoretical background

1. 1. Flipped classroom in higher education

The Flipped Classroom Model is described as a methodology where students are provided with "instructional resources to use outside of class so that class time is freed up for other instructional activities" (Enfield, 2013: 14). This is the main tenet of the model introduced by Mull (2012), simplistically summarised by the Flipped Learning Network (2014, n.d) as "school work at home and homework at school".

The strengths of the model have been summed up in the following four features or pillars making up the acronym F-L-I-P, namely: it is flexible (F) as it allows both students and teachers to establish their own timelines, provided enough time is devoted to the optimal preparation of the flipped class. Secondly, it involves a new learning culture, which moves from a traditional teacher-centred class to a learner-centred approach. In turn, this helps develop students' autonomy and responsibility for their own learning, one of the main tenets of the Common European Framework of Reference (2001), among others. Third, flipping the classroom also involves an intentional choice of content, focusing on central aspects that are accessible to all the students in the class and explaining such content in a clearly structured, understandable manner. Finally, flipping the classroom necessarily involves professional educators, able to reflect on their practice so as to improve the way content is presented for students and knowing when to "step aside".

It is important, however, to make a clear distinction between the flipped classroom and flipped learning, as these terms are not

interchangeable. Thus, while it is possible for teachers to flip their classroom, this does not ensure that flipped learning will take place although the model has been proved to offer a great range of advantages that may benefit learning outcomes, also in higher education (cf. Berrett, 2012; Enfield, 2013; Galway *et al.*, 2014; Abeysekera and Dawson, 2015, among others). Among these benefits, Fulton (2012) pointed out that students engaging in flipped classes increased their levels of achievement and showed a higher level of interest and engagement with the contents. As pointed out by O'Flaherty and Phillips (2015) in their overview of research carried out in higher education, a constant finding seems to be that students often report lower levels of anxiety as they are allowed to work at their own pace, feeling prepared when they came to class, which in turn often lead to more interactive classes.

1. 2. The speech act of complaints

As opposed to other speech acts like requests or compliments, complaints have received less scholarly attention (cf. Trosborg, 1995; Murphy & Neu, 1996; Chen *et al.*, 2011). However, complaints are extremely complex speech acts that involve a high degree of face-threat and may thus endanger social relationships if not appropriately performed. In their seminal study on complaints, Olshtain and Weinbach (1987: 108) define this speech act in the following terms:

> In the speech act of complaining, the speaker (S) expresses displeasure or annoyance-censure-as a reaction to a past or ongoing action, the consequences of which are perceived by S as affecting her unfavourably. This complaint is usually addressed to the hearer (H) whom the S holds, at least partially, responsible for the offensive action.

Trosborg (1995: 311-312) also describes complaints as "an illocutionary act in which the speaker (the complainer) expresses his/her disapproval or other negative feelings towards the state of affairs described in the proposition (the complainable) and for which he or she holds the hearer (the complainee) responsible, either directly or

indirectly". In the case of a context like touristic service encounters (e.g. hotel receptions, guides), complaints are thus relatively frequent whenever customers' expectations are not successfully met. Students in the degree in Tourism have to be able both to identify complaints and to response to them appropriately. Responses to complaints have traditionally been treated in a number of studies, mostly under the topic "apology strategies" (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Trosborg, 1995). In more recently studies, however, the analysis of responses to complaints seems to have shifted from face-to-face encounters to online encounters such as e-commerce, where strategies may be linguistically different (cf. Davidow, 2003; Brewer, 2007; Gruber *et al.*, 2009).

As already pointed out, complaining can thus be considered a highly face-threatening act (FTA henceforth). FTAs stand for acts (either verbal or non-verbal) that intrinsically threaten face by their very nature. Goffman (1967) takes the concept from the English expression "to lose face" -i.e. to be embarrassed. Brown and Levinson (1987) further distinguish between positive face, which represents an individual's desire to be approved of, accepted, admired, liked and validated by others and negative face, which refers to an individual's right to freedom of action and their need not to be imposed on by others. In the case of complaints (and especially in service encounters like those a graduate in Tourism may eventually face), face-threat is manifold since it can affect the *addressee's positive face* –e.g. if the speaker expresses disapproval of the addressee; as well as the *addressee's negative face* by making the hearer do something –i.e. solve the problem. Furthermore, the speaker or customer also can threaten their own negative face when they have to perform a speech act they might consider as embarrassing and their own positive face by appearing as unlikeable to the addressee. Hence, dealing appropriately (and satisfactorily) with customers' complaints becomes crucial to EFL students in the degree in Tourism.

2. Methodology

2. 1. Context and participants

The site for the study was a second year compulsory course in the Faculty of Commerce and Tourism at the University Complutense of Madrid. The author was the instructor of the course, which took place in the winter of 2018 and lasted for four months. There were 64 students in the class (14 males and 50 females). These students had studied English for about seventeen years and at the beginning of the course their level was between B1 and B2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. The participants in this case study were 49 students out of the 64 students enrolled in the course "English II".

2. 2. Procedure

The study was carried out in 3 phases. Following a flipped classroom approach, the first phase took place before class. First, the teacher assigned an online powerpoint presentation containing useful language tips recorded over the ppt presentation which included the main aspects (linguistic and pragmatic) characterising complaints in English and their response. This presentation was made available on the Virtual Platform, the site to communicate teacher and students, so that students could handily consult it any number of times before the on-site class.

Next, during the on-site class in the language laboratory, students were asked to listen to a complaint from a customer and to give a suitable solution recording their own voices. The means to achieve this was through *VoiceThread*, an interactive, multimedia slide show tool that enables users to hold conversations and helps promote group discussions. The teacher created a "voice" named "Dealing with complaints" in her *VoiceThread* account and recorded her voice imitating a customer complaining at a hotel reception. Then, she sent the link to this "voice" to the students who had previously created their own account. They were also instructed to listen to the complaint and to

give a suitable solution using the useful language tips they had learnt by recording their own voices. Then, they should save the recording once the task had been completed.

Finally, in order to gather students' opinions about this experimental activity, students were asked to complete a *Google form* questionnaire consisting of four sections. Section I asked students for some personal information (age and gender) and, in general terms, if the experiment has helped them become more fluent; Section II comprised six sub-headings on the contribution of the task to developing productive and receptive skills: (1) *This experiment has contributed to the improvement of my overall listening skill*, (2) *This experiment has allowed me to become more aware of pronunciation*, (3) *This experiment has allowed me to become more aware of intonation and sentence stress*, (4) *This experiment has helped me become more fluent*, (5) *This experiment has contributed to the improvement of my grammar knowledge*, (6) *While taking part in this experiment, I learnt new vocabulary*; Section III focused on whether students found the activity motivating and innovative; Section IV consisted of four open questions: (1) *What did you like most about this experimental activity?*, (2) *What did you like least about this experimental activity?*, (3) *In your opinion, what are the advantages or disadvantages of this type of experiment?*, (4) *Would you like to do another experimental activity like this in your English course? Explain*. For Sections II and III a Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3. Results

A quantitative and qualitative analysis was conducted on the basis of the surveyed students. More specifically, the analysis will focus on the questions where students overwhelmingly chose either 5 or 4 points in the Likert scale -i.e. 5 corresponding to "I strongly agree" and 4 to "I agree"). Future research will deal with the remaining questions of the survey (i.e. questions number 4, 5 and 6), where students' answers were mostly neutral (i.e. they chose answer 3 "neutral" in the Likert-scale). Additionally, these six questions reflect quantitatively

what the students have freely commented in the open questions of the survey. There is, thus, a strong degree of correlation between the percentages obtained and students' free contributions.

As shown by results (see graph 1), the aspect that was most positively evaluated by students was the innovative character of the activity (86.7% of the students either totally agreed or agreed in this respect), closely followed by its motivating nature (82.8% of the students either completely agreed or agreed that the activity was highly engaging and motivating). Third, students highly rated the pronunciation (79%) and listening skills (40%). The latter correspond to the development of productive and receptive skills. Graph 1 below shows the students' answers to each of the four categories. As reflected by the graph, students remained more neutral only in the case of their listening skills and pronunciation, where 14.9% were not sure whether these had improved or not. This might be due to the fact that, although they were listening to the powerpoint, they also had written support except for the practice itself, where they actually had to listen to a customer complaining and respond accordingly.

Graph 1
Students' responses to the questionnaire
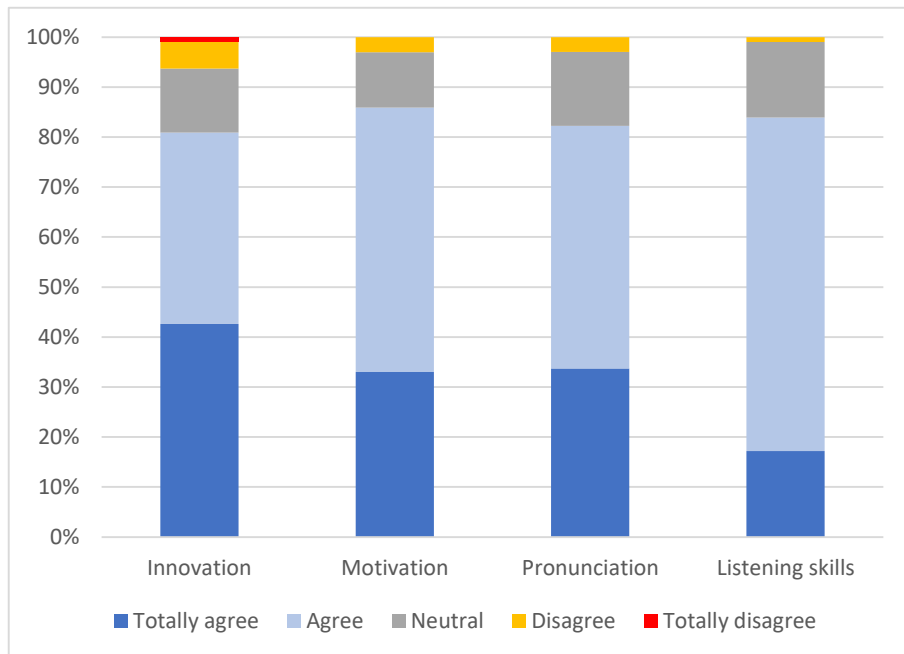
Source: own elaboration

These results reflect the students' comments in the first open question (1) *what the students liked most about the experimental activity*. This question was answered by all the students and their comments show that they found the activity motivating, useful, practical and very innovative, different from other usual activities and a new way to learn English, as illustrated by the following examples[1].

(1) It is an innovative activity.
(2) It's a different way to practice English. It is a good idea to be able to hear us [sic]
(3) It is very useful because you can hear yourself speaking English and learn how to solve pronunciation problems.

---

[1] All the examples are taken from the data. No editing or corrections have been made to preserve their authenticity.

(4) This activity it's cool [sic] and thank's [sic] to this activity I don't have stress to speak.

(5) I liked that it was a different type of class where i [sic] could practice by my own. Also it was motivating because i thought that after i [sic] recorded my voice, someone else was going to listen to me, so that made me try to be more focused on what i [sic] wanted to say and how i said [sic] it, because i [sic] think that in this situation it's very important the entonation [sic] due to the person is not seeing you [sic].

In reference to the **contribution to developing productive and receptive skills**, the students felt really comfortable recording their voices and listening to the instructions from the teacher and they appreciated the fact that they could freely expressed themselves, which, in their view, contributed to improving their English level, especially their overall listening and speaking skills, as well as the acquisition of new vocabulary and grammar knowledge. The fact that they could record their answers over and over again and listen to what other students had recorded, let them check their mistakes and correct them becoming at the same time more aware of pronunciation and, in general, enriching their English level.

Results show that students seemed to be supportive of this teaching task. Interestingly enough, an unexpected finding was that, many of the students liked very much the fact that they could develop their future professional skills in a practical way, as the following examples show:

(6) The fact that I can solve some problems of the customers.

(7) I have learned to answer a customer.

(8) The fact that i [sic] felt it was a real experience.

(9) Be able to attende [sic] to a real situation in a hotel.

By contrast, the second open question *What did you like least about this activity?* was answered by 34 out of the 47 (72.3%) students

and for 10 of them nothing was wrong with this experimental activity. The most common claim, showing their shyest side, went to the fact that they had to record themselves and other students could listen to them, as the following examples show:

(10) Everyboody could hear me.
(11) I had to record myself.
(12) For the shameful [sic] people it is difficult to speak English.
(13) Recording my voice in the middle of the clase [sic], because i [sic] am a little bit shy.
(14) I was a bit embarrassed.

For some students the difficulty of managing the application and the fact of talking to a computer and not to a person were the weak points of this experimental activity, as the following examples show:

(15) The web page is really confusing.
(16) Have to make an account and can not [sic] freely enter the application.
(17) It is very troublesome.
(18) I would prefer the face to face conversation because when i [sic] have to record myself my pronounciation [sic] and fluently gets [sic] worst.
(19) Answer to a computer and not a person.

Other difficulties had to do with noise problems in the classroom. 2 students pointed out:

(20) The noise around.
(21) I couldn't concentrate very much because the other classmates were talking too.

On the question concerning *the advantages and disadvantages of this type of experiment*, all the students answered it and for most of

them there were more advantages than disadvantages and the reason they mainly highlighted was the fact of dealing with real situations, as the following examples show:

(22) I only see advantages, because it seems to be like real life, and i [sic] think that's important fo rus, because we need to get used to these types of situations.

(23) I think it has more advantages than disadvantages. For example, you can learn more vocabulary and how to speak correctly at [sic] some situations.

The positive answers concerned some of the comments in the first open question *what the students liked most about the experimental activity* as for the innovative, practical and motivating character of this type of activity and regarding the contribution to developing productive and receptive skills.

(24) It's funny and new for us.

(25) Innovative application.

(26) Improve pronunciation.

(27) You can practice listening, the pronunciation and vocabulary.

(28) I just found advantages. We improve our speaking.

Interestingly enough, a surprising finding was that, some students were aware of the fact that the use of such tools as *VoiceThread* lets teachers listen and assess large groups, as can be seen in the following example:

(29) It allows the teacher to listen and evaluate the whole class as one. And also listen the pronunciation of each student.

In line with the beneficial character of the tool, another positive opinion was as follows:

(30) It is a good point of this tool to save the recording so that you can choose the best one to submit.

As it has already been pointed out above, at the beginning of this article, among the benefits of flipped learning, it is worth noting that students appreciate being able to work at their own pace without pressure which in turn leads to a higher level of interest and consequently to a more effective learning as can be seen in this comment:

(31) You work individually and everyone has its own rhythm.

Similarly, the students' responses concerning the disadvantages of practicing with this activity coincided again with the ones in the first open question. The students claimed that:

(32) If there is more people doing the same thing, i [sic] find it difficult to concentrate.
(33) You can get nervous and do it worst than you actually could do if you were not recorded.
(34) The only drawback I find is that we do not really practice with real people.

Regarding the last question on the questionnaire *Would you like to do another experimental activity like this in your English course?*, 32 students out of 36 who answered this question, answered positively, highlighting the fact that *VoiceThread is really good for learning and improving speaking* [sic] and that *it is a lot fun* [sic] *to learn with it, different from others* [sic] *devices*. The two negative answers were related to the fact that *talking to a machine and not a real person do not motivate me* [sic].

Conclusions and pointers to future research

In conclusion, results show that using the flipped classroom with these activities had a positive impact on students' learning. It contributes to developing productive and receptive skills while enhancing motivation. Certainly, students found *VoiceThread* to be an innovative, practical, helpful and motivational approach in the English classroom as well as an effective tool that allows them to participate and collaborate in many ways at their own pace. Unlike a live classroom discussion, where students are forced to think quickly and respond in front of a group, *VoiceThread* makes it possible for students to contribute to the discussion at their own pace and only after they have clearly formulated the thoughts and ideas they want to share. In essence, *VoiceThread* automatically creates wait time for students and allows them to dictate how much time they need to respond.

In this respect, shyer or less confident students may benefit from this tool. With *VoiceThread*, they no longer have to compete with their peers to respond during a class activity, which in turn provides them with increased opportunities to contribute.

Besides these advantages, another benefit of *VoiceThread* is that it is specifically designed to promote the collaborative development of knowledge by providing students the opportunity to share their voice, quite literally, and express opinions regardless of their ability. This is a perfect example of the kind of epistemological shift from more traditional classroom instructional practices that Dede (2008) argued is possible through the effective use of Web 2.0 technologies.

As students participate in these collaborative environments, they learn how to interact, communicate, and express themselves both confidently and respectfully as digital citizens (Jenkins, Purushotma, Clinton, Weigel, & Robison, 2006). In addition, online tools like *VoiceThread* allow students to participate in learning communities beyond the walls of their own classroom to engage in conversations around topics of mutual interest (Yildiz, McNeal, & Salika, 2009).

However, despite the relatively high percentage of points 4 and 5 on the Likert scale in almost all the questions of the questionnaire, we still have to explore the remaining questions of the survey, where students' answers were mostly neutral, namely, in the case of their fluency, the improvement of grammar knowledge and the acquisition of new vocabulary. These findings would enable us to offer a broader and complete view of all the components taking part in this experiment which we hope to address in the near future.

Lastly, with this study we pretend to have provided our contribution to the area of ESP studies and to offer teachers interesting practices and effective tools to improve the productive and receptive skills.

Bibliography

Abeysekera, L., & Dawson, P. (2015). Motivation and cognitive load in the flipped classroom: definition, rationale and a call for research. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *34*(1), 1-14.

Berrett, D. (2012). How 'flipping 'the classroom can improve the traditional lecture. *The Education Digest*, *78*(1), 36.

Brewer, B. (2007). Citizen or customer? Complaints handling in the public sector. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, *73*(4), 549-556.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* (Vol. 4). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Buhalis, D., & Law, R. (2008). Progress in information technology and Tourism management. 20 years on and 10 years after the internet – the state of eTourism research. *Tourism Management, 29*(4), 609-23.

Chen, Y. S., Chen, C. Y. D., & Chang, M. H. (2011). American and Chinese complaints: Strategy use from a cross-cultural perspective. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, *8*(2), 253–275

Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1981). Developing a measure of sociocultural competence: The case of apology. *Language learning*, *31*(1), 113-134.

Davidow, M. (2003). Organizational responses to customer complaints: What works and what doesn't. *Journal of Service Research*, *5*(3), 225-250.

Davis, N. L. (2016). Anatomy of a flipped classroom, Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, *16*(3), 228-232. DOI: 10.1080/15313220.2015.1136802.

Dede, C. (2008). New Horizons: A seismic shift in epistemology. *EDUCAUSE Review*, *43*(3), 80–81.

Delich, P. (2005). *Pedagogical and interface modifications: what instructors change after teaching online*. Malibu: Pepperdine University.

Enfield, J. (2013). Looking at the impact of the flipped classroom model of instruction on undergraduate multimedia students at CSUN. *TechTrends*, 57(6), 14-27.

Fidgeon, P. R (2010). Tourism education and curriculum design: A time for consolidation and review? *Tourism Management*, *31*(6), 699-72.

Fulton, K. (2012). Upside down and inside out: Flip your classroom to improve student learning. *Learning & Leading with Technology*, *39*(8), 12-17.

Galway, L. P., Corbett, K. K., Takaro, T. K., Tairyan, K., & Frank, E. (2014). A novel integration of online and flipped classroom instructional models in public health higher education. *BMC medical education*, *14*(1), 181. Available at https://bmcmededuc.biomedcentral.com/track/pdf/10.1186/1472-6920-14-181 [Last retrieved June 2018].

Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: essays on face-to-face interaction*. Oxford: Aldine.

Gruber, T., Szmigin, I., & Voss, R. (2009). Handling customer complaints effectively: A comparison of the value maps of female and male complainants. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, *19*(6), 636-656.

Jenkins, H., Purushotma, R., Clinton, K., Weigel, M., & Robison, A. J. (2006). *Confronting the challenges of participatory culture: Media education for the 21st century.* Chicago, IL: The MacArthur Foundation.

Mull, B. (2012, March 29) Flipped learning: A response to five common criticisms. *November Learning*. http://novemberlearning.com/resources/articles/flippedlearning-a-response-to-five-common-criticisms article. [Last retrieved June 2018].

Murphy, Beth & Joyce Neu. (1996). My grade's too low: The speech act set of complaining. In Susan M. Gass & Joyce Neu (eds.), *Speech acts across cultures: Challenges to communicate in a second language* (pp. 191–216). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Murphy, J., Kalbasca, N., Cantoni, L., Horton-Tognazzini, L., Ryan, P. & Williams, A. (2017). Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) in hospitality and tourism. In P. Benckendorff & A. Zehrer (Eds), *Handbook of Teaching and Learning in Tourism* (pp. 154-172). Cheltenham (UK) and Northampton (Mass, USA): Edward Elgar Publishing.

Musarat, Y., Sarkar, M. & Sohail, M. (2016) Exploring English Language Needs in the Hotel Industry in Pakistan: An Evaluation of Existing Teaching Material. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 28*(4), 202-213. DOI: 10.1080/10963758.2016.1226846.

O´Flaherty & Philips (2015). The use of flipped classrooms in higher education: A scoping review. *The Internet and higher education*, *25*, 85-95.

Olshtain, E., & Cohen, A. (1983). Apology: A speech act set. In Nessa Wolfson (ed.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 18-35). Boston: Newbury House.

Olshtain, E., & Weinbach, L. (1987). Complaints: A study of speech act behavior among native and non-native speakers of Hebrew. In J. Verschueren, & M. Bertucelli-Papi (Eds.), *The Pragmatic Perspective* (pp. 195-208). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Trosborg, A. (1995). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints, and apologies* (Vol. 7). Berlin, New York: Walter de Gruyter.

Yildiz, M., McNeal, K., & Salika, L. (2009). *The power of social interaction technologies in teacher education*. Paper presented at the National Educational Computing Conference, Washington, DC.

Written Production in EFL through blogging and cooperative learning at A-level

Salvador Montaner-Villalba
Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia
smontaner@invi.uned.es
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2742-5338

Abstract: Our main objective is to verify whether learners improved their level of EFL written production through blogging from the perspective of the Cooperative Learning approach. The learners participating in this experiment were in their 1st academic year of A-levels within the Spanish education system. Their level of English was B1 according to the CEFR. Having identified the learners' level related to EFL written production, one research question was established to confirm whether learners improved their level of written production through blogging. From this research question, the following starting hypothesis was created: 1. Blogging helps learners increase their EFL written production within the Cooperative Learning approach. The chosen method was action-research implying, thus, that quantitative outcomes were analyzed. The results were quite satisfactory implying, in consequence, that this current paper is worth and interesting since not much research has been published at non-university education and, in particular, in A-level studies.

Keywords: EFL; Written Production; Blogging; Cooperative Learning; A-level.

Introduction

This research emerged due to the need to improve the quality and competence of EFL written production by Spanish learners in their 1st academic year of A-levels from the perspective of the Cooperative Learning approach. This current paper is, therefore, framed within the use of ICT as a tool in order to learn EFL within emergent educational methodologies, such as the cooperative learning approach. Moreover, this research is a response to the lack of publications related to the use of blogs when teaching EFL from the inclusion of active and emergent educational methodologies within the Spanish education system at non-university setting.

1. Aims

This current research aims to verify whether learners improved their competence in written production in EFL from the perspective of the cooperative learning approach through blogging with the use of the digital platform Word Press (http://wordpress.com). When this experiment was finished, it was expected that learners might have improved their EFL written production through blogging (Fellner & Apple, 2006; Murray & Hourigan, 2008), so that we could confirm the hypothesis previously established, and thus offer an answer to the research questions initially established.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Blogging

In education, two types of blogs should be considered: microblogging and edublogs. Twitter and, particularly, the educational social network Twiducate, are the best examples of microblogging. According to Herring *et al.* (2005), educational blogs are mainly characterized by making use of multimedia elements, being updated very often, the posting of comments permits users' asymmetric exchange, as well as the ease of interaction among users causing. All these elements promote communication and a strong relationship between author and readers.

With regard to publications on the use of blogging in EFL, two significant periods should be considered. The first period relates to the first decade of the 21st century and, to be more precise, these publications date between the years 2003 and 2010, while the second period is dated from the year 2016 up to the present day. The following academics are recognized worldwide and belong to the first period of publications on blogs in EFL: Campbell, 2003; Godwin-Jones, 2003; Ward, 2004; Ducate & Lomicka, 2005; Fellner & Apple, 2006; Jons & Nuhfer-Halten, 2006; Dudeney & Hockly, 2007; and Carney, 2009. It is also worth mentioning other key academics, such as Arani, 2005;

Pinkman, 2005; Wu, 2005; Murray & Hourigan, 2008; and Martín-Monje, 2010, who focus on blogging in Languages for Specific Purposes and, particularly, in ESP.

The second period commences almost at the end of the second decade of the 21st century with the paper by Montaner (2016), who explores the use of blogging in technical English by analyzing quantitative outcomes. Montaner (2017) focuses on the use of blogs in technical English with the perspective of qualitative methods. Thirdly, Montaner (2019) analyzes the rank of outcomes of written production in technical English through blogging. These papers were thus framed within the use of the ICT when teaching ESP in vocational training in Spain. Next, Montaner (2018a) covers the use of blogs through task-based learning in compulsory secondary education and this same author (*in press* a) deals with blogging in secondary education from the perspective of the cooperative learning approach. Both papers were thus framed within the use of technology, combined with innovative educational methodologies. Lastly, Montaner (2018b) analyses blogging from the perspective of interaction in EFL compulsory secondary education. This period differs from the first one because the experiments took place in non-university settings, whereas findings from the first period were obtained in university contexts.

2.2. Cooperative Learning approach

The use of blogging in teaching EFL, in this current experiment, is done through the cooperative learning approach, an educational methodology which is a key element of this paper. Relevant literature on the cooperative learning approach insists on its practical application in the classroom (Kagan *et al.*, 1995, 1997; Kagan, 2009; Pujolàs, 2017). The cooperative learning approach aims to organize the diverse tasks within the classroom in order to transform them into a social experience. Learning depends on information exchange among learners, who are motivated not only to successfully achieve their own learning goals, but also to increase their colleagues' achievements.

Before Kagan's work (1995; 1997; 2009), it is worth mentioning the work by Dewey and Small (1897), who were the precursors of the cooperative learning approach. Kagan (1995; 2009) conceived the cooperative learning approach as a teaching methodology which is characterized by forming groups in a heterogeneous way and building an identity group. Positive interdependency occurs, which enhances the communication within the group and allows group members to comprehend that the main purpose is to carry out various tasks in a collaborative way. Individual responsibility is also important. The various tasks should be equally distributed among learners and, lastly, simultaneous interaction implies opinion exchange and decision making, which is agreed by students when solving the dialogue task.

The practical application of the cooperative learning approach as well as its own assessment (Johnson & Johnson, 2016) acquires special relevance here. In this line, the cooperative learning approach cannot be conceived without technology, since materials and information sources must be diverse, and sources must break space and time barriers. Blogging, thus, allows students make a wide variety of online tasks which result from products derived from the cooperative learning approach, easing thus collaborative learning, team learning and more online interaction by learners (Sevillano & Vázquez, 2011; Domingo-Coscolla *et al.*, 2014).

Lastly, but not least, it is important to highlight that there is scarcely empiric research focused on the study of the Cooperative Learning approach to enhance EFL written competence through technology and, in particular, with the use of blogging. In this line, it is worth mentioning Montaner (*in press* a) who explores blogging in an EFL course from the perspective of the Cooperative Learning approach at Secondary Education, and Montaner (*in press* b) deals with the blogs in an ESP course at Vocational Training taking into consideration the Cooperative Learning approach. This current research is, thus, worthwhile and interesting since it covers new research on the use of educational technology and active methodologies.

3. Methodology

3.1. Context and Sample

This experiment took place throughout the whole academic year 2017-2018 with the participants being learners from the first year of A-levels at a compulsory secondary school in Valencian Region, where secondary education, A-level and Vocational Training are offered and, thus, we are referring to a non-university context. This school covers different educational programmes, such as the inclusion of the CLIL approach, task-based teaching, cooperative learning approach, European programmes (Erasmus, KA1), among others.

As for the sample, there was a group of 29 learners, who, at the time of the experiment, were doing the first year of A-levels and, thus, were in post compulsory secondary education. All 29 learners were selected in a random manner from the four groups which the 1st year A-level were composed, and they participated in the experiment in the treatment manner, and were aged approximately between 16 and 17. Their level of EFL was B1, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (henceforth, CEFR).

3.2. Treatment

We considered interesting the idea that learners, who participated in the experiment, made their corresponding tasks in order to enhance EFL written competence within the Cooperative Learning approach at the treatment manner with the main aim of verifying whether, at the end of the experiment, there was improvement. These learners completed their writing tasks through blogging originating, thus, online interaction among the participants since interaction is key within learning through educational technology.

The whole experiment consisted of writing opinion essays in the format of blogging in the cooperative way, in other words, we aimed, at this research, to encourage learners from 1st year A-level to write their

own online opinion essays in groups of 4-5 learners. At the first term, learners were asked to commence their opinion essays in the form of drafts. Next, they were required to interact through blogging at the section "comment" of the corresponding blogs. At the second term, the same pattern was followed and, after the second interactive task through blogging, learners had to write their final version of their opinion essays at the third term. Learners were free to choose the theme of their opinion essays while blogging.

3.3. Research Tools

To collect the quantitative outcomes of this research, we utilized three different writing tasks and two interaction writing tasks through blogging being, therefore, a total of five tasks. Every writing task took place at different moments, coinciding with the corresponding terms throughout the whole academic year 2017-2018, so that the first digital written task was completed during the first term. Next, the second online written task was done at the second term and, finally, the third digital task happened at the third term. Related to the interaction tasks through blogging, the first task was done after having the first written task being completed and, later, the second interaction task was completed once the second writing task was done.

The quantitative outcomes of this research were obtained from the various written tasks while blogging within the environment of the Cooperative Learning approach, which learners made during the academic year 2017-2018, with the main purpose of verifying whether learners improved significantly their EFL writing skills during the whole experiment.

The dependent variables consisted of the grading of the diverse written digital tasks, while the independent variables are classified into: 1) Composition process and 2) Final product. At this research the emphasis was on the final product. Since this paper is focused on the written competence, within the final product (Shehadeh, 2011) these

variables are distinguished: 1) Content of the text; 2) Organization and structure of the text; 3) Grammar; 4) Vocabulary usage and 5) Spelling.

These variables were assessed through the Spanish traditional grading system at both Primary and Secondary Education. Like wisely, the mark of excellent is between 9 and 10. Next, the mark of very good is between 7 and 8. The mark of good is 6, later, the mark of pass is equal to 5 and, finally, any mark under 5 implies that learners have failed either in the various school subjects or in the case of the corresponding variables that were marked at this research.

3.4. Procedure

This experiment took place during the academic year 2017-2018, commencing at mid-September 2017 and finishing almost at the end of May 2018. Throughout the whole academic year, learners from the Treatment group (henceforth, T-group) utilized 4 sessions each term being, thus, a total of 12 sessions for the whole academic year. Each session lasted 55 minutes. Taking into consideration that a rather high percentage of teenagers have to deal not only with the English language but also with other school subjects, we considered that learners could work on this experiment at the computer room of the school facilitating, therefore, their participation.

At table 3.4, below, the procedures related to the experiment as well as their description can be observed.

Table 1
Procedures

Procedures	Group	Description
Introducing the experiment	T-group	Teacher presents project, explains aims, methodology and time. Tasks are distributed
Experiment commences	T-group	2 sessions are given at computer room in order to explain learners how to utilize Word press. Teacher e-mails to learners a dossier on how to use Word press, in case they need to consult

Experiment develops	T-group	The experiment takes place at computer room, with the presence of the teacher, who can communicate with learners either through the chat of the platform or in person

Source: own elaboration

3.5. *Data Analysis*

At this research, the outcomes of the different written production tasks, which learners made during the experiment at the academic year 2017-2018, were analyzed. For this, the quantitative outcomes from the T-group were analyzed with the final aim of determining whether learners improved their EFL written skills through blogging within the Cooperative Learning approach.

For obtaining these quantitative outcomes, the different writing tasks were marked through numeric grading. These marks, according to the Spanish educational system, correspond to mark 1 up to mark 10 so that, on the one hand, the marks from 1 to 4 imply failure whereas, on the other, the marks from 5 up to imply that learners pass at different degrees. The different variables, which the final product of the written texts are composed of, that is, content of the text, organization and structure, grammar, vocabulary and spelling, were marked.

These numerical marks were introduced in the software Excel from Microsoft Office bearing in mind, through a basic descriptive statistics analysis, to calculate the different media of the results related to the different variables mentioned above. Next, after being selected in Excel the different media of the corresponding variables as well as the total media of each written production task, these media were inserted in the form of graphics with the aim of analyzing and, later, justify the diverse quantitative outcomes which were obtained during the experiment.

3.6. Research questions

The scientific emphasis of this paper is, on the one hand, the correctness and competence of the written English of A-level learners and, on the other hand, a corroboration or refutation that using blogging will have a positive impact on students' competence of written production in EFL. The following research question is established: 1. Might the use of blogs help learners improve written production in the English language within the cooperative approach?

4. Outcomes

4.1. Quantitative data

The analysis of written production is based on basic descriptive statistics and, particularly, only the media of the different variables were analyzed, with the aim of verifying whether or not learners improved their quality and level of EFL written production within the Cooperative Learning approach at the end of the experiment through the various suggested tasks on the online platform, Word Press. It is important to note that this experiment took place only in the treatment group. Therefore, the quantitative outcomes were only analyzed from the perspective of the treatment group. The users in the treatment group also interacted while blogging and, thus, this interaction was also analyzed for the purpose of this research.

Firstly, outcomes from the three writing tasks are analyzed. In the graph below, the average of the results of the first digital task can be seen.

Figure 1
Average outcomes of first written task
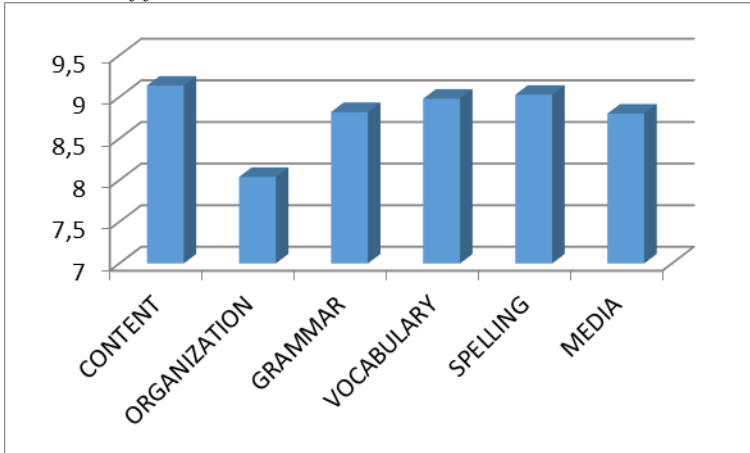
Source: own elaboration

In first place is content, with 9.13. The next component is spelling with a mark of 9.02. In third place, vocabulary has a mark of 8.98. Next, there is grammar, with a mark of 8.82. The last component is organization, with a mark of 8.03. The total media of this first digital writing task is 8.8.

In the second digital writing task, students had to write a second draft of their online opinion essays from the first term, taking into consideration the suggestions previously offered by colleagues during the interactive blogging tasks. The results of this second digital writing task can be observed in the figure below.

Figure 2

Average outcomes of second written task
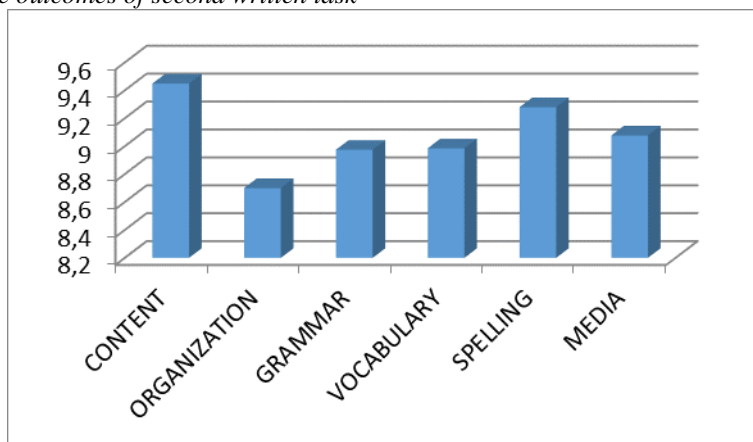
Source: own elaboration

The component content has the highest mark of 9.4. The next is spelling with a mark of 9.2. After that, the vocabulary component has 8.98, followed by grammar with a mark of 8.97. In fifth place, organization has 8.7. The total media of this second online writing task is 9.07. If we compare the outcomes of both tasks, regarding content, there are no significant differences related to the media. Concerning the organization component, there is no significant difference since the media in the second task is slightly higher than the first. As for the grammar component, the mark is slightly higher in the second writing task. In relation to the vocabulary component, the media of both tasks do not differ significantly. As for the spelling component, the mark is slightly higher in the second writing task. Regarding the total media of both tasks, the second one (9.07) is higher than the first one (8.8).

In the third digital writing task, students wrote their final versions, having received feedback from colleagues on the interactive task on the blogs. The outcomes of this third digital writing task can be seen in the figure below.

Figure 3
Average outcomes of third written task
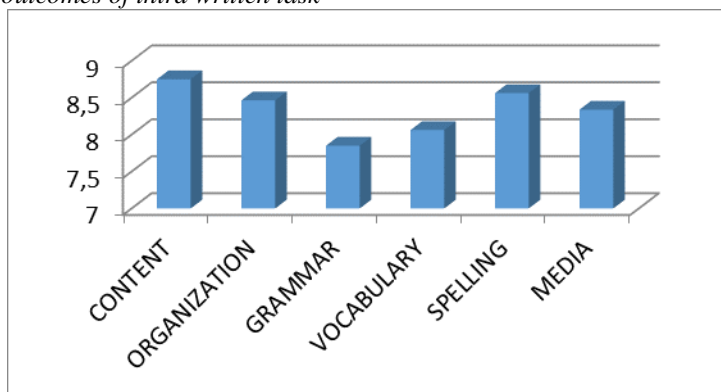
Source: own elaboration

In this third bar chart, the following aspects can be seen: content has the highest mark, which is 8.75. Next, the spelling component has a mark of 8.5. Then, the component organization has 8.4. In fourth place, the vocabulary component has a mark of 8.06 and, last, the grammar component has 7.85. The total media of this third digital writing task is 8.3. If we compare the three tasks, regarding the content, in the third task (8.75), it can be seen that the media decreased significantly in comparison with the first task (9.13) and the second task (9.44). Concerning the organization, the third task (8.4) was slightly lower than the second task (8.7) and slightly higher than the first task (8.03) and, therefore the media of the three tasks do not differ each other notably. As for the grammar component, the third task (7.85) decreased notably in comparison with the second task (8.9) and the first task (8.8). Regarding vocabulary, the third task (8.06) is slightly lower in comparison with both the second and first tasks (8.98). Concerning spelling, the third task (8.5) decreased notably in comparison with the second task (9.2) and the first task (9.2). Lastly, the total media of this third digital writing task (8.3) dropped significantly in comparison with the second task (9.07) and increased slightly in comparison with the first task (8.8).

Secondly, the outcomes of the two interactive tasks while blogging are analyzed. In the graphic below, the results of the first interactive task can be seen.

Figure 4
Outcomes of first interactive written task
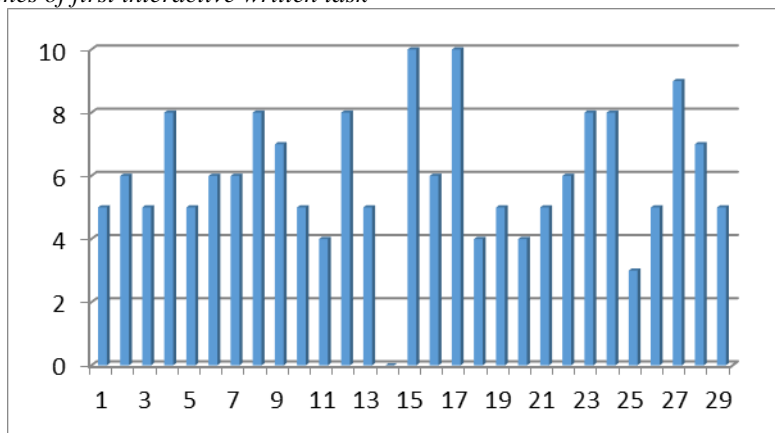
Source: own elaboration

On the one hand, only three learners from a group of 29 students obtained between 9 and 10. A reduced group of 7 learners had between 7 and 8. Only 5 learners obtained a mark of 6. On the other hand, 9 learners had a fair pass with a mark of 5 for this task and, lastly, 4 learners did not pass this task satisfactorily. While 50% of the group did quite well, approximately 48.5% did not do well. There was one learner who did not do this task.

The results of the second interaction task can be seen in the graph below.

Figure 5
Outcomes of second interaction written task
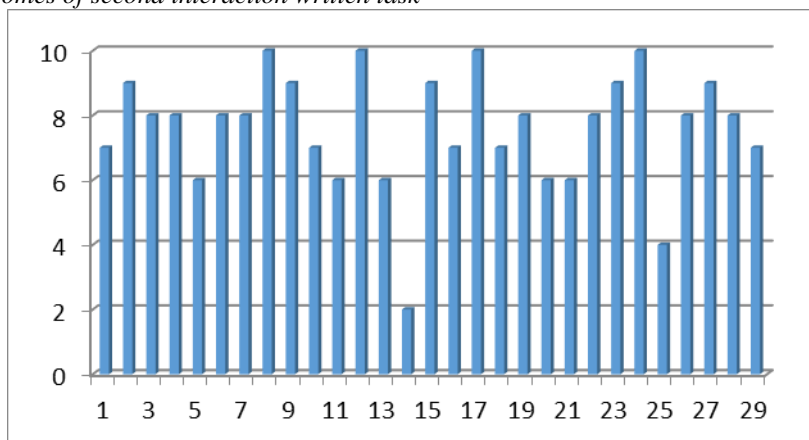
Source: own elaboration

From a group of 29 students, 9 of them achieved a result of between 9 and 10, and 13 learners achieved between 7 and 8. Only a reduced group of 5 learners passed with a fair mark of between 5 and 6 and, lastly, 2 learners did not do well. This implies that, at least, 52% of learners improved their second interactive task, while an approximate 48% of learners did not improve this task. It is thus quite obvious that there is a significant improvement in this second interactive task while blogging.

5. Discussion

This section aims to analyze the reasons why learners who participated in the experiment obtained the marks described above. Firstly, there will be a concise discussion and explanation as to why learners achieved these results in the three digital writing tasks. As for the first graph, where the average of the first written digital task is presented, it is important to note that the organization component (8.03) is the lowest; since we have continuously insisted on the relevance of writing both a coherent as well as a cohesive text. Learners in secondary education and those doing A-levels are not accustomed to creating

written texts or following specific criteria such as structuring the text into adequate paragraphs, and so on.

Regarding the second graph, in which the average of the second written online task is presented, the organization component (8.7) is the lowest again. This could be due to the fact that learners tend not to use an adequate number of paragraphs when structuring their essays. Moreover, when learners were required to write various drafts before completing the final text, they showed a resistance to writing paragraphs. This lack of writing coherently by learners at either secondary education or A-level is a general tendency in Spain. In fact, as an EFL teacher with considerable experience of teaching English language in Spain, the author of this paper can testify to there being a lack of coherence in English written production. Therefore, this is clearly a skill that should be given more attention to allow students to improve.

Curiously, in the third graph, the grammar component (7.85) is the lowest mark. When compared with the first graph (8.82) and the second one (8.9), it is clear that the grammar component decreased quite notably in the third task implying, thus, that learners did not manage with grammatical issues as it was initially expected. This is probably because learners did not pay enough attention to grammatical accuracy while blogging. As for the vocabulary component, a slight difference between the outcomes in the three tasks can be seen; the marks in the third graph being the lowest. Even though this slight decrease is rather reduced, it is possible that learners did not pay the required attention to the correct use of specific vocabulary and, for this reason, the mark of the vocabulary component decreased slightly in the third task.

As for the content, there is a noticeable difference when the third graph (8.75) is compared with the first task (9.13) and the second one (9.44). This is probably because a few learners wrote about different themes in the third task (8.75); they mixed at least 2 different stories within their third digital opinion essay, that is, the third digital

production task. This decrease in marks was unexpected as learners had previously written their digital opinion essays in the first and second digital production. However, it is important to note that the total media of the first task (9.13) and the second one (9.44) cannot be 10 because, in the first task, there were two learners who did not do their task and one learner whose marks were very low. In the second task, there was one learner who did not do his task and one learner with very low marks.

Related to the spelling component, learners' marks also decreased in the third task (8.5), compared with the first task (9.02) and the second one (9.2). This means that learners' spelling got slightly worse at the end of the experiment. This possibly occurred because learners made spelling mistakes when dealing with connectors and, occasionally, with some verbs. There are no significant differences among the three digital writing tasks. Lastly, if we compare the total media of the three digital written tasks, we can observe that there is a slight decrease in the third graph (8.33) in contrast with the second graph (9.07) and the first one (8.8). We cannot then confirm that there is a significant improvement by learners at the end of the experiment.

The aim of this section is to explain why learners obtained the outcomes in the two interactive tasks. As can be seen from the basic analysis above (section 4.1), there was a significant improvement in the second interactive tasks while blogging. It is important to mention that this kind of task was new for learners because they were blogging for the first time. This could be the reason why the outcomes of the first interactive task were lower than in the second interactive task. This was, to a certain extent, expected. In this paper, a simple analysis has been done of the outcomes related to the interactive tasks while blogging, thus offering a worthwhile and interesting paper since not much empiric research (Montaner, 2018b) has been published related to the analysis of interactive tasks while blogging.

6. Conclusion

This paper has offered some answers to the research question which was initially created. As for the question on whether blogging can help learners improve their level and quality of EFL written production within the cooperative approach, neither a significant improvement nor a deterioration can be confirmed.

To conclude, since there is not much empirical research on blogging within the cooperative approach either in secondary education (Montaner, *in press* a) or at Vocational Training (Montaner, *in press* b), further research on the use of ICT within innovative educational methodologies is recommended with the ultimate purpose of helping learners improve their EFL written production as well as their digital competence, teamwork learning, and autonomous learning, so that learners can become protagonists of their own learning process.

Bibliography

Arani, J. A. (2005). Teaching Writing and Reading English in ESP through a Web Based Communicative Medium: Weblog. *ESP-World*, *3*(11). Retrieved on 10th March 2014 at http://www.espworld.info/Articles_11/TeachingReadingandWritinginESPthroughaWebBasedCommunicativeMedium.htm.

Campbell, A.P. (2003). Weblogs for use with ESL classes. *The Internet TESL Journal, 9*(2), 33-35.

Carney, N. (2009). Blogging in foreign language education. In M. Thomas (Ed), *Handbook of research on Web 2.0 and second language learning* (pp. 292-312). IGI Global.

Dewey, J., & Small, A.W. (1897). *My pedagogic creed 25.* New York: Ell Kellogg & Company.

Domingo-Coscolla, M.; Sánchez-Valero, J. A., y Sancho-Gil, J. M. (2014). Investigar con y sobre los jóvenes colaborando y educando. *Comunicar, 42* (21), 157-164. doi:10.3916/c42-2014-15.

Ducate, L., & Lomicka, L. (2005). Exploring the blogosphere: Uses of weblogs in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, *38*(3), 410-421.

Dudeney, G., and Hockly, N. (2007). *How to teach English with technology*. Malaysia: Pearson-Longman.

Fellner, T., & Apple, M. (2006). Developing writing fluency and lexical complexity with blogs. *JALT Call Journal, 2*(1), 15–26.

Godwin-Jones, B. (2003). Blogs and Wikis: Environments for On-line Collaboration. *Language Learning & Technology, 7* (2), 12-16.

Herring, S. C., Kouper, I., Paolillo, J. C., Scheidt, L. A., Tyworth, M., y Welsch, P. (2005). Conversations in the blogosphere: An analysis 'from the bottom up'. In *Thirty-Eighth Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences* (HICSS-38). Hawaii.

Jons, Z., and Nuhfer-Halten, B. (2006). Uses of Blogs in L2 Instruction. In *Languages for Today's World. Dimension 2006* (pp. 25-35)*. Southern Conference on Language Teaching and the Florida Foreign Language Association. Selected Proceedings.

Johnson, David W., & Johnson, Roger T. (2016). *La Evaluación en el aprendizaje cooperativo* (Biblioteca Innovación Educativa). Madrid: SM.

Kagan, M., Robertson, L, & Kagan, S. (1995). *Cooperative Learning Structures for Classbuilding*. San Clemente, CA: Kagan Publishing.

Kagan, L., Kagan, M., & Kagan, S. (1997). *Cooperative Learning Structures for Teambuilding*. San Clemente, CA: Kagan Publishing.

Kagan, S. (2009). *Cooperative Learning*. San Clemente, CA: Kagan Publishing.

Martín-Monje, E. (2010). Interactive Materials, Collaborative Work and Web 2.0 in the context of ESP. In N. Talaván Zanón, E. Martín-Monje and F. Palazón Romero (Eds.), *Technological Innovation in the Teaching and Processing of LSPs: Proceeding of TISLID'10*, Facultad de Filología, UNED, Madrid, en formato CD.

Montaner, S. (2016). La competencia en producción escrita del inglés técnico mediante el *Blogging* (Investigación-Acción). In *Actas*

del I Congreso Internacional de Enseñanza del Inglés en Centros Educativos (pp. 233-242). Madrid: CEU Ediciones.

Montaner, S. (2017). La competencia en producción escrita del inglés técnico mediante el *Blogging* (Estudio del caso). In *Verbeia. Monográfico: La Enseñanza de lenguas y la educación multilingüe* (pp. 84-102). Año III. Nº1.

Montaner, S. (2018a). La Competencia en Producción escrita en lengua inglesa mediante el *Blogging* en un entorno de Aprendizaje Basado en Proyectos (ABP) en la Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria. En *Conference Proceedings EdunovaTIC2017, 2nd Virtual International Conference on Education, Innovation and ICT* (pp. 1130-1138) Eindhoven, NL: Adaya Press.

Montaner, S. (2018b). Aplicación del Blogging y/o Google Docs para fomentar la competencia en producción escrita en la enseñanza del inglés. *UTE. Revista de Ciències de l'Educació, 1*, 43-59. doi: 10.17345/ute.2018.1.

Montaner, S. (2019). La producción escrita en la enseñanza del inglés para fines específicos mediante el *Blogging*: análisis del rango de la producción escrita. En C. Calle-Martínez & Slavka Madarova (Eds.), *Focus on Learning: Contributions to the field of ESP* (pp. 19-26)., Madrid: UCJC.

Montaner, S. (*in press.* a). La Competencia en Producción Escrita en lengua inglesa mediante el *Blogging* en un entorno de Aprendizaje Cooperativo en la Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria, in *SEDLL'18.*

Montaner, S. (*in press.* b). Written expression in English for Specific Purposes through blogging and cooperative learning, in *AELFE'19*.

Murray, L., y Hourigan, T. (2008). Blogs for specific purposes: Expressivist or sociocognitivist approach? *ReCALL, 20*(1), 82-97.

Pinkman, K. (2005) Using Blogs in the Foreign Language Classroom: Encouraging Learner Independence. *The JALT CALL Journal*, 1 (1), 12-24.

Pujolàs, P. (2017). *Aprender juntos alumnos diferentes (Recursos)*. Barcelona: Octaedro.

Sevillano García, Mª L., y Vázquez Cano, E (2011). *Educadores en Red. Elaboración y Edición de materiales audiovisuales para la enseñanza*. Madrid: Ediciones Académicas-UNED.

Ward, J. (2004). Blog Assisted Language Learning: Push Button Publishing for the Pupils. *TEFL Web Journal, 3*(1), 1-16.

Wu, W. (2005). Using blogs in an EFL writing class. *Paper presented at the 2005 International Conference on TEFL and Applied Linguistics*. Retrieved on 12th April 2014 at www.chu.edu.tw/~wswu/publications/papers/conferences/05.pdf.

La literatura norteamericana para universitarios millennials y centennials: Reflexiones en torno a un modelo ecléctico de enseñanza

American Literature for Millennial and Centennial Undergraduates: Reflections upon an Eclectic Teaching Model

Julio Cañero Serrano
Instituto Franklin-UAH
julio.canero@uah.es
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9592-0349

Resumen: La cuestión del canon en aula de literatura norteamericana de la universidad española ha estado, con toda lógica, influida por las denominadas 'Guerras Culturales' que desde los años noventa del siglo pasado se han librado en Estados Unidos entre los partidarios de mantener una tradición próxima al pensamiento dominante y los que han intercedido por la apertura de esa tradición a voces obliteradas. Partiendo de la definición de lo literario frente a lo no literario, este trabajo se adentra en las distintas corrientes que han determinado el canon literario de ese país y las que lo han rechazado por dejar sin voz a determinados grupos (mujeres, inmigrantes, clase trabajadora, o minorías étnicas, raciales o de orientación sexual). Ante los desafíos que representan una nueva generación de alumnos universitarios españoles, los denominados millennials y centennials, mucho más receptivos a las creaciones del 'Otro' -independientemente de si esas creaciones son distintivas, por su origen o por su carácter formal, de lo entendido como literario,- reflexionamos sobre la necesidad de abogar por una aproximación docente de corte ecléctica a la creación artísticas estadounidense, conjugando el requisito de conocer las obras canónicas con estudiar también en nuestras aulas aquellas que la tradición ha denostado.

Palabras clave: Literatura Norteamericana; Canon; Enseñanza; Diversidad Cultural.

Abstract: The question of the canon in American Literature classroom of Spanish universities is influenced by the 'Cultural Wars' that, since the 1990s, have been fought in the United States between the supporters of maintaining a tradition close to the dominant thought, and those that have defended the opening of the canon to obliterated voices. Starting from the definition of literary versus non-literary, this work delves into the tendencies that have determined the literary canon of the US, and those which have rejected it for its concealment of the voices of important segments of the American population (women, immigrants, and class, ethnic, racial or sexual-oriented groups). Acknowledging that today's teachers face the challenges posed by a new generation of university students, the so-called Millennials and Centennials, who are much more receptive to the creations of the 'Other' -regardless of whether these creations are distinctive, by their origin or by their formal character, of what is understood as literary,- we ponder upon the need to advocate an eclectic teaching approach to American artistic creations, combining the requirement to know the canonical works with the study of those pieces of work that the tradition has reviled.

Keywords: American Literature; Canon; Teaching; Cultural Diversity.

...What justification remains for teaching -and thereby legitimating,
even enshrining- some texts rather than others in university
courses in the humanities? (Schudson, 1994: 487).

Introducción

Al enfrentarse a la enseñanza de los textos literarios estadounidenses, la mayoría de los docentes universitarios españoles tienden a seguir los parámetros predeterminados por la tradición canónica de este tipo de literatura. Presentando como punto de partida la evolución en la definición y redefinición del canon en la literatura norteamericana, la intención de este trabajo es plantear una reflexión sobre las posibilidades y conveniencias inherentes a la apertura del criterio tradicional a voces anteriormente no recogidas y obliteradas. Nuestro punto de partida es la docencia de asignaturas de literatura norteamericana en la Universidad de Alcalá en las que, hasta la actualidad, la apertura del canon a modelos literarios antes olvidados ha sido una constante positiva en resultados. Por ello, nuestra intención, siguiendo nuestra particular visión de la enseñanza de la literatura, es razonar en este trabajo sobre la necesidad de continuar la formación literaria de nuestros alumnos *millennials* y *centennials* a partir de textos estadounidenses tradicionales, por ser fundacionales y fundamentales.

Pero, además, junto a estos, defender el estudio de textos alternativos para que el alumnado pueda, como hasta ahora ha sucedido en la Universidad de Alcalá, seguir recibiendo una visión educativa ecléctica (desde el punto de vista multicultural, multiracial, de género y de orientación sexual) de la literatura norteamericana.

1. ¿Lo literario frente a lo no literario?

El primer gran problema que se nos plantea a la hora de seleccionar textos para el aula de literatura norteamericana es la definición y separación de 'lo literario' de 'lo no literario' a partir de la funcionalidad de una obra. La historia literaria tradicional (y occidental) viene marcada por dos aproximaciones desemejantes en su pensamiento: una teoría 'formal' y otra teoría 'moral' (Wellek y Warren, 1956). La primera defiende un valor intrínseco y estético de la obra literaria; la segunda estima que la literatura es una actividad humana más y que su valor depende del modo en que las obras se articulen con la actividad total. Nuestra concepción de la literatura y sus funciones aboga por una tercera vía: la noción de la literatura como un elemento estético, pero encuadrado en el contexto general de su aparición[1]. Reconocemos que la literatura presenta caracteres distintivos propios y específicos (Jakobson, 1960), pero que no puede desentenderse del contexto en el que aparece, pues el contexto determina qué forma toma el lenguaje literario y la función de este.

En definitiva, la literatura puede ser vehículo de evasión, de catarsis y, al mismo tiempo, también de crítica social y de comunicación, por lo que las formas y géneros empleados en las creaciones literarias no siempre tienen que corresponderse con la tradición canónica occidental. Como bien señala Paul Lauter (2010), las líneas tradicionales que demarcaban el concepto de literatura parecían muy claras, dividiéndose en poesía, teatro, ficción y ensayos de carácter

---

[1] En este sentido seguimos a Shudson cuando afirma que: "...it is now argued with equal vigor that the quality of art lies in how it is received, or in how it is created within the context of reception, rather than in some quality intrinsic to the art object itself" (Schudson,1994: 489).

literario (en su mayor parte realizados por hombres blancos). Con la aparición de nuevas voces antes no escuchadas, ya no se prima lo exclusivamente poético, dramático, novelístico o ensayísticos, pues, ante los avances tecnológicos, nuevas formas de creación cultural han sido incorporadas al concepto de literatura. Así, según Lee y Pham (2013: 109), la literatura que se enseña en las aulas debería recoger "the various discourses that have been muted by the hegemonic forces of the dominant group…", independientemente de su estructura formal.

La distinción entre 'lo literario' y 'lo no literario' nos lleva al tema central de este trabajo: la cuestión del canon y el debate sobre la conveniencia o no de la lectura de esas obras canónicas por parte de los jóvenes lectores (Cerrillo y Sánchez Ortiz, 2019), y que en nuestro caso específico son aquellos que asisten a las aulas de literatura norteamericana en la universidad española. Los docentes de esta materia han seguido muy de cerca la evolución del conflicto 'canon tradicional/apertura del canon' establecido desde la década de los 90 del siglo pasado en los Estados Unidos (Rogers, 1997), en lo que se ha denominado como 'Guerras Culturales' o 'Culture Wars'[2]. La ruptura del criterio tradicional, que comienza en los años sesenta, significó la democratización del canon, haciéndolo "as eclectic and democratically 'representative' as possible" (Gates, 1992: 32). En nuestra defensa de una aproximación ecléctica al canon, creemos necesarios revisar (utilizando un término propio de las corrientes que proponen la apertura) la evolución histórica del concepto de canon en la literatura norteamericana.

2. El canon y su ruptura en al aula de literatura norteamericana

La evolución del canon literario en los Estados Unidos ha venido marcada por la actuación de unas corrientes intelectuales que han beneficiado a unos textos y a unos autores y que han desdeñado a otros, por no ajustarse a las normas y valores imperantes en el momento

---

[2] Si bien es cierto que estas 'Guerras Culturales', que dieron forma desde los años noventa a las programaciones que enseñamos, "are ancient history to our undergraduates" (Henry, 2003: 51).

de ser estudiados, y cuya voz "was simply silenced, not to be heard" (Krupat, 1989: 3). En lo que, curiosamente, siempre han coincidido los investigadores de la literatura estadounidense, independientemente de sus tendencias literarias, del método empleado, o de los valores que les motivaban, es en las características de los autores elegidos para conformar el canon. Tres son las grandes etapas en las que se puede dividir el debate sobre el canon literario norteamericano en los Estados Unidos: (1) desde los orígenes hasta finales de los años 20; (2) el clímax del canon tradicional, 1930-1990; y (3) desde 1990 hasta la actualidad.

En la primera etapa, la literatura norteamericana era concebida como un apéndice más de la literatura británica. Hasta el siglo XX, afirma Cunliffe (1987), se creía que, si la lengua era la característica básica de la literatura, entonces, todo lo que estuviera escrito en inglés debía ser literatura inglesa, o, más bien, un apéndice inferior de esta (Renker, 2010; Elliott, 2010). Visión que cambia a finales de la década de los años 20, cuando la literatura norteamericana se convierte en una disciplina académica desarrollada conscientemente (Renker, 2010) y dominada por un grupo de profesores y críticos, homogéneo en origen (blancos) (Elliott, 2010) y pensamiento (cercanos al socialismo)[3] (Renker, 2010). En este grupo entrarían, por ejemplo, críticos como John Macy o Van Wyck Brooks. Sus gustos e intereses conformaron la visión de la literatura, enseñándola a sus alumnos y a sus lectores a partir de su juicio particular del fenómeno literario. La visión de la cultura americana y su literatura que estos proponían era muy limitada, omitiendo todo aquello que no les convenía mostrar (las voces de negros, inmigrantes no anglosajones, mujeres, católicos, homosexuales,

---

[3] En palabras de Barbara Foley (1994: 146), para esta corriente "to overturn the canon is neither to reaffirm liberal democracy nor to contribute to a class-based movement for social revolution, but rather to carry on rearguard guerrilla actions that will interrogate hegemonic discourses without superseding or replacing them".

judíos, etc.), bien porque desafiaba sus principios, porque no se ajustaba a sus reglas, o porque no lo comprendían[4].

Los herederos de la tradición anteriormente descrita son, para Russell Reising (1986), tres teorías críticas que dominaron el segundo periodo. En primer lugar, estarían aquellas que situaban la unidad de la literatura estadounidense en la continuidad histórica del pensamiento puritano; es decir, aquellos que restringían sus estudios a "those writers and texts that can be read in the allegedly idealized theme of Puritan theology, its allegorical worldview, or its symbolic denial of actual American experience" (Reising, 1986: 90). En este grupo entrarían críticos como Norman Foerster, Perry Miller, Yvor Winters, Leslie Fiedler y Sacvan Bercovitch. En segundo lugar, aquellas que estudiaban la literatura norteamericana a la luz de las diferentes interpretaciones de la cultura americana; esto es, aquellas que estaban deseosas "to celebrate a body of national classics -works that could be called quintessentially American by virtue of their unconventionality, their unboundedness, and their affirmation of innocence and democracy" (Crews, 1992: 21). Señalemos en este grupo a Lionel Trilling o Leo Marx. Por último, aquellas que buscaban el sentido de 'lo americano' de la literatura estadounidense en el estilo o en la lengua, y que reflexionaban sobre "a literature whose primary concern has always been its own nature..." (Dauber, 1977: 55). Destacan en este grupo F.O. Matthiessen, Charles Feidelson, Jr., Richard Poirier y Robert Spiller.

Cada uno de estos tres grupos exponía su manera particular de acercarse a la literatura norteamericana, influyendo en la conformación del canon y, al mismo tiempo, condicionando la docencia. Cánones que, en los tres casos, de nuevo dejaban fuera multitud de voces no influidas por la supuesta continuidad histórica del pensamiento puritano, por la herencia cultural occidental, o que no utilizaban las formas tradicionales de expresión literaria. En su prestigiosa obra *American Renaissance* (1941), F.O. Matthiessen se centraba en cinco grandes escritores: Ralph

---

[4] Para Paul Lauter, este grupo "reorganized literary scholarship and teaching in ways that not only asserted a male-centered culture and values for the college-educated leadership, but also enhanced their own authority and status as well" (1991: 29).

Waldo Emerson, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Herman Melville, Henry David Thoreau, y Walt Whitman. Por su parte, Robert Spiller editor, junto a otros críticos, de *Literary History of the United States* (1948), señalaba que el canon estaba constituido por los escritos de los cinco grandes designados por Matthiessen (Emerson, Hawthorne, Melville, Thoreau y Whitman), más Jonathan Edwards, Benjamin Franklin, Washington Irving, James Fenimore Cooper, Edgar Allan Poe, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, Oliver Wendell Holmes, William Dean Lowell, Sidney Lanier, Emily Dickinson, Mark Twain y Henry James. Queda claro, entonces, cómo los autores de las teorías descritas anteriormente estaban "united not only by who and what they do include, but by who and what they [excluded] as well" (Reising, 1986: 221). Estos críticos, hicieron, pues, un canon restrictivo y prescriptivo en el que prescindían de todos aquellos autores y obras que no cumplían sus principios ideológicos y estéticos. El resultado fue un cuerpo de crítica literaria que se centraba, principalmente, en los escritores anteriormente señalados y en el estudio de valores formales (estilo, ironías, mitos, metáforas, temas, etc.).

En los últimos treinta años, ya en la última etapa en la evolución del canon literario de Estados Unidos, las aproximaciones críticas a la literatura basadas en corrientes como el feminismo, el nuevo historicismo, el poscolonialismo, el posmodernismo, o los estudios culturales, han expandido el canon estadounidense de forma drástica. Estas nuevas teorías se han inclinado significativamente por la incorporación al canon de autores y obras anteriormente menospreciados. Autores que, casi siempre, han coincidido con la creación artística de mujeres y minorías, "and which often depended upon different conceptions of the literary…" (Streeby, 2010: 110). Partiendo de la idea de que la cultura estadounidense es, de por sí, híbrida (Clark, 1994), en esta tercera fase ya no se ven los productos culturales como "a preserve of white men whose contributions to the arts, literature, and science constitute its domain" (Giroux, 1994: 1). Muy al contrario, el canon tradicional, "…legitimated almost exclusively from a European model of culture and civilization…" (Giroux, 1994: 1), se desafía, pues este no es más que un cuerpo

literario, o como lo ha definido Raymond Williams (citado en Krupat, 1989: 23) una "selective tradition", cuyos componentes sirven para justificar "the prevailing social order…" (Krupat, 1989: 22), y aceptar "the world view of the socially dominant class" (Krupat, 1989: 22).

En los Estados Unidos, los movimientos sociales de los años sesenta del pasado siglo lograron que mujeres y miembros de distintas minorías pudieran acceder en gran número a las universidades estadounidenses. Al incorporarse primero como estudiantes y, más tarde, como integrantes de la academia, estos grupos empezaron a cuestionar las asunciones sobre el canon literario heredadas de sus profesores. El resultado fue la apertura de la tradición literaria canónica y el descubrimiento o redescubrimiento de numerosos creadores marginados en el canon tradicional, en el que se incluyeron a las minorías de color, los nativos americanos, las mujeres, los gais y las lesbianas, y autores cuya lengua no era el inglés.[5] Lo que emergió fue "a wealth of literary texts generated from before 1493 and into the present by a wide array of diverse Americans" (Elliott, 2010: 10). A la vez, formas de escritura repudiadas por las generaciones de críticos anteriores, "…from slave narratives to the blues, from occasional poetry to abolitionist tracts… have come to be analyzed, commented upon, and studied in literature seminars" (Lauter, 2010: 2). Lo que se renueva, junto a la apertura del canon, es la propia definición de 'lo literario', haciendo que el terreno de lo que identificamos como literatura estadounidense se haga más amplio y cambiante (Lauter, 2010).

¿Significa lo anteriormente expuesto que, con la apertura del canon y el reconocimiento de la literatura como algo más amplio a lo que tradicionalmente se ha considerado literario, las 'Guerras Culturales' han llegado a su fin en los Estados Unidos? Nada más

---

[5] "…the opening of the canon may be seen in at least three aspects: attention to a wider variety of kinds of writing (including autobiography among the kinds of non-fictional prose that may be read as literature); attention to a wider variety of writers; and self-conscious attention to the formation of what we study, which involves the realization that the canon -as well as the sort of thinking that organizes various forms of social life into 'kinds'- are themselves changing, historical artifacts" (Williams, 2003: 21).

alejado de la realidad (Chambers y Gregory, 2006). En la última década, como apuntan Bona y Maini (2006: 2; 8) se ha producido en los campus del país una nueva tendencia a preponderar las denominadas 'Grandes Obras' frente a la literatura que muestra la diversidad estadounidense. Aún más, muchos profesores y críticos literarios todavía consideran la apertura del canon como una trivialización de la literatura, producto de las imposiciones de la posmodernidad y los estudios culturales[6] (Marías, Alcalde y Portela, 2019). Estos académicos o bien no ven necesario impartir esta literatura considerada como 'no canónica', por lo que prefieren que se relegue a asignaturas especiales u optativas, o bien se limitan a incluir "a token writer or two in their reading lists, usually to be taught at the end of the term" (Bona y Maini, 2006: 6).

Por otro lado, los defensores de la apertura del canon continúan defendiendo que la enseñanza de la literatura no puede desasociarse:

> […] from the contemporary setting in terms of technological innovations, a lack of adaptation to the students' real use situations, the exclusive identification of text with printed paper and, in the case of literary reading, the restriction to the so-called canonical works in detriment of other possibilities (Ibarra-Rius y Ballester-Roca, 2019: 242).

La controversia que rodea la apertura del canon en los Estados Unidos va más allá del simple hecho de decantarse por unos autores y

---

[6] No todos coincidían con la necesidad de que esta multiculturalidad debiera llegar a las aulas, y en "the late 1980s and early 1990s critics such as Allan Bloom, E.D. Hirsch, Jr., and Dinesh D'Souza targeted affirmative action policies and accused multiculturalists of politicizing the curriculum and undermining US schools' mission to inculcate American and Western values" (Streeby, 2010: 116-117). Estos críticos, buscaban, pues, reconstruir una cultura nacional estadounidense, que realmente nunca existió, demonizando lo que les era ajeno a esa tradición.

sus obras en perjuicio de otros[7]. Esta decisión, a la que se ven abocados los profesores universitarios (aunque también los de los estadios educativos inferiores), "impels people", dice William Cain, "to make decisions about the degree to which America's diverse population will be represented in institutional life…" (citado en Bona y Maini, 2006: 2). Cuando el canon se abandona en favor de los márgenes, la focalización en los estudiantes es la consecuencia natural, lo que lleva a los académicos a preguntarse "who speaks, who listens, and why" (Rogers, 1997: 112), dotando a las clases de literatura de la coherencia cultural necesaria para poder entender "the diversity that characterizes the contemporary United States" (Elliott, 2010: 10).

Las 'Guerra Culturales' se han extendido más allá de las fronteras estadounidenses, afectando a los estudios de la literatura estadounidense en el resto del mundo, incluida, claro está, España. El problema reside, por tanto, en cómo realizar una presentación de esta literatura en el aula, respondiendo a todas las sensibilidades. Como señalan Bona y Maini (2006: 2), "…the cultural conflict about what constitutes literature worthy of examination is oversimplified, clearly dividing conservatives and liberals, as though no overlap exists". Sí que entendemos, como Bona y Maini, que existe una postura intermedia y es, lógicamente, la adopción de una apuesta ecléctica en el aula. Reconocemos que es posible encontrar un solapamiento entre las posiciones conservadoras, en contra de la apertura del canon, y las más liberales, favorecedoras de su apertura. Somos conscientes de que es necesaria la enseñanza de las grandes obras canónicas de la literatura estadounidense; pero, de igual manera, en vez de centrarnos de forma exclusiva en el sempiterno debate de si ciertas creaciones deben ser parte del canon o no, preferimos explorar "how one might most

---

[7] En 1994, el crítico literario Harold Bloom publicó *The Western Canon: The Books and School of the Ages*. En este libro, Bloom recogía los autores que él consideraba los más importantes de la literatura occidental de todos los tiempos. En su obra, Bloom también acusaba a los defensores de la apertura del canon de ser parte de lo que denominaba la Escuela del Resentimiento. A ella pertenecerían todos aquellos que, desde distintas aproximaciones, defendían desde los años setenta la apertura del canon. Bloom los desdeñaba porque estos críticos y sus escuelas de análisis primaban los social sobre lo estético.

profitably approach teaching them" (Beach, Appleman, Hynds y Wilhelm, 2011: 63).

3. El canon en nuestra aula de literatura norteamericana

Ya hemos explicado que en las pasadas tres décadas, los investigadores han redescubierto y estudiado autores de minorías o mujeres a los que no se había prestado atención. Estos críticos, dice Lauter, desafiaron "the literary categories and the historical constructs that helped to produce a narrow 'canon' of American literature" (1984: 36). El resultado ha sido la apertura del canon para incluir en el campo de la enseñanza lo que ya se venía haciendo en el de la investigación: dar voz a textos escritos por mujeres, inmigrantes y minorías (étnicas o sexuales). La realidad cultural de los Estados Unidos, marcada por un multiculturalismo visible en las aulas de la enseñanza superior, parece el marco idóneo para la inclusión, junto a los autores considerados tradicionales, de obras y autores antes no recogidos por no satisfacer los gustos ideológicos o estéticos de la mayoría masculina, blanca, anglosajona y protestante (White Anglo-Saxon Protestant). Esta apertura supone, en aquel país, que grupos que antes no tenían acceso material a su tradición literaria ahora sí lo tengan -idea relacionada con la necesidad de asumir que la sociedad estadounidense es multicultural.

En los departamentos de Filología Inglesa de España no hemos sido ajenos a las 'Guerras Culturales' sobre el canon en la literatura de los países de habla inglesa. Es más, incluso en los departamentos hermanos de otras lenguas modernas, también en los de Filología Hispánica, se han dado confrontaciones entre defensores y detractores del canon. Las posibilidades ofrecidas a los docentes de literatura norteamericana en España de formarse en centros universitarios estadounidenses, mediante ayudas de estancia pre y posdoctorales, o, incluso, durante los estudios de grado y licenciatura, han ayudado a que, tanto su metodología pedagógica, como su técnica de análisis, hayan sido profundamente influidas por los movimientos en defensa y rechazo del canon literario tradicional que allí se han dado y se siguen dando. Tal y como reflejan los autores del, hasta el momento, único texto

colectivo sobre la enseñanza de la literatura estadounidense en la universidad española, editado por la profesora Carme Manuel (2001), la selección de los textos que enseñaban en sus clases estaba basada en los méritos literarios de los mismos, atendiendo a criterios como la multidimensionalidad de los personajes, la complejidad de los temas y la estructura formal. En el libro quedaba debiendo, sin embargo, la selección de textos de acuerdo con su relevancia cultural, como defienden los aperturistas. Es por ello por lo que, con este artículo, ponderamos la necesidad de conjugar de forma ecléctica la enseñanza y aprendizaje de las consideradas grandes obras de la literatura estadounidense (según el canon tradicional), junto a otras que, puestas en diálogo con las anteriores, también sean representativas del 'ser estadounidense' (según defienden los que propugnan la apertura del canon).

En el caso de la Universidad de Alcalá, como ocurre en la práctica totalidad de las universidades españolas, nuestros alumnos no responden a la heterogeneidad social estadounidense, siendo grupos mucho más homogéneos, en términos raciales, que no de clase u orientación sexual, que los de aquel país. Sin embargo, sí que comparten con los estudiantes estadounidenses, pues coinciden generacionalmente, el haberse desarrollado en una sociedad más tolerante y receptiva de lo que implica ser el 'Otro' (Sullivan, 2013; González-Anleo, 2017). Estos alumnos, los denominados *millennials*[8] (o Generación Y) y *centennials*[9] (o Generación Z), crecieron o han nacido en plena revolución tecnológica, lo que les ha influido de forma natural en su desarrollo como individuos y como parte de una comunidad. Además, estos alumnos han abierto una gran brecha con los profesores más mayores, a los que se denomina inmigrantes digitales,

---

[8] Los *millennials* son aquellos nacidos entre 1982 y 1994. Según Sullivan (2013: 201), "millennials are a large generation that is confident, team-oriented, and involved in their communities".

[9] Los *centennials* son los nacidos a partir de 1995 y no han conocido el mundo sin la existencia de internet. De la misma manera que la generación anterior, los *millennials*, los *centennials* también están preocupados por el bien común, pero son más pragmáticos, por lo que su deseo no es tanto cambiar el mundo como conseguir éxito social. La creatividad y la innovación son sus pilares ("Centennials").

pues estos tienen serias dificultades para integrar en sus metodologías las "dinámicas científicas, tecnológicas y humanas contemporáneas" (Morales Ruiz y Tavera Pérez, 2017: 3).

Nuestros jóvenes estudiantes son nativos digitales, lo que les ha convertido, al verse influidos por la cultura de la inmediatez, en expertos en manejar las nuevas tecnologías, estando también acostumbrados "a la interactividad y al desarrollo simultáneo de múltiples tareas" (Morales Ruiz y Tavera Pérez, 2017: 3). Tenemos pues una nueva generación de estudiantes mucho más respetuosos, capaces de empatizar con lo que se ha denominado el 'Otro', y con infinitos recursos electrónicos que, además, manejan a su antojo sin ningún tipo de complejo. Es normal pensar que su forma de acercarse a la literatura en general, y a la estadounidense en particular, esté mediatizada por su desarrollo personal. Como en todos los ámbitos, y la literatura no es una excepción, estos jóvenes están acostumbrados a cambiar el 'chip' en cuanto pierden el interés por lo que se les presenta (Owen, 2011: 1). ¿Quiere esto decir que no están preparados para enfrentarse a los retos de la considerada literatura canónica? No. Simplemente tienen muchas opciones[10] a su alcance para hacer su propia selección (Kent-Drury, 2005), atendiendo, de nuevo, a sus experiencias personales. Como muy bien señala Owen (2011: 165):

> […] young people are still reading, and if we don't step in and fill the gap between Henry James and *Harry Potter*, *Harry Potter* it will be. Or *Twilight*. Or something worse. In fact, if we think books like the *Harry Potter* and *Twilight* series are so much worse than the ones we teach, perhaps we should have to explain why.

Quizás sea cierto que, en la era de las nuevas tecnologías, el canon sea un concepto obsoleto y que ya no se pueda decir que lo que leemos es el canon y que lo que está en el canon es lo que leemos (Owen, 2011: 156). Incluso el formato de lo que denominamos libro

---

[10] No debemos olvidar que son *millennials* y *centennials*, por lo que desde "…Manga sites to text messaging, [they are] intricately entwined with a vast network of electronic and popular texts" (Beach *et al.*, 2011: 19)

está cambiando, dado que la ficción y la no ficción electrónica están, como señalan Beach *et al.*, "rivaling print literature as ebooks become more available and popular" (2011: 79). Las propias antologías de la literatura estadounidense, que desde finales de los años 80 y a comienzos de las 'Guerras Culturales' abrieron el canon a perspectivas literarias antes no recogidas, hoy, y para no quedarse atrás en los avances tecnológicos y en los gustos de los nuevos lectores, también se han tenido que adaptar. Así, junto a los textos impresos, las antologías han incorporado CD-ROMs, videos, traducciones, transparencias, y otros materiales (Beach *et al.*, 2011: 92), a lo que se le podría añadir recursos electrónicos tan familiares para nuestros alumnos como 'fan sites', blogs, wikis o las propias páginas webs de los autores más contemporáneos.

Ante los cambios en el cuerpo estudiantil producidos por los nuevos desarrollos tecnológicos, queda por determinar qué metodología parece ser la más adecuada, de acuerdo con nuestra experiencia, en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de esta materia. En este sentido entendemos a Kent-Druy cuando afirma que la capacidad de realizar análisis críticos en estudios literarios es multifacética y compleja (2005: 2), y que, en cualquier caso, se debe pedir que los alumnos:

a) Aprendan a reconocer los elementos retóricos y formales del texto, aunque en muchas ocasiones la asignación de un texto a un género determinado sea dificultosa.

b) Aprendan a evaluar la circunstancia social que produce una obra y a considerar la comunicación que pasa del escritor al lector a través de los editores y, en el caso de las obras de teatro, a través de los directores, el escenario, el atrezo y los actores.

c) Aprendan a evaluar los motivos históricos y circunstancias particulares del autor y que le llevan a la producción de un texto literario.

d) Aprendan a identificar cómo sus propias experiencias marcan su interpretación del texto, a la vez que posicionan

esa interpretación dentro de una posible escuela de crítica literaria.

Por nuestra parte, como docentes, creemos que es también necesario en ese proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje:

(1) Abordar la desconexión entre las prácticas de lectura de nuestros estudiantes y nuestro canon de enseñanza; y

(2) Entender que nuestros alumnos no se preocupan de que un libro sea canónico o no; solo quieren que ese libro les de algo interesante, algo que les ayude a entender el mundo en el que viven (Beach *et al.*, 2011: 69).

Para lograrlo, la apuesta más segura es la de adoptar una postura ecléctica, que conjugue la necesidad de que nuestros alumnos conozcan las obras literarias del canon, en su acepción más tradicional, pero que pongan en diálogo esas creaciones con otras formas artísticas más acordes con la realidad social del panorama literario estadounidense.

Abrazando esta posición, y tal como proponen los estudios culturales[11], ya al principio de este trabajo explicamos que éramos partidarios de expandir el concepto de 'lo literario' a otras creaciones, como cartas y diarios, canciones populares, corridos[12] o sermones, pero también tiras cómicas, o literatura fan, por ser la forma empleada en la

---

[11] Los estudios culturales no siguen realmente una teoría en particular sino que, más bien, utilizan "a general set of strategies of literary interpretation and pedagogy that favour 'contextualising' literary study within historical practices, political configurations and social situations rather than engage with questions of literary quality or value. Such strategies often involve an interest in studying non-canonical, 'popular' literature or fictions, including romance novels, science fiction, soap operas, films, comics . . . and may also include performance studies and other approaches designed to underscore the arbitrary, historical nature of the 'old' canon and to suggest that study of a much wider range of kinds of literary representation is both educationally progressive and politically liberating (Chambers y Gregory, 2006: 28).
[12] Así lo entiende, por ejemplo, Streeby (2010: 113) cuando afirma que: "The spoken word poetry of the Nuyorican writers also demands an understanding of the oral dimensions of literature, and this is true as well of Chicana/o *corridos*, or border ballads, and the large body of Chicana/o poetry, fiction, and drama that draws on or incorporates oral literary elements".

expresión poética de ciertos grupos que no tenían acceso a las formas tradicionales de creación. Es decir, en la selección del material para el aula vamos a defender la apertura del canon. Esta aproximación no debe significar en ningún modo la eliminación de los textos considerados canónicos, por su condición de fundacionales y fundamentales en el estudio del pensamiento literario norteamericano. Aún más, coincidimos con Cerrillo y Sánchez Ortiz (2019: 23) en que el canon puede "ayudar mucho a la educación literaria de los adolescentes y jóvenes, contribuyendo a la formación de su imaginario colectivo". Empero, creemos necesario la incorporación de textos que muestren la variedad multicultural y social de los Estados Unidos. Ahí es, precisamente, donde entran en juego las experiencias, las voces de autores y de obras que tradicionalmente han estado al margen en las aulas, antologías e historias de literatura norteamericana. La visión que reciban nuestros alumnos sobre esta literatura será mucho más enriquecedora y formativa que si nos limitamos a un grupo de obras u otras. Todas forman parte de la experiencia estadounidense, ya sea de carácter universal o individual.

Un error común en las aulas ha sido contrastar los textos canónicos con los no canónicos, mostrando las deficiencias de los segundos para ensalzar las magnificencias de los primeros. Esta metodología de enseñanza continuaba la tradición canónica, primando a unos autores y a unas obras por su valía estética o por afinidad ideológica. Los defensores de la apertura del canon a nuevas voces rechazan de plano tal comparación, buscando nuevas fórmulas de entendimiento entre el canon tradicional y la incorporación de nuevos textos al aula. Tanto Martha Cutter (1995), Anne Stavney (1995), Charles Vandersee (1994) o más recientemente Beach, Appleman, Hynds y Wilhelm (2011), Owen (2011) o Sullivan (2013) proponen que la mejor manera de introducir un texto no canónico en el aula es exponerlo en un diálogo con otras voces de ese mismo periodo o periodos distintos, canónicas o no, para apreciar la distinta o similar visión que de una experiencia particular o hecho histórico determinado presenta cada autor. De esta manera, no se crea un canon paralelo, sino

que se extiende el canon a la literatura, autores y comunidades que antes no aparecían representadas.

Sirvan los siguientes casos, sacados de nuestra propuesta curricular para los programas de literatura norteamericana en la Universidad de Alcalá, como ejemplos. Para que nuestros alumnos tengan una visión amplia del tema de la esclavitud y la violencia hacia a los negros de Estados Unidos se propone poner en diálogo obras como *Huckleberry Finn*, de Mark Twain, con textos escritos por afroamericanos como la primera parte de *Their Eyes Were Watching God* de Zora Neale Hurston, *Beloved* de Toni Morrison, o incluso con creaciones más recientes como la canción y el video "This is America" del cantante Childish Gambino. Incluso más, si una de las características de la propia posmodernidad es la ruptura del contenido en favor de la forma, como en las obras de Thomas Pynchon, por qué no estudiarlo en diálogo con *The Mixquiahuala Letters* de Ana Castillo, considerada como una de las mejores obras literarias chicanas, y en la que la forma del texto sobresale como parte de las cualidades de la posmodernidad. Y, como última muestra, acercar a los estudiantes al goticismo tradicional, encarnado en la figura de Edgar Allan Poe, a través de la literatura popular con la Saga Crespúsculo de Stephenie Meyer, pero sobre todo con la autora "Best-Seller" Anne Rice y su reconocida *Interview with the Vampire*. Obra esta última en la que la autora presenta personajes alienados, insatisfechos con su naturaleza y en rebelión con una sociedad posmoderna, de crimen y caos, y que bien pudiera explicar a nuestros alumnos thrillers cinematográficos de éxito y sobradamente conocidos por ellos como *The Purge*.

La intención con esta pedagogía ecléctica no es ni definir exclusivamente los textos no canónicos como aquellas obras que "in various ways (formally, aesthetically, ideologically) critique the hegemonic discourses of the time period and work to create alternative paradigms" (Cutter, 1995: 123), ni mostrar a los autores canónicos que representan el pensamiento dominante como racistas o sexistas. Más bien, la intención es ver cómo los textos canónicos muestran una visión ideológica de los Estados Unidos que los textos no canónicos critican,

no comparten o a la que ofrecen una alternativa. El objetivo es, en definitiva, "to uncover the hidden ideologies of the canon and bring less enfranchised perspective into a more meaningful dialogue with 'classic' texts." (Cutter, 1995: 123). Sería necesario, entonces, que el profesor esté preparado para, como antes señalamos, poder ofrecer a sus alumnos una aproximación contextual e ideológica a las obras, junto a las apreciaciones estéticas.

Puestas en diálogo, las obras canónicas pueden ser complementadas por las no canónicas, y los textos no canónicos pueden ser complementados por los canónicos. La utilización y estudio de los textos no canónicos se convierte, así, en una actuación, no solo políticamente correcta, sino cultural e históricamente correcta. Por eso, "if we are interested in understanding how the canon constitutes a play of voices, of text and subtext, then we must utilize an approach which allows this play of voices to be heard" (Cutter, 1995: 122). Es necesario crear un diálogo productivo entre los textos canónicos y no canónicos mediante la confrontación de ideologías que muestran la experiencia de 'ser estadounidense' desde perspectivas muy distintas. Hemos de dejar muy claro, sin embargo, que los textos canónicos deben ser estudiados por ser los que representan y reflejan la ideología dominante. Pero, dejando igualmente de claro que, como bien apunta el crítico Paul Lauter (2010: 3), "the terrain we identify as "American literature" is vast – and changing".

4.- Conclusión

Teniendo presente que, como señala Sullivan (2013: 203), las nuevas generaciones de alumnos, los *millenials* y los *centennials*, responden muy bien "to teachers who are enthusiastic about teaching, who challenge them intellectually, and who are responsive to students…", nuestra visión de la literatura norteamericana en el aula es el resultado de la postura ecléctica a la que hemos hecho referencia a lo largo de todo este trabajo. Postura que queda refrendada en la selección de textos que empleamos en nuestra docencia. Baste decir como

corolario que, de cara a la programación, defendemos el que, en las asignaturas introductorias, como la clase de *Great Works of Literature in the English Language*, se emplee, en la parte correspondiente a los Estados Unidos, obras consideradas canónicas, pues es esencial que los alumnos conozcan los textos fundamentales y fundacionales de la literatura norteamericana, puestas en diálogo, aunque no de forma cuantitativa, sino cualitativa, con otras formas de creación artística no canónicas. Y en asignaturas subsiguientes, como *American Fiction* u otras asignaturas de carácter optativo (como las que se imparten en el curso 2018-2019 en la Universidad de Alcalá, y que son *Gendered Racial and Earth Others in Contemporary Literature in English* y *Contemporary American Poetry*), nuestra selección de textos sea aún más ecléctica, haciendo uso en el aula de obras no canónicas junto a las ya establecidas, y ofreciendo al alumnado una visión más completa y más correcta de la evolución del pensamiento creativo de la literatura norteamericana.

Bibliography

Alberti, J. (Ed.) (1995). *The Canon in the Classroom. The Pedagogical Implications of Canon Review in American Literature.* Nueva York: Garland Publishers.

Beach, R.; D. Appleman; S. Hynds, y Wilhelm, J. (2011). *Teaching Literature to Adolescents*. Nueva York: Routledge.

Bloom, H. (1994). *The Western Canon: The Books and School of the Ages*. Nueva York: Harcourt Brace & Co.

Bona, M. J., y Maini, I. (2006). Introduction: Multiethnic Literature in the Millennium. En M. J. Bona y I. Maini (Eds.), *Multiethnic Literature and Canon Debates* (pp. 1-22). Nueva York: SUNY Press.

Carrió-Pastor, M. L. (Ed.) (2019). *Teaching Language and Teaching Literature in Virtual Environments*. Singapur: Springer. Doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-1358-5.

Cerrillo, P. C., y Sánchez Ortiz, C. (2019). Clásicos e hitos literarios. Su contribución a la educación literaria. *Tejuelo 29*, 11-30. doi: https://doi.org/10.17398/1988-8430.29.11.

Centennials: características principales de la nueva generación. *Portal Uni>ersia* (2019, 4 febrero). Obtenido 16 febrero 2019, desde http://noticias.universia.es/cultura/noticia/2017/03/28/1150982/centenni als-caracteristicas-principales-nueva-generacion.html.

Chambers, E., y Gregory, M. (2006). *Teaching & Learning English Literature*. Londres: SAGE Publications.

Clark, S. (1994). Discipline and Resistance: The Subjects of Writing and the Discourses of Instruction. En K. Myrsiades y L. S. Myrsiades (Eds.), *Margins in the Classroom: Teaching Literature* (pp. 121-136). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Crews, F. (1992). *The Critics Bear It Away: American Fiction and the Academy*. Nueva York: Randon House.

Cunliffe, M. (1987). *The Literature of the United States*. Londres: Penguin.

Cutter, M. J. (1995). If It's Monday This Must Be Melville. A 'Canon, Anticanon' Approach to Redefining the American Literature Survey. En J. Alberti (Ed.), *The Canon in the Classroom. The Pedagogical Implications of Canon Review in American Literature* (pp. 119-151). Nueva York: Garland Publishers.

Dauber, K. (1977). Criticism of American Literature. *Diacritics*, *7*, 55-66.

Elliott, E. (2010). The Emergence of the Literatures of the United States. En P. Lauter (Ed.), *A Companion to American Literature and Culture* (pp. 9-25). Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.

Foley, B. (1994). Subversion and Oppositionality in the Academia. En K. Myrsiades y L. S. Myrsiades (Eds.), *Margins in the Classroom: Teaching Literature* (pp. 137-152). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Gates Jr., H. L. (1992). *Loose Canons. Notes on the Culture Wars*. Oxford: O.U.P.

Giroux, H. A. (1994). Rethinking the Boundaries of Educational Discourse: Modernism, Postmodernism and Feminism. En K. Myrsiades y L. S. Myrsiades (Eds.), *Margins in the Classroom:*

Teaching Literature (pp. 1-51). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

González-Anleo, J. M. (2017). Valores morales, finales y confianza en las instituciones: un desgaste que se acelera. En J.M. González-Anleo y J.A. López-Ruiz (Eds.), *Jóvenes Españoles entre Dos Siglos 1984-2017* (pp. 13-52). Madrid: Fundación SM.

Henry, N. (2003). Teaching the Victorians Today. En Agathocleous y Dean (Eds.), *Teaching Literature. A Companion* (pp. 49-57). Nueva York: Palgrave.

Ibarra-Rius, N., y Ballester-Roca, J. (2019). Digital Storytelling in Teacher Training: Development of Basic Competences, Creativity and Multimodal Literacy Through Book Trailers. En M. L. Carrió-Pastor (Ed.), *Teaching Language and Teaching Literature in Virtual Environments* (pp. 241-254). Singapur: Springer. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-1358-5

Jakobson, R. (1960). Closing statements: Linguistics and Poetics. En T. A. Sebeok (Ed.), *Style in Language* (pp. 350-377). Cambridge, MA: The Technology Press of Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Kent-Drury, R. M. (2005). *Using Internet Primary Sources to Teach Critical Thinking Skills in World Literature.* Westport: Libraries Unlimited.

Krupat, A. (1989). *The Voice in the Margin: Native American Literature and the Canon.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Lauter, P. (Ed) (1984). Reconstructing American Literature: A Synopsis of an Educational Project of the Feminist Press. *MELUS*, *11*(1), 33-43.

Lauter, P. (Ed). (1991). *Canons and Contexts.* Oxford: O.U.P.

Lauter, P. (Ed). (2010). *A Companion to American Literature and Culture.* Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.

Lauter, P. (Ed). (2010). Introduction. En P. Lauter (Ed.), *A Companion to American Literature and Culture* (pp. 1-5). Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.

Lee, J. H. X., y Pham, M. Thi (2013). Pedagogy for Healing and Justice through Cambodian American Literature. En M. A. Raja, H.

Stringer y Z. Van de Zande (Eds.), *Critical pedagogy and global literature: worldly teaching* (pp. 97-111). Nueva York: Palgrave.

Manuel, C. (Ed.) (2001). *Teaching American Literature in Spanish Universities*. Biblioteca Javier Coy. Valencia: Servicio de Publicaciones de la Universidad de Valencia.

Marías, C.; E. Alcalde Peñalver, y A. Portela Lopa (2019). Teaching Poetry Through Songs in a Virtual Environment: From Students' Reluctance to Their Acquiescence. En M. L. Carrió-Pastor (Ed.), *Teaching Language and Teaching Literature in Virtual Environments* (pp. 255-275). Singapur: Springer. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-1358-5.

Matthiessen, F. O. (1941). *American Renaissance. Art and Expression in the Age of Emerson and Whitman*. Oxford: O.U.P.

Morales Ruiz, J., y Tavera Pérez, I. (2017). Millennials, centennials, tecnología y educación superior: El modelo LEKTURE. *Educación Superior, Innovación e Internacionalización*, 1-5. Obtenido 15 enero 2019, desde http://repository.cuaed.unam.mx:8080/xmlui/handle/123456789/5015.

Myrsiades, K., y Myrsiades, L. S. (Eds.) (1994). *Margins in the Classroom: Teaching Literature*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Owen Jr., D. P. (2011). *The Need for Revision Curriculum, Literature, and the 21st Century*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Raja, M. A., Stringer, H., y Van de Zande, Z. (Eds) (2013). *Critical Pedagogy and Global Literature: Worldly Teaching*. Nueva York: Palgrave.

Reising, R. J. (1986). *The Unusable Past Theory and the Study of American Literature*. Nueva York: Methuen.

Renker, E. (2010). Academicizing 'American Literature'. En P. Lauter (Ed.), *A Companion to American Literature and Culture* (pp. 57-71). Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.

Rogers, T. (1997). No Imagined Peaceful Place A Story of Community, Texts, and Cultural Conversations in One Urban High School English Classroom. En T. Rogers (Ed.), *Reading Across Cultures: Teaching Literature in a Diverse Society* (pp. 95-115). Nueva York: Teachers College Press.

Schudson, M. (1994). The New Validation of Popular Culture: Sense and Sentimentality in Academia. En J. Storey (Ed.), *Cultural Theory and Popular Culture. A Reader* (pp. 486-494). Nueva York: Harvester-Wheatsheaf.

Spiller, R. W., Thorp, T. H., Johnson, H. S. Canby, H. M., Jones, D. Wecter, y Williams, S. T. (Eds.) (1948). *Literary History of the United States*. Nueva York: The Macmillan Company.

Stavney, Anne (1995). Conversing Texts. The Disinvention of American Modernism. En J. Alberti (Ed.), *The Canon in the Classroom. The Pedagogical Implications of Canon Review in American Literature* (pp. 153-164). Nueva York: Garland Publishers.

Streeby, Shelley (2010). Multiculturalism and Forging New Canons". En P. Lauter (Ed.), *A Companion to American Literature and Culture* (pp. 110-1215). Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.

Sullivan, M. M. (2013). Cycles of Opportunity: On the Value and Efficacy of Native American Literature in Teaching World Literature to Millennials. En M. A. Raja, H. Stringer y Z. Van de Zande (Eds.), *Critical pedagogy and global literature: worldly teaching* (pp. 201-211). Nueva York: Palgrave.

Vandersee, C. (1994). American Parapedagogy for 2000 and Beyond: Intertextual, International, Industrial Strength. *American Literary History*, *6* (3), 409-433.

Wellek, R., y Warren, A. (1956). *Theory of Literature*. Harmondsworth: Peregrine Books.

Williams, C. (2003). Teaching Autobiography. En T. Agathocleous y A. C. Dean (Eds.), *Teaching Literature. A Companion* (pp. 11-30). Nueva York: Palgrave.

L1 in CLIL: the case of Castilla-La Mancha [*]

L1 en AICLE: el caso de Castilla-La Mancha

Ana Martín-Macho Harrison
Facultad de Educación de Toledo, Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha
ana.martinmacho@uclm.es
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7147-6098

Fátima Faya Cerqueiro
Facultade de Educación, Universidade de Santiago de Compostela
fatima.faya@usc.es
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5823-1934

---

[*] The authors are grateful to the research group *CACLE* (*Comunicación, Aprendizaje y Competencias en Lengua Extranjera*) for their generous help.

Resumen: La enseñanza AICLE implica impartir una DNL (Disciplina No Lingüística) a través de una segunda lengua o lengua extranjera (L2), integrando lengua y contenido. Sin embargo, esta descripción general ignora los contextos docentes donde se emplea la lengua materna (L1). La elección de la lengua puede tener consecuencias tanto en la metodología, en situaciones de aula que favorezcan el uso de la L1, como en los instrumentos de evaluación. Actualmente, los investigadores admiten la importancia de la L1 en AICLE y la legislación sigue gradualmente sus indicaciones. Se ha llevado a cabo un estudio piloto entre maestros de Educación Primaria en la comunidad autónoma de Castilla-La Mancha, España, con el fin de comprobar cómo se abordan estos temas/retos en la escuela. El objetivo del presente estudio es comparar los principales puntos de vista de los agentes implicados en AICLE. El estudio presenta una revisión bibliográfica de las tendencias y estudios recientes sobre AICLE y muestra cómo los últimos cambios legislativos en nuestra región se han adaptado a la investigación. Las opiniones expresadas por maestros en activo revelan la necesidad de indicaciones más claras en la legislación, que debe acercarse a la práctica docente.

Palabras clave: AICLE; Evaluación; Educación Primaria; Legislación Educativa.

Abstract: CLIL settings involve teaching a content subject through a second or foreign language (L2), integrating both language and content. However, this general description ignores classroom scenarios which include the use of the mother tongue (L1). The language choice may affect both methodological practices, namely classroom situations that favour the use of the L1, and also assessment instruments. Nowadays, scholars admit on the relevance of the L1 in CLIL and legislation gradually adapts to these indications. We have conducted a pilot study among primary school teachers in the autonomous region of Castilla-La Mancha, Spain, in order to check how these issues are tackled at school. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to establish a comparison between the main views expressed by stakeholders involved in CLIL. The study presents a review of recent trends and studies in CLIL research that take into account the role of the L1 in methodology and in assessment, and it shows how recent policy changes in our region have adapted to research. Opinions held by in-service teachers reveal the need for clear policy guidelines, which must necessarily be close to classroom practice.

Keywords: CLIL; Assessment; Primary Education; Educative Legislation.

Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is nowadays a well-established methodology, and as such it has experienced a growth in the range of research areas explored by scholars. Most common topics regard benefits and outcomes of CLIL instruction: it favours receptive skills and vocabulary in the L2; whereas writing and syntax seem unaffected (Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Pérez-Vidal, 2011).

CLIL is often portrayed as a particularly useful approach from Secondary Education onwards, when students have already a thorough knowledge of the L2. Nevertheless, different scholars have argued in favour of an early implementation, which can provide learners with more communication and interaction opportunities from a younger age and also because primary school teachers can take advantage of the different subjects they teach to establish interconnections (cf. Massler, Stotz and Queisser, 2014: 137-138).

Given the different educational policies across Europe, the CLIL approach has been adapted and used differently depending on

legislative frameworks and on the particular needs of students and schools in each region (Coyle, Holmes and King, 2009: 6). Whereas most CLIL materials might be shared by teachers from different countries or regions, this is not always the case with assessment rubrics and instruments which must necessarily be adapted to the local norms.

Our study focuses on the combination of two of the least explored aspects within CLIL research: L1 and assessment. On the one hand, the use of L1 has traditionally been controversial. Scholars have recently tried to answer questions such as whether L1 should be allowed at all or even used for methodological purposes. There seems to have been an evolution from an L2-only policy to a more encompassing and less strict approach which welcomes translanguaging, defined by García as "the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximize communicative potential" (2009: 140). Following Lasagabaster (2016: 252): "despite a widespread unwritten policy boosting the exclusive use of English, the most prevalent bilingual practice seems to be translanguaging".

On the other hand, probably due to its particular characteristics, assessment is one of the least explored aspects. According to Astin and Antonio (2012: 3) "the term *assessment* can refer to two different activities: (a) the mere gathering of information (measurement) and (b) the use of that information for institutional and individual improvement (evaluation)". Suskie (2018: 10) summarises the three aims of assessment as "ensuring and improving educational quality, stewardship and accountability." Formative assessment, as opposed to summative, is useful and necessary for teachers and students to see progression, although assessment in our education system is generally associated to grading purposes. Here, we will use *assessment* as an umbrella term.

In CLIL contexts, it can be difficult to decide how to assign weights to content and to language when not specified by the legislator, and it is similarly problematic to decide if the L1 is allowed to play any role in the assessment process. Coyle *et al.* propose a holistic assessment of language and content in early stages (2009: 20).

However, analytic rubrics can provide a greater amount of feedback and are also proposed as useful tools to integrate language and content assessment, as lexicon and grammar, among other language features, are needed to express content (cf. Barbero, 2012).

In this paper we aim to contrast what theorists say about L1 in CLIL settings, what legislation establishes and what practitioners do, more specifically in Primary Education schools in Castilla-La Mancha, a region which has fostered bilingual education programmes for several decades and where policies have recently changed. This paper discusses the results of a pilot study carried out before this change, which was designed taking into account some of the major concerns of CLIL teachers (cf. Llinares, Morton and Whittaker, 2012).

1. The role of L1 in CLIL

1. 1. L1 in methodology

Early approaches on CLIL favoured an L2-only classroom to teach the contents through the foreign language, and the proposal of a monolingual environment was the ideal practitioners should aspire to. There is also a traditional widespread belief that multilinguals' communicative competence should equate to those of a monolingual (cf. Gorter and Cenoz, 2017). Lin (2015) links this idea to the influence of second/foreign language acquisition on CLIL, and more specifically to issues such as the "maximum input hypothesis", which advocates for providing learners with the maximum amount of input in order to favour L2 acquisition. As noted by Moore and Nikula (2016), the concept of 'bilingual' could also be related to the early expectations behind bilingual education, understood as two independent monolingual contexts which did not consider the integration of several languages within the classroom nor its benefits. However, there seems to be a gradual acceptance of the use of the L1 when teaching non-linguistic subjects through an L2. As Kiely indicates: "In most contexts, the CLIL classroom is a classroom of two languages, L1 and L2. The challenge for the teacher is managing the roles these play" (Kiely, 2011: 55).

Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 15-16) admit on the possible coexistence of the L1 and the L2 in the classroom for different purposes, sometimes making a systematic use of each of them in order to favour the teaching-learning process. In fact, some studies have shown some systematicity in code-switching or translanguaging in CLIL, as more L1 tends to be used in non-planned situations, in classroom management language or when glossing (cf. Streeter, 2016).

While using the L2 only would be the most desired situation, the language choice could bring along positive and negative issues. When teachers tend to use the L2 most of the time, learners are more exposed to this language and can feel more confident when using it. On the contrary, sceptics might point at disadvantages such as the possible affectation of comprehension and the minor participation by students that are prompted to use the foreign language only (cf. Kiely, 2011). These possible caveats have been refuted by different researchers who claim that the cognitive effort becomes an important stimulus for content learning (cf. Berger, 2016) and motivational goals behind CLIL are by far confirmed (cf. Lasagabaster, Doiz and Sierra, 2014).

Translanguaging seems nowadays one of the most widely accepted approaches given that this concept is close to the real picture of the classroom and can be a beneficial asset in language learning (García, 2009; Lin, 2015; Moore and Nikula, 2016). Even second and foreign language learning welcomes this approach to make the most of learners' linguistic knowledge (cf. Miri, Alibakhshi and Mostafaei-Alaei, 2016; Turnbull, 2018).

Some suggestions for effective first language use in the classroom include checking comprehension in the L1, teaching terminology in the first language, promoting the exploration of content in both languages or using the L1 to support learning (Kiely, 2011: 62-64). In this respect, Kiely (2011) mentions resorting to summary explanations, using bilingual materials or adding L1 glosses. Some classroom events might require the eventual use of the L1 for methodological purposes, such as scaffolding, especially for beginners, since most common situations that justify this practice would be "the

initial stages of CLIL implementation or with students who are only just starting to learn the foreign language" (Massler, 2011: 73). Other typical situations include facilitating students' comprehension of difficult concepts (Streeter, 2016).

Recent research reveals that main usage of L1 in the CLIL classroom is usually unplanned, and it displays specific functions. Lin (2015: 79) classifies these into three general groups: ideational (i.e. translating or explaining, among others), textual (i.e. structuring lessons or topic shifts) and interpersonal (as in negotiations). Other scholars have identified specific uses, such as teachers raising awareness, encouraging or motivating students; it can help structuring the discourse and may be used by students to show affective functions, such as expressing feelings or personal requests, or to ask for unknown vocabulary to facilitate task completion (Nikula and Moore, 2016; García Mayo and Hidalgo, 2017; Pavón and Ramos, 2018). This use of the L1 to ask about vocabulary is expected to decrease over time in oral testing (Serra, 2007).

CLIL settings include a heterogeneous group of classrooms with different linguistic repertoires, teachers with different training backgrounds, students with different needs and in countries or regions with different policies. Therefore, "[i]t is unlikely that research findings, policy statements, or pedagogical practices that are applicable to one variety of CLIL would be appropriate for all renditions of CLIL" (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2014: 357-358). CLIL practitioners have to handle the languages in their classroom depending on their specific situations, being aware that L1 can be a useful resource which must be used to enhance students' learning only in order to avoid "linguistically lazy" students (Streeter, 2016: 251). Lin (2015) stands for a careful and systematic planning in the integration of L1 and L2 in the CLIL classroom. Several experts agree on the fact that teachers lack proper guidance on how to use the L1 in their CLIL classroom (cf. Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2017; Pavón and Ramos, 2018) and agree on the need for further research.

1. 2. L1 in the assessment process

Methodological issues constitute a challenge for CLIL practitioners and so does assessment. As Mohan, Leung and Slatter observe, "[i]n an increasing number of education systems, an integrated language approach to language and content *instruction* for second language learners is mandated policy. However, in a striking inconsistency, policy for integrated language and content *assessment* is essentially absent" (2010: 217). Language objectives, although secondary to content, should be part of CLIL units (Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 115), however, they are blurred or even nonexistent in some CLIL contexts in Spain, among other reasons, probably due to subject teachers' lack of linguistic expertise, since they are not usually language specialists and because general education policies may not be enough to cover CLIL settings (Otto and Estrada, 2019).

As the main concern in CLIL assessment is generally content, assessment instruments are expected to resemble rather non-linguistic subjects taught in L1 than foreign language subjects, since students need to be graded according to the curriculum requirements. Assessment is probably one the most difficult aspects for CLIL teachers:

> Indeed, whenever groups of CLIL practitioners get together, assessment emerges as one of the issues that most concerns them, and many questions can arise about the role of language in assessment in CLIL. These include questions about the relative balance of content and language in CLIL assessment, or even whether language should be assessed at all. And, if language is to be assessed, what aspects of language, and how they can be integrated with content. Other questions concern the role of the L1 in assessment, such as whether students' use of the mother tongue as a communication strategy should have an effect on their grades (Llinares *et al.*, 2012: 280).

Barrios and Milla Lara (2018) observe that some participants in their research (teachers, parents and students from two provinces in Andalusia) feel differences between what CLIL policies state, that is the fact that content is given priority over language, and what happens in

their classrooms, a gap perceived by most primary school pupils and to a lesser extent by teachers and parents at Primary level (c. 30%-40%).

Although teachers are recommended not to focus on form (i.e. ignoring language mistakes) when testing content (cf. Dale and Tanner, 2012: 39) the emphasis on language is often restricted to mistakes correction or the so-called "language clinic" (cf. Hönig, 2010; Otto and Estrada, 2019). When including language competence in the assessment, grading can be affected by students' performance in the L2, especially in oral expression, an ability which can be acquired outside the classroom (cf. Hönig, 2010; Llinares *et al.*, 2012). Most common recommendations include using the least language by means of simple tasks such as binary questions (cf. Coyle *et al.*, 2010) so the L2 can still be part of the assessment process as language for the expression of content. Some scholars regard assessment itself as a "language process" since learning is expressed through language (cf. Mohan *et al.*, 2010: 221). Coyle *et al.* exemplify how to deal with these linguistic aims, which can contribute "to communicating the content effectively, or they may include notions (such as specialist vocabulary […]) or functions (such as the ability to discuss effectively) or even form focused (for example, effective use of the past tense)" (2010: 115).

Potential difficulties in students' L1 might pose a problem when instruction takes place in the L2 and the assessment is presented in L1, it may be difficult for learners, since the "specialist vocabulary needed for the content area is simply not known in the first language, because the topic has been taught through the CLIL language" (Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 118).

Some authors suggest reducing linguistic requirements in early stages, providing even assessment in L1 or spoken tests in both languages (Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011: 266). Teachers may allow flexibility in students' language choice when assessed, but if instruction has taken place in the L2 only and assessment instruments are also in the L2, it may turn out that students' performance in the L1 is not as good as expected because they lack specific vocabulary (cf. Zafiri and Zouganeli, 2017).

Gablasova (2014) studied two groups of Slovak students from the same bilingual high school, the same contents were presented in their L1 (Slovak) to one of the groups and in their L2 (English) to the other. Her findings show certain constraints in bilingually educated students' L1 performance, as compared to those who receive instruction only in their L1, more specifically disfluencies and the use of inaccurate terms were observed in the L2-educated group. Gablasova recommends "to be cautious when assessing the content knowledge of students educated through their additional language, especially in situations where the bilinguals' performance might be directly compared with that of students from mainstream education" (2014: 162). However, only minor differences between CLIL and non-CLIL groups are found regarding reading acquisition in the L1 among primary school pupils, thus, in Nieto's (2018) study critical reading was the only area in which non-CLIL students performed better, while the CLIL group showed a higher performance in the comprehension of lexical items.

The variety of assessment instruments and procedures is perceived as one of the strengths in CLIL programmes (Barrios and Milla Lara, 2018). In Secondary Education, exams commonly include multiple choice questions and essay questions (Otto and Estrada, 2019) while in Primary Education, pupils' proficiency limits the range of tasks proposed for summative assessment, and especially for grading purposes. Among the suggestions given by Coyle *et al.* (2010), and which could be valid for Primary students, we can find drawing and painting, grid completion, matching information and labelling. Matching exercises and visual support can be particularly useful for younger learners while providing written stimulus in the L1 can guarantee students' comprehension in case of some difficulties in the L2 (cf. Lorenzo *et al.*, 2011; Zafiri and Zouganeli, 2017).

2. Context: CLIL policies in Castilla-La Mancha

The growth of CLIL in Spain has been remarkable in recent times, in fact Coyle (2010: viii) highlights that "Spain is rapidly

becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research". Spanish educational laws provide the general framework for Education in the whole country, which is then further developed by each of the 17 autonomous regions, leaving a great variety of legal contexts and CLIL policies (cf. Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010; Almodóvar Antequera, 2017; Guadamillas Gómez and Alcaraz Mármol, 2017).

In Castilla-La Mancha, bilingual programmes started in 1996 and have since grown under different nomenclatures (cf. Fernández Barrera, 2017: 44-45). Official data reveals that 520 schools offer multilingual projects in the academic year 2018-19, including state and private schools, most of them in English only (489) and a few of them in combination with French (10). Over half of these projects (289) are implemented in Pre-Primary and Primary Education.

Legislation in this autonomous region has undergone several changes in the last decade, with a turning point in 2017, which meant substantial modifications to bilingual frameworks. The following sections describe the main aspects in the different regional laws regarding the key areas of our study, namely L1 and assessment in the CLIL classroom.

2. 1. Before 2017

Spanish Law 7/2010, last modified in August 2012, and still effective to date, regulates the education system in Castilla-La Mancha, and advocates for the development of bilingual sections in schools. Thus, article 147 states that in these sections non-linguistic subjects shall be taught in a foreign language using CLIL, which meant the first legislative reference to this methodology in the region (2010: 44).

Spanish Royal Decree 126/2014 establishes the basic curriculum in Primary Education in the whole country. Although CLIL is not explicitly mentioned, there is a reference to teaching content through L2 within the article devoted to foreign language learning (article 13). This Royal Decree includes the possibility of teaching some subjects in the foreign language, providing that terminology is learnt in both L1 and

L2. In spite of this, it establishes that the L1 shall only be used as a support in the learning process. The same article also refers to the prioritisation of oral expression and comprehension (2014: 11).

Decree 7/2014, published before Royal Decree 126/2014, develops Multilingualism in non-university educational levels in Castilla-La Mancha proposing a comprehensive plan. This decree implies the derogation of the Order from 13/03/2008, which regulated former European sections.

The promotion of specific training programmes, including linguistic and methodological training is put forward as one of the government main objectives. The minimum level of linguistic competence required by teachers in a bilingual project is B2, according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (*CEFR*; Council of Europe, 2001). It is a requirement for participating schools to grant a minimum number of teachers with this level in order to offer non-linguistic subjects in a foreign language (2014: 1659).

As opposed to Secondary Education and over, where bilingual programs are optional for students, at Pre-Primary and Primary stages CLIL sections are meant for all the pupils, so schools must provide newcomers with the necessary means (2014: 1660). Bilingual schools are required to promote the acquisition and development of the five skills, namely listening, speaking production and speaking interaction, reading and writing through CLIL (2014: 1659).

This decree is further regulated by an Order from 16/06/2014, which defines linguistic programmes as those school projects which include one or more non-linguistic subjects entirely taught in the foreign language chosen by the school (2014: 16424). As regards assessment, this order only mentions the fact that it shall follow current legislation (2014: 16426).

Some methodological guidelines are exposed, proposing the CLIL approach as the methodological model. As for the L2, teachers are expected to use it at all times in the academic context, and to

promote and reward it among students. However, according to the same article, contents must be acquired and learnt both in the L1 and the L2. The communicative approach shall be adopted, prioritising first oral skills and at a later stage reading and writing, in order to make L2 acquisition more natural. Schools are referred to the *CEFR* for linguistic recommendation.

Further methodological guidelines apply the most common principles usually recognised in CLIL - materials must resort to visual support and gradually introduce more complex and specific contents, while activities shall follow the "learning by doing" principle, either individually or in group, in order to make learning meaningful and lasting. The article also states the importance of investigation and information search tasks in autonomous and responsible learning. Similarly, self-assessment is mentioned as a way to improve personal learning environments (2014: 16428).

The order mentions the figure of a language advisor, a language teacher whose main functions are coordination and support. There might be a coordinator, either the language advisor or another teacher, whose functions are not detailed (2014: 16427).

2. 2. After 2017

Decree 47/2017 sets the regulatory framework for all non-university educational levels aiming at the consolidation of previous language programmes and at the promotion of a second foreign language from early childhood. Its coming into force meant the derogation of former decree 7/2014. It foresees a transition period regulated by the Order from 16/06/2014, eventually derogated by Order 27/2018, which regulates more in detail Decree 47/2017. Order 27/2018, with a focus on bilingual and multilingual schools, indicates that the non-linguistic subject will be taught in the L2 (or L3) in all the sessions (2018: 4705).

In article 30 the methodological guidelines point again at CLIL, a methodology strongly recommended in teaching practice. The

language to be used by the teacher is the L2 (or L3) for communication within the academic context and in all the activities carried out in the classroom, and, as a novelty in this order, also in assessment activities. The five linguistic skills shall be promoted (2018: 4713), as was also stated in the former decree.

The same article includes a fundamental innovation regarding the use of the L1 as a linguistic resource in the following situations: (a) when required by students with specific educational support needs; (b) to acquire terminology and basic notions in both languages; and (c) as a useful communicative strategy (once others have been tried out) to make the message understood, for the introduction or summary of contents or in other cases when needed as a pedagogical tool. These instructions are substantially different from previous indications which referred to a nearly exclusive use of the L2. This is particularly relevant when article 36 explicitly mentions the need for students to acquire the same contents both in the L1 and L2 throughout each stage (2018: 4715). In fact, some methodological and linguistic adaptations can be adopted for students who cannot follow the non-linguistic subject due to their low language competence (2018: 4714).

As in previous legislative frameworks, article 36 establishes that evaluation of linguistic progress shall follow current legislation. As a general reference, and as orientation only, schools shall consider a level between A1 and A2 for Primary Education (2018: 4714-4715). The same requirement applies to content in article 37, which states that both assessment criteria and standards in non-linguistic subjects shall follow current legislation for each stage. Assessment instruments and procedures shall be those specifically recommended by CLIL methodology (218: 4715). Consequently, both materials in the classroom and assessment instruments shall be produced in the L2. This is again important guidance for teachers on how to proceed on assessment, since it had not been previously specified.

The figure of the language coordinator is already present in Decree 47/2017 and their functions are further detailed in the Order 27/2018. One of the most remarkable novelties is the coordination with

other schools in the area, which might facilitate students' continuity in CLIL programmes (2018: 4712). Another new function is the coordination of teachers regarding linguistic, methodological and assessment aspects in CLIL in order to set homogeneity in its implementation.

Several aspects are similarly expressed in both laws. These include the promotion of specific training or the language requirement for primary school teachers (B2), although the latest policy foresees a change for higher levels, namely C1 from 2022/2023 onwards.

The main differences and similarities are highlighted in Table 1 below:

Table 1
CLIL guidance provided by Castilla-La Mancha policies

Feature	Decree + Order (2014)	Decree (2017) + Order (2018)
CLIL methodology	Pedagogical model (mentioned only once)	Pedagogical model, guidance and reference for methodology and assessment
Language of instruction	L2 only	L2; uses provided for L1
Acquisition of contents	In L1 and L2	In L1 and L2
Language of assessment	not specified	L2
Assessment instruments	not specified	As recommended by CLIL

Source: compiled by the authors

3. Methodology

An ad-hoc questionnaire was designed using Google Forms. It is anonymous and consists of 21 items combining both closed and open questions about the respondent's profile (sex, age, province, experience, qualifications) and CLIL assessment practice (the use of L1/L2 during assessment, the percentage assigned to language in tests, etc).

This questionnaire was distributed online to a focus group: primary school teachers in bilingual programmes in Castilla-La Mancha. It was distributed before the Decree 47/2017 and the Order 27/2018 came into force.

Section 4 presents the results obtained in the questions linked to the purpose of the present study.

3. 1. Respondents' profile

The questionnaire was answered by 31 primary school teachers working in the provinces of Toledo (71%), Albacete (19,4%), Guadalajara (6,5%), and Cuenca (3,2%). They are mainly women (67,7%) in their forties (41,9%) or in their thirties (35,5%); 12,9% are in their twenties and only 9,7 % of them are over 50.

Regarding their qualifications, most of them have a 3-year degree in Primary School Teaching with a specialization in Foreign Languages (67,7%) or with no specialization (32,3%). The English competence level they can prove through a certificate is B2 (71%), followed by C1 (22,6%), and one respondent claims to have a C2 level.

They have mainly worked in bilingual settings either for less than 5 years (35,5%) or for between 5 and 10 years (29%). Some of them have been doing it for longer: between 10 and 15 years (12,9%); between 15 and 20 years (6,5%); or even more than 20 years (16,1%).

Their answers refer to the following subjects taught in English: Science (71%); Physical Education (12,9%); Art (9,7%), Music (3,2%); Social Science (3,2%). And mainly to the years Primary 1 (26,7%) and Primary 6 (23,3%). To a lesser extent, they refer to Primary 2, 3, 4 (13,3% each) and Primary 5 (10%).

4. Results

When asked in which language they evaluated their pupils (Figure 1), most respondents (70%) answered they used L2; 26,7% said they used instruments combining L1 and L2; and only 3,3% answered they used L1.

Figure 1
Answers to "In which language do you assess your pupils?"
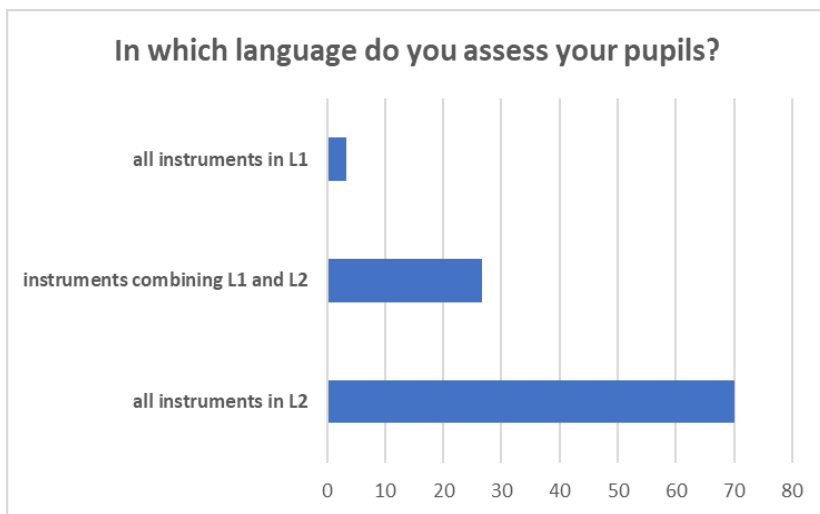
Source: compiled by the authors

Among respondents who declared using L2 to assess their pupils, the vast majority (83,4%) said they do not penalize answers in L1 because what matters is checking that the content has been understood. Only 16,6% penalize their pupils if they answer in L1.

Figure 2
Answers to "If you use English to assess your pupils and they answer in Spanish…"
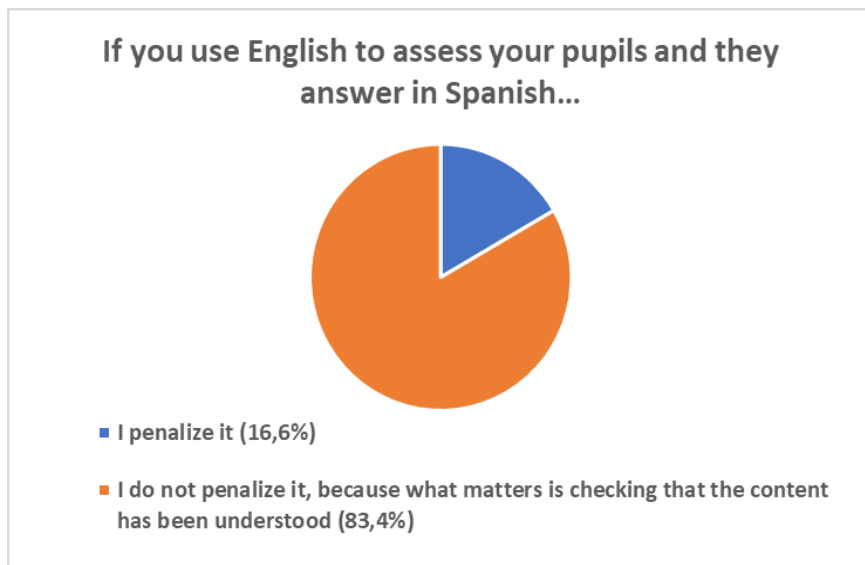
Source: compiled by the authors

As for those respondents who use L1 (Spanish) to assess their pupils, the reasons they gave for doing so were (Figure 3):

"I give them the option to answer in either language" (42,84%); one among them specified: "I use Spanish with those pupils who have difficulties with the foreign language". Similarly, 14,28% said "I use Spanish with those pupils who show greater difficulties with the English language and only after having presented the information in English".

28,57% seemed concerned about legislation, as their specific reasons for carrying out assessment in L1 were "because it is what legislation states" or "because the Decree in Castilla-La Mancha establishes so". Remaining 14,28% were concerned about content, they answered "Pupils are better able to convey content in L1".

Figure 3
Answers to "If you use Spanish to assess your pupils, why?"

Reasons for using L1 in CLIL assessment
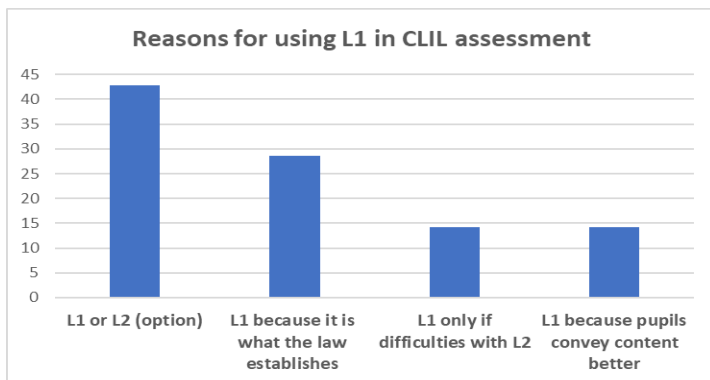
Source: compiled by the authors

When asked about the importance attached to content and to language in their assessment procedures, 74,1% prioritise content, whereas 22,2% attach the same importance to both and 3,7% prioritise language (Figure 4).

Figure 4
Answers to "If you assess both language and content, what importance do you attach to each?"

If you assess both language and content, what importance do you attach to each?
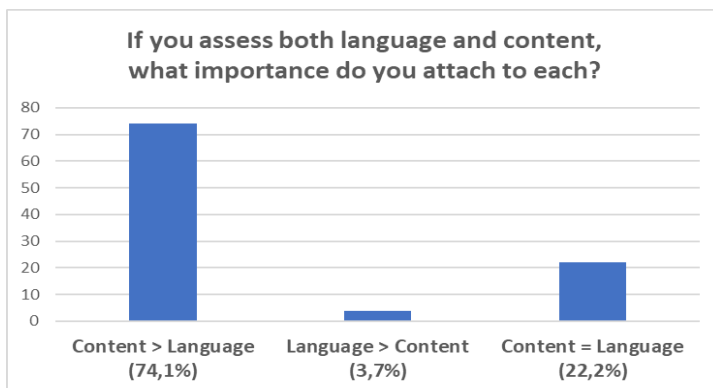
Source: compiled by the authors

Although most participants' scales clearly tip in favour of content, the importance attached thereto varies depending on whether the test is written or oral. The percentage of participants that pay attention to content decreases from written tests (50%) to oral tests (40%). Similarly, participants that pay attention to both content and language increase from 46,2% in written tests to 56,7% in oral tests.

Figure 5
Answers to "In tests carried out in L2, what do you pay attention to?"
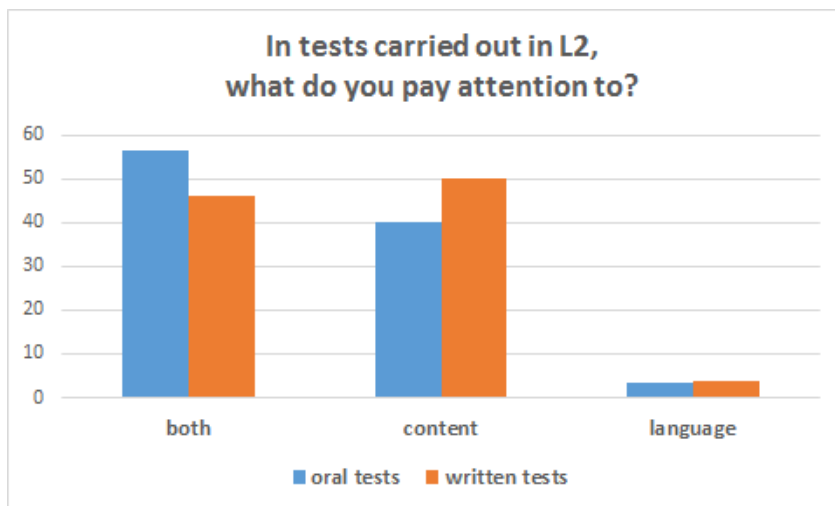
Source: compiled by the authors

However, most respondents (66,7%) do not determine set percentages for assessing content and language. Only 23,3% of respondents do use the same set percentages regardless of the kind of test (oral or written). Although 10% chose the option "I have set percentages only in oral tests", none of them chose "I have set percentages only in written tests" (Figure 6).

Figure 6

Answers to "Do you have set percentages for assessing language and content?"
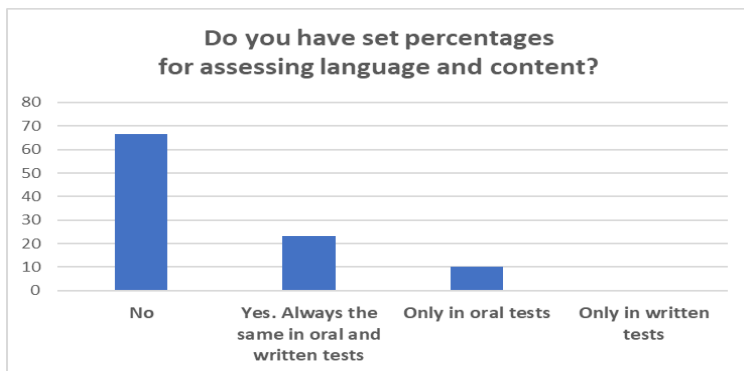
Source: compiled by the authors

Those respondents who answered "Yes. Always the same, both in oral and written tests" were asked to further develop their answer by specifying what percentages they used. Content is clearly prioritised: 80% of them attach either 70 or 80% to content. Only 20% of them attach the same importance to both elements (Figure 7):

Figure 7

Answers to "What percentage do you attach to content? And to language?"
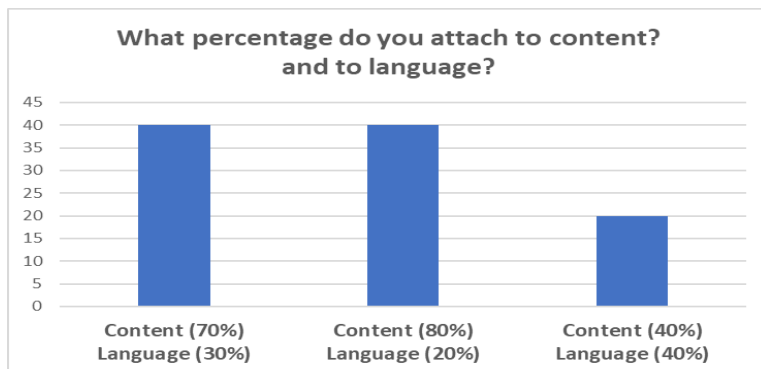
Source: compiled by the authors

When asked if they use specific exercises to assess L2, only one respondent (3,2%) answers affirmatively. He/she admits using "an outline for developing answers" in his/her assessment instruments.

The aspects of language that they assess are led by aural comprehension (19,2%) and oral production (18,27%); whereas the least assessed are written production (8,65%) and written comprehension (6,73%).

Figure 8
Aspects of language assessed by respondents
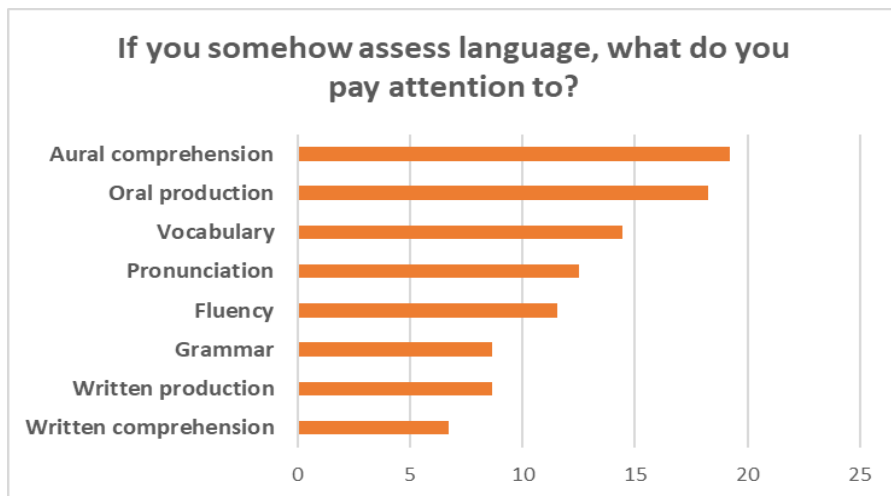
Source: compiled by the authors

Finally, in written tests, pupils are never asked to develop a long answer. They mainly have to match, complete with given options, choose from options like "true" or "false", write a definition or draw; and to a much lesser extent, analyse or describe images and translate (Figure 9).

Figure 9
Question types included in written tests
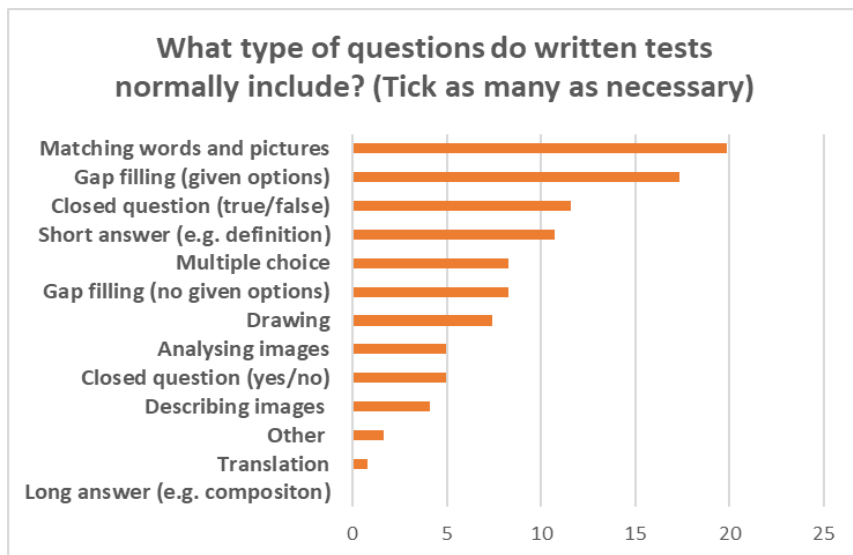
Source: compiled by the authors

5. Discussion

Although CLIL is a dual-focused methodology where both language and content play a role, teachers who took part in this pilot study are primarily concerned about content: more than 70% of them attach more importance to content than to language. L2 is hardly ever specifically tested.

This could be due to the fact that CLIL practitioners who are not language experts do not feel comfortable when grading language, as shown by Otto and Estrada's (2019) research with Secondary school teachers in Madrid.

Many respondents (66,7%) do not establish percentages when assessing. On the rare occasions when percentages are set, they confirm the secondary role played by L2 in the evaluation process: it usually accounts for between 20% and 30% of the mark.

Since legislation in force at the time of our data collection (Decree 7/2014 and Order from 16/06/2014) did not establish clear criteria regarding the use of L1 in assessment, we find that there is no common criterion amongst practitioners. Some of them carry out assessment in L1; and those who do it in L2 do not seem to penalize their pupils if they answer in L1. When asked why they assess in L1, nearly a third of respondents argue that the Decree establishes that assessment has to be carried out in L1.

As suggested by most CLIL experts (cf. Coyle *et al.*, 2010; Dale and Tanner, 2012) and as laid down in regional policies, there is a focus on assessing content learning over the learning of the foreign language, it being detrimental to the latter. This focus on content is more pronounced in written than in oral tests, where language receives more attention. This is confirmed by the following results:

- There tends to be a more even balance between content and language in oral tests than in written ones, where the scales tip more in favour of content (Figure 4).
- Some respondents determine percentages for content and language only for oral tests, but none of them do it only for written tests (Figure 5).
- When asked to tick the aspects of language they assess -from a list of options that included all language skills- the most frequently selected options (oral production, aural comprehension, pronunciation or fluency) indicate respondents focus on assessing oral skills. This aligns with the suggestions in the legislation about prioritising spoken language before moving on to written skills.
- Considering that writing definitions is usually a matter of pupils reproducing what they have memorized, there is hardly any opportunity for language production and assessment in the activities included in written tests - mainly matching, choosing an option or drawing. These types of activities follow general advice on assessment found in most recognised CLIL manuals, as in Coyle *et al.* (2010), for early stages. Admittedly, in

Primary Education, and especially in early years, pupils' cognitive development discourages the request of longer answers, which would be difficult even in their L1. Therefore, our results seem to confirm that CLIL does not favour writing skills (Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Pérez-Vidal, 2011).

Conclusions

Given that our results are drawn from a pilot study, these are provisional conclusions. As we have seen, Spanish laws are varied and maybe not very specific about this issue, tending to apply the established evaluation criteria for content subjects to the CLIL context. At the time we collected our data, the law in force did not specify how to assess CLIL subjects, so in this sense, rather than CLIL, what most respondents seemed to be doing could be regarded as using L2 when teaching content.

To a certain extent, the recent change in legislation in Castilla-La Mancha provides an answer to several of the concerns expressed by teachers in our study and adapts to mainstream theories of CLIL regarding language use and assessment. This is not an easy task since CLIL methodology and assessment has to follow not only regional laws but also general education policies in Spain, which are not specifically designed for CLIL settings.

Among the recent introductions in the regional policy, it is necessary to highlight the recommendation for using the L1 as a pedagogical tool in certain contexts. This is a useful addition for CLIL practitioners, who were expected to teach terminology in both languages without using the L1. Although it was probably common practice before the legislative change, the new policy legitimizes the use of L1: CLIL practitioners in Castilla-La Mancha can now decide which classroom contexts may require code-switching or translanguaging in order to favour content acquisition or to promote cognitive developments. L1 is part of foreign language contexts, exploited in the classroom for teaching purposes, and it benefits students' learning and

acquisition of the L2, without diminishing students' opportunities. Similarly, its use in CLIL settings should be normalised, acknowledged and encouraged by subject teachers as part of the classroom discourse.

We believe and hope the new law will increase both practitioners' confidence about what CLIL assessment is and how to implement it, and the amount of teachers that attach some importance to language in CLIL assessment.

As claimed in recent studies (cf. Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2017; Pavón and Ramos, 2018), further research is needed to adjust policies to common practice, theories and research in CLIL regarding both assessment and language use. The use of the L1 displays different functions which commonly occur in unplanned situations, therefore one of the lines for future research could be an attempt to systematize the usage of the languages in the classroom, so that teachers can organise and plan beforehand their tasks and materials accordingly, and promote conscious translanguaging in the classroom (cf. Lin, 2015).

Bibliography

Almodóvar Antequera, J. M. (2017). La educación intercultural en el sistema educativo español: educación primaria. In Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte (Ed.), *Educación bilingüe: tendencias educativas y conceptos claves: Bilingual educational: trends and key concepts* (pp. 79-88). Secretaría General Técnica. Centro de Publicaciones. Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte.

Astin, A.W., and Antonio, A.L. (2012). *Assessment for Excellence. The Philosophy and Practice of Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education.* Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Barbero, T. (2012). Assessment tools and practices in CLIL In F. Quartapelle (Ed.), *Assessment and Evaluation in CLIL* (pp. 38-56). Ibis, Como – Pavia: Ibis Edizioni.

Barrios, E., and Milla Lara, M. D. (2018). CLIL methodology, materials and resources, and assessment in a monolingual context: an

analysis of stakeholders' perceptions in Andalusia. *The Language Learning Journal*, 1-21.

Berger, A. (2016). Learning mathematics bilingually. An Integrated Language and Mathematics Model (ILMM) of word problem solving processes in English as a foreign language. In T. Nikula, E. Dafouz, P. Moore and U. Smit (Eds.), *Conceptualising Integration in CLIL and Multilingual Education* (pp. 73-100). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Cenoz, J., Genesee, F., and Gorter, D. (2014). Critical analysis of CLIL: Taking stock and looking forward. *Applied linguistics*, *35* (3), 243-262.

Council of Europe (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Coyle, D. (2010). "Foreword". In D. Lasagabaster and Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. vii-viii). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Coyle, D., Holmes, B., and King, L. (2009). *Towards an integrated curriculum–CLIL National Statement and Guidelines*. London: The Languages Company.

Coyle, D., Hood, P., and Marsh, D. (2010). *Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dale, L., and Tanner, R. (2012). *CLIL Activities: A Resource for Subject and Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2008). Outcomes and processes in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): Current research from Europe. In W. Delanoy and L. Volkmann (Eds.). *Future Perspectives for English Language Teaching* (pp. 139-157). Heidelberg: Carl Winter.

Decreto 47/2017, de 25 de julio, por el que se regula el plan integral de enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras de la comunidad autónoma de Castilla-La Mancha para etapas educativas no universitarias. [2017/9118]. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 31 July 2017, no. 147, pp. 18603-18612.

Decreto 7/2014, de 22/01/2014, por el que se regula el plurilingüismo en la enseñanza no universitaria en Castilla-La Mancha. [2014/897]. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 27 January 2014, no. 17, pp. 1657-1661.

Doiz, A., and Lasagabaster, D. (2017). Management teams and teaching staff: do they share the same beliefs about obligatory CLIL programmes and the use of the L1? *Language and Education*, *31* (2), 93-109.

Fernández Barrera. A. (2017). Language appropriations, ideologies and identities in bilingual schools in Castilla-La Mancha (Spain). *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature. 10* (2), 41-58.

Gablasova, D. (2014). Issues in the assessment of bilingually educated students: Expressing subject knowledge through L1 and L2. *The Language Learning Journal*, *42* (2), 151-164.

García Mayo, M. P., and Hidalgo, M. A. (2017). L1 use among young EFL mainstream and CLIL learners in task-supported interaction. *System*, *67*, 132-145.

García, O. (2009). Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century. In A. Mohanty, M. Panda, R. Phillipson and T. Skutnabb-Kangas (Eds.), *Multilingual Education for Social Justice: Globalising the local* (pp. 140-158). New Delhi: Orient Blackswan.

Gorter, D., and Cenoz, J. (2017). Language education policy and multilingual assessment. *Language and Education*, *31* (3), 231-248.

Guadamillas Gómez, M.V., and Alcaraz Mármol, G. (2017). Legislación en enseñanza bilingüe: análisis en el marco de educación primaria en España. *MULTIárea. Revista de didáctica*, *9*, 82-103.

Hönig, I. (2010). *Assessment in CLIL: Theoretical and empirical research*. Saarbrucken: VDM Verlag.

Kiely, R. (2011). The Role of L1 in the CLIL Classroom. In S. and P. Pavlou (Eds.), *Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education* (pp. 55-65). Nicosia: PROCLIL.

Lasagabaster, D. (2016). Translanguaging in ESL and content-based teaching: Is it valued? In D. Lasagabaster and A. Doiz (Eds.), *CLIL Experiences in Secondary and Tertiary Education: In Search of Good Practices* (pp. 233-258). Bern: Peter Lang.

Lasagabaster, D., Doiz, A., and Sierra, J. M. (Eds.). (2014). *Motivation and Foreign Language Learning: From Theory to Practice*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Ley 7/2010, de 20 de julio, de Educación de Castilla-La Mancha. *Boletín Oficial del Estado*. Madrid, 13 October 2010 no. 248, pp. 86359-86415.

Lin, A. M.Y. (2015). Conceptualising the potential role of L1 in CLIL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *28* (1), 74-89.

Llinares, A., Morton, T., and Whittaker, R. (2012). *The Roles of Language in CLIL*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lorenzo Bergillos, F. J., Trujillo Sáez, F., and Vez Jeremías, J. M. (2011). *Educación bilingüe: Integración de contenidos y segundas lenguas*. Madrid: Síntesis.

Massler, U. (2011). Assessment in CLIL learning. In S. and P. Pavlou (Eds.), *Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education* (pp. 114-136). Nicosia: PROCLIL.

Massler, U., Stotz, D., and Queisser, C. (2014). Assessment instruments for primary CLIL: The conceptualisation and evaluation of test tasks. *The Language Learning Journal*, *42* (2), 137-150.

Miri, M., Alibakhshi, G., and Mostafaei-Alaei, M. (2016). Reshaping teacher cognition about L1 use through critical ELT teacher education. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *14* (1), 58-98.

Mohan, B., Leung, C., and Slater, T. (2010). Assessing language and content: A functional perspective. In A. Paran and L. Sercu (Eds.), *Testing the Untestable in Language Education* (pp. 217-240). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Moore, P. and Nikula, T. (2016). Translanguaging in CLIL classrooms. In T. Nikula, E. Dafouz, P. Moore, and U. Smit (Eds.), *Conceptualising Integration in CLIL and Multilingual Education* (pp. 211-234). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, E. (2018). Adquisición de la lectura en L1 en programas bilingües de Educación Primaria. Un estudio comparativo. *Ocnos: Revista de estudios sobre lectura*, *17* (1), 43-54.

Nikula, T., and Moore, P. (2016). Exploring translanguaging in CLIL. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *22* (2), 237-249.

Orden 27/2018, de 8 de febrero, de la Consejería de Educación, Cultura y Deportes, por la que se regulan los proyectos bilingües y plurilingües en las enseñanzas de segundo ciclo de Educación Infantil y Primaria, Secundaria, Bachillerato y Formación Profesional de los centros educativos sostenidos con fondos públicos de la comunidad autónoma de Castilla-La Mancha. [2018/1979]. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 15 February 2018, no. 33, pp. 4704-4717.

Orden de 16/06/2014, de la Consejería de Educación, Cultura y Deportes, por la que se regulan los programas lingüísticos de los centros de Educación Infantil y Primaria, Secundaria, Bachillerato y Formación Profesional sostenidos con fondos públicos de Castilla-La Mancha. [2014/8175]. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 20 June 2014, no. 117, pp. 16424-16433.

Orden de13/03/2008 de la Consejería de Educación y Ciencia, por la que se regula el desarrollo del Programa de Secciones Europeas en los centros públicos de Educación Infantil, Primaria y Secundaria de la Comunidad Autónoma de Castilla-La Mancha. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 26 March 2008, no. 64, pp. 9970-9973.

Otto, A., and Estrada, J.L. (2019). Towards an Understanding of CLIL in a European Context: Main Assessment Tools and the Role of Language in Content Subjects. *CLIL Journal of Innovation and Research in Plurilingual and Pluricultural Education*, *2* (1), 31-42.

Pavón Vázquez, V., and Ramos Ordóñez, M.C. (2018). Describing the use of the L1 in CLIL: an analysis of L1 communication strategies in classroom interaction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *22* (1), 35-48.

Pérez-Vidal, C. (2011). Language acquisition in three different contexts of learning: Formal instruction, stay abroad, and semi-immersion (CLIL). In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe, J. M. Sierra, F. Gallardo del Puerto (Eds.), *Content and foreign language integrated learning: Contributions to multilingualism in European contexts* (pp. 103-127). Bern: Peter Lang.

Real Decreto 126/2014, de 1 de marzo, por el que se establece el currículo básico de Educación Primaria. *Boletín Oficial del Estado*. Madrid, 3 March 2014, no. 52, pp. 1-54.

Ruiz de Zarobe, Y., and Lasagabaster, D. (2010). The emergence of CLIL in Spain: An educational challenge. In D.

Lasagabaster and Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. ix-xvii). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Serra, C. (2007). Assessing CLIL at primary school: A longitudinal study. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *10* (5), 582-602.

Streeter, J. (2016). Code-switching and translanguaging in CLIL: Are we challenging our learners sufficiently? In K. Papaja, and A. Świątek (Eds.), *Modernizing Educational Practice: Perspectives in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)*, (pp. 235-256). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Suskie, L. (2018). *Assessing Student Learning: A Common Sense Guide*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons. 3rd edition.

Turnbull, B. (2018). Reframing foreign language learning as bilingual education: epistemological changes towards the emergent bilingual. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *21* (8), 1041-1048.

Zafiri, M. and Zouganeli, K. (2017). Toward an Understanding of Content and Language Integrated Learning Assessment (CLILA) in Primary School Classes: A Case Study. *Research Papers in Language Teaching and Learning*, *8* (1), 88-109.

Sociocultural Awareness, Cultural Perspectives and Strategies in Language Assistants' Academic Papers in Spain

Conciencia sociocultural, perspectivas culturales y estrategias en trabajos académicos elaborados por auxiliares de conversación en España

Bianca Vitalaru
Investigadora Instituto Franklin-UAH
bianca.vitalaru@gmail.com
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0618-3867

Resumen: Este artículo incluye un análisis de trabajos académicos que se centran en aspectos culturales escritos por estudiantes de máster en el programa 'Teach & Learn in Spain' en el Instituto Franklin-UAH. El porcentaje de trabajos académicos de estas características escritos por estos estudiantes que actuaron como auxiliares de conversación (AC) en colegios bilingües en España es bastante alto, lo que sugiere la importancia del componente cultural en la enseñanza del inglés como segunda lengua y su alto nivel de conciencia sociocultural. Por lo tanto, este artículo tiene varios objetivos: a) determinar la existencia de una conciencia sociocultural específica en los trabajos de investigación; b) identificar los aspectos culturales que fueron considerados esenciales por los AC en este programa y mostrar las estrategias utilizadas para proporcionar información; y c) comparar hallazgos considerando antecedentes teóricos. El método se basará en un enfoque mixto basado en análisis cuantitativos y cualitativos y será específico para cada uno de los objetivos.

Abstract: This paper includes an analysis of academic papers that focus on cultural aspects written by MA students in the 'Teach & Learn in Spain' program at Instituto Franklin-UAH. The percentage of academic papers focusing on cultural aspects written by these students who acted as Language Assistants (LAs) in bilingual schools in Spain is quite high. This suggests the importance of the cultural component in the teaching of English as a second language and their high level of sociocultural awareness. Thus, this paper has several objectives: a) to determine the existence of a specific sociocultural awareness in research papers; b) to identify the cultural aspects that were considered essential by the LAs in this program and show the strategies used to provide information; and c) to compare findings considering the theoretical background. The method will rely on a mixt approach considering quantitative and qualitative analyses and will be specific for each of the objectives.

Palabras clave: Cultura; Investigación; Conciencia Sociocultural; Auxiliares de Conversación; Trabajos Académicos.

Keywords: Culture; Research; Sociocultural Awareness; Language Assistants; Academic Papers.

Introduction

This paper is written in the context of the training of MA students in the 'Teach & Learn in Spain' Program at Instituto Franklin-UAH, which relies on a double training perspective. On one hand, classes in a one-year Master's Degree in an education-related field from the six programs offered provide theoretical and practical training on different fundamental notions related to education as well as the necessary tools they need to develop autonomous teaching skills. On the other hand, it offers hands-on experience as Language Assistants (LAs) through the 30 credits teaching practicum in bilingual schools carried out since 2008 within the Bilingual Education Program implemented in 2004-2005 by the Spanish Regional Ministry (Vitalaru and Vescan, 2018).

The study provides an analysis of academic papers that focus on cultural aspects written by students enrolled in the program while acting as English-speaking LAs in bilingual schools in Madrid. Two reasons have led to the choice of this topic. First, the percentage of academic papers focusing on cultural aspects is quite high (approx. 70 %), which suggests the importance of the cultural component in the teaching of English or of a second language in general. Moreover, it shows the high number of LAs with a certain level of sociocultural awareness, that is, a

specific awareness of the societies and cultures involved in the communication process and of its context (British Council, 2019). It develops when they are faced with the corresponding challenges of intercultural communication while living, studying, and acting as LAs in Spain. In fact, the underlying cause, culture, is a complex concept that encompasses several meanings and perspectives that have changed over the years. Section 2 will provide more details about the complexity of its definition and the different classifications of its multiple components.

Second, the LAs' own perspective on the cultural aspects that affect their education and teaching performance in a different country can be highly effective for the next generations of LAs that may face the same challenges.

Thus, the general objectives of this paper are a) to determine the existence of a specific sociocultural awareness in research papers; b) to identify the cultural aspects that were considered essential by the LAs in this program and show the strategies used to provide information about the cultural challenges perceived in the social and educational settings in question, and c) to compare findings considering the theoretical background. The method will rely on a mixed approach considering quantitative and qualitative analysis and will be specific for each of the objectives. Thus, we used both a quantitative and qualitative analysis of a corpus of papers and their corresponding titles, classifications of topics, qualitative analysis of strategies used to adapt the information for the potential reader, and comparison.

In the following sections the main theoretical concepts involved (section 1), the methodology (section 2), and the results of the analysis (section 3) will be thoroughly discussed.

1. Culture: Definition and Classifications

1. 1. Culture and Cultural aspects

Although seemingly simple when considered in monolingual contexts by members of the same social group and country, culture is, in fact, a complex concept that, over time, has acquired an accumulation of meanings, variations, and perspectives. Proof of this complexity are the different attempts to define, classify it or even to compile its different nuances. Thus, if in 1952 American anthropologists Kroeber & Kluckhohn compiled more than 300 definitions on culture, from which they classified 164 definitions, the list is certainly longer today.

Moreover, it manifests itself in different ways depending on a variety of factors such as living conditions, country of origin, and social group of the participants, as well as beliefs, behavior, artistic manifestation, and communication with one's own and other cultures in different settings.

In this context, it seems essential to clarify the different aspects involved when analyzing the students' perception and focus in their decision-making process in academic papers.

First, the definitions from several dictionaries provide basic information about current use and meanings. The Merriam Webster Dictionary includes four main abstract meanings (Figure 1):

Figure 1
Definition of 'Culture'

1	**a**	: the customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits of a racial, religious, or social group
		also : the characteristic features of everyday existence (such as diversions or a way of life) shared by people in a place or time
		// popular *culture*
		// Southern *culture*
	b	: the set of shared attitudes, values, goals, and practices that characterizes an institution or organization
		// a corporate *culture* focused on the bottom line
	c	: the set of values, conventions, or social practices associated with a particular field, activity, or societal characteristic
		// studying the effect of computers on print *culture*
		// Changing the *culture* of materialism will take time …
		— Peggy O'Mara
	d	: the integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief, and behavior that depends upon the capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations
2	**a**	: enlightenment and excellence of taste acquired by intellectual and aesthetic training
	b	: acquaintance with and taste in fine arts, humanities, and broad aspects of science as distinguished from vocational and technical skills
		// a person of *culture*
5		: the act of developing the intellectual and moral faculties especially by education
6		: expert care and training
		// beauty *culture*

Source: Merriam Webster Dictionary

As we can observe in Figure 1, the two basic perspectives for defining it refer either to "excellence of taste" acquired by training or to aspects which characterize a social or religious group, institutions, organizations, fields or activities such as beliefs, attitudes, practices, social norms or traits.

The Cambridge Online Dictionary offers similar meanings for both UK and US context, either as:

a) A way of life and as the artistic manifestation of a group:

Figure 2a
Definition of 'Culture' (US)

Source: Cambridge Online Dictionary

b) The lifestyle of a group at a particular time and aspects related to the organization in the workplace:

Figure 2b
Definition of 'Culture' (UK. Business settings)

culture

noun · UK 🔊 / ˈkʌltʃəʳ / US 🔊

⭐ [C or U] **the way of life, especially the general customs and beliefs, of a particular group of people at a particular time:**

You will need time to get used to working in a different culture.

In today's culture, wireless is part of our daily lives.

⭐ [C or U] WORKPLACE **the ideas and ways of working that are typical for an organization, and that affect how it does business and how its employees behave:**

culture (of sth) *Where I work there's a culture of collaboration.*

build/develop/foster, etc. a culture *Our aim was to foster a culture of innovation at all levels in the company.*

business/company/management culture *This is a handy guide to the management culture in the countries with which we do business.*

Source: Cambridge Online Dictionary

Second, as a fundamental concept in anthropology and sociology, the notion itself has undergone changes and was the reflection of different theories. Some important elements are the association of 'culture' with 'civilization' and use as synonyms in the 18th-19th centuries, the recognition of its multifaceted essence through the hundreds of definitions in Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952)'s study, the recognition of all cultures as different, or its association with 'consumption goods' and the importance of material culture at the end of the 20th century (New World Encyclopedia, 2013; International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 2008a). Although not a direct reflection of all these theories, we will group some of the most well-known definitions from different periods according to the type of aspects they emphasize as fundamental:

Table 1
Definitions of Culture I

(BGSU, Pre-departure Handbook 2018-2019: 21)	"[…] a set of values, beliefs, assumptions and understandings about the world, human beings and society. All people have a specific culture and it provides a way of interpreting and living in the world. It makes **life predictable, understandable and meaningful**".
Spradley and McCurdy (2012:2)	"Culture is a kind of knowledge, not behavior: It is in people's heads. It reflects the mental categories they learn from others as they grow up. It helps them *generate* behavior and *interpret* what they experience. At the moment of birth, we lack a culture. We don't yet have a system of beliefs, knowledge, and patterns of customary behavior. But from that moment until we die, each of us participates in a **kind of universal schooling that teaches us our native culture**. Laughing and smiling are genetic responses, but as infants we soon learn when to smile, when to laugh, and even how to laugh. We also inherit the potential to cry, but we must learn our cultural rules for when crying is appropriate"

Source: own elaboration

c) Both material and non-material aspects; general enumerations:

Table 2
Definitions of Culture II

Tylor (1871) cited by Bhushan and Sachdev (2012: 36)	"Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities acquired by man as a member of society".
MacIver cited by Bhushan and Sachdev (2012: 36)	"Culture is the expression of our nature in our modes of living and our thinking, intercourse, in our literature, in religion, in recreation and enjoyment".
UNESCO (2002)	"set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual, and emotional features of society or a social group, and that it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs".

Source: own elaboration

d) Both material and non-material aspects; the ideas of transmission and/or accumulation are key:

Table 3
Definitions of Culture III

Green, Arnold W. cited by Bhushan and Sachdev (2012: 36)	"Culture is the **socially transmitted** system of idealized ways in knowledge, practices and beliefs, along with the artifacts that knowledge and practice produce and maintain as they change in time".
Mazumdar, H. T. cited by Bhushan and Sachdev (2012: 36)	"Culture is the **sum total** of human achievements material as well as non-material, capable of transmission, sociologically i.e. by tradition-and communication, vertically as well as horizontally".
Sociology guide (2018)	"Culture can be conceived as a **continuous, cumulative reservoir** containing both material and non-material elements that are socially transmitted from generation to generation. Culture is continuous because cultural patterns transcend years, reappearing in successive generations. Culture is cumulative because each generation contributes to the reservoir".

Source: own elaboration

e) Every aspect of life; decisions, power, production

Table 4
Definitions of Culture IV

Verhelst (1990:17)	"**every aspect of life**: know how, technical knowledge, customs of food and dress, religion, mentality, values, language, symbols, socio political and economic behavior, indigenous methods of **taking decisions and exercising power**, methods of production and economic relations, and so on."

Source: own elaboration

Third, sources like encyclopedias, studies that explore the cultural components or even repertoires that gather and analyze the conceptual framework of the notion are particularly useful for providing a comprehensive overview of the aspects involved that could be

considered for research. Thus, the New World Encyclopedia (2013) underlines several characteristics of 'culture' in a more detailed and cohesive way:

> It includes codes of manners, dress, language, religion, rituals, norms of behavior such as law and morality, and systems of belief. The elements of culture are first adopted by members of the social group, found to be useful, and then transmitted or propagated to others.

The same source shows its double-sided nature, both as a reflection of social activities and as a dynamic factor, which influences behavior:

> In this way, culture is both defined by the social activities of the group and also defines the behavior of the members of the society. Culture, however, is not fixed or static; rather, it involves a dynamic process as people respond to changing conditions and challenges.

Moreover, Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952)'s study presents the eight essential conceptual categories that culture revolves around and according to which people organize their lives:

1. Topical: A list of topics such as social structure, religion, economic system, and so forth.
2. Historical: Social heritage, or tradition, passed from generation to generation.
3. Behavioral: Shared, learned human behavior, a way of life.
4. Normative: Ideals, values, norms, or standards for life.
5. Functional: The way people solve problems and adapt to their environment.
6. Mental: Complex of ideas, or learned habits, that distinguish people from animals.
7. Structural: Patterned and interrelated ideas, symbols, or behaviors.
8. Symbolic: Arbitrarily assigned meanings that are shared by a society.

An important detailed explanation of the aspects involved in the notion itself is the one provided in Boroch (2016)'s reinterpretation of the information used by Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952). For each of the seven definition categories offered in the initial study (descriptive, historical, normative, psychological, structural, genetic, and

incomplete) he includes the criteria used in a visual and conceptual way (Table 5). Thus, we observe the aspects that are, in fact, essential in defining the concept and ultimately for including it into one category or another:

Table 5
Classification of Aspects Included in the Definition of Culture

Group A: descriptive definitions	a) culture as a "complex whole", b) listing the features of culture, c) in the definitions of this group there are the following expressions: *complex whole, whole, total, everything.*
Group B historical definitions	a) social heritage, b) social tradition, c) non-biological heritage and intergenerational transmission.
Group C: normative definitions	
Subgroup C1 – rules are emphasized	a) pressure exerted by a group on an individual, b) model nature of life understood as imitation.
Subgroup C2 – values and ideas plus behaviour are emphasized	a) behaviours, b) open actions, c) ideas, d) values.
Group D: psychological definitions	
Subgroup D1 – emphasizing modification of culture as a "tool" solving problems	The influence of Sumner's theoretical thought in the following categories: a) *folkways,* b) *mores.*
Subgroup D2 – learning is emphasized	a) learning of people, b) non-genetic transmission of knowledge and skills.
Subgroup D3 – habits are emphasized	a) custom/tradition as a factor referring to a group, b) habits as a factor referring to an individual.
Subgroup D4 – fully psychological definitions	a) general psychology, b) psychoanalysis, c) social psychology.
Group E: structural definitions	
Group E: structural definitions – emphasizing a model nature and organisation of culture	a) way of organisation of culture, b) components making up the structure of culture, which are specifically system-related.

Group F: genetic definitions	
Subgroup F1 – emphasizing culture as a product or artefact	a) things which become culture, b) factors determining the existence of culture, c) components of culture: material artefact.
Subgroup F2 – ideas are emphasized	a) ideas – immanence, b) ideas – communicability.
Subgroup F3 – symbols are emphasized	a) usage of a symbol in culture, b) definitions of this subgroup use the following words: *symbol, project* (or equivalents).
Subgroup F4 – other genetic definitions	a) origin of culture, b) listing what culture is not.

Source: Boroch (2016: 62-63)

From these definitions, the complexity and syncretism of the notion is obvious. If in simple words culture seems to refer to "what people think, what they do, and the material products they produce" (Bodley, 2009), its properties, ("shared, learned, symbolic, transmitted cross-generationally, adaptive, and integrated"), seem to explain the lack of consensus regarding its definition.

In this context, the most important characteristics that can be underlined for the purpose of this paper are its semantic and conceptual variety, the transmission from one generation to another or the learning process it implies, and its powerful effect on perception, attitude, and behavior especially in different communication settings.

1.2. Classifications of Culture

Following the same lack of consensus or lack of terminological uniformity regarding the basic elements/categories involved, in the last 150 years, there have been different classifications of the cultural components that affect one's life and actions. Several will be described below based on information from various sources:

a) Material and non-material culture

Specifically, the distinction between these two categories has been made in 1871 when Tylor employed the term "material culture", without defining it.

Material culture consists in "any physical manifestation or product of culture", and it manifests itself in "physical, palpable, measurable form". It includes a variety of forms depending on the field in question. Thus, it is "what archaeologists typically refer to as artifacts, collectors as relics, and art historians as *objets d'art*" and includes:

- "large-scale examples" of "intentionally built environment" such as buildings, gardens, bridges, and monuments.
- "any modification of the environment resulting from cultural activity, deliberate or not" such as crop marks, oil spills, etc.
- "all writing and symbolic expression, from pictographs, graffiti, iconography".

Ultimately, it "communicates, expresses meaning, conveys experience, disciplines, and exhibits agency" (International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 2008b).

On the other hand, non-material culture is defined as "the abstract creations of society (e.g., attitudes, beliefs, ideas, norm, and values) that influence behavior and direct socialization" (Open Education Sociology Dictionary, 2013). This distinction is also implied in the next two classifications which include elements from both categories.

b) Values, norms, and artifacts

The Dictionary of Modern Sociology (1969) mentions three types of cultural components: "values, norms, and artifacts". Values refer to ideas about the aspects that are considered as most important in life and that guide the rest of the cultural elements. On the other hand, norms refer to expectations of behaviors in certain situations. They are

enforced differently depending on each culture and sanctions vary depending on the importance of those norms. Finally, artifacts consist in objects (considered 'material culture') and are the result of values and norms.

c) Mentifacts, sociofacts, and artifacts

Another classification, discussed by biologist Julian Huxley, divides the notion into three categories that are strongly related: "mentifacts, sociofacts, and artifacts" (New World Encyclopedia, 2013). Each one is associated with a specific 'subsystem': ideological, sociological, and technological (White, 1949). The first one, ideological, refers to "mental manifestations of culture —different ideas, beliefs, and knowledge and the ways in which these things are expressed in speech or other forms of communication". The second one, sociological, is associated with "the way people interact with each other, and the types of relationships they form". There is a close relationship between them since socialization "depends […] on the dominant cultural belief systems", that is, on mentifacts; similarly, "the sociological subsystem governs interactions between people and influences the formation of mentifacts". The last one, technological, is formed by "material objects and their use" and is related to the first two subsystems (cited by the New World Encyclopedia, 2013).

d) Visible and invisible culture/ Surface and deep culture

A well-known classification is encompassed in Edward T. Hall's Cultural Iceberg Model (1976), which proposes an analogy between the culture of a particular society and an iceberg. Both have a visible (on the surface) and invisible (below the surface) side. The 10 % that makes up the visible, on the surface side refers to the external conscious part reflected in aspects such as traditions, behaviors, customs, and aspects that can be easily observed by using our senses. Some of these elements are arts, food, language, greetings, music, dance, and clothing and they are important for social interaction and the development of a sense of unity.

The 90 % that makes up the invisible, deep side is associated with the internal, subconscious part and includes aspects that are more difficult to observe such as core values, customs, priorities, behaviors, beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, and assumptions. Some examples are personal space, gender roles, authority, communication, body language, worldview, religious beliefs, decision-making models, ideas about leadership, etc. In other words, as explained in Language and Culture Worldwide (2015), the iceberg has three elements: observable behaviors at the tip and two other elements below the surface: core values (referred to as "values and thought patterns" in Hall's model) and interpretations (referred to as 'beliefs' in the same model). Each one is explained below in the context of cultural change:

- Observable behaviors: "how we ultimately act"; "the words we use, the way we act, the laws we enact, and the way we communicate with each other".

- Core values: "our way of seeing the world and deciding what matters to us". "They are passed on from generation to generation by numerous factors which surround us and influence us"; therefore, they cannot be easily changed. A detailed definition follows:

    Deep below the "water line" are a culture's **Core values**. These are primarily learned ideas of what is good, right, desirable, and acceptable -- as well as what is bad, wrong, undesirable, and unacceptable. In many cases, different cultural groups share similar core values (such as "honesty", or "respect", or "family"), but these are often interpreted differently in different situations and incorporated in unique ways into our daily lives.

- Interpretations: "what [the core values] mean in our personal and professional lives". They "become visible to the casual observer in the form of Observable Behaviors".

e) High and low culture

Another classification that is particularly significant for its frequent use over a long period is the distinction between high and low culture.

Sociologist Herbert Gans (1986: 17-18; cited by the International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 2008c) mentioned the existence of "various tastes" based on which culture could be classified. "Taste cultures" refer to the "array of arts, and forms of entertainment and information, as well as consumer goods available to different taste publics". There are five categories of elements considered for the different taste cultures: "literature, art, consumption patterns, hobbies, and other leisure activities".

On the other hand, there has always been a certain "stratification system" considering the different 'cultures', implying the inequality in terms of valuing them (De Nora, 1991; cited by International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 2008c). In fact, the difference between high and low culture comes from arbitrary criteria since both involve a certain type of taste within the same categories, i.e. literature, art, music, or material goods. Thus, if high culture taste tends to show a particular interest in classical music, fine art, gourmet foods, etc., low culture tastes rely on different kinds of preferences that high culture does not have. Low culture was at some point a derogatory term for popular and working-class culture; it was associated with lower social status, incomes, levels of education, occupational hierarchy, and fewer opportunities to participate in high culture activities. Thus, factors such as socioeconomic status, equal opportunity, and taste preferences were essential for inclusion in one category or another (International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 2008c).

f) High and popular culture

This classification is, in fact, related to the previous one, but adding more details about the perception of the 'popular' seems essential for clarification purposes.

The appreciation of the value of popular culture came at the end of the 18th century and beginning of the 19th century and became essential in the context of increased literacy, entertainment, capitalism and industrialization. Its meaning is broad and its boundaries blur since, although it was specific for 'ordinary people', some members of the

social elite also showed interest in it. Thus, if high culture referred to the taste and interests of the social elite, as described above, popular culture was used specifically for the mass practices, ideas, and goods that were dominant in a society at a given time:

> Tentatively, we can summarize popular culture as an expressive and shared system for the production, transmission, and consumption of cohesive yet simple values readily accessible to and accepted by most members of a given society at any given time, simultaneously fulfilling both normative and practical social interests (International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 2008d).

In fact, different perspectives in different contexts and theories show the complexity of the term 'popular culture'. Some of them are included in Storey's book Cultural Theory and Popular Culture (2015: 5-13), which, among other aspects, discusses six definitions of the notion. First, he includes four meanings of the adjective 'popular':

- well-liked by many people;
- inferior kinds of work;
- work deliberately setting out to win favor with the people;
- culture actually made by the people for themselves' (237).

The definitions highlight the following perceptions of popular culture, although each one is problematic if considered separately and limited in its nature. Therefore, it refers to the following:

- What is preferred by the majority. Thus, it has a quantitative dimension (5).
- A "residual category" or what is left after deciding what 'high culture' is (6).
- An association with mass culture, particularly from the commercial point of view; "it is mass-produced for mass consumption" and for "non-discriminating consumers" (8).
- Something that spontaneously "originates from 'the people'; is an authentic element created, not imposed.
- A negotiation, a "site of struggle between the 'resistance' of subordinate groups and the forces of 'incorporation' operating in the interests of dominant groups" (10).

It is interesting to notice that in the postmodernist perspective, culture no longer distinguishes between the two initial categories, high and popular culture, which is interpreted either as the deconstruction of elitism or as the victory of commerce (12).

The most common perception in cultural studies seems to refer to a common reality that each society is familiar with at that given moment. As Gary West (2019) mentions in his database on American pop culture, popular culture can be divided into several common categories:

a) Entertainment (music, television, movies, and video games).
b) People and places from sports and news.
c) Politics, fashion, technology.
d) Slang.
e) Current individual 'pop culture', that is, choices regarding TV shows, movies, apps, bookmarks, songs playlist, and even topics discussed on social networks. The influence of mass media on people's attitudes and importance given to certain topics is uncontested (McGaha, 2015: 32-37).

1.3. Sociocultural Awareness and Related Concepts

In this section, four concepts will be explained. First, the key concept of the paper, sociocultural awareness, followed by other significant concepts considering the context of its use, especially in some of the papers that were analyzed: intercultural communication, intercultural competence, and cross-cultural communication.

1.3.1. Sociocultural Awareness

Although not officially defined as a concept in literature, the term has been widely used especially in the context of the relationships between language and culture, language learning, and second language teaching/learning:

Sociocultural awareness means awareness of the societies and cultures of the target language, and therefore of the contexts the language is used in. Teachers themselves transmit information subconsciously about culture and society through their behavior and interaction with learners (British Council, 2019).

In fact, sociocultural awareness is specific for a 'sociocultural perspective' as a theory in psychology and as applied to learning. As a theory, it refers to the influence of the society we live in on the learning process and the essential role that elements such as language, art, social norms, and structures play in "the development of our cognitive abilities" (Psychologist World). In fact, modern social learning theories are based on ideas from Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1986). He identified the importance of social interactions for "the development of higher-order thinking skills" (Polly *et al.*, 2017) such as voluntary attention, logical thought, intentional memory, planning and problem solving, among others (Fahim & Haghani, 2012: 693). Two of his principles underline, on one hand, social, cultural and historical interactions and, on the other hand, language, as essential for "human development and learning" and for developing "higher mental functions".

Specifically, in terms of second language acquisition,[1] Lantolf & Thorne (2006; 2007) and Lantolf (2007) discuss how the principles of the sociocultural theory can also apply to second language acquisition. In this context, as Banković (2015: 4) explains, using language in meaningful experiences, internalization as well as imitation, which implies reasoning, is key:

> The opportunity to use language as a means of making sense of experiences with others is a crucial step in learning to use language meaningfully, appropriately and effectively [...] It enables the child to internalize the language and carries it into further performance. The value of imitation is also emphasized for children's language learning, arguing that internalization through imitation is not a matter of just miming and copying but entails an active, and frequently creative, reasoning process.

---

[1] Other recommended studies: Fahim and Haghani (2012)

In this paper, the term will refer to the existence of a specific awareness of the importance of cultural aspects in the teaching of either English in general or a specific content that is useful to understand cultural differences and avoid communication misunderstandings. Ultimately, we will refer to a particular awareness about how the students can affect or improve intercultural communication between the different agents involved.

1.3.2 Intercultural Communication

Intercultural communication can be defined in three different contexts as:

a) a concept that involves interaction between individuals or groups of different origins:

> Intercultural communication is defined as situated communication between individuals or groups of different linguistic and cultural origins. This is derived from the following fundamental definitions: communication is the active relationship established between people through language, and intercultural means that this communicative relationship is between people of different cultures, where culture is the structured manifestation of human behavior in social life within specific national and local contexts, e.g. political, linguistic, economic, institutional, and professional (Langua, 2010).

b) an interdisciplinary field of study involving interaction and differences in terms of cultural backgrounds, language systems, and behaviors as suggested in the following definitions:

> The interdisciplinary field of study that investigates how people of different cultural, religious, social, educational, etc. backgrounds interact and understand one another through different discourse systems and how these affect language use and attitudes of individuals in communication (Uzun, 2015).

> […] the discipline that studies communication from the perspective of the culture of those involved. The discipline analyzes affective, psychological, and social factors, and describes

the communication process from cognitive, behavioral, and affective perspectives (Assumpta, 2009).

c) an essential factor for teamwork in a work environment or, in general, in an organization; failure in addressing and solving the cultural differences result in conflicts and even low productivity:

> The term "intercultural communication" is often used to refer to the wide range of communication issues that inevitably arise within an organization composed of individuals from a variety of religious, social, ethnic, and educational backgrounds. Each of these individuals brings a unique set of experiences and values to the workplace, many of which can be traced to the culture in which they grew up and now operate. […] The failure to address and resolve culturally based conflicts and tensions will inevitably show up in the form of diminished performance and decreased productivity (Encyclopedia of Small Business, 2007).

1.3.3. Intercultural competence

Intercultural competence is associated with intercultural communication and influences its effectiveness:

> Intercultural communication is identified as both a concept and a competence. Intercultural competence is the active possession by individuals of qualities which contribute to effective intercultural communication and can be defined in terms of three primary attributes: knowledge, skills and attitudes (Langua, 2010).

In Hammer (2012: 116)'s words, it refers to the "the capability to shift cultural perspective and adapt behavior to bridge across cultural differences involving increased cultural self-awareness; deepening understanding of the experiences, values, perceptions, and behaviors of people from diverse cultural communities". Thus, it involves shifting and adapting behavior, increasing cultural self-awareness. In turn, as Bennett (2014: 5) mentioned, cultural self-awareness is not only "our recognition of the cultural patterns that have influenced our identities and that are reflected in the various culture groups to which we belong",

but also a "prerequisite for the development of intercultural sensitivity" or "of intercultural competence".

In the same context, the title of Assumpta (2009)'s book, *Intercultural Competences as a Trust Factor in Virtual Teamwork,* associates the intercultural competence with its influence in a particular environment, in this case, virtual teamwork.

1.3.4. Cross-Cultural Communication

A term that is sometimes used interchangeably with intercultural communication is cross-cultural communication. It refers to "a process of creating and sharing meaning among people from different cultural backgrounds using a variety of means" (Omori, 2017). Another definition shows the contrast between several elements considering two cultures as essential:

> Communication between members of different cultures through which each member's values and patterns of thinking, communication and behavior are often revealed as contrasting the values, patterns of thinking, communication, and behavior of the other (Takševa Chorney, 2009).

Therefore, the difference between the two concepts consists in the focus they are given from the research perspective. Thus, while the first highlights the interaction between the different cultures, the second stresses the differences between them (Omori, 2017).

2. Method

The research method used was a combination of quantitative and qualitative instruments. A brief description of the methods used for each objective follows:

Objective 1: to determine the existence of a specific sociocultural awareness. More specifically, the focus was on establishing the percentage of papers that focused on sociocultural aspects as well as

identifying and establishing the main cultural aspects approached in each of the two types of paper applicable (research papers and curriculums) written between 2014 and 2017. The method consisted of a quantitative and qualitative analysis of a database of topics/corpus of papers. It resulted in different classifications of papers that focused on cultural and intercultural aspects.

Objective 2: to identify the specific topics that the students who designed a practical guide for American Language Assistants in Spain in their final paper considered essential in terms of cultural, intercultural or cross-cultural aspects.

Objective 3: to underline the strategies used to adapt the information for the potential reader. The method was a qualitative analysis of a selection of four papers that included guides on cultural aspects, written under the supervision of the advisor, considering both the general and specific topics discussed (Vitalaru, 2019a). This also helped to gain more insight into the level of sociocultural awareness of the students.

Objective 4: to contextualize the aspects identified in the previous stages as considered essential by the LAs in the papers in general and in the guides considering more traditional classifications of cultural components. The method relied on comparing the observations found with main ideas provided in the literature review section.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Previous Statistics and Types of Papers

As a general context regarding the types of academic papers required from students, the number of papers we focused on in previous analyses and classifications carried out will be mentioned. Thus, as shown in Figure 3, the first analysis focused on 189 papers written between 2014 and 2016 and it referred to the three initial types of papers offered in the program: Research Paper (RP), Curriculum Design (CD) and Teaching Portfolio (TP). A second analysis focused on 193

papers written between 2014-2017, which included three academic years and left out the third option.

Figure 3
Previous Statistics and Types of Papers
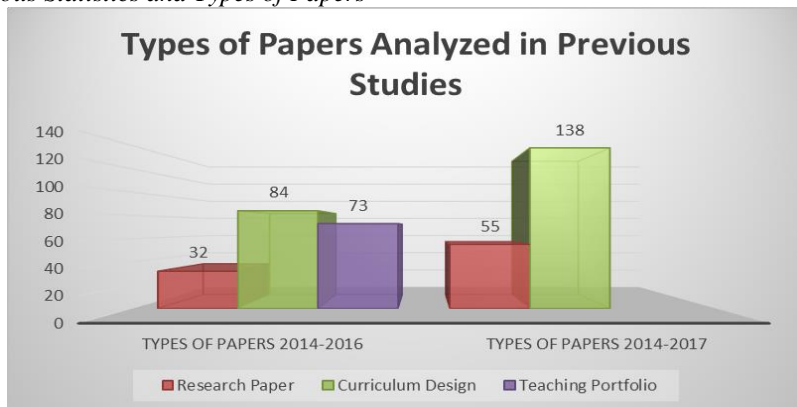
Source: own elaboration

With regards to the total number of papers during the timeframe established, the RP represented 17 % and 28 % of the papers while the CD 44 % and 72 %.

From the classifications established in the previous studies, the percentage of papers from the category related to cultural aspects will be briefly described in the next sections.

3.2 Classifications and Sociocultural Awareness

In an initial analysis of all the papers submitted by students from 2014-2015 and 2015-2016 in the three MAs taught in English (Vitalaru, 2019b) the category that focused on cultural aspects had a high percentage both for RP and CD, with a total of 58 % from 116 papers. Thus, from the total of 32 RP classified into 10 categories of topics established through the analysis of their titles, 21 % of them focused specifically on cultural aspects. Consequently, it was included between the categories with the highest percentages. On the other hand, from a total of 84 CD classified into 21 categories, the category 'culture and

culture as a complement to language learning' occupied the highest place with 37% of the papers. These results indicate a high level of sociocultural awareness in the students who acted as LAs in the two academic years in question.

A second, more specific analysis carried out (Vitalaru and Vescan, 2018: 370-371) focused, this time, specifically on strategies LAs underlined in the titles of their CD in three academic years (from 2014-2017). The following seven categories were established for a total of 138 CD:

1. Creativity, exploration, and innovation
2. Creativity, self-esteem, motivation; personal and professional skills
3. Use of social aspects
4. Use of culture and cultural immersion
5. Focus on other aspects of teaching
6. Practical guides & guidelines
7. Focus on particular fields.

As shown in Figure 4, categories 3, 4 and 6 (focusing on social aspects, culture, and practical guides), which are related to the syncretic concept of 'culture', sumed 34% of the CD:

Figure 4
Strategies in CD
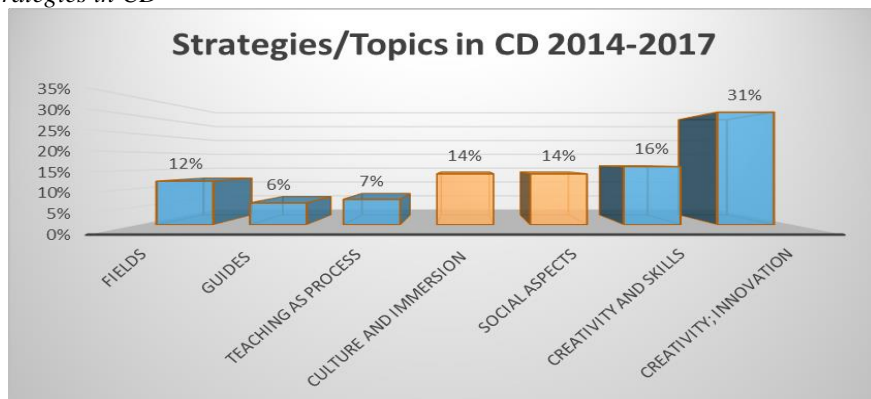
Source: based on Vitalaru and Vescan (2018: 370-371)

Moreover, it is interesting to observe the fact that a specific category titled "Culture and Cultural Immersion" has been included, which suggests its importance considering the aspects that the students believed needed to be tackled. The subtopics included in that category refer to a variety of aspects such as identity (American/ Australian/British/English/ European) (40 % of the papers), cultural immersion (20 %), around the world (20%), global English (10 %), and the use of fiction characters (10 %) (Figure 5):

Figure 5
Subtopics in Category 'Culture and Cultural Immersion'
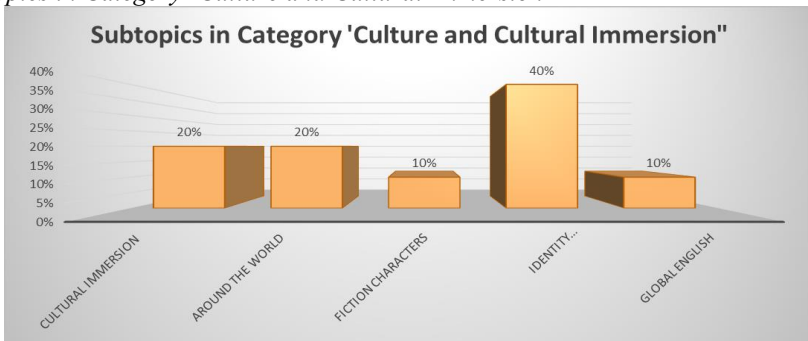
Source: own elaboration

Some examples of the actual titles from the different categories have been included in Table 6, below:

Table 6

Subtopics of 'Culture and Cultural Immersion'

MA	CATEGORY	TITLE
MABE 14-15 15-16	AROUND THE WORLD	Teaching **Social Issues and Culture** – The Keys to Unlock the World: Curriculum design Curriculum Design: **'Cultural Geography'** – Taking a Closer Look at **Cultures Around the World** - Florida Public Middle Schools
MAIE 16-17	IMMERSION	My Holiday Diary: **English Around the World** -- Teaching English as a Second Language through a **Cultural Immersion** Workshop and a Proposed Handbook
16-17 (all the MA)	IDENTITY	• **The American and British Identity:** A Curriculum Design that **Dissects** Aspects of American and British **Culture** to Promote Critical Thinking Skills in a Student-Centered Approach to Learning English as a Foreign Language • Teaching **European Culture** through Project-Based Learning for Primary Students in the United States: Language, Cuisine and Festivals
MABE 16-17	Global events	**Multicultural Perspectives**: developing thinking and communication skills through debates on controversial Global Current Events in the 11th Grade ESL Classroom in Spain
MABE	FICTION	

Source: own elaboration

The elements that the students included in the papers and were considered specific for cultural context focused on a variety of aspects. On one hand, they discussed more common topics such as cuisine, habits and practices, beliefs and attitudes, festivals, and arts (music, drama, literature, etc.). Other aspects included are defining a specific identity, the use of historical events or even controversial social and political issues such as immigration, segregation, rights, among others, to learn a second language. The identities and cultures referred to in the papers are diverse and include mostly the following: African American, American, British, Australian, English, Dominican Republic, European, Japanese, Korean, Latin American, and Spanish.

Another category that, for the purpose of this study, is considered related to the previous one is the "Use of Social Aspects" as a strategy to develop certain skills in the potential students/readers that the papers addressed. In fact, some of the aspects approached in this category have already been mentioned in the previous category since the papers themselves refer to or combine both 'cultural' and 'social' aspects. The aspects focused on are diverse and emphasize different types of social problems that resulted into specific behaviors and attitudes in different periods such as civil rights, women' roles and

oppression, immigration, refugees, and human rights. They even show the relation between political aspects, historical aspects, or religious and sociocultural characteristics of particular groups. Some examples follow:

Table 7
Titles from Category 'Social Aspects'

MA TEACHING (2015-2017)
Human Rights Education. A Curriculum for Secondary School
Heroes and dreamers: The Fight for **Civil Rights**
Unprecedented: The Story of the 2016 **Election.**
Teaching English to Adult Latin American. **Immigrants with a Cultural Component** An Adult ESL Curriculum **for Immigrants and Refugees** in the United States

Source: own elaboration

On the other hand, if the RP are considered, 36.36 % of 55 total papers focus on a social or cultural aspect. The specific titles and keywords in bold included in Tables 8, 9, and 10 are highly illustrative. The topics approached in relation to sociocultural aspects are varied and could be grouped in the following categories:

a) Awareness as LA

Table 8
RP. Subcategory 'Awareness as LA'

	Awareness as LA	Keywords
RP 2014-2015 MABE	Investigating the **Needs of Native English Teaching Assistants**: A **comparison of programs** and experiences in Madrid	LA and cultural differences
RP 2016-2017 MABE	Help, I Woke up as an **English Language Assistant** In Madrid! Now What?! Two Years, Five Schools and One Master's Degree Later: What I Wish I'd Known An **Ethnography**	LA and cultural differences
RP 2016-2017 MAIE	**Cultural Shock and Adaptation** for First Time Expat Teachers: Proposing a Resource Guide for Expat Teachers	cultural shock; guide
	Analysis of the Importance of **Cross-Cultural Training** for U.S. Undergraduate Students Studying Abroad in Spain: proposal of a practical **Cross-Cultural Guide** for students studying abroad in Spain	cross-cultural training; guide

Source: own elaboration

b) Attitudes and identity:

Table 9
RP. Subcategory 'Attitudes and Identity'

	Attitudes/identity	Keywords
RP 2016-2017 MAIE	Attitudes toward **multiculturalism** and language of **immigrant students** in Spain	multiculturalism; immigrant students
RP 2014-2015 MABE	**Identity Crisis**: A look at **cultural identity and bilingualism**	cultural identity and bilingualism

Source: own elaboration

c) Education and cultural differences

Table 10
RP. Subcategory 'Education and Cultural Differences'

	Education and Cultural Differences	Keywords
RP 2014-2015 MA Teaching	Exploring Teacher and **Immigrant Student Perceptions** in English-Language Learning Classrooms in Spain	cultural background; perception of roles
	Language from the Outside-In. A Comparative Analysis of the **Educational Systems and Foreign Language Assistants** in Spain and Japan	comparison between education systems
	How **Education Reflects Cultural Values**: Implications On Student Perceptions of Empowerment and its Global Significance	education and cultural values
RP 2014-2015 MAIE	**Culture Clash:** The School Experience of **Gitano Boys and Girls in Mainstream Spanish Society**	culture clash; minority cultures
	Pedagogy of **Education** in Brazil – The Value of Dialogue: A correlation between **culture, social prejudices**, and poverty	education, culture, social status
	An Analysis of **Cultural Differences** on the Development of Positive **Student-Teacher Relationships:** Spain and the United States of America	cultural differences; perception of roles
RP 2016-2017 MAIE	**Culture and Language Skill** Acquisition: A comparison of ESL students and teaching methods in South Korea and Spain	culture and language skills

Source: own elaboration

Based on the previous data, if both RP and CD are considered for the three academic courses mentioned, the percentage of papers that focus on cultural aspects is of approximately 70 % (136) from a total of 193 papers, which suggests, once again, that the number of students who are interested in sociocultural topics and express their sociocultural awareness through their academic papers is very high.

Finally, both the variety of the topics addressed in the different classifications as well as their association with teaching knowledge and language in context shows that the level of sociocultural awareness

among the students is higher from one academic year to another. It is interesting to observe that it surfaces particularly when the students/LAs themselves are directly affected by the cross-cultural interaction and communication circumstances in which they face some of the challenges of living, studying, and assisting teaching in a different country.

3.3. Analysis of Papers that Include Guides on Cultural Aspects

The analysis proposed in this section is based on a previous general analysis described in Vitalaru (2019a), which focused specifically on the objectives and topics approached in four academic papers from the same program that included guides on cultural aspects. The same papers were used, but reanalyzed. The current analysis also focuses on the strategies used by their authors to adapt the cultural information for their potential readers.

The corresponding qualitative analysis aimed at identifying each paper's main objective, as well as the cultural components approached in the practical part of the paper, which focused on designing a specific guide or course for future LAs. The first subsection focuses on two CD while the second one on two RP.

3.3.1 Curriculum Designs: Topics and Strategies

From this category, two papers included a guide and reflected it in the title either as a main objective or as a practical solution (see words in bold):

Table 11
CD that Include Guides on Cultural Aspects

2016-2017	MA INT EDUCATION	**Survival Guide for North American ELA Teachers** coming to Teach in Madrid, Spain
2015-2016	MA INT EDUCATION	Semester-Long Spanish Language & Culture **Study Abroad Curriculum for American University Students**

Source: own elaboration

The first CD (CD 1) specifically mentioned the target group establishing the need for an adaptation of the information to a specific "style" that North American LAs who have never lived in Spain "are more familiar with". This suggests an important level of cultural awareness. Its objective was "to help and aid the English Language participants as well as the coordinators of these programs" and therefore, be used as an "orientation curriculum". Thus, the content covered as described was related with the following aspects: "education system, teaching methodology as well as crucial cultural norms in a classroom by simultaneously incorporating key components of subtle cultural immersion" (CD 1: 5).

Two important observations that can be made are the diversity of the general topics and the practicality of the information provided considering that it covered procedures normally required to facilitate daily circumstances. Some of these were everyday life needs (logistical information, budgeting, setting up a bank account), formalities and suggestions regarding the differences between systems (healthcare, education, embassy, social security), historical details, and useful social norms (Vitalaru, 2019a).

Table 12
Topics CD 1

4.2.1 Overall Plan: Unit one House Hunting
4.2.2 Overall Plan: Unit two Budgeting
4.2.3 Overall Plan: Unit three Staying Healthy and Safe
4.2.4 Overall Plan: Unit four US Embassy Functions in Spain

4.2.6 Overall Plan: Unit six Living in Spain
4.2.7 Overall Plan: Unit seven Avoiding Polarization
4.2.8 Overall Plan: Unit eight History of Education in Spain
4.2.9 Overall Plan: Unit nine ABC's of Assistant Teaching

Source: CD 1: 7

As required, the paper also included a specific discussion about the theoretical background related to culture, the fundamental concept involved. Moreover, the curriculum itself included explanations about

culture, the iceberg theory, cultural self-awareness, and the importance of balancing cultural pride and cultural humility.

The second CD addressed American students who wanted to study abroad at a university in Madrid and focused on the Spanish language and culture. Its general objective, as mentioned by the student, was "to have the students' Spanish speaking skills improve vastly while also being fully immersed in the Spanish culture and way of life" (3). The specific objectives (Table 13) were part of a cultural comprehension goal that contributed to "fostering students' cultural understanding and global mindfulness":

Table 13
Specific cultural comprehension goals CD 2

• Facilitating and emboldening personal growth, self-awareness, and global mindfulness of the student.
• Developing an understanding of intercultural relations and diversity amongst the community.
• Inspiring independence and confidence within the student.
• Breaking down the cultural stereotypes and galvanizing open-mindedness and acceptance of new cultures (p. 12).

Source: CD 2: 12

Table 14 includes the general topics included in the Guide:

Table 14

General topics in CD 2

Source: CD 2: 2

It is interesting to observe that there was no direct reference to culture in the title of the sections, except in the case of the cultural variations that are specific for the autonomous regions in Spain. In spite of that, the analysis of the topics approached in each one of the five courses included shows that at least 60 % of them (three) include specific cultural aspects. This reflected the LA's perception of the fundamental sociocultural aspects that other LAs should pay attention to:

Table 15
Specific Topics in CD 2

Specific topics

Spanish history course
• Historical and political aspects

Spanish Speaking Skills Course
• Spanish Government, The Recession, and Corruption.
• Writers
• Current Events from "El País"
• Spanish Art
• Movies
• Discussion on Spanish Culture: Spanish Traditions, Holidays, Food, Music
• Madrid and Excursions
• Madrid's Hidden Gems: bars, restaurants, parks, markets

Everyday Practical Spanish
• Getting Set Up
• Getting Around: Transport in the City
• Common Phrases to Use on the Street
• Directions
• Ordering in a Restaurant
• Tapas Experience
• Going to the Doctor
• Markets in Spain
• Traveling around Spain/Europe
• Earning Extra Money
• Interviewing Locals

Source: CD 2: 21-49

3.3.2. Research Papers: Topics and Strategies

The following two RP were selected for the same cultural context as in the previous section:

Table 16
RP that Include Guides on Cultural Aspects

2016-2017	MA INT EDUCATION	Cultural Shock and Adaptation for First Time Expat Teachers: **Proposing a Resource Guide for Expat Teachers**
2016-2017	MA INT EDUCATION	Analysis of the Importance of Cross-Cultural Training for U.S. Undergraduate Students Studying Abroad in Spain: **proposal of a practical Cross-Cultural Guide for students studying abroad in Spain**

Source: own elaboration

The first RP approached culture shock both as a phenomenon and as a 'paradox' and it offered information about its causes and characteristics, as well as an analysis and background information useful in the context of education in Spain and Korea. It provided a

guide with information and basic training that could help teachers to understand and prevent the phenomenon**:**

> a practical guide with information on required travel documents, programs for teaching abroad, tips on moving, and coping strategies for culture shock will be included as a result of this research to be used by schools and teachers to make transitions in another culture easier and more effective (RP 1: 7).

The guide included the following general and specific topics:

Table 17
Topics in RP 1

1-IT´S ALL ABOUT PLANNING AHEAD
 1.1 How to prepare for a job overseas-planning, application, and accepting positions tips
 1.2 Travel Documents for Teaching English Abroad List
 1.3 Passport information
 1.4 Visa Descriptions, Types
 1.5 Degrees/Certifications-Possible types, Chart of different certifications
 1.6 Criminal Background Check -How to get one
 1.7 Other documents

2- IT´S ALL ABOUT MOVING ABROAD
 2.1 Finding a job abroad- Questions to ask before committing
 2.2 Moving Checklist

3-IT'S ALL ABOUT CULTURE
 3.1 Quick Summary
 3.2 What is Culture?
 3.3 Aspects of Culture-
   3.3.1 Cultural Types-Lewis Model
   3.3.2 Cultural Iceberg
   3.3.3 Communication Patterns and Assumptions
   3.3.4 Why might I experience culture shock in my host country
   3.3.5 Comparison Activities
 3.4 What is Culture Shock?
 3.5 Culture shock stages
 3.6 Passage for Experiencing a New Environment
 3.7 Symptoms/Feelings
 3.8 Culture shock reactions
 3.9 Responding to Culture Shock

Source: RP 1: 47

The second RP had two different objectives and was divided into two specific parts. The first one analyzed the current situation regarding cross-cultural training, training needs, information, and training resources provided to U.S. undergraduate students. The second one included a "guide to help students develop their own cultural self-awareness prior to studying abroad" (1).

The variety of the topics providing information on culture and skills, guidelines, recommendations, tips, and resources can be observed in the table of contents:

Table 18
General topics in RP 2

Table of Contents of the Guide

Source: RP 2: 48-49 (adaptation)

The approach in terms of the specific topics (Table 19) reveals two perspectives. First, understanding cultural differences is essential, particularly regarding "values and behavior in certain circumstances such as academic settings, cuisine, social meetings as well as understanding 'deeper cultural concepts' and the complexity of culture shock". Second, the relation between two key elements in intercultural meetings (communication styles and pragmatics) is discussed through recommendations (dos and don'ts) based on "the comparison of

different communication acts (greetings, compliments, requests) and contextual elements (the perception of space)" (Vitalaru, 2019a).

Table 19
Specific topics in RP 2

Source: RP 2: 48

3.3.3. Adapting the Information and Strategies
3.3.3.1 CD

Regarding the strategies used to adapt the information in CD 1, some of them can be observed when analyzing the information in Figures 6 and 7, below:

Figure 6
Strategy I in CD

Source: CD 1: 58

Figure 7
Strategy II in CD

2. Private Medical Facility Information

- **Give to Bilingual Coordinator at Your School**

- **Auxiliaries Have Different Insurance** (your school must have your doctor contact information on file)

- **Store Doctor Contact in Your Phone**

- Metro: Alonso Martínez (Line 4, Line 5, and Line 10)
- Tel.: 91-700-1979
- Website: www.sinews.es
- Psychology, Psychiatry, Multi-cultural couples, Grief counseling, Eating disorders, Non-substance addictions, Cultural adaptation, Support group for victims of sexual aggression

Tourist Health (Hospital Universitario HM Madrid)

- Plaza del Conde del Valle de Súchil, 16, 28015, Madrid (Madrid)

Source: CD 1: 59

Generally, it can be said that the strategies used are: a direct approach ("call your school", "call your doctor", "give to bilingual coordinator at your school"); visual elements (photos of the actual place it refers to, arrows and lines, different colors and fonts); fragmented information, and questions-answers structure ("what to do before you get sick", "what to do when you get sick", etc.).

As for the specific strategies in CD 2, we observe several aspects. First, that the paper proposed different courses that focused on the relation between language skills and other skills. Second, it included competences such as cultural awareness or, as the author mentioned, "the focus on the practical side of learning Spanish": use of the language in various real-life situations "outside of the classroom on the streets of Spain" (37). Moreover, the direct approach can be observed in the journal activity proposed to reflect on their actual experience after an internship experience:

Figure 8
Direct approach

<u>7.2 Guided Questions for Practical Internship Weekly Journals</u>

1. Reflect on your first week on the job. How did you feel upon starting the job? Were you excited or nervous on Monday? How did you feel on Friday? Do you have goals for the internship?
2. What similarities and differences do you see between the Spanish and American work environments?
3. Now that you have been working for three weeks, do you feel more confident using your Spanish in the workplace? If yes, why? If no, what do you think is influencing you not to be confident using your Spanish?

Source: CD 2: 69

3.3.3.2 RP

The strategies used to adapt the information identified in RP 1 are quite specific too. First, questions-answers structures are used, as well as a direct approach, such as the one in the example below:

Figure 9
Strategy 1

2.1 WHAT QUESTIONS SHOULD I ASK MYSELF WHEN MOVING ABROAD?
- Why do I want to move abroad? Appropriate reasons include: career development/advancement, to experience worldliness/ other cultures, meet new people or increase financial benefits. Inappropriate reasons could include: Escaping life/ a person/ situation, change of weather, extended vacation
- Am I ready for the challenge? Moving abroad causes many obstacles and challenges based upon how much support one recieves from the teaching program. Looks into what services they provide, such as housing, language or culture information/courses, transportation pickup, orientation, housing, airfare, assistance with setting up living (bank accounts, electricity, water)

Source: RP 1: 70

Second, the use of a checklist with the same direct approach identified in the case of the CD is another strategy. It can help the target student organize his/her ideas and adopt a pragmatic attitude towards the actions required as well as a sense of accomplishment:

Figure 10
Strategy 2

2.2 MOVING CHECKLIST

3-6 months prior to move
• Make an inventory of all the items you plan to sell, put into storage and take with you. Record their size, value and estimated weight.
• Complete a pre-visit if possible in order to be familiar with the area.
• If the house or apartment is available to see, take photos of all aspects of the property and make an accurate floor plan
• Buy a container or folder to store necessary paperwork needed for the move (estimates, letters, receipts, phone numbers, previous year taxes, important bank information)

Source: RP 1: 73

Finally, the guide also included activities to encourage self-reflection and application of the basic knowledge learned:

Figure 11
Strategy 3

Xinyuan, who works for Industrial Design Department, The Academy Of Arts & Design, Tsinghua University, defines Culture as "Culture is conceptualized as a 'system of meaning that underlies routine and behavior in everyday working life' [3].Culture 'includes race and ethnicity as well as other variables and is manifested in customary behaviors, assumptions, and values, patterns of thinking and communication style' [4].'Culture is communication, and communication is culture' [5].

TASK: Think about the traits of culture and how they have influenced you as an Individual.
• How have these traits influenced you in your home country?
• How do you think they will affect you abroad?
• In what ways do you think they will change?

Source: RP 1: 77

As for the specific strategies identified in RP 2, some examples have been included either in the form of:

a) An observation and an inferred comparison (Figure 12):

Figure 12
Strategy 1

    o Expected work load

In Spain and most other European countries, there is generally not a lot of assigned "homework" or work to be done outside of the classroom aside from a couple larger papers or projects that will carry most of the weight for the final grade of the course. Most often, professors will assign short readings or exercises to be done at home before the next class to reinforce what was taught in class that day or to preview what will be taught during the next class session.

Source: RP 2: 54

b) A warning (Figure 13):

Figure 13
Strategy 2

Be careful! Just because something is not labeled as "homework" or the professor will not be checking that you have done it during the next class, doesn't mean that it is optional. If you slack on these small assignments, when the big test or final paper/project is assigned you may be unprepared.

Source: RP 2: 55

c) Additional practical readings (Figure 14):

Figure 14
Strategy 3

    o Common teaching styles and methods

Read about some common teaching methods for tertiary education in Spain:

http://tertiary-education.studentnews.eu/s/2328/57788-Tertiary-education/2913251-12-Spain-Teaching-methods.htm

Source: RP 2: 55

To summarize, in terms of the specific strategies used to adapt the information for the reader, the following seem essential to address the target audience in an efficient way:

- Direct approach addressing the reader (mostly informal style).
- Use of questions to encourage reflection and self-identifying strategies.
- Use of visual elements and details about the aspect discussed.
- Practice exercises.
- Identifying differences and contrasting information.
- Suggestions based on own experience, studies, and reports from other students.
- Theoretical background.

3.3.4. Findings and Traditional Classifications

This section has two main aims: first, to highlight the aspects that LAs consider fundamental for effective communication in cross-cultural situations; second, to establish the cultural components approached considering the traditional classifications mentioned in section 1 of this article.

Considering the first aim, the aspects approached in the LAs' papers as part of culture-related topics, were initially classified in Vitalaru (2019a) into four main categories (a)-d)), which will be adapted and expanded based on the findings in this paper. Two more categories will be added (e) and f)):

a) General cultural and social aspects

- Popular culture (arts in general; music, literature, movies).
- Traditions, holidays, celebrations, cuisine, customs, and practices.
- Historical facts.
- Geographical variations.
- Social events and political aspects.

The following social aspects were specifically discussed: different types of social problems that resulted into specific behaviors and attitudes in different periods such as civil rights, women' roles and oppression, immigration, refugees, and human rights. Some papers even showed the relation between political aspects, historical aspects, or religious and sociocultural characteristics of particular groups.

b) Lifestyle

- Pragmatic aspects (housing, transportation, traveling, budgeting, opening a bank account, other formalities).
- Behavioral aspects (dos and don'ts, socializing in bars, restaurants, parks, etc.).

c) Systems: education, health, work settings

- Education approaches, differences, and tips.
- Healthcare system.
- Job-seeking.
- Embassy formalities.

Of particular interest is the perception of education and the cultural differences involved. Thus, some of the aspects approached particularly in the practical guides proposed are: the perception of roles (teacher, student, LA), the different educational backgrounds and policies, the cultural values reflected through education, the importance of culture in language skills acquisition, the status of minority cultures in schools and culture clash, and the relation between education and social class.

d) Cultural awareness and adaptation

- Culture shock.
- Cultural and intercultural awareness.
- Communication patterns/styles.
- General kills: self-awareness, independence, confidence, and open-mindedness.
- Understanding of intercultural relations and diversity.
- Breaking down cultural stereotypes.

- Acceptance of new cultures.

 e) Attitudes and identity

- Bilingualism, multiculturalism, and how they affect one's identity.
- Challenges of training multicultural students.
- Defining a specific identity, historical events or even controversial social and political issues such as immigration, segregation, rights, etc. The diversity of identities and cultural aspects referred to in the papers is essential too.
- LA's role as a cultural ambassador.

 f) Awareness as LA regarding

- Specific educational differences (systems, roles, training strategies and assessment procedures, skills focused on, types of schools and levels of education, perceptions regarding labor market training).
- Perception of training needs in relation to language and culture as well as the importance of life and professional skills.
- Their own culture, cross-cultural differences, and effects of intercultural aspects on teaching a second language in Spain or in another country.

On the other hand, regarding the second aim, several observations can be made.

First, non-material culture seems to be preferred over material culture, through aspects that reflect attitudes, beliefs, ideas, norms, and values that influence behavior and direct socialization. These elements are specific for different time periods (historical and political facts), regions (geographical aspects) or formal professional settings. At the same time, they can also be related with typical situations of everyday life (social gatherings, behavior, and procedures people follow in practical situations such as transportation, social security formalities, etc.) Other aspects that can be included in the same category are those related to (inter)cultural awareness and their relation to effective communication. Of particular relevance are the advice and recommendations about how to avoid or overcome culture shock.

Material culture is also included in many of the papers through representative artistic elements (visual arts, music, literature, and movies), traditions, holidays, celebrations, cuisine, and other visible practices, particularly from popular culture.

Second, the classification into mentifacts, sociofacts, and artifacts and their specific subsystem can also be identified. Thus, although artifacts are included in all the papers, mentifacts and sociofacts are particularly considered in the guides designed for LAs. It is interesting to observe how the students approached the ideological and sociological systems focusing on the "mental manifestations of culture" (beliefs, attitudes, etc.) (White, 1949) and the different ways in which cultural aspects affect communication and interaction in different situations.

Third, both invisible and visible culture are approached through the same elements discussed in the previous classifications (material, which can be associated with visible elements, and non-material, which can be specific for invisible aspects). Most of the aspects included in the literature can be easily found in the papers analyzed. Some of the most common visible elements are language, greetings, arts, food, music, dance, and clothing. On the other hand, examples of invisible culture are communication, body language, perception of time, personal space, gender roles, authority, worldview, religious beliefs, decision-making models, ideas about leadership, etc. Moreover, some of the concepts discussed belong to both categories. For example, religion and education are complicated as they involve rituals and practices that are visible and easily accessible but, at the same time, specific ideologies, as well as a social and historical context. Thus, understanding behaviors and attitudes in Spain necessarily implies being familiar with the ideology behind them.

Forth, no specific distinction seems to be made between high and low culture elements in the sense described in this paper although there seems to be a high interest in popular culture. It is seen as specific for the mass practices, ideas, and goods that were dominant in a certain period in Spain and in the US. The idea of authenticity, spontaneity, and

specificity is also implied in the approach. Most of the categories established by Gary West (2019) can be found in several papers particularly: a) entertainment (music, television, and movies); b) people and places from sports and news, and c) politics, fashion, technology; the importance of mass media on people's attitudes. In this category, literature and different types of artistic behavior are particularly significant not only for cultural background but also as strategies for developing motivation and specific communication skills.

Conclusions

Although the term sociocultural awareness is not specifically used in the papers, the analysis revealed a high interest in topics related to culture and communication in different settings. Thus, terms such as intercultural communication, intercultural competence, cross-cultural communication, cultural aspects, relations, differences or challenges, cultural (self-) awareness, cultural understanding, cultural competence or skills are common in the corpus of papers and titles analyzed.

Considering the objectives of the paper it can be said that not only the percentage of papers that discuss culture-related topics is high (approx. 70 %), but the specific topics approached, and the focus given to the papers reveal a high level of awareness regarding the importance and impact cultural awareness has on interlinguistic communication and second language teaching.

Another important aspect observed in the papers is the need for specific strategies used to adapt the information for the reader and address the target audience in an efficient way. Although not directly shown or underlined with examples, students themselves imply the need or the existence of a strategy, particularly in the case of the guides on cultural aspects proposed.

All the sociological perspectives discussed in the theoretical part seem to be approached in a more or less specific or direct way in the papers analyzed. This is seen in the fact that most of them include both

a solid theoretical background about the main topic and a practical part. Although the cultural components and categories are mixed and there seems to be no clear distinction between them in the papers, the components are integrated into the general educational approach. They are based on real-life application in the context of effective interaction in different types of communicative acts. This suggests a high level of sociocultural awareness that the students/LAs translated into providing practical solutions for the specific needs detected and less interest in the details of the theoretical background behind them.

Although this analysis is limited, it provides ideas and reflections about the perception LAs have regarding the cultural aspects that their peers should be aware of or learn about prior to their stay in a different country, especially in Spain. Simultaneously, it shows the complexity of the concept of culture and some applications of its perception in certain circumstances.

Bibliography

Assumpta, M. (2009). Intercultural Competences as a Trust Factor in Virtual Team Work. *Encyclopedia of Human Resources Information Systems: Challenges in e-HRM*. Retrieved 20 January from https://www.igi-global.com/chapter/intercultural-competences-trust-factor-virtual/13282.

BGSU (2018-2019). *Pre-Departure Handbook*, 1-35. Retrieved 20 January from https://www.bgsu.edu/content/dam/BGSU/internaionalprogramsandpart nerships/Education-Abroad/documents/2018-2019-Pre-Departure-Handbook.pdf .

CD 1. (2017). *Survival Guide for North American ELA Teachers coming to Teach in Madrid, Spain*. Master's in International Education. Instituto Franklin-UAH.

CD. 2 (2016). *Semester-Long Spanish Language & Culture Study Abroad Curriculum for American University Students*. Master's in International Education. Instituto Franklin-UAH.

RP 1. (2017). *Cultural Shock and Adaptation for First Time Expat Teachers: Proposing a Resource Guide for Expat Teachers*. Master's in International Education. Instituto Franklin-UAH.

RP 2. (2017). *Analysis of the Importance of Cross-Cultural Training for U.S. Undergraduate Students Studying Abroad in Spain: Proposal of a Practical Cross-Cultural Guide for Students Studying Abroad in Spain*. Master's in International Education. Instituto Franklin-UAH.

Banković, I. (2015). Sociocultural theory and Second Language Acquisition. *Elta Newsletter, January,* 1-7. Retrieved 20 January from https://issuu.com/eltanewsletter/docs/elta_newsletter_january-february_20.

Bodley, J. (2009). On Culture. *Course Critical Theory.* Retrieved 15 January from http://pegasus.cc.ucf.edu/~janzb/courses/phi4804/bodley1.htm

Bennett, J. M. (2014). Intercultural Competence: Vital Perspectives for Diversity and Inclusion. En B. M. Ferdman and B. R.

Deane (Eds.), *Diversity at Work: The Practice of Inclusion* (pp. 155-176). San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons. doi:10.1002/9781118764282

Boroch, R. (2016). A Formal Concept of Culture in the Classification of Alfred L. Kroeber & Clyde Kluckhohn. *Analecta*, *25,* 61-101. Retrieved 15 January from https://philpapers.org/rec/ROBAFC-5.

British Council (2019). Sociocultural awareness. Retrieved 20 January from https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/sociocultural-awareness.

Bhushan, V., & Sachdev, D. (2012). *Fundamentals of Sociology*. India: Pearson Education.

Cambridge Online Dictionary. Culture. Retrieved 15 January from https://dictionary.cambridge.org/es/diccionario/ingles/culture

Dictionary of Modern Sociology (1969). Culture. T. F Hoult. *Dictionary of Modern Sociology*. New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams & Co.

Encyclopedia of Small Business (2007). Intercultural Communication. Retrieved 20 January from

https://www.encyclopedia.com/entrepreneurs/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/intercultural-communication.

Fahim, M., & Haghani, M. (2012). Sociocultural Perspectives on Foreign Language Learning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 3* (4), 693-699.

Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond Culture.* USA: Random House.

Hammer, M. (2012). The Intercultural Development Inventory: A New Frontier in Assessment and Development of Intercultural Competence. In M. Vande Berg, R.M. Paige and K.H. Lou (Eds.), *Student Learning Abroad* (pp. 115-136). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.

Kroeber, A. L., and C. Kluckhohn (1952). *Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions*. Cambridge, MA: Peabody Museum.

Langua (2010). Intercultural Communication. Language Network for Quality Assurance. Retrieved 20 January from https://www.lanqua.eu/theme/intercultural-communication/

Lantolf, J. P., and Thorne, S. L (2006). *Socio-Cultural Theory and the Genesis of Second Language Development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lantolf, P., & S. L. Thorne. (2007). Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning. In B. Van Patten and J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 693-701). N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Lantolf, P. J. (2007). Sociocultural Theory: A Unified Approach to L2 Learning and Teaching. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.). *International Handbook of English Language Teaching* (pp. 693-701). NY: Springer Science Business Media, LLC.

Language and Culture Worldwide (2015). The Cultural Iceberg. Retrieved 15 January from https://www.languageandculture.com/cultural-iceberg.

Merriam Webster Dictionary (2019). Culture. Retrieved 15 January from https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/culture.

McGaha, J. (2015). Popular Culture & Globalization. *Multicultural Education*, *23* (1), 32–37. Retrieved 23 January from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1090398.pdf.

New World Encyclopedia (2013). Culture. Retrieved 15 January from http://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Culture#cite_note-0.

International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (2008a). Culture. Retrieved 16 January from https://www.encyclopedia.com/social-sciences-and-law/anthropology-and-archaeology/anthropology-terms-and-concepts/culture.

International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (2008b). Material Culture. Retrieved 16 January from https://www.encyclopedia.com/social-sciences-and-law/sociology-and-social-reform/sociology-general-terms-and-concepts/material-culture.

International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (2008c). Culture. High and Low. Retrieved 16 January from https://www.encyclopedia.com/social-sciences/applied-and-social-sciences-magazines/culture-low-and-high.

International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (2008d). Popular Culture. Retrieved 16 January from https://www.encyclopedia.com/earth-and-environment/ecology-and-environmentalism/environmental-studies/popular-culture.

Omori, K. (2017). Cross-Cultural Communication. In M. Allen (Ed.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods*.

Open Education Sociology Dictionary (2013). Nonmaterial culture. K. Bell. Retrieved 16 January from https://sociologydictionary.org/nonmaterial-culture/.

Polly, D. *et al.* (2017). Sociocultural Perspectives of Learning. In Richard E. West (Ed.), *Foundations of Learning and Instructional Design Technology* (pp. 124-147). US: Pressbooks. Retrieved 23 January from https://lidtfoundations.pressbooks.com/front-matter/acknowledgments/.

Psychologist World. Sociocultural Approach. Retrieved 20 January from https://www.psychologistworld.com/cognitive/learning/sociocultural-approach-vygotsky-zone-proximal-development#references.

Sociology Guide. Culture. Retrieved 15 January from http://www.sociologyguide.com/basic-concepts/Culture.php.

Storey, J. (2015). *Cultural Theory and Popular Culture: An Introduction*. Fifth edition. Routledge.

Takševa Chorney, T. (2009). The World Wide Web and Cross-Cultural Teaching in Online Education. *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology, Second Edition.* Retrieved 1 February from https://www.igi-global.com/chapter/world-wide-web-cross-cultural/14199.

UNESCO (2002). UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity. Retrieved 15 January from http://www.unesco.org/education/imld_2002/unversal_decla.shtml#2.

Uzun, L. (2015). The Digital World and the Elements in Digital Communication and FL Learning. *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology, Third Edition.* Retrieved 1 February from https://www.igi-global.com/chapter/the-digital-world-and-the-elements-in-digital-communication-and-fl-learning/112618.

Vitalaru, B., and Vescan, I. (2018). 'Survival Kit' for American Language Assistants in Madrid: Analysis of Teaching Methods and Solutions in 'Academic Format'. In Mª E. Gómez-Parra and R. Johnstone (Eds.), *Nuevas perspectivas en educación bilingüe: investigación e innovación* (pp. 369-379). Granada: Universidad de Granada.

Vitalaru, B. (2019a). *What Do You Mean? Practical Guides as Tools for Language Assistants' Cross-Cultural Perceptions*. IV

Congreso Internacional sobre Educación Bilingüe. Universidad de Córdoba.

Vitalaru, B. (2019b). Research, Topics, and Difficulties in Academic Papers Written by American Language Assistants in Spain. *American Journal of Research*, *1-2*, 71-93. Retrieved 1 February from http://journalofresearch.us/wp-content/uploads/2019/02/71-93.pdf.

West, G. (2019). What Is Pop Culture? *Database of Pop Culture*. Retrieved 1 February from http://mrpopculture.com/what-is-pop-culture.

White, L. A. (1949). *The Science of Culture*. New York: Farrar, Strauss.

Self-regulation of Arabic Reading Comprehension of upper Elementary Students

Rania Abdo
Saint Joseph University
rania.abdo@usj.edu.lb
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1316-930X

Leyla Akoury Dirani
American University of Beirut
la55@aub.edu.lb
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1121-0989

Abstract: This study examines the self-regulation processes of reading comprehension in Arabic of Lebanese students in upper elementary who perform poorly only in this language. The focus is on the cognitive and metacognitive strategies these students use, and on the motivational components of self-regulation. A questionnaire and two different semi-structured interviews were administered to fifteen elementary students and to their Arabic teachers, in a French-speaking school in Beirut. Participants do not self-regulate efficiently their Arabic reading comprehension and they tend to seldom use cognitive learning strategies. Self-regulatory processes are predicted by participants' lack of motivation that manifests itself mostly through perceptions of moderate self-efficacy of performance and low expectations of success. This is the first step towards understanding the learning processes of students poorly performing in Arabic reading. It can provide means that will help students in applying self-regulated content learning of not only texts in Arabic but readings in general.

Key words: Reading comprehension; SRL; Cognitive Strategies; Self-efficacy; Metacognitive Reading Strategies.

Introduction

For some students, for whom decoding is easy, reading comprehension of informative texts may be hindered by deficient cognitive processes, including cognitive and self-regulation strategies. In a bilingual context, these difficulties are observed in one of the two languages (Abu shmais, 2002; Alsheikh & Moukhtari, 2011). Cognitive and motivational processes of self-regulation of reading comprehension have been widely studied in a monolingual context. It would be interesting to study them in a bilingual context.

1.- Context of the study

In Lebanon, the native language/ mother tongue is Arabic. However, Lebanese children converse in dialect Arabic and French or

English at home and in society. Furthermore, education is at least bilingual since preschool that is, beside literary or classical Arabic, students learn either French in francophone schools or English in anglophone schools. Hence, students are expected to have the same level of fluency in two languages, with literary Arabic being one of them. However, difficulties in understanding informative texts have been empirically observed in only one of the two languages of instruction, in this case Arabic. Studying this phenomenon is crucial to understand and prevent failure in subjects taught in Arabic like history and geography.

2.- Reading Comprehension and Self-Regulated Learning

Reading comprehension is essential for elementary students in order to prepare them to meet the requirements of the middle and high schools, where reading becomes an essential means of acquiring knowledge. According to Kintsch (1988), Stanovich (1994), Kamil, Mosenthal, Pearson, & Barr (2016), content reading comprehension has a learning function where self-regulation would be essential. Indeed, besides understanding simple meaning of text content, high level of comprehension of content relies on self-monitoring process and cognitive learning strategies. These include integrating new information to prior background knowledge, organization strategies, and elaboration strategies, namely synthesizing information from multiple texts and composing a well-organized statement (Pressley, 2002; Guthrie, Schafer & Huang, 2001).

Therefore, in order to fully understand / learn what s/he reads, the student must self-regulate the activity (Nelson and Manset-Williamson, 2006; Souvignier and Mokhlesgerami, 2006; Donker, De Boer, Kostons, Van Ewijk, & van der Werf, 2014). According to one of the most widely used definitions, Self-regulated learning refers to "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically

adapted to the attainment of personal goals" (Zimmerman, 2000:14). Wherein the learner follows a cyclical model of self- regulatory learning (Butler &Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 1998; Butler & Cartier, 2004; Pintrich, 2000; Vandervelde, Van Keer & Rosseel, 2013). In fact, self-regulated learners use metacognitive strategies, are motivated and have a strategic approach to learning tasks (Pintrich 2002; Zimmerman, 2008; Panadero, 2017).

Accordingly reading comprehension must include student's metacognitive strategies for planning, controlling and adjusting, and self-evaluating his or her comprehension and the effectiveness of the strategies used. In this specific situation, while the reader is searching for the meaning of the text, s/he must pursue an explicit goal of understanding that is learning (Pintrich, 2002; Cartier, 2007; Zimmerman, 2008). Throughout his/her reading, s/he judges the success of comprehension and, if necessary, adjusts it. Self-evaluation strategies help to ensure that the whole content is read, understood, and the task completed.

Moreover, when reading an informative text, the skilled reader must learn the important information through rehearsal, selection, elaboration and organization strategies (Van Dijk & Kintsch 1983; Weinstein & Meyer, 1986; Kintsch, 1988; Vauras, 1991; Pressley *et al.*, 1992; Cartier, 2007). The efficiency of choosing and using these cognitive learning strategies influences comprehension and, subsequently, learning text content (Palinscar and Brown, 1984, Souvignier & Mokhlesgerami, 2006, Spörer, Brunstein, & Kieschke, 2008, Donker *et al.*, 2014).

3.- Motivational components of Self-regulation

The reader must not only know and regulate his cognitive reading strategies but must also be motivated to do so (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Zimmerman, Bonner & Kovach, 1996; Boekaerts, 1999:

Butler & Cartier, 2004; Nelson &Manset-Williamson, 2006; Schunk and Zimmerman, 2003, Guthrie *et al.*, 2004).

Several motivational factors mediate these strategies. These include the goals pursued, the interest in activity, the motivation to read, and the belief in personal efficacy (Pintrich & de Groot 1990; Bandura, 1993, Bandura, Barbaranelli, Capara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Stipek 2002; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003; Boekaert & Corno, 2005; Panadero, Jonsson., & Botella, 2017). This motivation is manifested in the deployment of efforts to reach success, the pleasure of undertaking challenges, the use of appropriate learning strategies, the pursuit of explicit learning objectives, and a high level of self-efficacy (Schunk, 1994; Pintrich, 2000; Pintrich et Schunk, 2002). Some difficulties in reading comprehension, which have a negative impact on the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and on engagement and perseverance, are linked to the performance objectives pursued and to a negative perception of the efficacy of one's personal reading abilities.

The present research aims to study the self-regulation processes of Arabic reading comprehension of 4th and 5th grades Lebanese students performing poorly in this language. The focus is, particularly, on the cognitive and metacognitive strategies and on students' motivational components of self-regulated learning. Motivational variables targeted are perceived self-efficacy to perform an Arabic reading task, and its intrinsic value.

4.- Methodology

In the absence of any previous similar study in Lebanon, an exploratory study based on fifteen cases is carried out. It relies on a quantitative and qualitative data analysis in order to identify as closely as possible the cognitive processes at stake.

4.1.- Field and participants

The research is conducted in the last quarter of the school year in May at the end of the second semester in a private francophone school in Beirut. The sample included 15 Lebanese native students, 5 fourth graders and 10 fifth graders, and their Arabic teachers (5 teachers). Each teacher was interviewed about her own students. There were 10 boys (66.6%) and 5 girls (33.4%) aged 9 to 11 years old.

All participants did their preschool and primary studies following the Lebanese bilingual program (Arabic / French). The selected students failed in Arabic and Arabic reading (Arabic general average below 9.5 / 20). However, they succeed in French (French general average higher than 10.5 / 20) and in all subjects taught in French (math and science). Academic performance was measured by collecting averages of the student performance on quizzes and exams since the beginning of the year.

Selected students had significantly lower averages on Arabic reading than on both French reading and general averages. Paired t-tests indicated a significant difference between the Arabic reading and the French reading averages (t (14) = -5.069; p = 0.000). Similarly, a significant difference was found between the Arabic average and the student general average (t (14) = -6.839, p = 0. 000 <0.05).

4.2.- Instruments
4.2.1.- Questionnaire

An adaptation of the self-report questionnaire: the Motivated Strategies for Learning (MSLQ) (Pintrich and DeGroot, 1990) was used. The MSLQ included 56 items divided into five 7-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all true of me* to 7 = *very true of me)* measuring 7th grade students' motivation, cognitive strategy use, metacognitive strategy use, and management of effort when learning science or English. It includes as well a final scale measuring test anxiety.

A French version of the MSLQ was constructed and adapted by the authors to the context of an Arabic reading task and to the age of the learners. It included four scales. Students were instructed to respond to the items on a frequency based 4-point Likert scale *(1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3= often, 4= always).* It consisted of 43 statements. The 4 scales had a significant internal consistency Cronbach Alpha> 0.7.

The Self-Efficacy scale (SI, α=0.796) consisted of nine statements measuring student's expectancy and beliefs about their ability to perform an Arabic reading task.

The Intrinsic Value scale (SII, α= 0.675) was composed of 8 items assessing students' goals setting and beliefs about the importance and interest of the task, in addition to the importance of reading comprehension.

The Cognitive Learning Strategy Use scale (SIII, α= 0.923) consisted of 15 items pertaining to the use of rehearsal strategies such as re-reading and taking notes, selection strategies that is underlining key words, selecting main and secondary ideas of the text (Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983; Pressley et al, 1992), organizational strategies such as finding links among text information and using prior knowledge,

elaboration strategies such as summarizing and paraphrasing, predicting (Van Grunderbeeck, 1994; Sprörer, Joachim, Brunstein, & Kieschke, 2009), and creating a mental image (Vauras, 1991; Kinnunen & Vauras, 2010).

The Self-Regulation scale (SIV, α= 0.93) consisted of 11 items. It measured task planning, self-monitoring of effectiveness and comprehension, and self-evaluation of performance. The scale assessed also effort management strategies that included persistence at difficult or boring tasks, in addition to adjustment of strategy to suit the amount of remaining time.

4.2.2.- Interviews

An interview with the 15 students. It aims to deepen the understanding of the answers to the questionnaire. It consists of 12 dichotomous and semi-open ended questions; these take up the themes of the questionnaire. As well, an interview with the five Arabic teachers was conducted. It aims to examine the teachers' perception of their students' vis-à-vis the same variables listed in the questionnaire. It consists of 16 questions, dichotomous and semi-open ended.

These three tools allow the triangulation of data collection (Van der Maren, 1996).

4.3.- Procedure

The research obtained the approval of the committee of ethics of Saint Joseph University, the consent of the school, as well as the consent of the children and their parents. For the piloting, the questionnaire and the interviews were administered to 5 students and 2 teachers. Their results were not included in the analysis and no changes occurred after the piloting.

The self-report questionnaire was filled in, at the same time, by all the participants who were later interviewed for 15-20 minutes, each at a time, by the researcher. All student interviews were conducted over a one-week period. The five teachers were interviewed about each of their students (each about each of hers) during 25-30 minutes.

Quantitative data was entered and processed by the SPSS 21 software. Qualitative data was recorded and transcribed verbatim and then grouped according to thematic units. The descriptive analysis was carried out on the frequencies of answers to the questionnaire. The values assigned to the responses were compiled as follows: never = 1; sometimes = 2; often = 3 and always = 4. The data are analyzed in relation to the self-regulated learning model.

Pearson's correlation coefficient, multiple and linear regressions examined relationships between cognitive learning and metacognitive strategies and between motivational orientation, self-regulated and cognitive strategies use. Fisher's exact test was used to measure the relationship of correlations between questionnaire data and interview data.

5.- Results
5.1.- Self-regulation processes

Results show that participants self-regulate their reading activities with an average of 2.66 (s=± 0.735). The analysis of the results indicates the following self-regulation profile: the students tend to moderately use planning since half take the time to make a plan of the method they will follow before they start reading. Just as 67% of students self- evaluate their reading comprehension and 61.5% adjust their way of doing things over time. In addition, 85.7% often adjust and manage their effort during reading, even if they find the text difficult, and 67% persevere even if they find the text boring. It should be noted that obtaining a good grade causes 67% to persevere in their reading and to continue working

until finished. Moreover, 80% do not stop during the reading to review what has already been read. Comprehension monitoring strategies are used by half (53%) of the participants.

The Pearson correlation test demonstrated that students who make a plan before starting work is significantly correlated with how the students monitor the quality of their learning (r= 0.669, p = 0.009), adjust their work method (r= 0.658, p = 0.020) and effort (r= 0.575, p = 0.040); also, planning correlates with how often the students self-evaluate their understanding (r= 0.662, p = 0.010).

The results of the interviews with the 15 students are in accordance with those of the questionnaire. In sum, 7 out of 15 said that they make a plan before starting their reading. Seven students monitor their method of doing and their comprehension during reading; and when they are unsure of the quality of the performance of their work, they adjust their method and their lack of comprehension especially through the use of rehearsal (as a cognitive strategy). Moreover, 7 self-evaluate the quality of their work and a little less than half self-evaluate their comprehension.

Concerning self- assessment significant Fisher test (at p = 0.032 <0.05) shows finishing on time is a factor that is associated with the revision of work as well as self-evaluation.

Figure 1. shows that only 34% of students follow the complete self-regulation cycle as shown by the responses to the questionnaire as well as the interview. Others do not systematically use planning strategies, control, adjustment of understanding, nor self-evaluation effectively.

Figure 1
Self-Regulation Strategies Used by Each Student (interview)
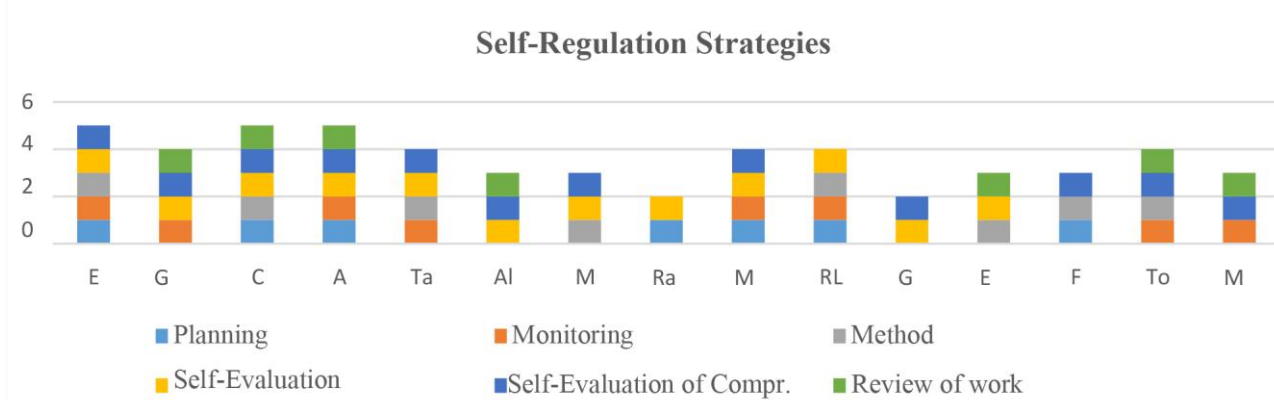
Source: own elaborated by the authors based on the results of the interview conducted with the students.

According to the five teachers, the majority of students (11 of 15) do not plan their time to complete the activity. The teachers' responses were almost equally divided concerning their students' self-evaluation of reading comprehension. Concerning the adjustment of the strategies and the working method in case of difficulties, the teachers affirmed that the majority (10 of 15) do not adjust the application of the chosen strategies, and that 8 of their students cannot adjust their working method in case of difficulties.

5.2.- Cognitive strategies

As per the questionnaire, the Cognitive Strategies scale (Scale III) average was 2.47 (s = ± 0.54). In terms of organizing strategies, 76 % of students make links between the text and previous learning and knowledge, 67% try to find the links between the information in the text, and 35.7% make the link between the information explained in class and in the text. With respect to rehearsal strategies, 60% most often use the re-reading, 57% resort to the mental repetition of the details and important facts. The respondents use the strategies of elaboration in the following manner: imaging (60%), prediction (57%), paraphrasing (43%), and lastly summarizing the text (26%). Selection strategies were used by highlighting the important ideas of the text (38.5%) and selecting the main ideas (33.3%)

Figure 2. shows the results of the interviews with the students. It illustrates that nine students use at least 4 of the cognitive strategies and only one student uses them all. Most of the students use the elaboration where 11 of 15 respondents mainly use the paraphrasing, and notably use the organization by making links between new information and previous knowledge (9 students use both). Then10 resort to re-reading (rehearsal), and only 5 select main and secondary ideas (selection).

Figure 2

Cognitive Strategies Used by Each Student (interview)
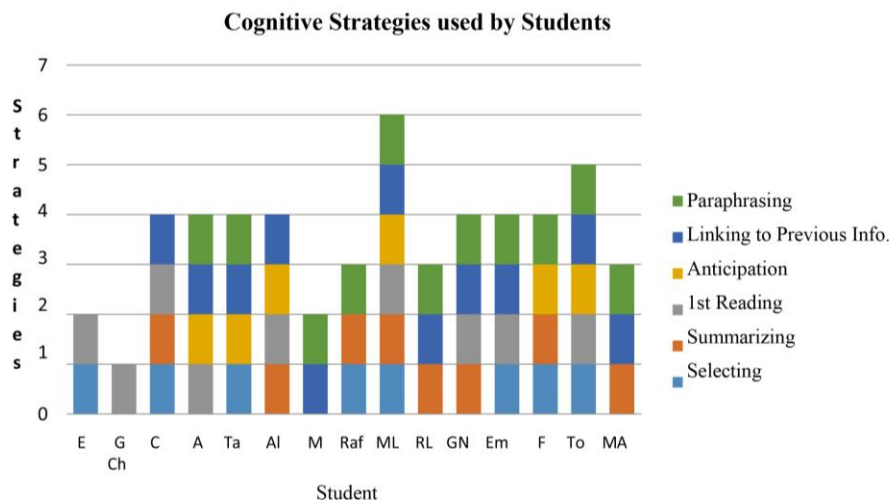
Source: own elaborated by the authors based on the results of the interview conducted with the students.

According to the teachers: only half of the students use reading strategies, especially those of selection (7/15) followed by those of rehearsal (re-reading, 7/15). Second, students seldom use the elaboration (summarize and paraphrase, 4/15) and the organization strategies (make a customized version of the information structure, 4/15).

The results also indicate that students' use of cognitive strategies depends significantly on the effect of their failing to self-regulate their Arabic reading (MeanScaleIII = 0.967 + 0.565 (MeanScale IV) (p = 0.001), r2 = 0.586). Indeed, the self-regulation of Arabic reading controls the choice and implementation of strategies.

5.3.- *The Motivational components of self-regulation*

Self-efficacy (Scale I). Students have limited expectations and average perceptions of their self-efficacy to perform an Arabic reading activity; the average score on the nine statements of the Self-Efficacy scale I is 2.49 (s = ± 0.58). The distribution of scale I responses reveals that participants neither perceive themselves to be good (8/13) in Arabic reading nor to have excellent ability (9/13) to study Arabic reading when comparing themselves to peers. Regarding self-efficacy, 9/15 students have a negative perception of their ability to understand the content of texts, 5/12 have a negative perception of their ability to learn the content of the texts, and 8/14 do not have a lot of knowledge about Arabic text subjects compared to other students in their class. On the other hand, their expectation of reading performance is rather positive as indicated by the responses to both concerned items (64.3 and 61.6%); however, when they compare with peers, this perception becomes negative. They do not expect to have a good grade in reading.

The data revealed by the questionnaire are confirmed in the interviews. Indeed, students have a negative perception of their skills in studying Arabic text. Eleven students of the 15 do not perceive themselves as good at Arabic reading and attribute their poor performance mostly to the difficulties they find there and to the language itself.

As for the feeling of self-efficacy, 12 of 15 children say that they can do better in Arabic reading. Eight students ensure they can improve their performance because they do either extra effort and work (6 students) or additional readings (2 students) in Arabic. The results of the interviews with the teachers go in the same direction as the previous results. Teachers perceive that 10 out of 15 participants have a negative perception of their Arabic skills, despite this 14 out of 15 are said to be able to do better and it is about "them being motivated to work".

According to their teachers, eight students are motivated to read Arabic. And this for extrinsic reasons like having a good grade to please parents and teachers or due to the encouragement and support of the teacher. As for those who are not, the reasons for this demotivation are mostly related to Arabic in itself. Motivational factors explain, at least in part, why some students lose interest in school activities and why in this context some people are convinced that they are incompetent (MEQ, 2003).

As for the intrinsic value attributed to the Arabic reading, the average score for the seven statements of scale II is 3.03 (s = ± 0.58), thus indicating a profile of respondents in compatibility with the components of this scale. Accordingly, students value Arabic reading and learning in this field. Nine of 15 students like what they learn in Arabic reading, 73.3% are aware of the importance of what they learn, and 73.3% of the usefulness of the learning they do there. 71.4%, of whom 64.3% always, value reading comprehension in Arabic. Indeed, 10 students claim that even when they do not do well in an Arabic text study, they try to learn from their mistakes. While 53.3% find interest in these learnings.

The correlation of the scale II inter-items of the questionnaire suggests that the perception of the importance of learning leads the participants to aim at mastery of learning in the study of Arabic texts (p = 0.026), to be aware of the importance of understanding the subject of reading and making comprehension a challenge (p = 0.036) that allows them to set goals for learning new knowledge in this discipline. They also show a significant link between the students' perception of the usefulness of learning in Arabic reading and their appreciation of it (p = 0.033), which, in turn, seems to make them aware of the importance of understanding the reading subject (p. = 0.04).

In the interviews, first, among the 15 respondents, 10 reveal not to like Arabic and for 3 of them, said it depends on the text read: "if the content is interesting I like". These data are contradictory with the results of the statement (a) of scale II. Knowing that this statement deals

specifically with the content they are learning in Arabic reading. Without forgetting to take into account the social desirability factor. Second, 3 respondents found the Arabic reading useful for improving their understanding of Arabic, and 12 respondents shared the view that Arabic reading serves to improve performance in all academic areas of the Arabic language.

In the interviews, the teachers said that 9 out of 15 students did not like Arabic, which corresponds to the students' results. The following themes are recurrent in the interview: the lack of interest of students in Arabic and the difficulty of Arabic, which are either due to lack of skills or due to the difference between dialect and classical Arabic that creates difficulties in understanding Arabic; and the influence of family socio-cultural values.

Given that respondents had the opportunity to choose several types of objectives, their answers are presented in the Table 1. Fourteen students opted for the objective to learn the information of the text, 12 of them chose to form a general idea on the subject of reading, as well. Eleven chose the objective to understand the information read, and 10 participants picked to memorize details or important facts. According to the findings, no participant chose memorization of information as a single objective without having chosen either learning or understanding or both as reading objectives.

Table 1
Reading objectives as reported by Students vs. Teachers' report (N=15)

	% as per Teacher	% as per Student
Learning information	40	93.3
Having a general idea about a topic	_	80
Understanding what is read	46.7	73.3
Memorizing important details and information	33.3	66.7
Finishing the task as fast as possible	86.7	20

Only reading the text	73.3	13.3
Getting good grades	53.3	_

Source: own elaborated by the authors based on the results of the interview conducted with the students.

The most cited objectives by the teachers are: first, to finish reading as much as possible, then to only read the text and to please or impress other people, then to have good grades. As for the comprehension of the content, it is reported as the goal of a little less than half of the students. Noting that teachers mentioned learning information and remembering details or important facts as the last two objectives. Thus, the desire to understand and learn the content of the text remains a secondary goal for students. In addition, the teachers' opinions were split in half with respect to their students' aim to achieve high grades.

Table 1. shows that there was a discrepancy in the choice of objectives between the teachers' interview and that of the students. This shows that either teachers have a distorted perception of how their students interpret the reading task or that students are unable to reach their goals; taking into account the social desirability factor.

5.4.- Regression and correlations

Table 2
Correlation Matrix of means of scales

	ScaleI	ScaleII	ScaleIII	ScaleIV
ScaleI		0.215 0.441	0.582* 0.023	0.425 0.115
ScaleII	0.215 0.441		0573* 0.025	0.766** 0.001
ScaleIII	0.582* 0.023	0.573* 0.025		0.723** 0.002
ScaleIV	0.425 0.115	0.766** 0.001	0.723** 0.002	

Source: own elaborated by the authors based on the results of the interview conducted with the students (*p<0.05; **p<0.011)

The correlation matrix shows a positive, moderate (r = 0.582) and significant (p = 0.023) correlation between self- efficacy in Arabic reading (Scale I) and the use of cognitive strategies (ScaleIII). In addition, it shows that there is a positive, moderate and significant correlation between the reading value (ScaleII) and the use of cognitive strategies (ScaleIII) (r = 0.573, p = 0.025). Moreover, there is a strong and significant correlation (r = 0.723, p = 0.002) between the intrinsic value of the Arabic reading (ScaleII) and the self-regulation of Arabic reading comprehension (ScaleIV) and, similarly, a strong correlation and positive between the use of cognitive strategies (ScaleIII) and the self-regulation of Arabic reading comprehension (ScaleIV) (r = 0.766, p = 0.001). In short, Scale III is positively correlated with the other three scales.

The simple linear regressions between the two motivational variables and the cognitive strategies indicate that the use of these strategies depends significantly on the effect of the variability of self-efficacy in reading (ScaleI), on the one hand, and of the effect of the value of Arabic reading (Scale II), on the other hand. The correlations between the continuous variables show respective associations with p= 0.023 and with p= 0.025. Thus, task commitment and perseverance are expressed mainly through effort and the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

The regression tests also show that self-regulation of Arabic reading comprehension depends only on the effect of the student's appreciation of Arabic language and reading as a motivational variable but not on self-efficacy (ScaleI). The association is significant with p = 0.002 between the intrinsic value (Scale II) and self-regulation of comprehension (Scale IV).

The analyses also show that the use of cognitive learning strategies (Scale III) depends on the effect of the student's self-regulation (SIV) of Arabic reading comprehension, with a significant association and p = 0001. Two multiple linear regression tests were run for each of the following dependent variables: use of cognitive strategies

and self-regulation of comprehension with the following motivational independent variables: self-efficacy in reading and the value of Arabic reading.

The MeanScaleIV is estimated at -787 + 0.358 (MeanScaleI) +0.843 (MeanScaleII) significant at (p = 0.004 <0.05). Thus, self-regulation varies according to the effect of the perception of one's personal efficacy in Arabic reading (Scale I) and the value of Arabic reading (Scale II). The estimated variation in self-regulation depends significantly on the effect of the intrinsic value of the Arabic reading (p = 0.004), but not on the perception of self-efficacy (p = 0.158 > 0.005).

6.- Conclusions

This case study shows that students' failure in Arabic reading is related to their self-regulated reading comprehension as well as their motivation. Indeed, students do not systematically plan, monitor, adjust and self- evaluate their comprehension when reading an Arabic text. The majority do not pursue a complete cycle of self- regulation, which largely explains their failure. The pattern of learning strategies selected and deployed by the participants does not allow them to achieve the intended goal. That is, to achieve successfully the reading activity and to learn new information. These results are in line with previous studies (Abu shmais, 2002; Guthrie et al, 2004; Nelson & Manset-Williamson, 2006; Souvignier & Mokhlesgerami, 2006). The participants occasionally use selection and elaboration strategies while they often use organization and rehearsal strategies mainly re-reading. The limited use of selection strategies leads our learners to skip a large amount of important information which has a serious impact on the text content comprehension/learning. And limited use of paraphrasing strategies reduces reading comprehension (Hagaman, Casey & Reid, 2016)

According to a literature review by Gajria, Jitendra, Sood & Sacks (2007), young readers' difficulties in managing their reading comprehension are mainly due to their weak capacity to link new information to previous knowledge. But this last strategy seems to be quite used by our respondents.

The results indicate that the lack of comprehension is related to the participants' lack of strategic know-how that depends significantly on the effect of their deficient self-regulation processes of cognitive learning strategies. A failure of self-regulation processes prevents reading comprehension for several reasons. The student is (a) neither aware of his/her entire reading strategies repertoire, (b) nor able to choose the ones that would be appropriate to the demands of the current reading situation, (c) nor to monitor strategies implementation, (d) nor able to verify whether the use of the chosen strategies would lead to the intended goal or not. In fact, studies of middle and high school students show that lack of the comprehension of the content is attributed to the inefficient use of comprehension strategies (Pressley & Harris, 1990; De Corte, Verschaffel &Van de Ven, 2001; Pressley, 2002), knowing that reading comprehension skills reinforce between the first and the last elementary grades (Kinnunen & Vauras, 2010).

The issue of "time" was recurrently mentioned by the students: finishing their text study within the time limit assigned to the task, seems to be an obstacle. Similarly to "naive self-regulated learner", participants avoid self- evaluation by attributing their failure to lack of time rather than to lack of skills. In fact, attributing failure to lack of skills leads to avoiding negative self-reactions towards self-esteem and self-perception as a capable learner.

Moreover, our participants' profile is similar to that of "naive self-regulated learners" described in the literature. These students select inefficient learning strategies; they are unconscious of their competencies and limits and do not know how to use them according to task demands (Harris, Reid & Graham, 2004).They value the grade and the attention of the teacher (Butler & Cartier, 2004). They avoid negative self-reactions towards their capabilities and competencies as learners, etc. (Horner & Shwery, 2002). In addition, to their diminished sense of self-efficacy, lack of interest, and demotivation towards learning (Zimmerman, 2000; Archambalt & Chouinard, 2003). As a result, the self- regulation cycle is hindered in all its phases.Results showed also that strategic failure, cognitive and metacognitive, depends

on the predictive effect of lack of motivation. Intrinsic value emerged as the best predictor of self-regulation and self-efficacy as the best predictor of cognitive strategies. As for the lack of motivation, it could also explain the lesser resort to elaboration strategies which require more mental effort from our respondents. Guthrie *et al.* (2004) show that students who fail in reading are not motivated to read, they do not self-regulate effectively during reading, do not use cognitive strategies, and do not benefit from these strategies in meaningful or significant ways.

According to the results, the majority of the participants persevere in reading even if they find the text difficult and/or boring. They tend to be motivated by the desire to succeed and by the intention of completing the activity. Hence, deployment of effort is, in this case, related to their ambition to "obtain a good grade" in Arabic and the rather positive perception they have of their general abilities. Students with higher levels of academic self-efficacy demonstrate higher academic goal-setting and value academic achievement more (Maddux, 2016). Note also that participants have a good overall performance in subjects taught in French like Math and Science. They also pretend to be able to do better which might indicate that respondents always have expectations of success; for them, achieving a better performance is possible provided they deploy the necessary effort. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided; they set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them (Maddux, 2016). They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure, and they quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable (Bandura, 1994). Furthermore, the encouraging optimism or discouraging pessimism of individuals depends on their self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 2001). Thus, students who feel capable of completing a task, work with perseverance and manage to achieve it better than those who doubt their abilities. Yet, having doubtful anticipated outcome of one's ability to complete the activity successfully - which is the case of our students - can sometimes push the learners to mobilize their efforts (Bandura, 1993). In addition, because their personal sense of efficacy is moderate, the latter may be

fluctuating hence may increase the motivation to overcome difficulties and the confidence to perform demanding activities. This would explain this willingness of our participants to persevere and persist in the activity.

It is nevertheless interesting to note that according to the teachers, six students are demotivated to read Arabic texts for reasons related to the Arabic language itself. Similarly to low self-regulated learners who reduce their feeling of guilt through attributing their low performance to external causes (Zimmerman, 1998). Thus, they are no longer aware of the real effectiveness of their learning strategies (Archambault & Chouinard, 2003).

The study performed in a private accredited French-language school in Beirut. The sample consists of 15 students and their 5 Arab teachers. They are in 4th and 5th elementary in ordinary classes. Participants do not self-regulate efficiently their Arabic reading comprehension and they tend to partially use cognitive strategies without significantly benefiting from them, since the strategies selected and used do not lead to successful comprehension of these texts. Self-regulatory processes are predicted by participants' lack of motivation that manifests itself mostly through perceptions of moderate self-efficacy of performance and low expectations of success.

In addition, knowing that a good number of students are aware of the fact that understanding and learning text content is a must, which is correlated with the demands of the task, they all set performance as the ultimate goal. They also set distant and vague goals, such as the success of the school year and the future of work.

Participants tend to lack commitment and perseverance, and avoid activity. This could be related to 3 factors: the lack of planning and management of the task and time, the devaluation of Arabic, the difficulties encountered during reading and the lack of interest in texts.

By pushing a little further, possibly and following recurring failures, these students will develop more and more a weak sense of

self-efficacy of reading Arabic in addition their motivation for reading Arabic will diminish and self-regulation will be more and more influenced. As they will be easily subject to anxiety and will increasingly avoid learning opportunities in Arabic and related fields.

Not to forget the lack of perseverance due to the disinterest and devaluation of Arabic because of the difficulty of literary Arabic, the influence of the Lebanese bilingual social context and the teaching practices.

The results of this exploratory study on a limited sample and in a particular context cannot be generalized. The advantage of such an approach is to provide exhaustive data that deserves to be reproduced on a larger scale. Elucidating the self-regulatory profile of reading comprehension and illuminating the failure of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and motivational components, is a first step towards understanding the learning processes of students who fail Arabic reading. This study shows that cognitive strategies and their self-regulation must be at the heart of the reading class. The teaching of reading must, therefore, target the different aspects of the reading process. From this perspective, teaching should focus on the processes of comprehension and learning as well as on the code of language, syntax and morphological aspects of reading.

Bibliography

Abu Shmais, W. (2002). Identifying the metacognitive reading strategies for arabe university students: a case study. *An- Najah Univ. J. Res*., *16*(2), 633-662.

Alsheikh, N., & Mokhtari, K. (2011). An examination of the metacognitive reading strategies used by native speakers of arabic when reading in english and arabic. *English language reading. 4*(2), 151-160.

Archambault, J., & Chouinard, R. (2003). *Vers une gestion éducative de la classe* (2ⁿᵈEd.). Montréal: Gaëtan Morin, Editeur.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational psychologist*, *28* (2), 117-148.

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior*, *Vol. 4*, (pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman [Ed.], Encyclopedia of mental health. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998).

Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: an agentic perspective. *Annual review of psychology*, *52*, 1-26. doi: https://www.annualreviews.org/doi/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.1.

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Capara, V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Multifaceted impact of self-efficacy beliefs on academic functioning. *Child development, 67,* 1206-1222. doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1996.tb01791.x.

Boekaerts, M. (1999). Self-regulated learning: where we are today. *International journal of educational research, 31*, 445–457. doi: http://doi.org/10.1016/S0833-0355(99)00014-2.

Boekaerts, M., & Corno, L. (2005). Self-regulation in the classroom a perspective on assessment and intervention. *Applied psychology: an international review, 54* (2), 199-231. doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2005.00205.x.

Butler, D., & Cartier, S. (2004). Promoting effective task interpretation as an important work habit: a key to successful teaching and learning. *Teacher's college record, 106* (9), 1729-1758. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9620.2004.00403.x.

Butler, D. L., & Winne, P. H. (1995). Feedback and self-regulated learning: A theoretical synthesis. *Review of educational*

research, *65*(3), 245-281. doi: https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543065003245.

Cartier, S. (2007). *Apprendre en lisant &élèves en difficultés d'apprentissage*. Les éditions CEC inc.

De Corte E., Verschaffel L. &Van de Ven, A. (2001). Improving text comprehension strategies in upper primary school children: a design experiment. *British journal of educational psychology, 71*, 531–559. doi: https://doi.org/10.1348/000709901158668.

Donker, A. S., De Boer, H., Kostons, D., Van Ewijk, C. D., & van der Werf, M. P. (2014). Effectiveness of learning strategy instruction on academic performance: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *11*, 1-26.

El-daly, H. M. (2010). Reading in a foreign language: The effects of culturally familiar and nonfamiliar materials on EFL learners' reading comprehension. *Journal of Language and Literature*, *3*, 31-56.

Gajria, M., Jitendra, A., Sood, S. &Sacks G. (2007). Improving comprehension of expository text in students with LD: A research synthesis. *Journal of learning disabilities*, *40* (3), 210-225. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2013.11.002.

Guthrie, J. Wigfield, P., Barbosa, K., Perenchevich, Toboada, A., & Davis, M. (2004). Increasing reading comprehension and engagement through concept-oriented reading instruction. *Journal of educational psychology, 96,* 403-423. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.96.3.403.

Guthrie, J. T., Schafer, W. D., & Huang, C. W. (2001). Benefits of opportunity to read and balanced instruction on the NAEP. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *94*(3), 145-162.

Hagaman, J. L., Casey, K. J., & Reid, R. (2016). Paraphrasing strategy instruction for struggling readers. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative   Education for Children and Youth, 60*(1), 43-52. doi: https://doi.org/10.1080/1045988X.2014.966802.

Harris, K., Reid, R., & Graham, S. (2004). Self- regulation among students with LD and ADHD. In B. Wong (Ed.), *Learning about learning disabilities (3rd edition)* (pp. 167-195)*.* Elsevier Academic Press. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012762533-1/50008-1.

Horner, S. &Shwery, C. (2002). Becoming an engaged self-regulated reader. *Theory into practice, 41(*2), 102-109. doi: https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_6.

Kamil, M. L., Mosenthal, P. B., Pearson, P. D., & Barr, R. (2016). *Handbook of reading research, Volume III*. Routledge. doi: https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315200613.

Kinnunen, R., & Vauras, M. (2010). Tracking on-line metacognition: monitoring and regulating comprehension in reading. In A. Efklides & P. Misailidi (Eds.), *Trends and prospects in metacognition research* (pp. 209-229). Springer Link online. doi: http://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-6546-2_10.

Kintsch, W. (1988). The role of knowledge in discourse comprehension: a construction-integration model. *Psychological review, 95* (2), 163-182. Ministère de l'Éducation du Québec (MEQ). (2003). *Les difficultés de l'apprentissage à l'école. Cadre de référence pour guider l'intervention*. Québec: Ministère de l'Éducation. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.95.2.163

Maddux, J. E. (2016). Self-efficacy. In S. Trusz & P. Bąbel (Eds.). *Interpersonal and intrapersonal expectancies* (pp. 41-46). Psychology Press.

Nelson, J. & Manset-Williamson, G. (2006). The impact of explicit, self-regulatory reading comprehension strategy instruction on the reading-specific self- efficacy, attributions, and affect of students with reading disabilities. *Learning disability quarterly, 29*(3), 213-230. doi: https://doi.org/10.2307/30035507.

Panadero, E. (2017). A review of self-regulated learning: Six models and four directions for research. *Frontiers in psychology*, *8*, 422. doi: https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00422.

Panadero, E., Jonsson, A., & Botella, J. (2017). Effects of self-assessment on self-regulated learning and self-efficacy: Four meta-analyses. *Educational Research Review*, *22*, 74-98. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2017.08.004.

Palincsar, A., & Brown, A. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and instruction, 1*, 117-175. doi: https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532690xci0102_1.

Pintrich, P. (2000). The role of goal orientation in self–regulated learning. In M., Boekaerts, P., Pintrich, Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (p.451-502). San Diego, CA: Academic Press. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012109890-2/50043-3.

Pintrich, P. (2002). The role of metacognitive knowledge in learning, teaching, and assessing. *Theory into practice, 41*(4), 220-225. doi: https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4104_3.

Pintrich, P., & De Groot, E. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of educational psychology* (*82*), 33–44.

Pintrich, P. & Schunk, D. (2002). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of academic classroom performance. *Journal of educational psychology, 80,* 33-40.

Pressley, M. (2002). *Reading instruction that works: The case for balanced teaching* (2nd edition). New York: Guilford.

Pressley, M., Beard El-Dinary, P., Gaskins, I., Schuder, T., Bergman, J., Almasi, J., & Brown, R. (1992). Beyond direct explanation: transactional instruction of reading comprehension strategies. *The elementary school journal, 92*(5), 513-555. doi: https://doi.org/10.1086/461705.

Pressley, M., & Harris, K. (1990). What we really know about strategy instruction. *Educational leadership, 48*(1), 31-34 ERIC Number: EJ413160.

Schunk, D., & Zimmerman, B. (2003). Self-regulation and learning. In W. Reynolds & G. Miller (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: educational psychology, 7 (*pp. 59–78). New York, USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Schunk, D. (1994). Self-regulation of self-efficacy and attributions in academic settings. In D. Schunk & B. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Self-regulation of learning and performance: issues and educational applications* (pp. 631-647). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Souvignier E., &Mokhlesgerami, J. (2006). Using self-regulation as a framework for implementing strategy instruction to foster reading comprehension. *Learning and instruction, 16,* 57-71. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2005.12.006.

Spörer N., Brunstein J., & Kieschke U. (2009). Improving reading comprehension skills effects of strategy instruction and reciprocal teaching. *Learning and instruction, 19,* 272-286. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2008.05.003.

Stanovich, K. (1994). Constructivism in reading education. *The journal of special education, 28*(3), 259-274.   doi: https://doi.org/10.1177/002246699402800303.

Stipek, D. (2002). *Motivation to learn: from theory to practice*, *(4th ed)*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Van Der Maren, J-M. (1996). *Méthodes de recherche pour l'éducation*. *(2ⁿᵈ ed)*. Paris, France: De Boeck Université. Van Dijk, T. &Kintsch, W. (1983). *Strategies of discourse comprehension.* New York: Academic Press.

Van Grunderbeeck, N. (1994). *Les difficultés en lecture, diagnostique &liste d'intervention*. Montréal, Canada: Gaëtan Morin Editeur.

Van Dijk, T., & Kintsch, W. (1983). *Strategies of discourse comprehension*. New York: Academic Press.

Vandevelde, S., Van Keer, H., & Rosseel, Y. (2013). Measuring the complexity of upper primary school children's self-regulated learning: A multi-component approach. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *38*(4), 407-425.

Vauras, M. (1991). *Text learning strategies in school-aged students*. Helsinki: Academia.

Weinstein, C., & Mayer, R. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching (3ʳᵈ edition)* (pp. 315-327). New York: Macmillan.

Zimmerman, B. (1998). Developing the self-fulfilling cycles of academic regulation: an analysis of exemplary instructional models: the role of social and self-regulatory processes. In D. Schunk & B. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Self –regulated learning: from teaching to self-reflective practice* (pp.1-19)*.* New York, US: Guilford Press.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Attaining Self-Regulation: A Social Cognitive Perspective. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & M. Zeidner (Eds.), Handbook of Self-Regulation (pp. 13-39). San Diego, CA:

Academic Press. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012109890-2/50031-7.

Zimmerman, B. (2008). Investigating self-regulation and motivation: historical background, methodological developments, and future prospects. *American educational research journal, 45* (1), 166-183. doi: https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831207312909.

Zimmerman, B., Bonner, S., & Kovach, R. (1996). Developing self-regulated learners: beyond achievement to self-efficacy. *Psychology in the classroom: a series on applied educational psychology*. Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/10213-000.

Evaluation of the Views of Turkish Language Teachers on the Place of Traditional Turkish Drama in Education

Selma Korkmaz
Near East University
selma.korkmaz@neu.edu.tr
ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2395-9751

Abstract: Traditional Turkish drama, which reflects the Turkish culture in the best manner and ensures that this culture is transferred to the next generation, helps the transfer of customs and traditions, as well as many elements such as language and religion which belong to the Turkish culture, in a humoristic and entertaining manner. In order to save cultural values from being forgotten and ensuring that the new generation adopts these values, it is beneficial to teach the features and works of traditional Turkish drama to the new generation. Drama education, which is used from time to time in almost all levels of education in the Turkish education system, is an approach that is highly emphasized in developed countries. Drama is a branch of art that reflects human beings and deals with human life where each individual can find something about himself. Besides, it is well known that dramas help develop the four basic language skills. The purpose of this study is to determine whether the traditional Turkish drama is given adequate place in Turkish language curriculum and, on the other hand, the extent to which Turkish language teachers cover the characteristics and works of traditional Turkish drama in their classes. Our study group consists of 40 Turkish language teachers with minimum 10 years of experience at secondary schools in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. An interview for consisting of 5 questions was used in order to collect data. The data acquired in the end of the study were analyzed using content analysis, frequency and percentage. As a result of the findings, it has been found out that a majority of Turkish language teachers stated that information and application related to traditional Turkish drama were given inadequate place in Turkish language curriculum and that they agreed that all genres related to this drama, namely Karagöz, public storytelling, puppets, light comedy, country theatrical lays should be taught to the students.

Keywords: Turkish; Drama; Traditional; Culture; Teacher.

Introduction

The term "traditional Turkish drama" was referred to as Turkish spectacle, folk drama, theatrical play, Turkish spectacle arts in the past; today we can see that "traditional Turkish drama" is a more widely used definition (Düzgün, 2010). Karagöz shadow play, light comedy, theatrical village plays, public storytelling, several impressions, opposite views, improvisations, music, dance and songs which are elements of traditional Turkish drama entertain and puzzle the audience at the same time, as a result of which they help Turkish culture to be conveyed in the best manner possible.

Considering the service of education not only on cognitive domain but also on improving psychomotor and affective domains, we can say that drama is an important tool to be used in education (Şimşek, 2011: 313). Drama educates healthy individuals, provides empathy, critical thinking, creative thinking, generates people with the values and respect for society, who gain universal perspective features. The drama, which is intertwined with life and related to every aspect of life, tells human beings to human beings humanly (Taş; Karakuş, 2007: 9).

Altunbay also states that drama generally contributes to the life and language skills of the individual (Altunbay, 2012):

- Drama contributes to the development of affective, cognitive and social characteristics of individuals.
- Several values can be taught through the drama, which is also educational.
- It provides cultural accumulation.
- It improves criticism and evaluation skills.

- It improves analysis and interpretation.

- It improves basic language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening).

- It motivates individuals emotionally in that it contributes to the formation of happy and spiritually healthy personalities.

- It enables individuals to be more successful in academic field and to produce original works.

- It improves creative thinking.

- It provides personality development. Different roles in the dramas that are being watched and the ones being played in person prepare the ground for the emergence of different characteristics of individuals and the development of their personality in various ways.

- It gives the ability to express oneself better. With drama, environments are created in which opinions can be expressed freely and objective evaluations can be made.

- Drama also provides the development of psychomotor skills. Thus, upbringing of individuals in a one-sided fashion is prevented.

- It paves the way for everyone to come together on a common ground in social unity and solidarity.

- Since it is based on the art of animation, it allows the messages to be delivered directly to the recipient.

- It improves empathy.

- It allows personal and professional development of individuals. It provides more efficiency from the work done.

- It improves oratory skills, increases language skills and ability to use the language.

- It is important in terms of being an art where high level language skills are used and all the possibilities of language are displayed.

Drama's contribution to basic language skills in language learning and teaching is immense. A staged play is important in terms of appealing to the ear as well as the eye. Drama contributes to the accurate perception of several elements from the emphasis of the words to their intonation, from pronunciation to the use of sound. Drama activity on stage is an important factor in the development of speech. In drama, where role-playing is essential, the prominentqualification is speech and, as a result, narration. Using language, employing elements

of language (word patterns, meaning events, metaphor meanings, etc.) can only be seen and felt clearly in drama. The vocabulary of the individual is enriched and developed while reading drama texts. Thus, it contributes to the enrichment of the world of thought. Drama also has an effect on writing. It is possible to say that writing activities can be done more easily with the effect of a dramalistened or watched and the vocabulary it creates in our mind (Altunbay, 2012). As can be seen, drama is very important in the formation of the four basic language skills.

When we mention traditional Turkish drama, we think of the rural people'sdrama tradition and folk drama tradition. However, Karagöz, Light comedy, Public storytelling and Puppet, which are from the folk drama tradition in Turkish textbooks, have been emphasized more and the rural people'sdrama tradition has never been mentioned. Although Public storytelling differs from the dramatic genres such as Karagöz and light comedy in terms of being a narrative genre, it is easily regarded as dramatic because the narrative chapters are placed with interview, imitated and personalized chapters. Although Public storytelling is very close to Karagöz and light comedy in terms of their methods, and despite being only kinds of humorous drama, public storytelling differs from them in terms of its rich resources, diversity of story repertoire, and variety of moods in addition to humor.Public storytelling creates enthusiasm, sadness, curiosity and pity in the audience according to the subjects it chooses, and can establish a bond of affection and identification between the person and the audience. However, this is not encountered in Karagöz and Light comedy. Karagöz is a shadow play and is played behind the scenes. In Karagöz, social and political criticism, grinding and frivolity are prominent. The light comedyis played with live players. It is played in a rounded, besieged area with an all round audience (And, 2014). Puppets, which are made to make people laugh and entertain, are very important in terms of having an educational function with both their characters and their fictional stories. These little puppets, which are played by hand, rope or stick and are made of wood, plaster, cardboard or cloth, are called 'puppet games' (Güler & Özdemir, 2007).

It is possible to see that several studies have been conducted on traditional Turkish drama so far. Most of these studies examined the history and characteristics of traditional Turkish drama, how it changed in time, traditional Turkish drama studies, the played staged at traditional Turkish drama and their types. For example, in his article titled Traditional Turkish Drama, Düzgünexamined the origins of such genres as Karagöz, light comedy, public storyteller, theatrical village plays, puppet playetc. Withintraditional Turkish drama as well as their historical processes and contents (Düzgün, 2002). In his paper titled Our Traditional Drama which Changed in Historical Process, Artun investigated the changes that traditional Turkish drama underwent within historical process (Artun, 2008). In his article titled Traditional Drama Studies in Turkey, Düzgün analyzed the studies conducted concerning traditional Turkish drama (Düzgün, 2014). In the first section of his book wrote by And titled History of Turkish Drama from Its Beginning to 1983 mentioned the countrymen and folk drama tradition of traditional Turkish drama and listed several plays which are part of this tradition (And, 2014). It is possible to see that several studies such as Traditional Turkish Drama/Puppet-Karagöz-Light Comedy of And, Turkish Spectacle/Public Storyteller-Karagöz-Light Comedy of Gerçek, Public Storytelling and Public Storyteller Stories of Nutku, Karagözof Kudret and Light Comedy of Türkmengive information on the genres of traditional Turkish drama (And, 1969; Gerçek, 1942; Nutku, 1997; Kudret, 2013; Türkmen, 1991).

As a result of the literature search, no studies have been identified which reveal the extent to which traditional Turkish drama is included in secondary education curriculum, its importance, value and genres, whether adequate information is given to students on its valuable works of art and whether some applications are performed in order to ensure that they are internalized by students. Traditional Turkish drama is essential for secondary school students so that they can learn cultural values. The new generation also has to be informed and its awareness has to be raised in terms of the maintenance of this type of drama. In order to be able to do the foregoing, educationists and Turkish language teachers who design and apply Turkish language teaching programs bear huge responsibility**.**

It is believed that this study will be beneficial in terms of resorting to the opinions of Turkish language teachers at secondary level as regards traditional Turkish drama and exploring how much effort is paid to teach this kind of drama, what kind of studies are conducted and should be conducted to teach it to students, which genre should be given more place in Turkish courses and what kind of impact it has on students.

The main purpose of this study is to determine the place of traditional Turkish drama in education based on the opinions of Turkish teachers.

Method

This research is a qualitative study. The aim of qualitative research is not to generalize, but to obtain a holistic picture. Qualitative research aims to investigate the subject in depth and in detail. The most commonly used qualitative method is interview. The reason why interview is one of the most common data collection methods used in qualitative research is that it is very powerful in terms of revealing individuals' data, opinions, experiences and emotions, and is based on speech. With this aspect, the limitations and artificiality that exist in the tests or inquiries are eliminated (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).

Study Group

Study group consists of 40 teachers who have served as Turkish language teacher for at least 10 years at a secondary education institution in TRNC. It was found that the 22 female and 18 male teachers in the study group were between 35-45 years old. All of the teachers who participated in the research work as Turkish teachers in schools affiliated to TRNC Ministry of National Education.During the selection process of these teachers, convenience sampling, which is a purposive sampling method, was employed.Purposeful sampling allows in-depth study of situations which are believed to be rich in information (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).

Data Collection

In this study, semi-structured interview technique was used as data collection method. In this technique, the researcher prepares the interview form containing the questions he / she plans to ask in advance. Depending on the flow of the interview, it may affect the flow of the interview with different side or sub-questions and allow the person to detail and elaborate the answers (Türnüklü, 2000).

While preparing the interview form used in this study, in order to establish a more effective and productive communication with the interviewees, it was taken care that the questions were as clear, easy to understand, as to provide explanations and detailed answers, and that they were not multidimensional in order not to create an unnecessary question load on the interviewee.In addition, if the individual did not understand the question, attention was paid to prepare alternative questions and provide some clues (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).After a detailed literature review by the researcher, the interview form, which was prepared by the researcher, was consulted by 5 field experts including 1 Turkish education specialist, 2 Turkish teachers and 2 assessment and evaluation experts. The interview form consisting of 7 questions was reduced to 5 questions by making necessary corrections and changes on the opinions and suggestions of 5 experts. The pilot application assisted the researcher about how well the interview form was prepared and whether the expressions used were appropriate for the group to be interviewed (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). Therefore, the interview form, which was changed in accordance with the recommendations of experts, was tried on 4 teachers before being used for data collection. The interview form was finalized according to the responses and answers of the interviewees to the questions asked. For the main purpose of the research, answers to the following 5 questions were sought:

1. Do you think that traditional Turkish drama has an impact on students? Why?

2. Is traditional Turkish drama covered at your school? If yes, please give detail as to which topics and genres are covered.
3. What kind of activities are performed to make students internalize traditional Turkish drama? Please write down the additional activities that you would prefer.
4. Which genre of traditional Turkish drama should be given more place in Turkish language course? Why?
5. Considering traditional Turkish drama and modern Turkish drama, which one is more effective at your school? Why?

The interviews were conducted in the secondary schools and colleges of TRNC Ministry of National Education in the spring term of 2018-2019 academic year. Interviews were conducted between 08.00 and 13.00 during the teachers' free hours. During the interviews, a voice recorder was used with the permission of the teachers. Thus, no data was lost in the study.

The following can be said about the validity and reliability of data collection and analysis:

Validity: The data collected were written in detail and explained clearly and clearly. Based on teacher views, codes were created and the theme and category of the codes were indicated.

Internal Validity: The findings of the research are consistent and meaningful in themselves. The resulting concepts are capable of forming a whole. In addition, the findings are consistent with the conceptual framework. This framework was used in data collection; research questions were prepared in accordance with this framework. In short, both data collection processes and data analysis and interpretation processes were consistent; how this consistency is achieved is explained in detail. The researcher conducting the study constantly questioned themselves and their research processes with a critical eye; they checked whether the findings and the results of these findings reflect the reality (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).

External Validity: The results of the research are consistent with the conceptual framework of the research question. In the research, there are explanations necessary for testing the findings in other studies. In order to generalize the research results to similar environments, the researcher informed the reader in detail about all stages of the research.

Reliability: When seeking answers to interview questions, directing teachers were avoided. In short, the role of the researcher was to enable teachers to talk about the subject and purpose of the research. During the analysis of the data, the researcher took the opinion of 1 Turkish education specialist and the differences that may occur between the researcher and the expert opinion were minimized. The researcher and the experts decided on each stage of the study together. In addition, preliminary application (pilot study) interviews, data analysis and comparison were conducted together; thus, a full harmony was tried to be achieved. The second measure to be taken by the researcher on external reliability is to clearly identify the individuals who are the data source in the research. Thus, other researchers doing similar research may take these definitions into consideration when creating a sample.

Analysis of Data

1.   In the analysis of the research data, content analysis, frequency and percentages were used. In addition, findings were examined by separating into certain codes, categories and themes. Based on each question in the interview form, categories were created first. Then, it was determined from which codes the themes that were created based on the codes were included. Content analysis includes bringing together similar data within the framework of certain concepts and themes, and interpreting them in a form that the reader can understand (Creswell, 2012). Content analysis is used in the processing of qualitative research data obtained from documents in five stages: coding of data, finding themes, arranging codes and themes, providing validity and reliability, and calculating frequencies, defining and interpreting findings (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). During the analysis of the data, the researcher also received the opinion of 1 Turkish education

specialist. Both the researcher and the expert in the field of education performed coding separately and the codes obtained were compared. Miles and Huberman model was used to calculate validity and reliability. Thus, [Consensus / (Consensus + Disagreement) x 100] formula was used. As a result of this formula, it is determined that the consensus between the researcher and the education expert is 92%. According to the coding control which gives internal consistency, consensus among coders is expected to be at least 80% (Miles & Huberman, 2014).

Findings and Comments

Findings concerning whether traditional Turkish drama has any impact on students and its reasons

Table 1
Frequency and percentage distribution of Turkish language teachers at secondary education institutions concerning whether traditional Turkish drama has any impact on students and its reasons

Category	Theme and Code	f	%
Yes, it has some impact	Learning of cultural values *Knowing and learning own culture* *Remembering customs and traditions* *Learning about own past* *Exploring beauties of the culture* *Familiarizing with folk culture* *Learning about dialect features of Turkish society* *Learning about the religious beliefs of Turkish society*	37	92,5
	Development of various skills *Developing communication skills* *Developing literary language* *Developing creative thinking skills* *Enriching vocabulary* *Developing speaking skills*		
	Adoption of cultural values *Protecting national culture* *Preventing the culture from being forgotten* *Being aware of cultural values* *Ensuring that cultural values are passed on to next generation*		

	Helping entertainment *Having fun with humorous conversations* *Having fun with dance, music and songs*		
	Facilitating comparison *Exploring the differences between spoken language and written language* *Finding the opportunity to compare the past and the present*		
No, it does not have any impact	Students do not have adequate information about traditional Turkish drama	3	7,5
	Drama does not have much place in the lives of students		
	Traditional Turkish drama does not comply with development		

Source: own elaboration

An overview of Table 1 shows that 92,5% Turkish teachers think that traditional Turkish drama is effective on students whereas 7,5% think that it does not have any impact. Most Turkish teachers stated that traditional Turkish drama is effective in learning cultural values, development of various skills, adoption of cultural values, helping entertainment and facilitating comparison. However, some Turkish teachers stated that traditional Turkish drama was not effective as it did not have any place in the lives of students, did not comply with development and students did not have adequate information on this kind of drama.

Findings on whether traditional Turkish drama is covered at schools and which genres are most emphasized

Table 2
Frequency and percentage distribution concerning the opinions of Turkish language teachers at secondary education institutions as to whether traditional Turkish drama is covered at schools

Category	f	%
Yes, it is covered	10	25
It is not covered adequately	18	45
No, it is not covered	12	30

Source: own elaboration

An examination of the opinions of Turkish teachers in Table 2 concerning whether traditional Turkish drama is covered at schools, 25% said that it was covered, 45% stated that it was not covered adequately, and 30% stated that it was not covered.

Table 3
Frequency and percentage distribution concerning the opinions of Turkish language teachers at secondary education institutions as to which topics and genres are most emphasized at schools regarding traditional Turkish drama

Category	Theme	f	%
Genres	Karagöz (Shadow play)	20	50
	Light comedy	6	15
	Puppets	5	12,5
	Public storytelling	2	5
Themes	Only the topics in books are emphasized	4	10
	Providing some examples as regards traditional Turkish drama	3	7,5
	Briefly mentioning the characteristics and importance of traditional Turkish drama	3	7,5

Source: own elaboration

An overview of Table 3 shows that among Turkish language teachers 50% mentioned Karagöz, 15% mentioned light comedy, 12,5% mentioned puppet plays and 5% mentioned public storytelling as the most emphasized genres; in addition, 10% stated that only texts in the books were emphasized whereas 7,5% stated that some examples were given concerning this type of drama and another 7,5% claimed that

more emphasis was put on the importance and characteristics of this type of drama.

Findings concerning whether any activities are performed in order to infuse traditional Turkish drama into students and what kind of activities should be performed in addition

Table 4
Frequency and percentage distribution concerning the opinions of Turkish language teachers at secondary education institutions as to whether any activities are performed in order to infuse traditional Turkish drama into students

Category	Theme	f	%
There are activities in place	Reading texts on traditional Turkish drama Performing reading texts Ensuring that students conduct research to collect information on traditional Turkish drama Providing good examples of traditional Turkish drama from smart boards Taking them to the places where traditional Turkish drama was staged Helping them learn traditional Turkish drama making use of various visual materials	28	70
There are no activities in place	---	12	30

Source: own elaboration

An examination of Table 4 shows that 70% of Turkish language teachers stated that they performed some activities to ensure that traditional Turkish drama is internalized by students but 30% stated that they did not perform any activities in this regard. Turkish teachers explained that they performed such activities as reading texts, performing texts, doing research, making that best examples are viewed, showing visual materials and taking them to places where traditional Turkish drama was staged.

Table 5
Frequency and percentage distribution concerning the opinions of Turkish language teachers at secondary education institutions as to what kind of activities should be performed in order to ensure that traditional Turkish drama is adopted by students

Category	Theme	f	%
Plays can be staged	Performing the best examples of traditional Turkish drama by students in classroom Those who display genres belonging to this drama stage plays at schools Mobile drama teams visiting schools and staging plays	22	55
Information can be given	Those who perform this art are invited to schools and deliver conferences on the importance of traditional Turkish drama Teachers or experts on traditional Turkish drama organize panels etc. speeches at schools and give information on the features of this type of drama	11	27,5
Plays can be shown visually	Displaying examples of traditional Turkish drama on smart boards Famous theatre players staging some examples of traditional Turkish drama on television	7	17,5
Contests can be organized	Organizing contests among students concerning the characteristics and genres of traditional Turkish drama Ensuring that students perform genres of this type of drama in classrooms and organizing prize competitions	3	7,5
Courses can be opened	Opening drama courses and introducing characteristic of and performing some plays of traditional Turkish drama	2	5

Source: own elaboration

An overview of Table 5 shows that among the Turkish language teachers 55% mentioned staging plays, 27,5% mentioned giving

information, 17,5% mentioned displaying plays visually, 7,5% mentioned organizing contests, and 5% mentioned opening courses as the ways to ensure that students adopt traditional Turkish drama.

Findings concerning which genre of traditional Turkish drama should be given more place at Turkish language courses and its reasons

Table 6

Frequency and percentage distribution concerning the opinions of Turkish language teachers at secondary education institutions as to which genre of traditional Turkish drama has to be given more emphasis and its reasons

Category	Theme	f	%
Karagöz (shadow play)	Giving message while entertaining Reflecting the values of Turkish culture well Shadow plays attracting attention It is the first genre which comes to mind when traditional Turkish drama is mentioned It is possible to learn several stories and legends of Turks using this genre It includes various odes and semais Showing the differences between ignorant and cultivated people Squabbles and humour elements attracting attention Being fun	15	37.5
Light comedy	Showing how words, gestures and mimics are raced Believing that the expression power of students will increase and their improvisation skills will be strengthened Light comedy reflecting the past in the best manner Making contribution to the learning of various dialect features Students learning several rhymes in the light comedy Observing how several musical instruments of Turkish society are used in this kind of drama plays	10	25
Public storyteller	Showing how story and impression are combined	9	22,5

	Using a literary language Observing the improvised telling of stories Believing that story-telling skills of students will improve Development of pronunciation skills of students It is possible to combine verbal expression with public storyteller genre Reinforcing the oratory skills of students		
All genres of traditional Turkish drama	All genres of traditional Turkish drama having a separate place and value for Turks All of them reflecting Turkish culture Teaching students all genres of traditional Turkish drama and helping them learn cultural values better Believing that all of them improve thinking abilities of students	8	20
Puppet	Showing how a single person can make impressions Being extremely fun Affecting the development process of children Improving speaking abilities of children	6	15
Theatrical village play	Dealing with religious and social issues Students gaining improvisation skills Making use of available decoration, costume etc. materials during performance Giving social messages through a concrete and entertaining language Beginning to be forgotten	5	12,5

Source: own elaboration

As seen in Table 6, 37,5% of teachers mentioned Karagöz (Shadow), 25% mentioned light comedy, 22,5% public storytelling, 20% mentioned all genres of traditional Turkish drama, 15% mentioned puppet, and 12,5% mentioned theatrical village play should be given more place in Turkish language courses.

It is found out that it is recommended that these drama genres are given wider place in Turkish courses as they teach cultural values, improve language skills, give information about rhymes, stories, legends etc. belonging to Turkish culture, and develop several skills.

Findings concerning whether traditional Turkish drama or Modern Turkish drama is more effective at schools and its reasons

Table 7
Frequency and percentage distribution concerning the opinions of Turkish language teachers at secondary education institutions as to whether traditional Turkish drama or Modern Turkish drama is more effective at schools and its reasons

Category	Theme	f	%
Modern Turkish drama	Drama genres such as drama, comedy and tragedy having more influence on students Benefiting from modern Turkish drama at school performances and shows Students having more information about modern Turkish drama Putting more emphasis on modern Turkish drama in curricula The West having more influence on students Dealing with current issues Affecting students more quickly Reflecting emotions better Being more popular	35	87,5
Traditional Turkish drama	Reflecting our culture better Being more effective in terms of introducing cultural values Being more attractive in terms of decoration, clothes and accessories Being more entertaining	5	12,5

Source: own elaboration

An overview of Table 7 shows that 87,5% of Turkish teachers stated that modern Turkish drama was more effective at schools whereas 12,5% stated that traditional Turkish drama was more effective.

Due to such reasons as drama genres like drama, comedy and tragedy affect students more, that modern Turkish drama is used in school shows and activities, that students are more knowledgeable about modern Turkish drama, that more emphasis is put on modern Turkish drama in curricula, that the West has more influence on students, that it deals with current issues, that it affects students more quickly, that it reflects emotions better and that it is more popular,

several Turkish teachers stated that modern Turkish drama is more effective at schools. It is also witnessed that some Turkish teachers claimed that traditional Turkish drama was more effective at schools as it reflects our culture better, that is more effective in terms of introducing cultural values, that it is more attractive with regard to decoration, clothes and accessories, and that it is more entertaining.

Conclusion, Discussion and Recommendations

An examination of Turkish language teaching program in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus revealed that although topics related to traditional Turkish drama seem adequate, there are some deficiencies and that some problems are experienced in the process of teaching for the purpose of making students more knowledgeable and conscious in this area.

Almost all of the Turkish language teachers who provided their opinions during the study stated that traditional Turkish drama has considerable effect on students and that it carried value as it ensured that cultural values are learned, several skills are developed, cultural values are adopted, as well as helping learning and facilitating comparison. Altunbay also stated that drama improves the individual in many ways. He mentioned that drama teaches several values, provides a cultural accumulation, develops basic language skills, and develops criticism and evaluation skills etc. (Altunbay, 2012).

It became clear that most Turkish language teachers agreed that traditional Turkish drama was not given adequate emphasis at schools. In addition, teachers stated that only texts in Turkish coursebooks were briefly covered.

A majority of Turkish teachers claimed that they performed some activities in order to infuse this type of drama to students but they also stated that these activities were mostly based on texts and little drama performance was included.

In addition, they explained that performing plays, giving information, showing the plays visually, organizing competitions and opening courses could serve to make sure that traditional Turkish drama is adopted by students.

Turkish language teachers stated that almost all types of traditional Turkish drama (Karagöz, light comedy, public storytelling, theatrical village plays) should be given more weight in Turkish courses and underlined that these types of drama were important as they taught cultural values to and developed some skills in students. According to Altunbay, drama is an effective means of cultural transfer (Altunbay, 2012).

Turkish language teachers confessed that modern Turkish drama was more effective at schools compared to traditional Turkish drama probably due to such reasons as having more influence on students, being better known by students, and being given more weight in teaching programs etc. Düzgün, who is of the same opinion, stated that when the Turkish society met with modern drama in the western sense, the interest in traditional Turkish drama gradually decreased and even disappeared due to changing living conditions and emerging technological developments (Düzgün, 2000).

In conclusion, it can be claimed that traditional Turkish drama is the most important tool through which national culture can be recognized and adopted by the new generation. For this effect, texts and several activities belonging to traditional Turkish drama which reflect our cultural values in the best manner should be included in Turkish teaching curricula. In addition, teachers must teach these texts and activities deservedly.

In order to give a wider scope to traditional Turkish drama at secondary education and cultivate generations which are conscious about our cultural values, it would be beneficial to implement the following recommendations:

- Giving more place to traditional Turkish drama texts which can attract the attention of students in Turkish teaching curricula of Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus,
- Adding some activities to Turkish teaching curricula which can edutain students,
- People who perform these drama types successfully giving information and staging plays at schools,
- Performing some competitions (knowledge, performance) at schools on traditional Turkish drama,
- Prior to the students, providing on-the-job training to teachers so that they gain knowledge and consciousness in this area,
- Staging examples of traditional Turkish drama at school shows,
- Offering some elective courses at schools with the purpose of protecting and sustaining cultural heritage and guiding students to perform the performance arts related to traditional Turkish drama.
- A quantitative scale can be established to generalize the results of traditional Turkish drama.

Bibliography

Altunbay, M. (2012). The use of drama in language learning and teaching and its contribution to basic language skills. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 7(4). Consulted 09/10/2019 http://www.turkishstudies.net/files/turkishstudies/411501950_48_AltunbayMü zeyyen_S-747-760.pdf.

And, M. (1969). *Traditional Turkish drama/Puppet-Karagöz-light comedy. İstanbul,* Turkey: Bilgi Publications.

And, M. (2014). *History of Turkish drama from its beginning to 1983.* İstanbul, Turkey: İletişim Publications.

Artun, E. (2008). Our traditional drama which changed in historical process. *Folk culture drama symposium,* İstanbul, Turkey: Yeditepe University, pp. 25-27. Consulted 09/10/2019 http://tll.ibu.edu.ba/assets/userfiles/tll/docs/erman_artun_tarihsel_surec_gelen eksel_tiyatro%20(1).pdf.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Researchdesign: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4nd ed.). United States: Pearson Education.

Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Handbook of qualitative research (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Düzgün, D. (2000). General view of traditional Turkish drama in Ottoman period. *Atatürk University Journal of the Institute of Turkic Studies*, *14* pp. 63-69. Consulted 10/10/2019 https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/32730.

Düzgün, D. (2002). Traditional Turkish drama, Encyclopedia of Turks, V. 15. Ankara, Turkey: Yeni Türkiye Publications, pp. 487-494.

Düzgün, D. (2014). Traditional drama studies in Turkey. *Atatürk University Social Sciences Journal of Faculty of Literature,52*, 143-158. Consulted 09/10/2019 https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/31802.

Gerçek, S. N. (1942). *Turkish spectacle/public storyteller-Karagöz-light comedy.* İstanbul, Turkey: Kanaat Books.

Güler, M. & Özdemir, M. (2007). An example from puppetry and puppet making cord wood in Turkey. *Gazi University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, *27*(2). Consulted 09/10/2019 http://gefad.gazi.edu.tr/article/view/5000078628/5000072849.

Kudret, C. (2013). *Karagöz.* İstanbul, Turkey: Yapı Kredi Publications.

Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded source book*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Nutku, Ö. (1997). *Public storytelling andpublic storytellerstories*. Ankara, Turkey: Atatürk Cultural Centre Publications.

Şimşek, T. (2011). *Children's literature handbook from theory to practice*. Ankara, Turkey: Grafiker Publications.

Taş, H. & Karakus, E. (2007). *Drama and practices in teaching Turkish*. Ankara, Turkey: Maya Academy.

Türkmen, N. (1991). *Light comedy*. İstanbul, Turkey: MEB Publications.

Türnüklü, A. (2000). A qualitative research technique that can be used effectively in educational studies: Interview. *Educational*

Administration in Theory and Practice, *24*, 543-559. Consulted 09/10/2019 https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/108517.

Yıldırım, A. & Şimşek, H. (2005). *Qualitative research methods in social sciences.* Ankara, Turkey: Seçkin Publishing House.

Evaluation of the Impact of Gender Factor in the Teaching and Inspection of Turkish Language and Literature

Emine Yağcı
Ministry of Education in North Cyprus
emineyagci737@yahoo.com
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0001-9870-2147

Ahmet Güneyli
European University of Lefke
aguneyli@eul.edu.tr
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2168-1795

Havva Esra Karabacak
Near East University
esra.karabacak@neu.edu.tr
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6096-1677

Abstract: The aim of this study is to demonstrate the importance of teaching and teacher assessment of Turkish / Turkish language and literature courses and, if present, the impact that gender plays on the outcomes. The opinions of both teachers and students were taken into consideration. The research question was determined as "what is the impact of the gender of Turkish language and literature teachers and inspectors on education and inspection?" This study was conducted in north Cyprus as a case study which is a qualitative research model. The study group of the research consisted of 11 Turkish language and literature teachers employed in high schools which are operating under the General Secondary Education Office and 42 twelfth grade students attending these institutions. Interview forms were prepared for the purpose of this study using semi-structured interview techniques and content analysis was implemented during its analysis stage. In conclusion, this research revealed that gender was effective in teaching; in other words, students preferred female teachers to male teachers. However, there were no significant findings in the analysis of the data on whether teachers preferred male or female inspectors. The finding that students significantly preferred female teachers more over male teachers may have a positive role on the development of education in the future.

Keywords: Education; Gender; Turkish Language and Literature; High School Students; Teachers.

Introduction

The education provided at schools has to be adept in order for society to progress as a whole and its level of welfare to increase. The augmentation in the aptitude of education at schools increases the success of the school and students. The quality of education provided at schools can only be enhanced by qualified teachers. In short, it takes good teachers to raise good students (Özyar, 2003; Seferoğlu, 2003). In this context, the quality of teachers depends on the education they receive and self-improvement during their careers. For this reason, teachers should be supported in every aspect so that they can improve themselves both professionally and personally (Seferoğlu, 2001).

Bayrak (2001) argues that a good teacher is a person who loves success, is ambitious, able to cope with the stressful environment at school, has strong communication skills inside and outside school and is able to use them well, guides students and acts like a parent when necessary (Özabacı andAcat, 2005). In traditional thinking, a teacher is someone who is knowledgeable and is able to convey this knowledge on to other people. However, with the advancements in technology and expansion of teaching techniques, the role of teacher in the classroom has inevitably changed. Yet, although accessing information is easier

today due to technology, the teacher's role of being a counsellor and a guide has gained significant importance. The duties and responsibilities that teachers should have in order for students to use learning and learning opportunities correctly and to realize learning outside their targeted learning behaviours are changing. Teachers should be facilitators, who ensure that their students are more effective within the classroom by being able to solve problems, produce solutions, communicate effectively, and make the best and most accurate decisions, and lastly students who question and are creative. They should also be able to organize education activities at the same time, know their students well and take their social relations, physical developments and mental states into consideration. This, in turn, increases the qualifications and responsibilities that teachers should possess (Eacute and Esteve, 2000; Gürkan, 2001).

Teachers are the most important sources for realising education and teaching activities and achieving success in the field. In this context, there should be different and elite characteristics between the teaching profession and other professions according to Ryan (1960), Good and Grouws (1979), Rosenshine and Stevens (1986) and Confery (1990). Some of these qualities are having cognitive competence, creativity, the ability to sustain effective harmony with the student's emotional state , happily being in constant communication with the student, exhibiting friendly behaviour and a problem solving approach rather than being accusatory , competently using the mother tongue, being helpful and confident, actively participating in social activities, taking personal development into account, showing interest in literary issues, having a passion for reading and having a democratic approach. Several studies previously conducted in the field of education indicated that an increase in the qualifications of teachers correlated with the improvement in the qualifications and success of students (Gözütok, 1995; Gürkan, 1993; Mentiş Taş, 2004).

Teachers of Turkish language and literature were the subjects for the analysis of teacher qualification of this study. The most fundamental objective of education systems is to accurately convey cultural values of the society on to next generations and to improve the

society by ensuring that these values are embraced. This objective signalizes the importance of Turkish language and literature teaching as well as all other mother tongues in their respective countries.

Turkish language and literature education puts emphasis on two important points, namely language and literature. In more general terms, a language and literature course must be used as a tool for the purpose of equipping students with intermediate level of the acquisition of language habit whilst teaching its features and literature should be gained as a tool that contains aesthetics and gives pleasure (Cemiloğlu, 2003). One of the most important elements of national culture and values belonging to societies is language; the other one is their literature. In this context, teaching and culture development is closely related to language and literature teaching. (Kantemir, 1976). In more general terms, language, which determines where they are geographically from, is the most important element for human beings. The quality which separates people from other living beings and makes humans distinguishable is language and the ability to speak. Language ensures that humans express their emotions and opinions (Aksan, 2000). Likewise, another aspect which separates people from other living things is art. The substance and the resulting product of all the arts which use the word as the tool for expression, is also the language (Aksan, 2000).

Turkish language and literature teachers must be self-sacrificing, patient and skilled, as the teachers in this field are under huge responsibility to perform. Although the teachers of all courses are essential, Marshall (1994) claims that the most important teachers are those who teach native language and thus emphasises the importance of the education of native language as it is necessary for the education of al topics as the mother tongue is necessary in the education of all courses. In this context, in-service training of Turkish Language and Literature / Turkish teachers and the training they receive before taking office is of great importance.

Teacher supervision should be of utmost importance if the qualifications and the competencies of the teachers are the areas being

assessed. The indication that proves education supervision is necessary is that it not only inspects but also helps improve and develop education. As a result, the most important point in the achievement of the intended objectives of education is the supervision and development of education (Aydın, 2016). Successful supervision covers all activities for the evaluation of teaching and learning. The inspector with such awareness and sense of responsibility is the one who is up to date with the developments in education and is knowledgeable about contemporary education and one who also has an appetite for self-improvement (Aydın, 2014).

Inspectors bear huge responsibility with the purpose of perceiving the objectives of schools and applying them accurately. In order to ensure this, inspectors have to be able to accurately understand the objectives of the school and this requires that inspectors possess certain qualifications. The method in which successful auditors determine the schools' objectives is of paramount importance. Inspectors should not impose their personal judgements and values upon the teachers but they should rather be a source for the teachers and provide them with the guidance and understanding of their educational objectives. The aim of the supervisors is not only good understanding of the objectives, but also contribution to the development of teachers. Constant self-development of teachers who follow the latest technology and their participation in decision-making processes ensures that they improve professionally (Aydın, 2014).

As in most sectors, being a woman has its problems in education, and women have secondary importance compared to men. Therefore, women have to exert more effort in order to gain a title such as deputy school head than men. (Sönmez Genç, 2016). This situation creates its own gender-related problems in the field of supervision (Erdem and Eroğul, 2012). Bell (1988) and Cryss Brunner (1998) found that the gender of the supervisors played a vital role in their appointment of assignments, stating men to be more advantageous than women. In another study, Miller (2009) observed that there are less female inspectors than male inspectors in America, which is due to the fact that it is regarded as a more authoritative position more suitable for

male. The study of Skrla, Reyes and Scheurich (2000) which examined gender-based discrimination displayed that female inspectors suffered from several misconducts by their male colleagues such as humiliation, discrimination and exclusion. In another study, Uygur (2006) stated that there are some problems between new and experienced inspectors. He claimed that experienced inspectors tried to intercept the new inspectors due to a number of reasons (gender discrimination, jealousy, position etc.).

The study titled "Supervision of Post Graduate Education Theses in Turkey" by Akyol and Yavuzkurt (2016) examined master's and PhD theses which researched the subject of supervision between 2006 and 2014. These theses were examined according to criteria such as universities, genres, departments, academic titles of supervisors, topics of theses, their methods, data collection tools and samples. This study revealed that none of the theses which were analyzed as part of the data collection had examined the gender factor.

Aim

The aim of this study is to reveal the importance of teaching and supervision and to determine whether the gender factor has an effect on Turkish / Turkish language and literature. The participants of the study were both teachers and students. The research question was determined as "what is the impact of the gender of Turkish language and literature teachers and inspectors on education and inspection?" The following sub-questions related to the main research question were determined as follows:

According to student opinions,

1. What should the gender of a Turkish language and literature teacher be?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of having a female Turkish language and literature teacher?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of having a male Turkish language and literature teacher?

According to teacher opinions:

1. Does the gender of inspector have any impact on inspection process?
2. What are the preferences of teachers concerning the gender of the inspector?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of having a female inspector?
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of having a male inspector?

Method

Qualitative research was conducted in this study. A qualitative study aims at conducting a research which describes events in their natural environments and exploring the opinions and emotions of participants with a flexible and holistic approach (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011). This research was designed and conducted in north Cyprus as a case study which is a qualitative research model.

Study Group

This study implemented the "purposive sampling" method. Purposeful sampling allows an in-depth study of situations which are believed to be rich in information. (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2011). The study group of the research consisted of 11 Turkish language and literature teachers employed in high schools which are operating under the General Secondary Education Office and 42 twelfth grade students attending these institutions. Data were collected from a group of teachers and a group of students who were speculated to provide rapid and economic data containing rich information by means of implementing convenience case sampling.

Data Collection Tool

This study utilized interview forms which were prepared in the semi-structured interview technique. While collecting data, questions were added to the questionnaire form which queried the impact of

gender of Turkish language and literature teachers on teaching and inspection. Attention was paid to ensure that questions were clear and easily comprehensible by interviewees. The questions asked to students focused on measuring the impact of the gender of Turkish language and literature teachers whereas the questions directed to teachers focused on measuring the impact of the gender of the inspectors during the supervisions conducted for the Turkish language and literature course. Field experts were consulted for the approval of the quality of the questions and a pilot application was performed.

Collection of data

Permission was obtained from the Ministry of National Education in northern Cyprus before the research questions were applied. Teachers and students were asked to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. Teachers and students were asked to answer the open-ended questions on the interview form. The names of teachers and students as well their school was kept confidential.

Analysis of data

Content analysis was used in this study. Content analysis is defined as coding, separating into smaller groups and summarising of data (Büyüköztürk et al, 2017). The first step of content analysis consisted of providing a specific number to each interviewee and preparing the interview documents. Codes were determined according to the answers given by students. These codes were categorised based on their similarities and differences. Then, these categories were given frequencies which were not determined by the number of students but by the common themes. The reason for this is that some of the questions included multiple themes. As for teachers, research documents were coded to form themes which were examined and interpreted. During interpretation direct citations were frequently included in order to clearly reflect the opinions of Turkish language and literature teachers and high school students who participated in the study. The names of participants were kept confidential and coded in the research (G:(S (1)), (G:(T(1)).

Findings

1. According to the opinions of students, what should the gender of a Turkish language and literature teacher be?

Table 1
Gender of Turkish language and literature teacher

	N
Preferring female teacher	27
Female or male teacher does not make any difference	13
Preferring male teacher	1

Source: own elaboration

Among the 41 interviewed students, 27 preferred female Turkish language and literature teachers. There are three headings which provide reasons for this outcome. The first is "emphasis on personalities", "better communication and relation abilities" and the last being "possessing better lecturing abilities". Students who emphasised personality mentioned sincerity, beauty, being easy going – not being tough, being kind, thoughtful, friendly, and not being rude like the male teachers. One of the student interviewees stated *I would prefer to have a female teacher as their behaviours seem more pleasant and sincere to me* (G:S (12)).

Thirteen students stated that they did not see any difference between male and female teachers. These students expressed that the gender of the teacher was not important. One of the students said: *It doesn't matter whether men or women. I think gender in the teaching profession makes no difference. What matters is the discipline of the teacher and how one teaches* (G:S (27)).

Only one student stated that they preferred that Turkish language and literature teachers be male. The reason for this is that they believed that male teachers had better lecturing abilities. One of the students said: *I have not had any male literature teacher but I have had male history and geography teachers and they lecture well. I think that having a male literature teacher would be useful* (G:S (40)).

2. According to the opinions of students, what are the advantages and disadvantages of having a female Turkish language and literature teacher?

Table 2
Advantages of having a female Turkish language and literature teacher

	N
There are advantages of having a female teacher	24
There is no difference between a female and a male teacher.	17

Source: own elaboration

Twenty-four of the 41 interviewed students claimed that having female Turkish language and literature teachers had its advantages. The advantages of having female teachers were grouped under the same three headings stated above. The students who emphasised personality qualities of female teachers said that they preferred them because female teachers were calm, sincere, kind, motherly, patient, understanding, and merciful and did not mentally or physically abuse them. One of the students stated their opinion as follows: *Female teachers provide better education. Compared to male teachers, they treat us more kindly during the lessons and they do not physically or mentally abuse us. Female teachers approach us more sincerely, as if we were their children. They understand us better* (G:S (8)).

Some of the student interviewees claimed that female teachers had more control over their tone of voice and better use of their gestures and facial expressions in addition to having better communication with students. One of the interviewees stated their opinion as follows: *She lectures better. A woman uses her gestures better compared to a man. I am attentive to body language and gestures. For this reason I can adapt to the lecture more easily* (G:S (14)).

The students who expressed their opinions about the ability to manage their lessons and their competency in transferring their knowledge stated that the female Turkish language and literature teachers taught better and that they were more disciplined and more

meticulous and systematic. One of the students said in this respect: *I think that women display more meticulous and systematic working performances than men* (G:S (1)).

Seventeen of the interviewed students stated that having a female Turkish language and literature teacher had no particular advantages and that gender did not matter.

Table 3
Disadvantages of having a female Turkish language and literature teacher

	N
There are disadvantages of having a female teacher	8
There are no disadvantages of having a female teacher	33

Source: own elaboration

Two themes were formed in accordance with the opinions of 8 students about the disadvantages of having female teachers. The first was about problems in personality and the second was about the class management styles of female teachers. Eight of the student interviewees claimed that female teachers got angry more easily and that they had more weaknesses depending on their personalities. As regards to class management, these students stated that female teachers had more difficulty in maintaining discipline during class, had problems with managing noise in the classroom, and that it was easier for them to disrupt the class with a female teacher, which were sighted as disadvantages. One of the student interviewees provided their opinion as follows: *There is no discipline during class, the students never stop talking and this reduces the quality of the lesson. It is not easy to understand; all we do is writing* (G:S (40)). Thirty-three of the student interviewees stated that having a female Turkish language and literature teacher had no disadvantages.

3. According to the opinions of students what are the advantages and disadvantages of having a male Turkish language and literature teacher?

Table 4
Advantages of having a male Turkish language and literature teacher

	N
There are advantages of having a female teacher	11
There are no advantages of having a male teacher	30

Source: own elaboration

Eleven of the 41 student interviewees stated that having a male Turkish language and literature teacher could result in better class discipline. Students who emphasised class discipline mentioned that maintaining class discipline, exerting better authority, having better command of the class, and ensuring silence during lecturing were the advantages of having a male Turkish language and literature teacher. One of the students provided their opinion as follows: *A male teacher would be more disciplined. He could exert his authority more easily* (G:S (14)). Some students emphasised that male teachers could have some advantages in terms of the teachers' personalities. One of the students provided his/her opinion as follows: *I think that I would be more serious during class as male teachers are mostly hard-tempered* (G:S(41)). Thirty of the interviewed students stated that having a male Turkish language and literature teacher had no advantages.

Table 5
Disadvantages of having a male Turkish language and literature teacher

	N
There are disadvantages of having a male teacher	22
There are no disadvantages of having a male teacher	19

Source: own elaboration

Twenty-two of the 41 interviewed students claimed that in the case of having a male Turkish language and literature teacher, the teacher could have some communication problems and lack the ability to transfer their knowledge due to their personal characteristics. Furthermore, depending on their personal characteristics, male teachers could be harsh, rigid and uncompassionate and thus could be inclined to

lash out at students. Moreover, they stated that male teachers had problems such as being angry and short tempered so they felt uncomfortable during the lessons and had trouble understanding what was being taught. In terms of communication, they claimed that male teachers were not able to communicate, enter into dialogues and chat, and that the students could not express themselves easily. One of the students provided their opinion as follows: *Female teachers, because they are more sincere, more fluent in lecturing and lenient on us; they always understands and supports us. Most of the male teachers do not want to deal with students* (G:S (13)).

Below are the findings that are revealed by the questions asked to the teachers in the second dimension of the research:

4. According to teacher opinions, does the gender of an inspector have any impact on inspection process?

Nine of the teacher interviewees stated that the gender of the inspector did not have any impact on the inspection process. They claimed that personality features, competences, self-development and academic success of the inspectors were effective during the inspection process.

Gender is not an important factor in inspection as gender is no match for knowledge. Regardless of the gender, the knowledge level of a person is what matters. Knowledge has no gender (G:T (1)).

I think that gender is not important. I think that what matters is doing your job fairly (G:T (8)).

Gender is not important, what matters is personality. Being female or male does not affect the job, what affects the job is personal competencies and characteristics (G:T (9)).

What matters is the competencies of a person. Their self-development does not depend on the gender (G:T (10)).

However, there are teachers who answered "yes" to the question "does the gender of an inspector have any impact on inspection process".

It is an important factor. But I think that there should be equality in working environment (G:T (3)).

Some participants said *it is important* (G:T (7)) but did not give any reasons.

5.   What are the preferences of teachers concerning the gender of inspectors?

None of the teacher interviewees stated any particular preference for the gender of inspectors. They claimed that gender was not important and that the gender of the inspector did not make any difference.

For me, it does not matter whether male or female. I have no prejudices (G:T (9)).

It does not matter. They should be an expert and able to point out my weaknesses; that is enough (G:T (2)).

It does not matter. Being a good inspector will be enough (G:T (6)).

Being male or female is not important as what matters is performing a proper inspection (G:T (3)).

They did not give any reasons why gender is not effective in inspection and only said *it does not matter* (G:Ö (11)).

6.According to teacher opinions, what are the advantages and disadvantages of having a female inspector?

Nine of the teacher interviewees stated that having a female inspector did not have any advantages. One teacher said *gender is not important. Being academically sound is enough* (G:T (4)) and expressed that gender was not an important topic and it did not have any advantages.

As regards the question on the disadvantages of having a female inspector, the teacher interviewees answered that having a female inspector did not have any disadvantages.

As gender is not important in inspection, there are no disadvantages of having a female inspector (G:T (4)).

In addition, there were teachers who thought that having a female inspector has disadvantages.

Women are mostly jealous of women. They nit-pick in order to find mistakes (G:T (7)).

7. According to teacher opinions, what are the advantages and disadvantages of having a male inspector?

Majority of teachers stated that having a male inspector had no advantages. One teacher provided their opinion as follows: *I do not think that it would have any advantages* (G:T (5)). Some teachers, on the other hand, claimed that male inspectors would be more objective and behave more courteously. *Males look somewhat tough. However, they behave more kindly compared to female inspectors* (G:T (1)).

Teachers evaluated the disadvantages of having a male inspector and claimed that having a male inspector would have no disadvantages as gender was mostly unimportant.

It would not have any disadvantages. I think that gender is not important in this case (G:T (10)).

Gender does not matter (G:T (4)) .

Some teachers who participated in the study stated that having a male inspector would create a situation far from being sincere and that male inspectors could not understand female teachers.

I think that male inspectors would not take female teachers into consideration and would be unable to understand certain situations in which some students might be in (G:T (2)).

Conclusion and Discussion

Students who participated in the study were asked about their opinions on the gender of Turkish language and literature teacher and the analysis yielded that female teachers were more preferable. Students claimed that having a female Turkish language and literature teacher had more advantages and emphasised that female teachers had better communication skills with students. The conclusions of other studies are parallel to the findings of this research indicating that communicative skills of female teachers are more effective compared to their male colleagues (Şeker, 2000; Saracaloğlu, Öztürk and Silkü, 2001; Ceylan, 2007; Özerbaş, Bulut and Usta, 2007; Toy, 2007). In addition, the studies conducted by Öztaş (2001) and Günay (2003) concluded that female teachers could establish better communication with students compared to male teachers, that they had higher empathy skills, that female teachers were more planned and organised, and more competent in terms of professional and field-related knowledge. Çetinkaya's (2009) study revealed that female pre-service teachers displayed superior professional attitudes compared to male pre-service teachers. Yılmaz's research (2009) displayed that female teachers had advanced levels of harmony, benevolence, and universality values compared to male teachers. This study supports the existing literature in

that students indicated several advantages of having a female Turkish language and literature teacher.

Nevertheless, teachers did not provide any clear preference in terms of the gender of inspectors. Teachers did not state any clear preference as to the gender of inspectors. In this sense, it is evident that gender was not seen as important in terms of inspection and that personality and professional expertise was more important. An overview of the historical process by Dilek and Işık (2014) displayed that women in education industry in Turkey have not been given sufficient opportunity to occupy the administrative positions of inspectors. It is stated that ninety five percent of the inspectors have been males. However, in this study, it is seen that gender is not an important factor in inspection. It can be said that this difference may have disappeared, given the fact that women have recently occupied more positions as inspectors than in the past. Gül (2010) conducted a study on the characteristics of Turkish course inspectors and did not include any findings regarding gender as a factor. In Gül's study (2010) such characteristics of Turkish inspectors as being experienced, charismatic and empathic, having good command of language and being innovative were valued whereas gender was not evaluated as one of these characteristics. Therefore, in respect to this, Gül's research (2010) is parallel to this study.

Ergül Düz (2015) investigated whether or not women inspectors encountered any problems depending on the gender factor; sixty percent revealed that they had experienced problems related to it. In this study, although teachers did not state any preference as to the gender of inspectors, it is observed that inspectors had problems depending on the gender inequality in their working conditions and that male inspectors were given more prominent positions. On the contrary, the study of Sönmez Genç (2016) displayed that the problems experienced by female inspectors in Turkey are not mostly related to gender (working hard, prejudices of teachers etc.). However, it was observed that there were minor gender-oriented problems (gender discrimination, male prejudice, vulgarism). Babaoğlan's study (2016) showed that inspecting abilities and competencies of female and male inspectors were not

different. On the contrary, they were similar. However, Babaoğlan's (2016) research revealed that "seeing inspection as an improvement process" and "empathy" was two of the items which were more emphasised by male than female inspectors. On the other hand, such competencies as "being attentive" and "being a researcher" were emphasised more by female than male inspectors.

In conclusion, this research found that gender was effective in teaching; in other words, students preferred female teachers to male teachers. However, when it comes to inspection, it found out that teachers did not prefer male or female inspectors. The finding that students significantly preferred female teachers more over male teachers may have a positive role on the development of education in the future. The relation between female teachers and students could be examined and positive examples could be generalised and it could be made certain that male teachers also benefit from these experiences. The apparent lack of any gender preferences in terms of inspection could be evaluated as a positive result which indicates that gender is not a means of discrimination and that inspection is performed objectively.

Recommendations

1. The impact of gender in the teaching and inspection of Turkish language and literature, which was examined in this study, could be examined for other courses.
2. Further studies could examine the reasons why and how female teachers use their communicative skills and language skills better than male teachers.

Bibliography

Aksan, D. (2000). *Her yönüyle dil: Ana çizgileriyle dilbilim* [All aspects of language: Outlines of linguistics].Ankara: TDK Yayınları.

Akyol, B., & Yavuzkurt, T. (2016). Education supervision in graduate dissertations in Turkey. *Uluslararası Türkçe Edebiyat Kültür Eğitim Dergisi, 5*(2), 908-926.

Aydın, M. (2014). *Çağdaş eğitim denetimi* [Modern education supervision].(5ᵗʰedt.), Ankara: PegemA.

Aydın, İ. (2016). *Öğretimde denetim* [Supervision of teaching]. Ankara: PegemA.

Babaoğlan, E. (2016). The personal and professional features of female and male school supervisors. *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 12*(2), 757-769.

Bayrak, C. (2001). *Öğretmenlik mesleğine giriş* [Introduction to teaching].Ankara: PegemA.

Bell, C. S. (1988). Organizational influences on women's experience in the superintendency. *Peabody Journal of Education, 65*(4), 31-59.

Büyüköztürk, Ş., Çakmak, E. K., Akgün, Ö. E., Karadeniz, Ş., & Demirel, F. (2017).Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri [Scientific research techniques]. Ankara: PegemA.

Cemiloğlu, M. (2003).Türk dili ve edebiyatı öğretimi [Teaching of Turkish language and literature], İstanbul: ALFA Basım Yayım Dağıtım.

Ceylan, G. (2007). Öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin sınıf atmosferine etkisi: Aksaray ili örneği [The impact of the teacher-student interaction on the classroom atmosphere: The case of Aksaray province]. Unpublished Master Thesis, Selçuk University, Konya.

Confrey, J. (1990). What constructivism implies for teaching. In R. B. Davis, C. A. Maher & N. Noddings (Eds.), *Constructivist views on the teaching and learning of mathematics* (pp. 107-124). Reston, VA: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

Cryss Brunner, C. (1998). Women superintendents: Strategies for success. *Journal of Educational Administration, 36*(2), 160-182.

Çetinkaya, Z. (2009). Identifying Turkish pre-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching profession. *İlköğretim Online*, *8*(2), 298-305.

Dilek, G., & Işık, H. (2014).Constructing femininity and teaching identity in women's narratives: An oral history studied at micro scale with the retired female teachers. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, *22*(3), 1165-1186.

Eacute, J., & Esteve, M. (2000). The transformation of the teachers' role at the end of the twentieth century: New challenges for the future. *Educational Review*, *52*(2), 197-207.

Erdem, A. R., & Eroğul, M.G. (2012).According to primary school teachers' opinions, education inspectors' proficiencies during the lesson inspection. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 12,* 97-109.

Ergül Düz, H. (2015). The female school inspectorates' thoughts about glass ceiling syndrome. Unpublished Master Thesis, İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University, İstanbul.

Good, T. L., & Grouws, D. A. (1979). The Missouri Mathematics Effectiveness Project: An experimental study in fourth-grade classrooms. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *71*(3), 355-362.

Gözütok, F. D. (1995). Öğretmenlerin demokratik tutumları [Democratic attitudes of teachers]. Ankara: Ekin Yayıncılık.

Gül, P. (2010). Turkish teachers and primary school supervisior's evaluation approaches to each other: A study of concept map. Unpublished Master Thesis, Gaziosmanpaşa University, Tokat.

Günay, K. (2003). Evaluation of teachers communication skills in classroom management. Unpublished Master Thesis, Çukurova University, Adana.

Gürkan, T. (1993). *İlkokul öğretmenlerinin öğretmenlik tutumları ile benlik kavramları arasındaki ilişki* [The correlation between primary school teachers' teaching attitudes and self-concept]. Ankara: Sevinç Matbaası.

Gürkan, T. (2001).Bireyin çok yönlü gelişimi [Multi directional development of the individual]. *Bilim ve Aklın Aydınlığında Eğitim Dergisi*, *22*.

Kantemir, E. (1976). *Türkiye'de liselerde Türk dili ve edebiyatı öğretimi: Alan araştırması* [Turkish language and literature teaching in high schools in Turkey: Field research]. Ankara: Millî Eğitim Basımevi.

Marshall, J. (1994). Anadili ve yazın öğretimi [Mother tongue and teaching literature] (Translated in Turkish by Cahit Külebi). Ankara: Başak Yayınları.

MentişTaş, A. (2004). Determination of curriculum standards of social studies teaching. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dergisi, 37*(1), 28-51.

Miller, C. M. (2009). Overcoming barriers: Women in the superintendency. Unpublished PhD thesis, Georgia State University, USA.

Özabacı, N., & Acat, B. M. (2005).A comparative study of ideal and self-characteristics of teacher candidates. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi Dergisi*, *11*(2), 211-236.

Özerbaş, M. A., Bulut, M., & Usta, E. (2007). The investigation of preservice teachers' perceived communication skills level. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 8*(1), 123-135.

Öztaş, R. (2001). Communication efficiencies of class teachers. Unpublished Master Thesis, Ankara University, Ankara.

Özyar, A. (2003). Milli Eğitim Bakanlığının öğretmen yetiştirme politikaları [Teacher education policy of Ministry of Education] Retrieved from *http://oyegm.meb.gov.tr/ ortasayfa/gn_md_sunu.htm* in 3rd August of 2018.

Rosenshine, B. & Stevens, R. (1986). Teaching functions. *Handbook of research on teaching*, *3,* 376-391.

Ryan, D. G. (1960).*Characteristics of effective teachers.* Washington, DC: American Council of Education.

Saracaloğlu, A.S., Özkütük N. & Silkü, A. (2001).Üniversite öğrencilerinin iletişim becerileri [Communication skills of university students].10th National Education Conference, (7-9th of June), Bolu.

Seferoğlu, S. S. (2001). Sınıf öğretmenlerinin kendi mesleki gelişimleriyle ilgili görüşleri, beklentileri ve önerileri [Classroom teachers' self-profession development perceptions, expectations and recommendations]. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi,149*, 12-18.

Seferoğlu, S. S. (2003). Öğretmenlerin hizmet-içi eğitiminde yeni yaklaşımlar [New approaches for teachers inservice trainings]. *Akdeniz Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 1*(1), 83-95.

Skrla, L., Reyes, P.,& Scheurich, J.J. (2000). Sexism, silence, and solutions: Women superintendents speak up and speak out. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 36*(1), 44-75.

Sönmez Genç, D. (2016). The issues experienced by female supervisors. Unpublished Master Thesis, Başkent University, Ankara.

Şeker, A. (2000). The relation between the communicative skills of the teachers lecturing and the classroom atmosphere. Unpublished Master Thesis, Selçuk University, Konya.

Toy, S. (2007). Comparison of engineering and law students in terms of their communication skills and the relationships between

communication skills and some variables. Unpublished Master Thesis, Ankara University, Ankara.

Uygur, N. (2006). An empirical research on the career development of primary school inspectors.Unpublished Master Thesis, Marmara University, İstanbul.

Yıldırım, A. & Şimşek, H. (2011). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri* [Qualitative research in social sciences]. Ankara: Seçkin Yayınevi.

Yılmaz, E. (2009). The study into teachers' value perceptions in terms of various variables. *Değerler Eğitimi Dergisi*, *7*(17), 109-128.

Implementing Polylingual Space into the Process of Training Future Primary School Teachers

E. Zhumabayeva
Pedagogical University (Kazakistan)
aziya_e@mail.ru
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8541-7179

A. A. Kdyrbaeva
Pedagogical University (Kazakistan)

S. A. Nurzhanova
Pedagogical University (Kazakistan)
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7337-0481

S. Stambekova
Pedagogical University (Kazakistan)

E. Uaidullakyzy
Pedagogical University (Kazakistan)
elmira_uaidulla@mail.ru

Abstract: The relevance of the problem under research is due to a new social order of the society, reflected in the Concept for the Development of Foreign Language Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan, where the formation of a polylingual personality is determined as the final qualitative result of studying a foreign language and culture. In these conditions, the problem of training the respective pedagogical staff primary school teachers, is being actualized for constructing a new type of education in a polylingual environment at the modern stage of the modernization of education, including the issues of developing its theoretical and technological support. Improving the quality of education, being a key problem of pedagogy, in the modern conditions of expanding the areas of international cooperation and the tendencies of forming a unified global community, comes into sharp focus. The aim of the article is to develop the content of an experimental curriculum on polylingual space and to test the formation of language competence of future primary school teachers in the process of higher education, as well as to study the specifics of their training for working with students in the multicultural educational space of modern Kazakhstan. The leading method of studying this problem is the analysis, which allows to identify the language needs of students. The study analyzed a series of surveys of 115 students and undergraduates, as well as university teachers of various disciplines. Moreover, implementing in the study such methods as analysis, synthesis, generalization, survey, diagnostics and carrying out various practical works, conditions to optimize the development of curricula and special courses and to remove obstacles in the implementation of trilingual education were determined. The analysis of works on improving the system of training primary school teachers in the conditions of polylingual space and the requirements for the personality of a teacher shows that the following areas of its implementation can be emphasized: the development of a teacher's communicative abilities; the organization of experimental sites of different levels for teaching students in three languages; the development of integrative learning; the use of innovative learning technologies. As a result of the experimental work, the program of the discipline "Polylingual space: Theory and Practice" was developed in three languages for undergraduates of the specialty 6M010200 - Pedagogy and Methodology of Primary Education, a textbook with the same title and texts in three languages was published, tested, and implemented in the educational process. The materials of this article can be useful for primary school teachers, working in a polylingual environment, as well as for students, undergraduates and PhD students of the above-mentioned specialty.

Keywords: Polylingual Space; Training Primary School Teachers; Trilingual Education; Intercultural Communication; Linguistic Personality.

Introduction

The implementation of polylingual education provides the creation of a new model of education that will contribute to the formation of a competitive generation that can speak at least three languages. Learning a foreign or second language at different levels of proficiency involves the acquisition of a great number of words. Language learners look for effective ways to increase opportunities for retaining new words in long-term memory, but forgetting is a common problem The importance of vocabulary learning also poses some challenges for teachers (Farjami, 2018).

The section "Requirements for educational activities" of the state compulsory standard for primary education of the Republic of Kazakhstan states: "The goal of primary education is to create a favorable space for the formation and development of a harmonious personality of students who obtain the following basic skills:

1) the ability to use knowledge functionally and creatively;
2) the ability to think critically;
3) the ability to carry out research work;

4) the knowledge of information and communication technologies;

5) the possession of various ways of communication, including language skills;

6) the skill of working in a group and individually".

Accordingly, we can conclude that for the moment, the main goal of primary education is not only to give the knowledge to students, but also to develop their general educational skills and competences. Thus, the main objective is to create conditions for the harmonious, holistic development of the personality of a student, possessing a foreign language competence. Therefore, educational organizations of the Republic of Kazakhstan, forming the basis of communicative competence of students, implement the policy of trilingual space through teaching Kazakh, Russian and English languages from the 1st grade. A typical group work activities associated with communicative language teaching are not equivalent to cooperative learning because the small group format is not the essence of cooperative learning. Although it is true that communicative group works (such as role play or problem-solving tasks) are prerequisite to cooperative learning and frequently embody certain cooperative learning principles, small cooperative learning activities in second language classes are not cooperative in nature or they underutilise cooperative learning principles (Geleto, 2019).

The issue of the influence of the polylingual environment on the vocational training of a future teacher has been considered in the works of Kazakhstani Zhetpisbayeva, Smagulova & Stoianova (2018), Kunanbayeva (2010), Isabekova (2016), Khusainova (2014), Kulibayeva (2013), Zhumabayeva A., Nurzhanova S.A., Stambekova A.S., Kdyrbaeva A.A. (2018), Zhumabayeva, Uaisova, Zhumabaeva, Uaidullakyzy, Karimova & Hamza (2019), from the perspective of linguocultural approach. Modern scholars in culture studies and language experts have agreed that language and culture do not exist without each other, they are inseparable (Zinovieva & Yurkov, 2009). An American language expert Visson (2005), speaking about the relative independence of language development and its decisive role in

creating a worldview, argues that the language is not only influenced by culture, but also completely incomprehensible without it, and the culture is the key to understanding and learning a language.

The works of Russian scientists in various fields of science: philosophy, psychology (Leontyev, 1999), linguistics (Karaulov, 1987), methodology of foreign languages teaching (Ter-Minasova, 2005). At the end of the 20th century, the meta-subject approach gained a special meaning, and now it is based on the Russian Federation (Federal State Educational Standard of Basic General Education, 2011) and the Federal State Educational Standard of Primary, Basic and Secondary (full) General Education of the Republic of Belarus (Educational standard of the academic subject 'Russian language' I–XI classes, 2009).

Intercultural communication is considered as the basis of a dialogue between different cultures and as a specific form of communication among the representatives of different languages and cultures, which is a combination of communicative, interactive and perceptual components. In this regard, it is necessary to substantiate new approaches and technologies that purposefully allow to form the intercultural competence of future primary school teachers in the process of higher education.

Drawing on the ideas of the competence and activity approaches and the study of the problem of readiness for pedagogical activity (Zhetpisbayeva & Shelestova, 2015; Grigoryeva, Leyfa, Yatsevich, Demyanenko, Makovey, Pavlushkina & Masalimova, 2015), we consider the readiness of students to intercultural communication as a complex integrative active effective state of a personality, one of the characteristics of intercultural communicative competence, ensuring effective intercultural and verbal interaction.

However, despite the available scientific works and the significance of the results obtained so far, we note that the problem of the formation of intercultural competence among future primary school teachers in the university practice is not sufficiently solved and requires

additional research. The main reasons are: the lack of a generally accepted understanding of intercultural competence of primary school teachers as a complex phenomenon that requires special measures for its formation, taking into account the modern specifics of vocational pedagogical activity:

- insufficient extent of previous research of the theoretical foundations of the process of formation of intercultural competence of future primary school teachers, reflecting its ambivalent nature and essence;

- the predominance of a formal approach to the formation of intercultural competence, consisting in the fragmentation and infrequency of the formation of intercultural competence components.

In this regard, there is a need to substantiate new approaches and technologies of higher education in the direction of the formation of intercultural competence of future primary school teachers in the conditions of the level system of higher vocational education and the credit system of education. Therefore, we set a goal to determine the theoretical and methodological basis for the formation of polylingual space on the basis of innovative technologies.

Research group

The subjects of our research are the students, the undergraduates, the doctoral students and the teachers of the Abay Kazakh National Pedagogical University. 42 students, 21 undergraduates, 12 doctoral students and 30 teachers took part in the survey.

Method

The analysis of main documents, regulating language policy was carried out as a preliminary stage of the research. The following documents were studied as the objects of the analysis: "The Concept for the Development of Foreign Language Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan"; "Guidelines for schools on the implementation of trilingual education"; "Integrated educational program"; "The Strategy for the development of polylingual education 2020"; curricula on language and non-language subjects. The survey was conducted among students, undergraduates, doctoral students and teachers.

The following questions were raised:

1. What factors hinder the successful implementation of trilingual education?

2. What are the ways to eliminate the main obstacles and barriers for the successful implementation of trilingual education?

3. What conditions, do you think, are necessary for the introduction of polylingual space?

4. Why, do you think, has polylingual education been introduced in elementary school?

Most respondents wrote: "so that children could join the modern world from early childhood"

5. How many languages do you know?

6. What special courses would you like to study for the implementation of polylingual space?

Language courses with a native speaker - almost all respondents

7. Your suggestions for the improvement of polylingual education.

Almost all respondents indicated the need for language practice.

Language courses - almost all undergraduates

8. Your suggestions for the improvement of polylingual education.

Result and Discussion

All respondents suggested, first of all, the improvement of the material base, the provision of modern literature.

According to the results of the survey, most respondents understand the term "trilingual education" and its goals. Teachers understand that, according to the Policy of polylingual space, students, undergraduates and doctoral students should master three languages at high level, having studied the content of subjects.

In the statements of many students, undergraduates, doctoral students and teachers, it is revealed a common understanding of the fact that trilingual education implies:

a) the study of three languages in linguistic subjects;
b) the study of the subjects in an appropriate language according to the model;
c) holding various events in three languages.

The results of the analysis show a more positive attitude of students, undergraduates, doctoral students and teachers to trilingual education. Teachers of both linguistic and non-linguistic subjects take for granted that all university graduates are able to study in three languages.

According to students' opinion, along with a positive impact on the development of students in general, the policy of trilingual education can have a negative impact on the level of proficiency in the state language. The problem of weakening the level of knowledge of the Kazakh language was noted in all schools in the classes with the Kazakh language of training.

The need for a quick and qualitative change in the conditions for training of future primary school teachers in higher education for polylingual vocational communication creates the prerequisites for a qualitative update of the theoretical and practical basis of the

educational process. Such transition is possible by virtue of the creation of adequate pedagogical conditions by simulating special educational environment. As the first condition, we identified the actualization (transfer from the latent to the current state) of the intercultural orientation of the vocational education of students using students' reflexive self-assessment of the level of language and socio-cultural competence.

The second condition is the comprehensive application of student-centered technologies for the productive teaching of foreign languages in the process of vocational education of students of the specialty "Pedagogy and methodology of primary education".

The third condition of the linguodidactic environment is to enhance intercultural communication through the organization of educational forms of students' activities, aimed at expanding the experience of intercultural communication.

This set of conditions that make up the linguodidactic environment ensures the effectiveness of the process of introducing polylingual education into the educational practice of a higher educational institution.

In this regard, the preparation for polylingual and intercultural communications of persons, studying at a higher educational institution implies the formation of linguistic competences and their implementation in various types of vocational activity.

At present, a group of teachers work in the Institute of Pedagogy and Psychology of the Abay Kazakh National Pedagogical University at the Department of Pedagogy and methodology of primary education, whose goal is the scientific development and introduction of the concept of polylingual education into the educational practice.

Achieving the set goal becomes possible through the development of scientific ideas and their further implementation in educational activities and through the synthesis of teachers' experience.

The needs analysis is an obligatory component in the development of courses of special disciplines, since their content is subject to the professionally significant goals and objectives of the education of students and should also meet the requirements of the State Standard of the specialty. In practice, this is reflected in the selection of relevant material and its thematic organization, the formation of skills and the development of skills, required in future vocational activities.

It is assumed that for the effectiveness of an educational process, it is necessary to determine the type of language personality, the quality of the language ability of a native speaker, and then to work out certain methods for the development of this type of language personality, which is, by the definition of Karaulov, "a personality expressed in a language (texts) and through the language" (1987). Meanwhile, the focus is on the activity approach, the natural inclusion of a student in educational activities, which becomes possible when working with a text (when it is folded, deployed, replaced).

The inclusion of students and undergraduates in textual activity allows to take into account that learning a native language occurs not only in the Kazakh (Russian) language classes, but also while studying other disciplines, when a student perceives (understands, summarizes) or produces (expands) a piece of speech work - a text. These speech actions are in demand not only in the situation of educational activities, but also in any communication process.

In this research, we proceed from the fact that a developed language culture is the potential of an intellectual nation and therefore training of a primary school teacher should take into account the necessity of qualification diversity within the modern conditions for updating the content of educational programs in a polylingual environment.

The implementation of polylingual education requires the use of modern teaching methods and approaches:

1) **an integrated approach**, that involves the interrelated teaching of languages; contributes to the in-depth study, research and understanding of structural and meaningful levels of languages through their relative and contrastive analysis; allows to identify specific features of a native language; develops a planetary vision of the world, because through ɸ language the world is perceived;

2) **team teaching**, that allows joint detailed planning and conducting of research lessons by a group of teachers.

Modern methods and approaches should take into account the relationships and interrelationships of the languages used in the lesson, take into account the possibility of using the studied languages at a particular stage.

All this blends seamlessly into modern programs of high educational institutions, where the communicative teaching methods are actualized. To research the specifics of a teacher training for working with students in the polylingual and multicultural educational space of modern Kazakhstan, research group (Zhumabayeva A., Nurzhanova S.A., Stambekova A.S., Kdyrbaeva A.A., 2018) have worked a program for the discipline «Polylingual space: Theory and Practice" (3 credits), which was used while working with undergraduates of the specialty PMPE.

The curriculum of the program includes the following topics:

Module 1. Scientific and vocational module
1.1 Polylingual education as the most important development strategy of Kazakhstan
1.2 Legal framework of polylingual education

Module 2. Communicative module
2.1 Formation of a polylingual personality in the context of intercultural communication
2.2 Formation of linguistic personality in the conditions of the modern metropolis

Module 3. Psychological and pedagogical module

3.1 Psychological and pedagogical features of training the primary school students within the trilingual space

3.2 Age characteristics of students when training in the trilingual space. Motivation as a major factor in studying a foreign language

Module 4. Integrated language teaching (native, foreign, official)

4.1 Features of integrated language teaching (native, foreign, official)

4.2 Application of innovative technologies in the classroom in the context of polylingual space

Module 5. Module of specific methodological disciplines

5.1 Features of teaching the subjects of natural science cycle (natural science, mathematics, information and communication technology) in polylingual education

5.2 Features of teaching the subjects of humanitarian cycle (languages, literary reading) in polylingual education

5.3 Features of teaching subjects of the aesthetic cycle (music, arts, technology) in polylingual education

The work on the discipline is organized both in the forms of traditional lectures and seminars, and in the form of master classes. As it is known, the vocational and methodological training of a student depends on the extent, the content of theoretical material on a subject, the methods of its mastering, teaching methods, methodological knowledge, as well as the availability of complete information about polylingual education. Such information is formed with the help of lectures on a discipline, the independent work of an undergraduate with the teacher and the independent work of an undergraduate. Therefore, "Polylingual space: Theory and Practice" is one of the disciplines that allows undergraduates to acquaint students with a future specialty, its features, meaning, amount of knowledge transferred, methods of studying it, and carrying out independent vocational activities.

Conceptually, this academic discipline forms students' ideas about the multicultural world and about themselves as part of this world. This is an information-intensive course that best meets the current requirements in the aspect of new information technologies.

In order to create information and methodological support for the introduction and assimilation of this important academic discipline, a textbook "Polylingual space: Theory and Practice of Teaching" was written. The objectives of the textbook are: the study of an integrated system of polylingual education, methodological principles, theoretical substantiation of the content of a discipline; methods and techniques for testing the knowledge of undergraduates. Particular attention was paid to theoretical material mastered by undergraduates in the discipline, as well as independent work.

Figure 1
Preparation of the Program and Textbook: Multilingualism: theory and practice
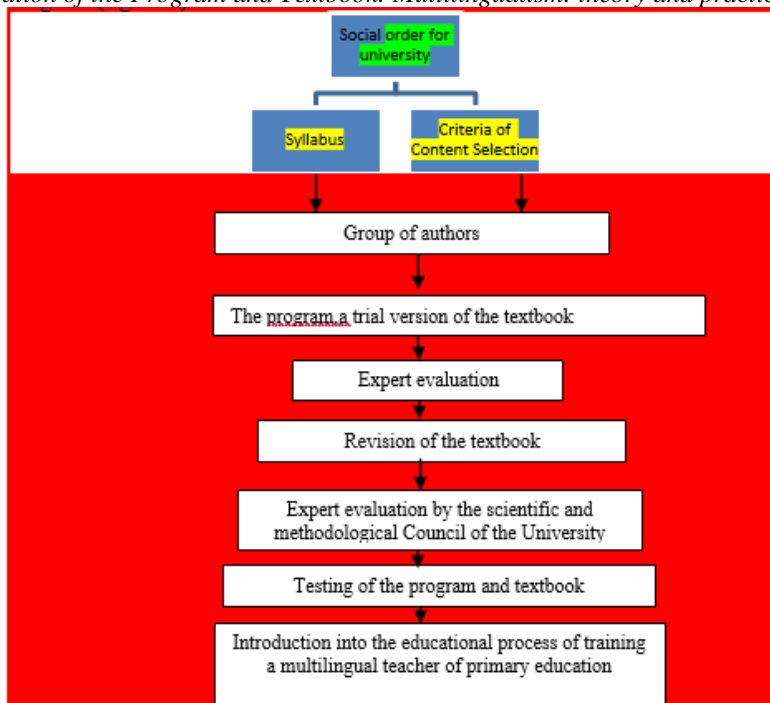
Source: own ellaboration

The textbook is developed in accordance with the requirements of the credit technology, the content of the discipline is disclosed in the framework of 17 topics. The content of the main theoretical materials on each topic consists of blocks for checking theoretical and practical knowledge, as well as blocks that form methodological mastery. Also a section for monitoring students' knowledge and a list of references on each topic are attached.

Each module contains introductory and main parts, a theoretical block, control questions, tasks for independent work of students. A special feature of the content of this textbook is the creation of a text in three languages: questions are written in English on each topic of the module - a theoretical block, in Russian - control block questions, in Kazakh - a vocationally-oriented block and tasks for independent work of students. Based on the analysis of speech material - the texts obtained in the performance of tasks from this textbook, it becomes possible to work out a typology of linguistic personalities in order to offer each type a methodology of developing its language ability taking into account individual and typical characteristics.

In the course of studying the discipline by undergraduates, we identified two types of language personality: copial and creative. We attributed to the first type those students who simply memorized the text, the result is a mechanical reproduction of the text (14 people), and we attributed to the second creative type those students who creatively reworked the text (7 people). The next stage of work is to intensify the necessity for creativity in students of both types. For this purpose, the tasks related to the organic introduction to the text of additions, substitutions, finding the semantic component and compiling an essay on a given topic were proposed.

The last genre was chosen by students with a creative personality type. In their essays, they note that knowledge of culture facilitates the acquisition of a language, since, after mastering the first linguistic constructions, learning the language begins to be accompanied by the constant discovery of society, its culture.

The undergraduates also noted that in their opinion, the main goal of teaching a foreign language at a higher educational institution is not only and not just mastering it, but to develop students' ability to intercultural communication and the ability to understand the processes occurring during intercultural communication. In other words, mastering a different language, a student masters another picture of the world that this language reflects. These two processes are inseparably associated and mutually supposed each other.

Thus, the final control of knowledge, including language skills of undergraduates, showed a sufficiently high degree and quality of their mastering the knowledge of Kazakh, Russian and English cultures according to their topic classification. Consequently, the integration of interdisciplinary, vocational and scientific - educational material, reflected in the created collective textbook "Polylingual space: Theory and Practice of Teaching", establishes integrative links between humanitarian and vocational knowledge and contributes to the successful learning of knowledge by students.

Conclusion

The implementation of polylingual education is supported by the organization of experimental sites at various levels for teaching students in 3 languages. In the Abay Kazakh National Pedagogical University that was a group of undergraduates of the specialty "Pedagogy and methodology of primary education".

It has been established that the process of teaching foreign languages is the so-called secondary socialization of students and its integration into another culture.

The discipline "Polylingual space: Theory and Practice of Teaching" has been developed and introduced into the work plan of the specialty PMPE.

A textbook with the same name and texts in three languages was created, published and tested, in which various types of sources were

used as the basis of cognitive activity. The selection of educational material for the textbook is focused on the formation of a system of linguistic, vocational and educational skills of undergraduates.

In the process of experimental work, the system integrity of the lecture and seminar educational materials and the content of the textbook has been achieved.

The work with scientific texts showed that the students were sufficiently prepared to identify the culturological content, laid down in the materials provided.

We believe that there are other types of work that will affect the implementation of polylingual education, for example, organizing and conducting scientific conferences, disputes, subject Olympiads and other events in three languages that form the idea of a multicultural world among undergraduates.

Bibliography

Farjami, F. (2018). A pathological analysis of barriers to vocabulary learning and teaching. *International Journal of Learning and Teaching, 10*(4), 350–354.

Geleto, L. (2019). Instructional goal structure, gender and second language motivation affecting English language achievement. *Global Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *9*(1), 69–81.

Grigoryeva, E. V., Leyfa, I. I., Yatsevich, L. P., Demyanenko, M. A., Makovey, N. V., Pavlushkina, T. V., & Masalimova, A. R. (2015). Designing technology of English language teaching content based on international component. *Review of European Studies*, *7*(1), 123.

Isabekova, S.Z. (2016). Inoyazychnoe obrazovanie kak faktor konkurentosposobnosti molodezhi Kazakhstana [Foreign Language Education as a Factor in the Competitiveness of Youth in Kazakhstan]. *Science and peace*, *3*(2), 136-139.

Karaulov, Y. N. (1987). *The Russian language and language personality.* Moscow: Science.

Khusainova, Zh.S. (2014). *Polylingual education in Kazakhstan: experience, problems, and prospects of development.* Karagandy.

Kunanbayeva, S. (2013). *The modernization of foreign language education: the linguocultural-communicative approach.* United Kingdom: Hertfordshire Press, pp.105-231.

Kunanbayeva, S. (2010). *Theory and practice of modern foreign language education.* Almyty. 2010.

Visson, L. (2005). Simultaneous interpretation: Language and cultural difference. *Nation, Language, and the Ethics of Translation* (pp. 51-64). Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Zhetpisbayeva, B. A., & Shelestova, T. Y. (2015). Difficulties of Implementation of Primary English Education in the Republic of Kazakhstan: Language Teachers' Views. *Review of European Studies*, *7*(12), 13.

Zhetpisbayeva, B. A., Smagulova, G. T., & Stoianova, A. P. (2018). Continuity as an attribute characteristic for the process of polylingual professional education. *Tradition and Innovation in Education*, *1*(89), 81-90.

Zhumabayeva A., Nurzhanov S. A., Stambekova A. S., Kdyrbaeva A. A., Safargalieva A., Omarova G. Zh., Tadzhiev M. K., & Sartaev N.T. (2018). *Polylingual space: Theory and Practice of Teaching. Teaching aid for undergraduates*. Almaty: Polygraphy Service and Co LLP.

Zhumabayeva, Z., Uaisova, G., Zhumabaeva, A., Uaidullakyzy, E., Karimova, R. & Hamza, G. (2019). Issues of Kazakh language teaching in elementary classes in terms of the meta-subject approach. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, *14*(1), 158-170.

Zinovieva, E., & Yurkov, E. E. (2009). *Linguoculturology: theory and practice.* SPb.: Publishing house MIRS.

Attitudinal Trends in CLIL Assessment: a pilot study

Tendencias actitudinales en evaluación AICLE: estudio piloto

Jesús García Laborda
Instituto Franklin-Facultad Educación, Universidad de Alcalá
jesus.garcialaborda@uah.es
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0125-4611

Elena Alcalde Peñalver
Universidad de Alcalá de Henares
e.alcalde@uah.es
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1606-4792

Resumen: El objetivo de este artículo es presentar los resultados de un estudio piloto obtenidos a través de un cuestionario distribuido a futuros maestros de asignaturas de contextos AICLE y no AICLE que están familiarizados con este tipo de metodología por los estudios que están realizando, ya sean de grado o posgrado. El artículo empieza con una introducción al tema y continúa con una revisión de los estudios de investigación relevantes en el campo de la evaluación en este ámbito. A continuación, se presenta el método de nuestro estudio con información sobre el instrumento, los participantes y el contexto académico. Posteriormente, analizamos los resultados con ejemplos concretos de los datos obtenidos. Finalmente, reflexionaremos sobre los resultados obtenidos a modo de conclusión. Los resultados preliminares de este estudio piloto mostrarán los problemas más importantes relacionados con la evaluación en contextos AICLE de acuerdo con las expectativas de futuros maestros sobre cómo podría basarse la enseñanza siguiendo esta metodología.

Palabras clave: Evaluación; Actitudes; AICLE; Estudio Piloto.

Abstract: The aim of this paper is to present a pilot study based on a questionnaire distributed to prospective teachers of CLIL and non-CLIL courses with familiarity on that type of teaching due to their own studies either through graduate or undergraduate courses. The paper opens with an introduction to the topic and continues with a review of relevant research studies in the field of CLIL assessment. Next, the method of our study is presented with information about the instrument, participants and academic context. After that, the results of the study are analysed and illustrated with examples from the data. Finally, different interpretations of the study will be discussed as a way of conclusion. The preliminary results of this pilot study will show the most significant issues involved in CLIL assessment according to these prospective teachers' expectations of what teaching following this methodology could be like.

Keywords: Assessment; Attitudes; CLIL; Pilot Study.

I ntroduction

A brief research on assessment in Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) evidences a lack of references that specifically address this topic. This has in many cases been due to the overwhelming interest on its success (Coyle, 2006: 2) along with the need to justify its increasing use in many educational systems rather than on its assessment process (Jäppinen, 2005; Pérez Cañado, 2012). Indeed, many studies have already shown the beneficial effects that CLIL has had after its implementation in schools (Massler, Stotz & Queisser, 2014; O'Dwyer & de Boer, 2015; Leal, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2017; De la Barra, Veloso, & Maluenda, 2018). However, few and very different models of assessment have so far been described (Morgan, 2006; Bertaux *et al.*, 2010) and there are still elements in this respect that remain almost unconsidered such as teachers' attitudes towards testing and assessment (Aiello, Di Martino & Di Sabato, 2017) especially in teacher education (Strotmann, Bamond, Lopez Lago, Bailen, Bonilla *et al.*, 2014; Ennis, 2015). In this sense, as stated by Pérez Cañado (2015: 84), "evaluation is […] vital in all respects, especially within a novel programme, to provide an insight into how students are reacting to new and unfamiliar circumstances". It is also clear that the students' positive attitudes are one of the cornerstones for educational and CLIL success

(ELDaou & Abdallah, 2019; Kirmizigul & Bektas, 2019; Tajgozari & Alimorad, 2019) especially in pre-service teachers (Genc, 2016). Therefore, the need for assessment measures to adequately evaluate both content and language becomes paramount (Díaz Cobo, 2009). In this respect, Pérez Cañado adds (2015: 84) that in CLIL programmes "it is essential to determine if evaluation in the foreign language is carried out. Only then can we delve deeper to examine if communicative competences and content are being given priority and diversified evaluation models are adhered to." Assessment can thus be considered a key aspect to continue with the correct implementation of bilingual programmes and the attitudes that teachers working in this environment have towards play a very important role.

The aim of this paper is to present a pilot study based on a questionnaire distributed to prospective teachers of CLIL and non-CLIL courses with familiarity on that type of teaching due to their own studies either through graduate or undergraduate courses. Through the different questions of the questionnaire we wanted to find out what their attitudes toward it were. After this introduction, the paper continues with a review of relevant research studies in the field of CLIL assessment. Next, the method of our study is presented with information about the instrument, participants and academic context. After that, the results of the study are analysed and illustrated with examples from the data. Finally, different interpretations of the study will be discussed as a way of conclusion.

1. Literature review

In 2011 the European Centre for Modern Languages published the European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education (Marsh *et al.* 2011). CLIL teachers in Spain are shaped by the requirements upon them before they begin to teach. These requirements are mostly related to their own language competence which may change from one region to another usually being C1 in the CEFR the requirement for English teachers and B2 for content subject teachers (of any other subject). The European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education has an extensive

reflection on teacher education providers being these universities or other agencies but the language requirement is usually covered by the demand of a C1. However, there are other aspects that go unrevised such as the knowledge of basics in language and content methodology and many other aspects that can be found in other countries (design of material to use in the classroom, planning, etc.). For instance, Italy requires CLIL teachers "to attend and pass the specific methodological course provided by universities (known in Italy as 'Corso di perfezionamento')" (Aiello, Di Martino & Di Sabato, 2017: 72). In this sense, in Spain the situation is beginning to improve and in order to do so Teacher Training Centres and other institutions are working together to ensure that teachers working in bilingual programs are "updated in their language skills, methodological practices, materials development and assessment criteria, and that they are able to implement the European Language Portfolio at all levels". (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018: 167).

Further research has also approached assessment tools in CLIL contexts for primary education. Massler, Stotz & Queisser (2014) observed the kind of learner's achievements in the relation of linguistic knowledge and the knowledge of content subjects in Primary Education. The authors also included their own approach of CLIL. However, their observational study just addressed two subjects and certainly not the teachers' attitudes, which is currently one of the areas where more professional development is required in Spain. Likewise, Brevik & Moe (2012), observed that assessment in CLIL proved that the weakest students benefited best from assessment. However, Leal (2016) expressed that there is still a need to discriminate between content and language. This may be opposed to the views of certain linguists who believe that CLIL may not be different from English for Specific Purposes, which has been used for centuries (García Laborda & Litzler, 2015), in terms of its use in "the teaching methodology, the course design, and the assessment procedure[s]" (Ennis, 2015: 358). Similar results were observed by Aguilar and Rodriguez (2012) who concluded that students in CLIL classes in university tend to focus on language and vocabulary gains but not on content in Spain. A more recent research study published in 2018 by Milla Lara and Casas

Pedrosa showed the outcomes of a qualitative study carried out with teachers in four provinces of eastern Andalusia (Spain) to analyse the development of CLIL programmes in this region. The authors concluded that teachers considered that in their CLIL lessons all contents were assessed and prioritized over linguistic aspects, and evaluation was diverse, formative, summative and holistic. Their results also showed that the oral components, even though they are part of the evaluation, are not highly considered, which is in line with what was stated by Lancaster (2016: 60), who reported that although teachers are generally satisfied with evaluation, "they admit an oral component is not always incorporated into assessment". This has traditionally been the case of the Spanish educational system and despite an improvement in its situation, written skills are still prioritized over oral skills (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018).

With the exception of this last-mentioned study, most research has failed to simplify and consider that assessment should mostly address language. Unfortunately centering the observation of learning in the language may lead to wrong assumptions about CLIL where the balance between language and content should prevail. This is in line with the definition of CLIL provided by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 1) as a "dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language. That is, there is a focus not only on content, and not only on language". Indeed, as stated by Kiely (2016), assessment in CLIL is complex due to the dual focus, which means that two assessment processes are involved, and a key issue is to what extent language and content are integrated on the assessment outcomes. As this author argues, this is not easy for the teacher, especially when it is a kind of methodology they have not been completely trained to deal with.

In this sense, regarding teachers' attitudes towards the assessment of CLIL, a first study was done by Morgan (2006) who just considered the difficulties of the different forms of assessment in CLIL. A second case was presented by O'Dwyer & De Boer (2015) who provided an approach to formative assessment through cooperative skills. Reierstam also conducted a study in 2015 in Sweden in which

she investigated teachers' assessment practices in a CLIL context in three secondary schools. Her findings revealed that CLIL did not seem to have an effect on teachers' assessment practices and that differences seemed to relate to their preferences or their perceptions of the subject they were teaching. In another study conducted by Vilkancienė & Rozgienė (2017) in Lithuania in the context of a CLIL project that aimed to upgrade the competences of subject teachers so as to integrate learning of content and language results revealed that, according to participants "CLIL remains one of the aspects that poses difficulties […] and causes intense discussions even within the CLIL community itself" (2017: 209). Their study also found that the lack of standards and guidance on assessment is considered to be problematic for teachers and that the development of material and training in this respect should be prioritized.

Despite these studies, not even one has specifically developed teachers' attitudes towards assessment. Therefore, it seemed to be area that needed to be further addressed in research and this was what we attempted to do with our pilot study as it will be shown in the next sections.

2. Method

In order to get insights into a topic that so far has been neglected in research, a survey was designed with seven questions (Appendix 1). This was done after conducting an extensive process of literature review and considering the criteria for the elaboration and application of instruments to collect data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2011).

The participants of our study were both graduate and undergraduate students in language teaching courses at the University of Alcalá and University of Jaén. A total of 35 students responded to the questionnaire. All the questions were closed-response except one about the problems they found in CLIL assessment.

The research questions of this pilot study were:

1)   What are participants' opinions about assessment?
2)   What are the main problems and issues they found in assessing CLIL?
3)   Do they focus on content or language?
4)   Is writing a CLIL test more or less difficult than writing a language test?

3. Results

The following results show the answers to the above-mentioned questionnaire to analyze the perceptions of participants. The descriptive statistical data from the survey was also triangulated with qualitative information obtained from the open question.

Regarding the first question, 85.7 % of participants stated that they were teaching CLIL courses, whereas 14.3 % said that they were not. As for the second question in which participants were asked if they had ever copied activities (even with minor changes) to write tests for classes other than English as it could be the case of Natural or Social Sciences, the following graph shows the collected answers:

Figure 1
When I write tests for classes other than English (such as Natural or Social Sciences), do "copy" activities (with minor changes) that have already been done in class?
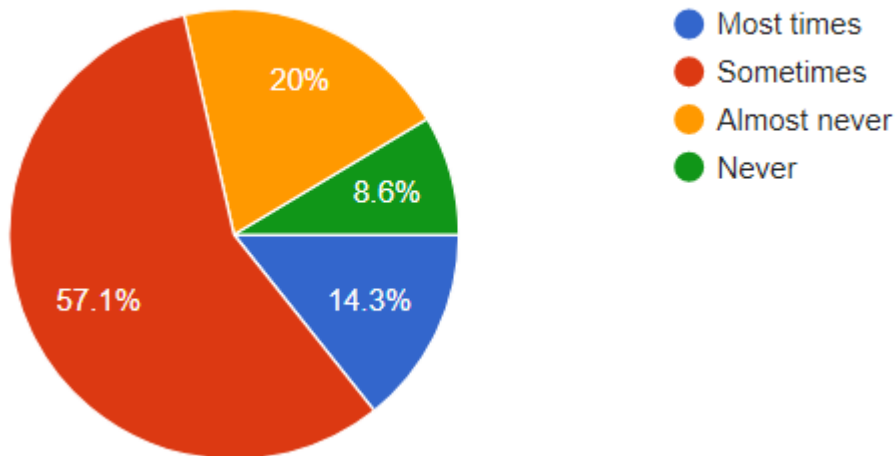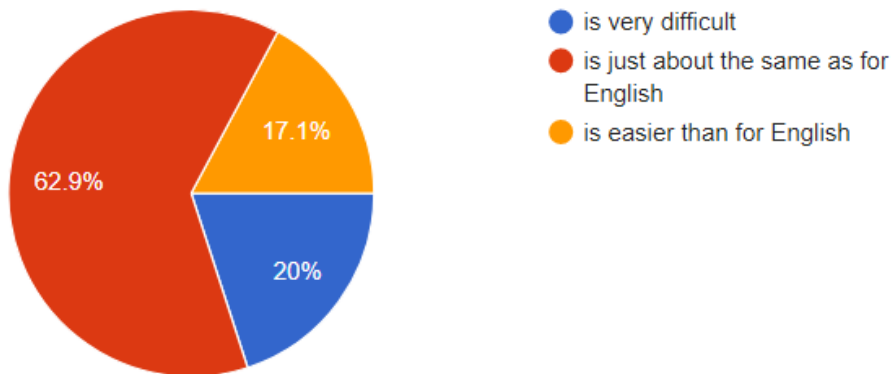

Source: Own elaboration

As shown in Figure 1, only 8.6 % of participants stated that they had never copied activities (with minor changes) when writing tests, whereas the highest percentage of participants (57.1 %) affirmed that they sometimes did and 14.3 % did it most of the time. This shows that most participants did not design their own assessment tools and had to resort to existing material to evaluate their students' learning.

Regarding the difficulty that writing tests for these subjects entails, participants' answers were the following:

Figure 2
I consider that writing a test to assess subjects other than English (such as Natural or Social Sciences).

Source: Own elaboration

However, Figure 2 shows that for more than half of the participants designing a test for a CLIL context is just about the same as for English and only 20% found it very difficult. In this regard, these were the main difficulties that the participants of our pilot study indicated when preparing exams for CLIL students. Answers have been grouped in different thematic categories of analysis:

Table 1
Participant's answers regarding difficulties when preparing exams for CLIL students

| Topic	Answers
Students' level of English	8
Finding the right topics	4
Design of an exam according to students' needs	2

Source: Own elaboration

Regarding students' level of English, one participant stated that it is harder to know your students' level of English in a Science class because they are not used to writing complete paragraphs in English and another one stated that he would be worried that students would not understand the questions. Another participant said that CLIL and non-CLIL students could not be assessed following the same level of

difficulty and another one said that the difficulty would be related to being clear enough on the content so that students would not be confused. Another participant's answer added that when developing tests of this kind questions that require to be developed could not be used. Again, this shows that there is a sense of confusion among the criteria and method that needs to be followed to design a test in a CLIL context, which is in line with what Vilkanciene & Rozgiene (2017) stated in their study regarding the difficulties this poses for teachers.

As for the importance of language in CLIL or bilingual Education, these were the answers that participants provided:

Figure 3
Importance of language in CLIL of Bilingual Education
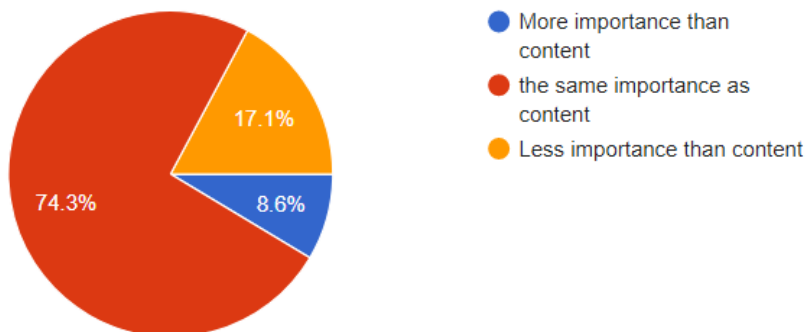
Source: Own elaboration

As shown in Figure 3, the highest percentage (74.3 %) corresponds to participants that considered language as important as content, whereas only 8.6 % considered language to be more important than content. This situation seems to have improved when compared to the results obtained by Aguilar and Rodríguez in their study from 2012, which concluded that students in CLIL classes in Spain focused more on language and vocabulary and not on content. Therefore, our participants' answers seem to be in line with the proper balance of content and language for what is considered to be a successful

implementation of a CLIL subject according to Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010).

Regarding the use of alternative tools for assessment such as portfolios, presentations or others, 71.4 % of participants stated that they use both tests and other tools of assessments and only 5.7% of participants indicated that they only use tests and the same percentage chose the option of "I do not use tests".

Finally, when asked if they considered systematically (and numerically) their observations in class, the majority of participants answered affirmatively (82.9 %) (Figure 4). However, only 40 % of them indicated that they assigned these observations a grade.

Figure 4
Do you also consider systematically (and numerically) your observations in class?
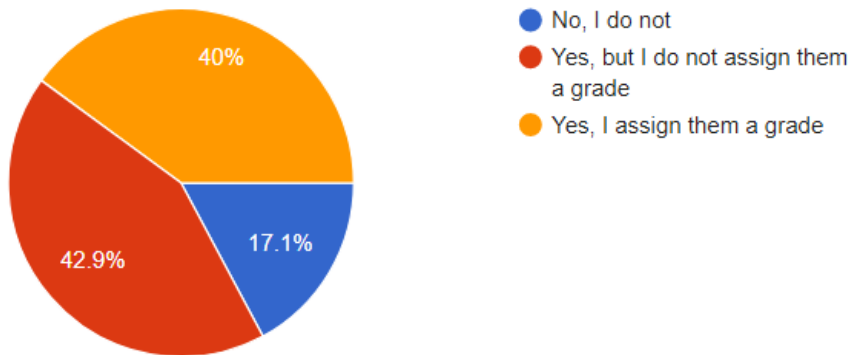
Source: Own elaboration

Conclusions

The aim of this paper was to present a pilot study based on a questionnaire distributed to prospective teachers of CLIL and non-CLIL courses with familiarity on that type of teaching due to their own studies either through graduate or undergraduate courses. In the section

dedicated to the theoretical framework of our study, we provided a review of the recent literature that focused on assessment in CLIL contexts. As was stated, despite the existence of studies that focus on how teaches currently assess their students and some of the difficulties they encounter, we could confirm that there is no research that specifically develop teachers' attitudes towards assessment in this respect. Therefore, the four research questions that were formulated allowed us to obtain some preliminary results on the topic. First of all, regarding participants' opinions about assessment, we can conclude for more than half of the participants designing a test for a CLIL context is just about the same as for English and only 20% found it very difficult. Second, the main problems they find in assessing CLIL are related to how they can assess students' level of English, even though they tend to focus equally on content and language (third question). Finally, writing a CLIL test usually not design their own assessment tools and resort to existing material to evaluate their students' learning. In accordance with the analysed literature, our answers support the idea that more importance should be givenat the university level on the importance of assessment in CLIL contexts. Therefore, efforts should be made to ensure the right combination of language and content in assessment practices and this is what training for prospective teachers in CLIL contexts should try to aim to for its successful implementation. Despite the limitations of this pilot study, we believe that we have gained a preliminary insight into this topic and that we have obtained some results that allow us to open a line for future research in such a neglected area.

References

Aguilar, M., & Rodriguez, R. (2012). Lecturer and student perceptions on CLIL at a Spanish university. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 15*(2), 183-197. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2011.615906

Aiello, J., Di Martino, E., & Di Sabato, B. (2017). Preparing teachers in Italy for CLIL: Reflections on assessment, language proficiency and willingness to communicate. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 20*(1), 69-83. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2015.1041873

Bertaux, P., Coonan, C.M., Frigols, M.J., & Mehisto, P. (2010). *The CLIL teacher's Competence Grid. Common Constitution and Language Learning (CCLL) Comenius Network*. Retrieved from http://lendtrento.eu/convegno/files/mehisto.pdf.

Brevik, L., & Moe, E. (2012). Effects of CLIL Teaching on Language Outcomes. In D. Tsagari & I. Csépes, *Collaboration in Language Testing and Assessment* (pp. 213-227). Berlin: Peter Lang.

Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL Content and Language Integrated Learning.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Coyle, D. (2006). Content and language integrated learning: motivating learners and teachers. *Scottish Languages Review*, *13*, 1-18.

De, l. B., Veloso, S., & Maluenda, L. (2018). Integrating assessment in a CLIL-based approach for second-year university students. *PROFILE: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *20*(2), 111-126.

Díaz Cobo, A. (2009). Assessment instruments for CLIL written production tasks. In P. Marsh, D. Mehisto, R. Wolff, T. Aliaga, M. J. Asikainen, S. Frigols-Martín *et al.* (Eds.), *CLIL Practice: Perspectives from the Field* (pp. 139-148). Finland: University of Jyväskylä.

ELDaou, B., & Abdallah, A (2019). The impact of CLIL implementation on Lebanese students' attitudes and performance. *Global Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *9*(1), 1-9.

Ennis, M. J. (2015). Do we need to know that for the exam? teaching English on the CLIL fault line at a trilingual university. *TESOL Journal, 6*(2), 358-381. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/tesj.199

García Laborda, J., & Litzler, M. F. (2015). Current approaches in teaching English for Specific Purposes. *Revista Onomázein*, *31*, 38-51.

Genc, Z. (2016). The opinions of primary school teachers' candidates towards material preparation and usage. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, *11*(2), 70-76.

Jäppinen, A. K. (2005). Thinking and content learning of Mathematics and Science as cognitional development in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): Teaching through a foreign language in Finland, *Language and Education*, *19* (2), 147-168.

Kiely, R. (2016). *CLIL. The Question of Assessment*. Retrieved from http://www.developingteachers.com/articles_tchtraining/clil1_richard.htm.

Kirmizigul, A. S., & Bektas, O. (2019). Investigation of pre-service science teachers' epistemological beliefs. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, *14*(1), 146-157.

Lancaster, N. K. (2016). Stakeholder perspectives on CLIL in a monolingual context, *English Language Teaching*, *9*(2), 148-177.

Leal, J. P. (2016). Assessment in CLIL: Test development at content and language for teaching natural science in english as a foreign language. *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning*, *9*(2), 293-317.

Marsh, D., Mehisto, P. M., Wolff, D., & Frigols Martín, M. J. (2011). *European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education.* Retrieved from https://www.unifg.it/sites/default/files/allegatiparagrafo/20-01-2014/european_framework_for_clil_teacher_education.pdf.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2001). *Investigación educativa*. Madrid: Pearson.

Massler, U., Stotz, D., & Queisser, C. (2014). Assessment instruments for primary CLIL: The conceptualisation and evaluation of test tasks. *Language Learning Journal, 42*(2), 137-150. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2014.891371

Milla Lara, M. D., & Casas Pedrosa, A. V. (2018). Teacher Perspectives on CLIL Implementation: A Within-Group Comparison of Key Variables. *Porta Linguarum, 29*,159-180.

Morgan, C. (2006). Appropriate language assessment in content and language integrated learning. *Language Learning Journal, 33*(1), 59-67.

O'Dwyer, F., & de Boer, M. (2015). Approaches to Assessment in CLIL Classrooms: Two Case Studies. *Language Learning in Higher Education, 5*(2), 397-421.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2017). CLIL and Educational Level: A Longitudinal Study on the Impact of CLIL on Language Outcomes. *Portal Linguarum, 29*, 51-70.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2015). Evaluating CLIL Programmes: Instrument Design and Evaluation. *Pulso, 39*, 79-112.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2012). CLIL research in Europe: Past, present, and future. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 15*(3), 315-341.

Reierstam, H. (2015). *Assessing Language or Content? A comparative study of the assessment practices in three Swedish upper secondary CLIL schools.* Master's Thesis. University of Gothenburg.

Strotmann, B., Bamond, V., Lopez Lago, J. M., Bailen, M., Bonilla, S., & Montesinos, F. (2014). Improving bilingual higher education: Training university professors in content and language integrated learning. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, *4*(1), 91-97.

Tajgozari, M., & Alimorad, Z. (2019). Iranian EFL students' perceptions of criteria for assessing students' written performance. *Global Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *9*(1), 1-9.

Vilkancienė, L., & Rozgienė, I. (2017). CLIL Teacher Competences and Attitudes. *Sustainable Multilingualism*, *11*, 196-218. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/sm-2017-0019.

Appendix 1: Assessment in CLIL Survey

Question 1: I am teaching CLIL courses
Yes
No

Question 2: When I write tests for classes other than English (such as Natural or Social Sciences), I "copy" activities (with minor changes) that have already been done in class:
Most times
Sometimes
Almost never
Never

Question 3: I consider that writing a test to assess subjects other than English (such as Natural or Social Sciences)
Is very difficult
Is just about the same as for English
Is easier than for English

Question 4: Point the main problems that you consider having when preparing exams for CLIL students

Question 5: In CLIL or bilingual Education, language has
More importance than content
The same importance as content
Less importance than content

Question 6: Do you use alternative assessment tools (portfolios, presentations, others)
Yes, I do not use tests
No
No, I only use tests
Yes, I use both tests and other tools of assessment

Question 7: Do you also consider systematically (and numerically) your observations in class?
No, I do not
Yes, but I do not assign them a grade
Yes, I assign them a grade

Reseñas bibliográficas

Bibliographic Reviews

.

Alberto Escalante Varona
Cómo afrontar una tesis doctoral

Cómo afrontar una tesis doctoral ocupa un hueco aún poco cultivado en la literatura formativa: las guías para los programas de doctorado actuales. Comenzamos su reseña por la conclusión: tras la lectura queda claro que era necesaria una publicación así. De doctorandos para doctorandos, pero también para profesores, estudiantes de máster y futuros investigadores potenciales.

La Asociación Philobiblion de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, encargada de este libro, ha desarrollado una larga y fructífera andadura en el ámbito de las asociaciones de investigadores noveles en España, de la que ha dado cuenta en ya varios congresos, seminarios, talleres, charlas y eventos culturales. También publicaciones, desde su revista *Philobiblion* y sus anejos hasta volúmenes independientes, como el que hoy nos ocupa. Era, pues, cuestión de tiempo que sus miembros volcaran sus experiencias en una guía, que no manual, para orientar a interesados en comenzar sus estudios de doctorado. Y esta publicación ha surgido, precisamente, de un seminario de investigación, celebrado en 2017, en el que los miembros de la Asociación compartieron experiencias con doctorandos de reciente ingreso. La Academia, en su más pura expresión de intercambio de ideas y conocimientos, da sus frutos en este pequeño pero sustancial libro. Con especial aplicación a la investigación en Humanidades, en el campo de la Filología al que pertenecen todos los miembros de Philobiblion: un área especialmente afectada por un cambio de paradigma, tal vez como fruto de una inconsciente asimilación de los criterios de productividad y

cuantificación de calidad de las Ciencias puras, que resultan ajenos a la propia naturaleza metodológica de las Letras.

Sin duda, esta aproximación era necesaria. La renovación de los programas de doctorado, estipulada en el Real Decreto 99/2011, supuso un revulsivo en el sistema de realización de una tesis doctoral. Esto afectó por igual tanto a los profesores herederos del sistema tradicional, como a los doctorandos de nuevo ingreso, arrojados ambos a un nuevo modelo frenético y acumulativo, en el que la tesis doctoral se transforma en un trámite que culmina un largo proceso de formación que nada tiene que ver con el de los planes de doctorado anteriores. La docencia, la difusión de resultados, la asistencia a congresos y otros encuentros científicos... toda una serie de actividades que antes constituían el fin de la formación, ahora pasan a ser una parte más de su desarrollo. Con aparente carácter voluntario, pero auténtica obligatoriedad, la carrera formativa del doctorando se asemeja hoy más a una carrera de fondo marcada por la competitividad cuantitativa (dejemos para otro debate el aspecto cualitativo).

Y en este volumen se afronta esta realidad con cercanía hacia el lector, pero también con las adecuadas dosis de realidad y poco victimismo. Sus planteamientos y objetivos quedan resumidos en la "Introducción" que firma Juan Cerezo Soler (págs. 11-20), de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, también editor del libro; subtitula su aportación como "El mito de la tesis doctoral", y sobre la refutación de ese "mito" basa su mirada objetiva y consciente sobre la realidad presente. No es este, como Cerezo explica, un manual al uso, en el que se expongan una serie de pautas y procedimientos necesarios para elaborar una tesis doctoral. Sus autores saben perfectamente que existen otros trabajos ya canónicos y aún indispensables en ese sentido: así, el ya clásico *Cómo se hace una tesis doctoral* de Umberto Eco es un referente ineludible. Por su parte, *Cómo afrontar una tesis doctoral* es, ante todo, una recopilación de ensayos breves de carácter expositivo en los que los autores muestran y debaten los principales condicionantes del proceso de realización de la tesis, según los criterios legislativos actuales. No es, tal y como se expresa en el prólogo, una guía sobre cómo "hacer" una tesis doctoral, sino cómo "afrontar" el doctorado.

Una orientación, más que nada, para ser conscientes de las muchas circunstancias que rodean al proceso administrativo, procedimental, académico y, por qué no decirlo, humano que supone elaborar una investigación doctoral.

De ahí el valor de esta publicación: porque solo podían realizarla quienes conocen de primera mano los vaivenes de la experiencia formativa en este nuevo modelo. Todas las contribuciones recogidas permiten abarcar algunos de los aspectos más importantes en el comienzo de una carrera investigadora. Se presta especial atención a la necesidad de construir un perfil profesional ya desde el principio, equilibrándose el aspecto cualitativo con el burocrático: lo que debería tenerse en cuenta por honradez académica (para uno mismo y para el mundo universitario) y lo que ha de realizarse para cumplir con los requisitos exigidos de acreditación y mérito curricular. Bajo esta premisa se orienta todo el volumen, en un sentido casi cronológico, que va desde los inicios inmediatos de la carrera predoctoral hasta las cuestiones que determinan su desarrollo en todos sus estadios.

Manuel Piqueras (págs. 21-28), de la Universidad de Granada, orienta a los estudiantes interesados en el doctorado en una serie de cuestiones fundamentales: cuáles son los principales contratos predoctorales, tanto públicos como privados, y qué obligaciones investigadoras y docentes acarrean; y cuáles son los criterios curriculares y profesionales que determinan la apropiada selección de un tema de investigación y un director de tesis. Se despejan así dudas inevitables a estos primeros pasos predoctorales, tales como la idoneidad de la beca para la que se concursa, el papel que juega el director como orientador pero no como investigador principal del proyecto y la limitación de los temas de investigación iniciales durante su progreso natural.

Sergio García García (págs. 29-35), de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, resume cuáles deben ser las principales tareas académicas del doctorado, según los criterios de acreditación de la ANECA. De este modo, introduce aspectos dispares pero ligados en la misma concepción heterogénea de la carrera predoctoral como un

cúmulo de méritos, obtenidos incluso durante el grado universitario. Los clasifica en tres bloques: la difusión de los resultados de la investigación en encuentros académicos (desgranando su tipología nacional o internacional, y su naturaleza heterogénea o monográfica) y publicaciones periódicas; la docencia universitaria; y la participación en actividades complementarias (participación en consejos editoriales, asociaciones, proyectos de investigación...).

De las publicaciones se encargan José Luis Eugercios Arriero (págs. 37-56) y Yónatan Melo Pereira (págs. 57-65; este último, también editor del volumen), ambos de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid. Eugercios se centra especialmente en defender la pertinencia de la calidad en las investigaciones: lanza así un afilado dardo contra la publicación mecanizada, con fines únicamente cuantitativos para engrosar el currículum con trabajos clónicos. Describe así las modalidades de publicación según su relevancia para las acreditaciones (sobre los índices de impacto, explica cuáles son y dónde pueden consultarse), distinguiendo entre artículos científicos, libros, capítulos de libro, actas y reseñas y describiendo los pros y los contras de cada tipo. Melo, por su parte, se centra en explicar algunas nociones fundamentales para iniciar trámites de publicación con una editorial. Su aproximación resulta interesante, sobre todo, para quienes elaboran un libro para una editorial. Plantea, así, una serie de pautas y consejos para cuidar la presentación de un original, revisar y corregir las pruebas con precisión y, en suma, establecer una fluida comunicación con el editor, lo que facilite su labor, desembocando todo ello en una correcta gestión del tiempo que no demore la publicación final del manuscrito.

Roberto Dalla (págs. 67-78), de la Asociación del Hispanismo Filosófico, describe las principales ventajas de Mendeley como gestor bibliográfico. Aporta una perspectiva objetiva, que aprecia las virtudes y beneficios que proporcionan los recursos digitales a la investigación (principalmente, en lo relativo a la creación de redes de colaboración entre profesionales), pero que también reconoce las limitaciones que aún presentan con respecto a las Humanidades, sobre todo en lo referente a un aún imperfecto sistema de cita automática (que, en cambio, funciona mejor en Ciencias, donde la organización de las bases

de datos e índices de publicaciones es más homogénea). Andrea Toribio (págs. 79-86), de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, nos explica algunas cuestiones necesarias para el trabajo en archivos. Lista los principales y orienta su consulta clasificándolos por su titularidad pública o privada, la catalogación de sus fondos (los principales repositorios) y la naturaleza de sus contenidos (archivos patrimoniales, hemerotecas, colecciones particulares). También ofrece algunas orientaciones básicas para el acceso a estos materiales, de forma presencial o por vía telemática, y reflexiona sobre la necesidad de reincorporar el estudio documental a la investigación para revisar la jerarquía de las fuentes primarias y secundarias.

Por último, Weselina Gacińska (págs. 87-95), de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, aborda los presupuestos metodológicos necesarios para iniciar un doctorado en estudios interdisciplinares. Parte del auge de estas propuestas en los programas formativos europeos y americanos, pese a su lenta implantación en el panorama español. A continuación, desarrolla las principales ventajas de una investigación de este tipo, atendiendo a la innegable novedad y originalidad de sus planteamientos, que pueden suponer un verdadero punto de referencia para aportaciones posteriores. Cierra el capítulo con un pequeño comentario sobre su propia experiencia en el desarrollo de una investigación en antropología literaria.

En suma, en este volumen se ofrecen una serie de herramientas actitudinales y técnicas y algunas orientaciones conceptuales y metodológicas que sin duda serán útiles para los investigadores noveles en formación. No se trata de listar una serie de requisitos de obligado cumplimiento, sino de aconsejar al alumno para que sepa aprovechar las posibilidades formativas a su alcance, de modo que su rendimiento resultante sea el apropiado según el modelo educativo actual. Por ello, podría resultar una lectura, más que interesante, útil para quienes comiencen sus estudios de doctorado: sería incluso recomendable, a juicio nuestro, su empleo como material para la docencia en másteres de investigación. De este modo, y con un estilo cercano pero no coloquial, propio de la literatura divulgativa, el estudiante de doctorado podrá identificarse en un lenguaje que le resulta próximo y accesible, lo que

favorecerá la pertinencia de esta guía. En la semejanza de pareceres y experiencias surge la afinidad, necesaria en la vida académica para superar los sinsabores y compartir los triunfos. Esa cercanía es, finalmente, la que otorga un valor especial a este trabajo de la Asociación Philobiblion. Solo nos resta esperar, y confiar en que, en algún momento futuro, podamos recibir, de la mano de la investigación predoctoral actual, algún manual que abarque de primera mano el siguiente paso de la carrera profesional universitaria, y que será el que los ahora doctorandos darán en un futuro muy próximo: la incierta carrera posdoctoral, inmediatamente después de la lectura de la tesis.

Alberto Escalante Varona
alberto.escalante@unirioja.es
Universidad de La Rioja

Slavka Madarova y Jeannette Valencia Robles
Emotions in Second Language Teaching: Theory, Research and Teacher Education

Martínez Agudo, J. [Ed.] (2018). *Emotions in Second Language Teaching: Theory, Research and Teacher Education*. Charm, Suiza, Springer. 449 págs. ISBN: 978-3-319-75438-3.
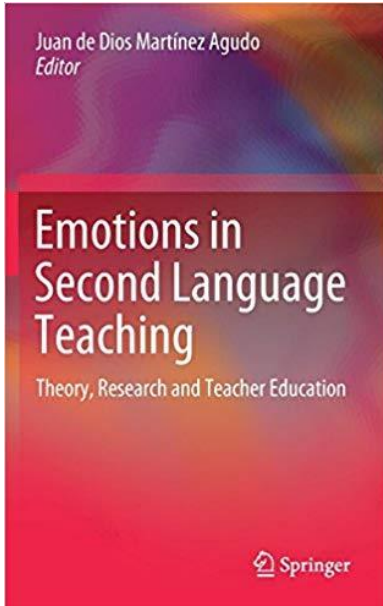
Emotions in Second Language Teaching: Theory, Research and Teacher Education es uno de los libros que nos ha llamado la atención de los recientemente publicados sobre la enseñanza de lenguas. Si bien es cierto, que el tema de la motivación y la emoción es una constante en la educación general (Immordino-Yang , Damasio & Gardner, 2015), y muy especialmente en la docencia de lenguas extranjeras (Amengual-Pizarro & García Laborda, 2015) desde el incremento del uso de la tecnología en la docencia y Evaluación (García Laborda, Magal-Royo, De siquiera Rocha y Álvarez Fernández, 2010; García Laborda, Giménez López & Magal-Royo, 2011)), lo cierto es que hay una necesidad de sistematizar aquellos aspectos que resultan de mayor beneficio para docentes e investigadores como la teoría, la investigación (Betts & Tang, 2016) y el cómo formar a los futuros docentes en la presencia de emociones y su gestión en el aula (Del Pozo, Martínez-Aznar, Rodrigo & Varela, 2004). En este sentido, este acertado volumen muestra aspectos muy profundos del propio sentir del editor. Para él, "teachers as emotional beings are moved by aspects of their work because they are passionate about their practice that includes human connections to their students" (p. vii). Asimismo, asume que estas relaciones son muy especiales en la enseñanza del inglés, aunque

es fácilmente extrapolable a otras asignaturas y aspectos de la enseñanza en general. Por eso, este libro es muy bienvenido al campo de la docencia en general y a la de la lengua inglesa más específicamente.

Situando a las emociones como una cuestión central en la docencia, el libro enlaza teoría, práctica e investigación en un libro que trasciende a las sencillas recetas que dan alegría a la clase, pero se salen del proceso de aprendizaje por circunscribirse a la mera anécdota o a la actividad aislada sin fundamento. El libro comienza estableciendo la significación del estudio de las emociones en el campo de la lingüística aplicada escapando a enfoques mucho más basados en la actividad y en la evolución estructurada de la lengua. La segunda parte de este volumen se centra en las emociones de los profesores como parte de sus estrategias docentes (capítulo de Cuéllar y Oxford) con la idea de que las emociones del profesor tienen un valor contextual sociológico que debe contemplarse como una rama significativa de la investigación en el aula (capítulo de Tsang y Jiang). Sin embargo, en esta parte se advierte de que las emociones de los profesores pueden tener sesgos sociopolíticos e ideológicos (Capítulo de De la Costa, Rawal y Li). La brevísima parte tercera (sólo dos capítulos) mira a las implicaciones de la formación y entrenamiento de las emociones en la formación del profesorado, por un lado, y en el desarrollo, tan demandado, de la inteligencia emocional en el aula, por otro. Así, se da paso a la cuarta parte que es muy práctica. Así es esta parte comienza con la más que interesante temática de la relación directa entre emociones y la adquisición de la lengua extranjera aspecto que ha sido subrayado por investigadores como García Laborda que en el Congreso Internacional de Bilingüismo CIEB 2019 (Granada, octubre 2019) señalaba que la motivación no debe permanecer como un hecho aislado externo al mismo proceso de aprendizaje que ya habían citado autores como Krashen y otros en los años 1970. Para Briam Tomlison (capítulo IV.2) las emociones tienen potencialmente unas profundas controversias a la hora de diseñar materiales (existiendo temas tabúes que no deben incluirse y que han ido evolucionando con los años). Sin duda, esos temas son también recurrentes cuando se usan las tecnologías del aprendizaje y aparecen tanto en la selección de las tecnologías en uso

como en la formación del profesor. Si esto es así en los materiales, la tradición de los temas y su orientación elegidos a la hora de evaluar es aún más significativa ya que conviene evitar desviaciones a la hora de asignar una marca de actuación a los alumnos. Esta cuarta parte se completa con un capítulo sobre relaciones emocionales de los estudiantes y su comunidad, el "yo" de la emoción en la profesión docente y la presencia de emociones en la enseñanza a través de AICLE. La quinta parte se aproxima a la emoción en el discurso del profesor ya sea presentado a través del análisis del discurso, el uso del silencio (que tan importante rol tiene actualmente en educación y en la más que interesante esencia del sentimiento visto desde la perspectiva del profesor nativo y no nativo. Finalmente, la sexta y última parte se centra en la formación del profesorado mostrando los dilemas asociados a las emociones, el desarrollo profesional, los beneficios y oportunidades de su inclusión en la formación de futuros maestros y en la identidad profesional. El libro concluye con un muy emotivo final por el gurú de los métodos de enseñanza, Jack C. Richards, que significa la presencia de las emociones en la metodología de la enseñanza del inglés.

Como bloque de trabajos tan diferentes a la vez que atractivos para un lector internacional y multicultural, motiva su lectura con la seguridad de que la notoriedad de los autores, muchos de ellos auténticos referentes en sus respectivas especializaciones, nos lleva a un libro muy accesible tanto para profesionales de la enseñanza como de la investigación. Es libro está lleno de motivos y temas para desarrollar el propio pensamiento crítico y muestra líneas para posteriores investigaciones. En este sentido, este libro está llamado a ocupar un lugar relevante desde biblioteca a la mesilla de noche de muchos maestros. Sin duda, es un libro muy recomendable para profesionales que consideran que trabajar con nuestros alumnos es algo más que llenar una pizarra con fórmulas de voz pasiva o estilo indirecto y que contemplan al alumno como un ente con mente y corazón.

Slavka Madarova y Jeannette Valencia Robles
s.madarova@uah.es / jfatima.valencia@gmail.com
Universidad de Alcalá

Referencias

Amengual-Pizarro, M., & Garcia Laborda, J. (2015). *Why do primary school English teachers decide to teach English?*. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 197, 589-594. Doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.198.

Betts, J. R., & Tang, Y. E. (2014). *A meta-analysis of the literature on the effect of charter schools on student achievement (working paper)*. Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness. Disponible el 15 de octubre de 2019 en https://www.crpe.org/sites/default/files/CRPE_meta-analysis_charter-schools-effect-student-achievement_workingpaper.pdf.

del Pozo, M. R., Martinez-Aznar, M., Rodrigo, M., & Varela, P. (2004). A comparative study of the professional and curricular conceptions of the secondary education science teacher in Spain. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 27*(2), 193-213.

García Laborda, J., Giménez López, J. L., & Magal-Royo, M. T. (2011). Validating Mobile Devices in the Spanish University Entrance Exam English Paper. *New Educational Review, 25*(3), 160-171.

Garcia Laborda, J., Magal-Royo, T., de, S. R., & Álvarez, M. F. (2010). Ergonomics factors in English as a foreign language testing: The case of PLEVALEX. *Computers & Education, 54*(2), 384-391. Doi:http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.uned.es/10.1016/j.compedu.2009.08.021.

Immordino-Yang, M. H., Damasio, A. & Gardner, H. (2015). *Emotions, Learning, and the Brain: Exploring the Educational Implications of Affective Neuroscience*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Jesús García Laborda

Key Issues in the Teaching of Spanish Pronunciation: From Description to Pedagogy

Rao, R. [Ed.] (2019). *Key Issues in the Teaching of Spanish Pronunciation: From Description to Pedagogy*. Oxon: Reino Unido, Routledge, 2019. 355 págs. ISBN: 978-1-138-95461-8.
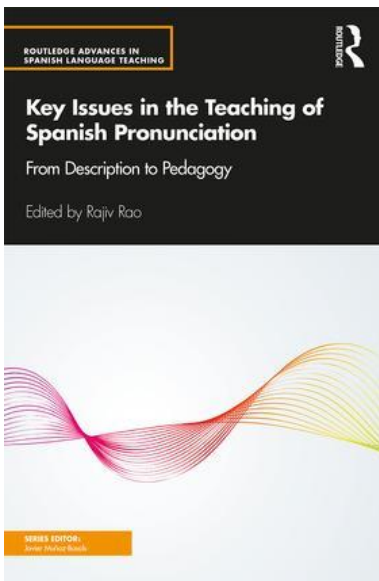
La enseñanza del español como lengua extranjera está viendo un incremento significativo en su presencia en el mundo entero. Cada vez son más sus estudiantes como parte del currículo educativo, por ejemplo, o como un entretenimiento. Según la Universidad de Barcelona, 21 millones de estudiantes estudian español en el extranjero (https://www.unibarcelona.com/es/actualidad/profesor-de-espanol/espanol-para-extranjeros). En Europa, Francia es el país donde más se estudia mientras que en los otros continentes destacan Brasil y Estados Unidos mientras que en Asia destacan China y Japón aunque considerablemente lejos de Estados Unidos donde "el 53% de los alumnos estadounidenses de secundaria y universitarios matriculados en idiomas foráneos deciden aprenderlo" (https://www.unibarcelona.com/es/actualidad/profesor-de-espanol/espanol-para-extranjeros) mientras que el número en Brasil está por encima de los seis millones y en Francia por encima de los dos. En este contexto bien vale la apena preguntarse por los métodos y destrezas que deben tener un mayor reflejo en la docencia. Key Issues in the Teaching of Spanish Pronunciation: From Description to Pedagogy es un volume de 15 capítulos escrito por algunos de los académicos más

prestigiosos de Estados Unidos sobre la destreza más compleja de enseñar, la habilidad verbal, y dentro de la misma se fija en la pronunciación. Baste con preguntar a cualquier profesor de lengua extranjera por la docencia de la pronunciación para saber que muchos profesores la evitan por todos los medios por su propia dificultad (Estarellas, 1972; Counselman, 2015 Huensch, 2019).

Por eso, *Key Issues in the Teaching of Spanish Pronunciation: From Description to Pedagogy* es un trabajo que viene a cubrir y actualizar el estudio de la enseñanza de la pronunciación del español muy especialmente en las aulas norteamericanas pero con una inmensa aplicabilidad a cualquier contexto discente del mundo. Los temas son extremadamente variados y van desde la enseñanza de fonemas vocálicos y consonánticos al papel de la ortografía, la importancia del input y output, las diferencias entre aprendices y la formación de los profesores. Basado en una sólida estructura empírica con implicacines en la adquisición de una segunda lengua (como es el caso de EEUU), el libro ofrece una alternativa a las muchas dificultades encontradas por los docentes a través de explicaciones claras de los conceptos y unas definiciones sencillas pero muy descriptivas a la vez que el texto se encuentra lleno de ejemplos, actividades diseñadas y planes de clase preparados para alcanzar alumnos de muy diversas edades y situaciones. El libro concluye con un interesantísimo glosario bilingüe para facilitar la comprensión del texto.

Como se ha dicho, el libro se divide en dos partes. La primera parte consta de ocho capítulos y se centra en la descripción y enseñanza del sistema de sonidos en español internacional donde, por ejemplo, generalmente se ignoran las variaciones del español peninsular (castellano) tales como la diferencia entre /θ/ y /s/ asumiendo su neutralización en el fonema [s]. Esta parte comienza por una descripción del sistema vocálico y su enseñanza. Así, se indica la extrema simplicidad de una lengua silábica cuya consistencia contrasta con la variabilidad gráfica del inglés (donde "pfisch" se pronunciaría igual que "fish"). En el capítulo siguiente se trabaja los fonemas oclusivos sordos y en el capítulo 3 los sonoros y sus alófonos [β, ð, ɣ]. El capítulo cuatro se central en los fonemas fricativos, el cinco en las

consonantes líquidas /r/ /l/, el sexto en el polimorfismo de las nasales incidiendo en la dificultad que supone para los hablantes del inglés la letra "ñ" (/ɲ/). Finalmente, el capítulo siete comienza a trabajar con sílabas y es especialmente interesante el capítulo ocho íntegramente dedicado a la mejora de la pronunciación de hablantes no nativos de español como lengua segunda (L2) o lengua extranjera (ELE).

Si es innegable el valor de la primera parte recientemente descrita, aun ha parecido más atractiva esta segunda que se centra en los valores pedagógicos y las sugerencias para la enseñanza en el aula. Así se comienza hablando de las controvertidas variaciones dialectales ya que a la citada en esta propia revisión anteriormente se suman más. De cierto es que limitarse al español estándar ya sea peninsular en oposición al internacional sería de un simplismo exagerado. Siendo una lengua hablada por casi 600 millones de hablantes las variaciones regionales y a través de los estratos sociales son inmensas hasta el punto de que uno se preguntaría "si yo fuese un hablante extranjero ¿Quién y de dónde me gustaría que fuese mi maestro?". Este capítulo 9 trata de mostrar esta realidad poniendo de relieve la inteligibilidad de las distintas variaciones en el mundo hispano donde, en no pocas ocasiones, cuesta mucho entender a población de distintas partes del mundo. Según los autores, esto tiene profundas implicaciones en la elección de viajes al extranjero, especialmente para estancias prolongadas de estudios. Los autores también enfatizan si existe una necesidad de aprender fonemas como /θ/ (a mi entender eso no sería necesario más allá de que el fonema /θ/ permite su identificación gráfica inmediata de "za, zo, zu" siendo más complejo en "se-ce" y "si-ci"). Otro capítulo llamado a tener una poderosa influencia es el diez que trabaja el uso de la tecnología para la enseñanza de pronunciación. Los capítulos 12, 13 y 14 se centran en casos muy específicos de enseñanza. Así el 12 trata las actitudes, el 13 la enseñanza a hablantes de alemán y el 14 a "heritage speakers", es decir hablantes que viven en países cuya primera lengua no es español pero que lo han ido heredando de sus padres, muchas veces con cambios significativos influido por el contexto a un dominio secundario (por ejemplo, hijos de puertorriqueños en Nueva York), aunque yo aquí hubiese incluido a los sefardíes y su variedad individual. Esta parte termina con las

dificultades y sugerencias para la formación del profesorado. Quizás aquí se hubiese esperado un enfoque mucho más práctico ya que la primera parte mira a quién y cómo se estudia español en el mundo. La segunda parte del capítulo muestra dificultades comunes que encuentran muchos profesores.

Siendo éste un libro excelente, no sólo para profesores trabajando en el extranjero sino para los propios profesores españoles capaces de leer y usar el inglés como lengua de investigación y análisis. De hecho, en mi opinión el hecho de estar escrito en ingles es la mayor debilidad de este trabajo. Quizás algún día disfrutemos de un libro similar en español o bien de una buena traducción que sirva a un inmenso número de profesores en países de habla española. En este sentido este es un proyecto incompleto que necesita redondearse tanto por su interés como por su calidad. En este sentido, esperemos que el futuro nos traiga monográficos similares que serían muy bienvenidos.

Jesús García Laborda

Jesus.garcialaborda@uah.es

Universidad de Alcalá

Referencias

Counselman, D. (2015). Directing attention to pronunciation in the second language classroom. *Hispania, 98*(1), 31-46. doi:http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.uned.es/10.1353/hpn.2015.0006

Estarellas, J. (1972). Problems in teaching spanish pronunciation and writing by the audio-lingual method: A case study. *Hispania, 55*(1), 96-98.

Huensch, A. (2019). The pronunciation teaching practices of university-level graduate teaching assistants of French and Spanish introductory language courses. *Foreign Language Annals, 52*(1), 13-31. doi:http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.uned.es/10.1111/flan.12372

Aula de Literatura infantil
Marciano Curiel Merchán