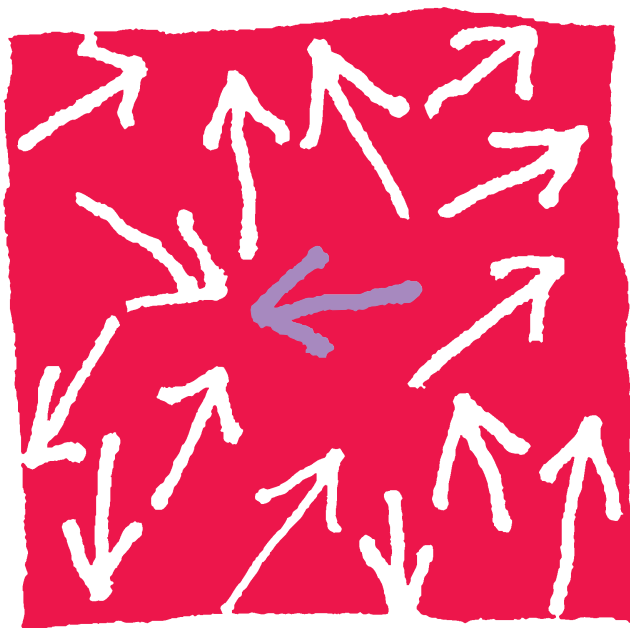


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Language tests for Citizenship: New demands, new realities

Miguel Fernández Álvarez y Jesús García Laborda

Citizenship and naturalization tests have been around for more than a century. Knowing their justification and their international importance implies their own review. This article begins by defining its main characteristics, focusing on their two main components: language and culture. The difference in levels of competence in the common European Reference Framework is especially relevant. Right after, we look at the different exams in different countries. A significant part of the work is directed towards the use of technology in the evaluation and preparation of exams emphasizing its benefits and difficulties. Additionally, the paper also highlights the opportunity at this time for its implementation on the network despite current academic and social problems.

Keywords: citizenship; computer-based tests; language tests; technology.

Exámenes de idiomas para ciudadanía: Nuevas exigencias, nuevas realidades. Los exámenes de naturalización y ciudadanía han existido desde hace más de un siglo. Conocer su justificación y su importancia internacional implica la revisión de los mismos. Este artículo comienza por definir sus características principales incidiendo en sus dos componentes: lengua y cultura. Es especialmente relevante la diferencia de niveles de la competencia en el Marco de Referencia Común Europeo. Posteriormente, miramos a los distintos exámenes en distintos países. Una parte significativa del trabajo se dirige hacia el uso de la tecnología en la evaluación y preparación de los exámenes enfatizando sus beneficios y dificultades. También se pone de relieve la oportunidad en este momento para su implementación en la red a pesar de los problemas académicos y sociales actuales.

Palabras clave: ciudadanía; exámenes asistidos por ordenador; exámenes de lenguas; tecnología.

1. Introduction

Migration is a phenomenon that has always occurred, as people have been in the need to move to a different place for a variety of reasons

(economic, social, religious, political or environmental, among others) since the beginning of civilization. Throughout history, we find thousands of migration waves influenced by historical factors. Early people, for instance, moved because of a lack of food or the search for a better climate. Later on, in modern history, people started to migrate in order to find new job opportunities and obtain a better quality of life. While the majority of people nowadays move for reasons associated with work, study and family, in many instances, migration has occurred “due to conflict, persecution and disaster” (International Organization for Migration 2019: 19). It was not until the end of the nineteenth century in the USA and early twentieth century in Australia that citizenship tests started being used as a way to control and limit immigration in those countries (Jupp 2002; McNamara & Roever 2006; Löwenheim & Gazit 2009). Canada was the first country to also include a literacy test in 1919 to limit access to citizenship to people who did not have a certain language proficiency level (Etzioni 2007).

Language tests have become an important component of most citizenship examinations worldwide (De Jong, Lennig, Kerkhoff & Poelmans 2009; Kunnan 2009). However, each country has its own policy and requirements (Laversuch 2008; McNamara & Ryan 2011; Loring 2012). We find examples of tests where candidates need to demonstrate a much higher proficiency level than others (which are much more lenient) (Kunnan 2009). In order to bring consistency to language tests in Europe, different governments asked the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) in the late 90s “to develop language tests for migration, residency or citizenship purposes” (Association of Language Testers in Europe 2016: 9) with the subsequent creation of the Language Assessment for Migration and Integration (LAMI) Group, which has been instrumental in the development of such tests during the last decades in Europe.

Traditionally, citizenship tests (including the linguistic component) have been delivered as paper and pencil tests, and test candidates were required to do the exam at a testing center for security reasons. However, the current fast-paced digital world we are living in is starting to have an influence on the way languages for citizenship purposes are being assessed. Some tests have already been transformed into computer-based tests that candidates have to take at a testing center (Cooke 2009), while others can be completed from any location. Web-based exams have become generalized in the last twenty years, but there has been a special need for online testing worldwide during the 2020 crisis due to the COVID-19 pandemic, which will influence the way languages will be assessed.

The current paper focuses on how technology is shaping language tests for citizenship to respond to the new demands of stakeholders and to adjust to the new realities we are facing in the present era. An analysis of citizenship tests (with a focus on both the civics and the language components) is offered in the first section of the paper. After this initial overview, our attention turns to computer-based language citizenship tests and some of the issues associated with them, such as proctoring and security. In this section, we introduce and describe the concept of *e-securitization*, which brings together the fields of language testing, cyber security, and artificial intelligence. Before offering our conclusions and a brief overview of future areas for research, we present some examples of computer-based language for citizenship purposes used in several countries together with apps and resources available to prepare for such tests, including examples of Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs).

2. Citizenship tests

Citizenship tests are tests that are intended to determine whether a person is qualified to become a citizen. However, research on these tests in several countries has evidenced that “rather than establishing qualifications for citizenship, [they] are instead very often used as a tool to control the level and composition of immigration” (Etzioni 2007: 353), which, according to Löwenheim & Gazit (2009: 146), is “a view that emphasizes that states employ these tests in response to populist and nationalist pressures to curb immigration from certain countries.” This is a matter that has had social and political implications in migration policies, and while they are out of the scope of this paper, it is important to consider them in order to understand the rationale behind citizenship tests, which in some cases do not follow the principles of testing.

Apart from their validity and reliability being questioned, in the case of the civics component of the United States Naturalization Test (Winke 2011), the Conocimientos Constitucionales y Socioculturales de España and the Diplomas de Español como Lengua Extranjera (DELE) tests in the case of Spain (Bruzos, Erdocia & Khan 2018) or the Australian Citizenship Test (McNamara & Ryan 2011), aspects related to the construct of these tests have been questioned. One of the questions to be answered is what determines a good citizen and how that can be assessed, as countries and governments have different conceptions of citizenship.

A review of citizenship tests in several countries reveals that they usually include two components, one part used to assess candidates’ knowledge of civics and a second part used to assess language (Dillon &

Smith 2018). Generally, governments consider the civics section to be the core component of the naturalization process, as that part usually outweighs the linguistic component. However, candidates must pass both parts in order to acquire citizenship.

2.1. Civics component

There is no specific name for this part of the citizenship test, and each country uses its own term. The Association of Language Testers in Europe (2016) uses the term *Knowledge of Society (KoS)*. However, we will use the term *civics* to refer to the section where candidates are assessed on aspects related to history, geography, economy, government, culture, or laws, among others. Also, both the number of questions and the length of the test vary depending on the country. The level of difficulty of this section also diverges depending on how strict or lenient the country is in terms of migration policies. In his work, Etzioni (2007: 355) reminds us that “in Europe, citizenship tests are by and large more exacting than they are in the United States and Canada, reflecting a less favourable and less accommodating attitude towards immigration.” However, other tests in countries such as the United States have been criticized on the one hand for “not being an accurate measure of citizenship, partly because of [their] focus on esoteric facts and residual questions from the Cold War” (Loring 2012: 199) and on the other hand for being “thin and largely cognitive” (Etzioni 2007: 360).

Some aspects can be considered essential in the civics component of a citizenship test, such as citizens’ responsibilities, which is slightly assessed in the British exam. But other facets tend to be controversial due to their ambiguity, difficulty, or even inappropriacy, such as a video in the Dutch exam that includes “sexually explicit scenes as well as depictions of crime-ridden immigrant ghettos in the Netherlands” (Etzioni 2007: 360). Denmark also includes five unknown questions about current affairs to ensure that candidates follow the news and are up-to-date on aspects related to society in general. All of these questions raise the concern that native-born citizens do not need to be tested on citizenship (Loring 2012), and if they had to, in many cases they would not be able to pass the exams that their countries use for naturalization purposes, as not all individuals know all details about the history of their country or follow the news on a regular basis.

What seems to be a matter of concern in the literature is how indicative passing the civics test is of integration into the society of the country (Shohamy 2009; Bruzos, Erdocia & Khan 2018). It is questionable whether memorizing a list of a hundred questions (for instance) would

demonstrate that the person who is adopting the new citizenship has the skills to be “a good citizen”, but those are issues that are out of the scope of this paper, as we will focus primarily on the language component. As Shohamy (2009: 57) states, “there is a need to determine more sensible criteria for what [a citizenship test] should include.” She further wonders if eligibility to become a citizen should be based on aspects such as “paying taxes, civil behavior, contribution to the community, participation, [or] introducing dimensions of multiculturalism.” In essence, each country focuses on different aspects, depending on the core values established by their governments.

2.2. Language component

As mentioned earlier in the introduction, Canada was the first country to include a linguistic component in their naturalization tests at the beginning of the twentieth century (Burkholder & Filion 2014; Pashby, Ingram & Joshee 2014). Since then, language has been one of the components of citizenship tests, as candidates need to demonstrate certain competence in the official language of the country where they want to become citizens. This is interesting in a country like the United States, where there is no official language, but candidates must demonstrate their ability to speak, read and write in English.

Generally, the language component weighs less than the civics part. In the case of Spain, for instance, candidates must get a minimum of 60% questions correct in the Spanish Culture and Society section and 40% in the language test, and in the United States, they only have to “read aloud and write one out of three sentences correctly to demonstrate an ability to read and write in English”, as stated in the U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) website (<https://www.uscis.gov>). Speaking is being assessed by the immigration officer during the eligibility interview. On the opposite side of the spectrum, we find examples of countries such as the Russian Federation, where the language component lasts three hours and 15 minutes and includes (1) reading, (2) writing, (3) vocabulary and grammar, (4) listening and (5) speaking, and a minimum of 65% passing rate is required in each subcomponent. In the case of Australia, both English language skills and what candidates know about Australia and Australian citizenship are assessed simultaneously in the same test (Commonwealth of Australia 2020).

The construct of the language component of citizenship tests has been questioned on more than one occasion in the literature (McNamara & Roever 2006; Etzioni 2007; Loring 2012). Shohamy (2009), for instance, wonders whether immigrants need to become flu-

ent in the national language of the new country, an argument that has been ratified by the fact that there are cases in which candidates do not need to do the language test if they meet some criteria, such as being older than 50 and having lived in the United States for 20 years, or in the case of Canada, just being 55 years or older. Shohamy's concern leads us to also question what is considered by fluency and proficiency, as there are multiple views on what governments expect in terms of the language performance for their candidates. European countries, where ALTE has regulated the guidelines for test development, tend to be more consistent, and they require a minimum CEFR B1 level in the language of the country, except for Spain, where level A2 is sufficient. However, there is more variation in non-European countries, which generally tend to be more lenient by requiring a more basic level. In the case of the United States, candidates just have to read and write one sentence in English (apart from answering the civics questions asked by the immigration officer, and in Canada, the minimum level expected in the Canadian Language Benchmark (CLB) is level 4, the equivalent as adequate proficiency for daily life activities. Australia requires a basic level of English as well.

Likewise, the contents and topics found in several tests show, once again, a great disparity. A more traditional view of language is present in exams that focus on vocabulary related to legislation. To prepare for the United States citizenship test, for instance, candidates can find such a list of vocabulary in the USCIS website (<https://www.uscis.gov>), and the ultimate goal of the exam is "to know how to act on basic commands, follow directions, and respond to questions during the naturalization interview" (USCIS 2020, Module 4), which does not necessarily mean that the candidate is going to be able to function without difficulty in English in everyday tasks or the workplace. European countries and Canada have a more communicative approach in their exams. However, we also find some incongruities between the intended use of the test and what is actually being tested. In the case of Canada, the goal of their exam is to assess "English abilities in a variety of everyday situations, such as communicating with co-workers and superiors in the workplace, interacting with friends, understanding newscasts, and interpreting and responding to written materials." Nevertheless, the required level of proficiency is only CLB level 4 (on a scale of 12 levels), which would not be sufficient to function appropriately in the workplace. According to the levels descriptors, a test taker might need to obtain a minimum of level 7 in order to demonstrate adequate proficiency in workplace and community contexts.

All these issues are related to the concept of *authenticity*, which seems to be flawed for several reasons. Authenticity focuses on how realistic an

exam is by integrating contents and tasks that resemble those that test-takers would normally do in their everyday life. This is what Bachman and Palmer (1996) defined as the interaction between the test and the Target Language Use (TLU), a process that is not present in all citizenship tests. It is true that defining the construct for a language test for citizenship is a challenging task, but that is not a reason to justify the lack of tasks that we would encounter in real-life situations in some cases. The Association of Language Testers in Europe, (2016: 31) reminds us that “it is not sufficient to state that a test is for the purposes of migration and citizenship because even within this area, there is a wide range of reasons for testing migrants.” This idea supports Douglas’ (1997) concept of authenticity, a key aspect in language tests for specific purposes, as it is a feature that differentiates these types of tests from more general-purpose language tests. This brings us to the notion that perhaps the underlying principle of the construct of such tests needs to be revised.

All these inconsistencies lead us to claim that aspects such as test *validity* and *reliability* are also in jeopardy. A classical definition of test validity refers to the “quality which most affects the value of a test, prior to, though dependent on reliability. A measure is valid if it does what it is intended to do, which is typically to act as an indicator of an abstract concept” (Davies *et al.* 1999: 221). Based on that definition and without the need for in-depth analyses, it can be stated that some language tests for citizenship lack content or construct validity. The simple fact of reading aloud one sentence is not a valid way to assess fluency and proficiency, regardless of how we want to define these two terms. Likewise, concurrent and predictive validity are also under question in contexts like Canada, where the level needed to pass the test differs from the expected use of language.

A comparison of different tests can help us have a broader view of the requirements for the language component in different countries. Table 1 includes information related to the exam(s) used to assess language proficiency, the components included in those tests, the minimum level required to pass the exam, and the format. The countries that appear in the table have been selected because they are listed as the top countries with more immigration in the year 2019 (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division 2019). While immigration does not necessarily mean that the individuals would become citizens of the country where they migrate to, the number of people who acquire citizenship in these countries exceeds the average number found in other countries. Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, which are two destinations with a large number of immigrants, have not been included in the table, as obtaining citizenship by naturalization is not an easy task in those countries.

	Exam	Components	Minimum level required	Format
United States	Interview with USCIS officer	Speaking: The ability to speak English is determined by the USCIS officer during the eligibility interview. Reading: Read aloud one out of three sentences correctly. Writing: Write one out of three sentences correctly.	Not specified	In-person with USCIS officer
	https://www.uscis.gov/citizenship/learn-about-citizenship/the-naturalization-interview-and-test			
Germany	Any official exam that certifies CEFR Level B1. Recommended: • Deutsch-Test für Zuwanderer A2-B1 (at level B1) • Zertifikat Deutsch B1 / telc Deutsch B1	Oral and written German language skills equivalent to level B1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.	CEFR B1 level in German	Paper and pencil
	https://www.bmi.bund.de/EN/topics/migration/naturalization/naturalization-node.html			
Russian Federation	TORFL (Test of Russian as a Foreign Language)	Reading Writing Vocabulary and Grammar Listening Speaking	The base level of general proficiency in Russian	Paper and pencil
	https://www.icenter31.com/Russian-Citizenship-Test/			
United Kingdom	A Secure English Language Test (SELT). Any of these options: • IELTS Life Skills provided by IELTS SELT Consortium • IELTS provided by IELTS SELT Consortium • Integrated Skills in English (ISE) provided by Trinity College London • Graded Examinations in Spoken English (GESE) provided by Trinity College London	Reading Writing Listening Speaking	CEFR B1 level in English	Paper and pencil GESE and the Listening and Speaking parts of ISE can be done online
	https://www.gov.uk/english-language/approved-english-language-qualifications			

Table 1. *Language tests for citizenship comparison*
Continúa...

	Exam	Components	Minimum level required	Format
France	D+ Diploma or a certificate issued by an organization to which the label "français langue d'intégration" was issued. Recommended: • Test de connaissance du français (TCF), by France Éducation International • Test d'évaluation du français (TEF) Naturalisation, by la Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris Île-de-France	Reading Writing Listening Speaking	CEFR B1 level in French	TCF: Both paper and pencil and computer-based at a testing center TEF Naturalisation: Computer-based at a testing center
	https://www.service-public.fr/particuliers/vosdroits/F2213			
Canada	Canadian English Language Proficiency Index Program (CELPIP)	Listening and Speaking	Canadian Language Benchmark (CLB) Level 4 (Adequate proficiency for daily life activities)	Computer-based at a testing center
	https://www.celpip.ca			
Australia	Language embedded within the civics test	Part 1. Australia and its people Part 2. Australia's democratic beliefs, rights and liberties Part 3. Government and the law in Australia	Not specified. The common Bond booklet states "Basic knowledge of the English language"	Paper and pencil
	https://immi.homeaffairs.gov.au/citizenship/test-and-interview			
Italy	Any of these options: • CELI 2, by the University of Perugia • CILS B1, by the University of Siena	CELI 2: Comprehension of written texts; Production of written texts; Comprehension of oral texts; Oral production. CILS B1: Listening; Reading comprehension and grammar reflection; Written production; Oral production	CEFR B1 level in Italian	CELI 2: Paper and pencil CILS B1: Paper and pencil
	https://www.interno.gov.it/it/temi/cittadinanza-e-altri-diritti-civili/cittadinanza/cittadinanza-invia-tua-domanda			
Spain	DELE, by the Instituto Cervantes	Reading Writing Listening Speaking	CEFR A2 level or above in Spanish	Paper and pencil
	https://exámenes.cervantes.es/es/dele/que-es			

Table 1. *Language tests for citizenship comparison*
Continúa...

	Exam	Components	Minimum level required	Format
Switzerland	A Français, Italiano, Deutsch in Switzerland (FIDE) exam to demonstrate skills in one of Switzerland's national languages (German, French or Italian)	Listening Reading Writing Speaking	Written part: CEFR A2 level Oral part: CEFR B1 level	The language tests are only available where the language is spoken within Switzerland Interview with the applicant
	https://www.eda.admin.ch/dam/countries/eda-all/en/faq-aufenthalt-und-niederlassung-sprachnachweis_EN.pdf			

Table 1. *Language tests for citizenship comparison*

As seen in Table 1, the delivery method is another characteristic to consider when categorizing language citizenship tests. While some countries are concerned about the security of their tests by offering only a paper and pencil version, there are other countries where the tests are computerized or where candidates can opt for either version, which is gradually becoming the norm.

3. Computer-based language citizenship tests

In the previous section, we talked about some important aspects of language tests. If principles such as validity or reliability are violated, a language test cannot be considered good enough to be used in any given context. However, it is also necessary to consider the concept of *practicality* (Bachman and Palmer 1996; Brown 2004), which can be considered equally important both in test development and delivery. For Catelly (2014), practicality is essential for a language test, as “features such as time constraints, financial limitations, and easiness in administration and scoring are paramount factors.” From these words, we need to pay special attention to the notion of administration and scoring, as they are critical aspects that help us in our justification for the need for more computer-based language citizenship tests. In his state of the art of language tests in the digital era, Fernández Álvarez (2016: 62) reminds us that “computer-based tests (CBTs) started being developed and implemented to simplify the administration and scoring of the tests,” which is only one of the many reasons why CBTs can be used.

The literature reveals a number of benefits and advantages associated with CBTs, such as (1) faster scoring, reporting, and access to results (Kikis-Papadakis & Kollias 2009), (2) accuracy, consistency, and relia-

bility of results (van Lent 2009), or (3) better quality of sound in listening tasks through the use of headphones from the part of test-takers (Parshall 2001), among others. In fact, these types of tests are prevalent in many educational contexts as a reflection of the instructional and technological changes that are occurring nowadays (OECD 2010; Genç 2012; Kate Tzu 2012). For Scheuermann & Pereira (2008), as cited in Yan Piaw (2012: 655), CBTs are considered as “a catalyst for change, bringing transformation of learning, pedagogy, and curricula in educational institutions.” However, evidence shows that countries are still somehow reticent with the use of computerized tests for naturalization purposes, as seen in Table 1, where almost half of the countries included in the analysis still prefer to assess their prospective candidates with a paper and pencil test.

However, several countries are already assessing the language proficiency of their candidates with the use of CBTs in their naturalization tests, which is the case of the United Kingdom, France, Canada, or Italy. In some European countries, candidates have the option to choose the exam they want to do, and there is usually an exam that has been adapted to be delivered on a computer. In the case of the United States, while the country asserts that the test is delivered with the help of technology, the only advance is that the sentence that the candidate has to read is shown on a digital tablet, which will also be used to write out the sentence that the immigration officer reads out. The website <https://examenexam.com> is a useful tool that may help us find the delivery mode of different language exams, including tests used for citizenship purposes.

3.1. Test Security and proctoring

Test security is one of the main concerns for citizenship tests, which is one of the reasons why paper and pencil tests are still the priority in some countries. As a matter of fact, the term used in the United Kingdom to refer to these tests is *Secure English Language Tests*. This perception of paper and pencil tests being safer than CBTs is contrasted by van Lent's (2009: 86) argument about security in computerized contexts, where both form security (by “prevent[ing] unauthorized access to test forms prior to administration”) and item security (by “prevent[ing] examinees who have already tested from assisting those yet to test”) are safeguarded. To expand on the idea of test security, Harding, Brunfaut & Unger (2020:666) talk about *securitization*, a concept first proposed by Buzan *et al.* (1998) and later expanded by Bigo (2002) and Huysmans (2006, 2014), to refer to the “connection between border security and language testing policy and practice.” Thus, we could talk about what we define as *e-securitization*, a concept that goes

beyond physical borders to also include boundaries related to cyberspace, virtual environments, and the Internet. For Fernández Álvarez (2016: 69), “security, identity, and authentication” are aspects that need further exploration, a concern that is also shared by Harding, Brunfaut & Unger (2020: 667):

there is a lack of research on how language testing is positioned with respect to security concerns and the way in which language testing as a process, language testers as professionals, and test-takers as learners are constructed through discourse around security in official documentation.

In his list of benefits of CBTs, van Lent (2009: 86) mentions that computerized tests can help “standardize test administration conditions and improve exam proctoring,” which is crucial during the testing process. We can see that online proctoring is common in educational contexts due to the increase of online and virtual courses, which has been affected by the world COVID-19 pandemic. It is common to find institutions all over the globe that are looking for new ways to ensure their online tests are secure and proctored. Simple proctoring techniques include video surveillance with services like Skype®, Blackboard Collaborate®, or Zoom®, among many others. However, there are more advanced protocols based on monitoring software that allows proctors to communicate with candidates when specific behaviors are identified. At the same time, the software has the capacity to detect voices, candidates tilting heads, missing faces, multiple faces, or background noises (D’Souza & Siegfeldt 2017; Weiner & Hurtz 2017). Two of the questions that need further research are whether (1) online proctoring supports and improves test security and (2) it represents a cost-effective model (Karim, Kaminsky & Behrend 2014; Weiner & Hurtz 2017).

In the case of language tests for citizenship, nowadays proctoring is mostly done in person due to the security reasons and impact implications (Rios & Liu 2017). It is true that some of the tests are computerized, but candidates are required to go to a testing center to do the test, where there is no need for virtual proctoring. This is something that will rapidly change as countries introduce new testing delivery methods to adapt to the new times, realities and conditions. At the moment, candidates can only prepare for the tests online or do mock exams from the convenience of their home, but testing conditions will soon allow candidates to also test from a remote location which does not necessarily have to be a testing center. In that case, online or remote proctoring needs to go a step further in order to increase and ensure test security and e-securitization, as we mentioned above. Here is where the fields of language testing, cyber security and artificial intelligence need to collab-

orate to create tests that allow test-takers to complete their language tests from anywhere at any time with rigor and above all, e-securitization. This is a whole new area for research in the coming years.

4. Technology and citizenship tests

In this section, we present some examples of (1) language citizenship tests that are CBTs, (2) phone apps that help candidates prepare for their citizenship tests used in several countries, and (3) a few MOOCs developed to prepare users for naturalization tests and citizenship criteria. The examples include a brief description of their sections, use and resources.

4.1. CBTs

Some countries have integrated technology in the delivery of their language for citizenship tests for several years, but many countries still use paper and pencil tests. It seems that exceptional circumstances must happen so that changes occur. The situation created by the pandemic has made testing companies adapt to the new situation and convert their tests. It is not uncommon to see messages like “Same exam, different delivery,” in testing companies’ websites, such as Trinity, which indicates that “In response to the situation created by COVID-19, we have introduced a way for you to take your English speaking and listening test in a Trinity SELT test centre during this time of pandemic” (SELT test centres and COVID-19 - what to expect, 2020). This is achieved by introducing a one-to-one online speaking and listening test with an examiner via video conference. The length, content, and skills assessed are not modified.

Here we present information about the tests used in several countries from Table 1, presented in alphabetical order:

4.1.1. Canada

Developed by Paragon Testing Enterprises, the Canadian English Language Proficiency Index Program (CELPIP) is the exam approved by the Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada (IRCC) office for citizenship purposes (Wu, Stone & Liu 2016). There are two versions of the test, and the one used for naturalization is the CELPIP - General LS Test, which evaluates the test taker’s English speaking and listening skills. The exam is delivered by a computer and has a duration of one hour approximately. Some of the features included in the exam

are a personal timer, word counter, and spell-check. At the moment, this exam can only be taken in Canada, but there are more than 40 locations within the country where candidates can do it every week, prior to registration. The listening part includes six different parts and has a duration of 47-55 minutes. On the other hand, the Speaking component has eight tasks that must be completed within 15-20 minutes. In order to pass the test, candidates need to achieve Level 4 in the Canadian Language Benchmark (CLB) scale, which is adequate proficiency for daily life activities.

Candidates can access free online sample tests from their website <https://secure.paragontesting.ca/InstructionalProducts/>. Figure 1 below is an example from one of the sample tests, which is similar to the real test. As shown in the figure, instructions and a link to the audio are presented on the left side. On the right, candidates get a multiple-choice item with four options accompanied by a timer that indicates the time left to answer this item.

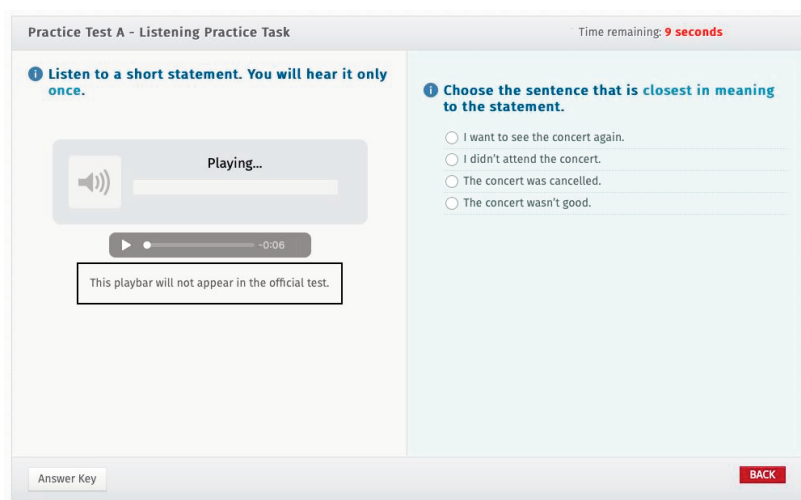


Figure 1. Sample CELPI listening task

4.1.2. France

The Test d'évaluation du français (TEF) Naturalisation, with a duration of 90 minutes, is one of the exams recognized by the French Ministry for the Interior to apply for French citizenship. It is a computer-based exam that focuses on the four skills: oral/written comprehension and oral/written expression in French. Reading, listening and writing are completed on the computer. Speaking, however, is a role-play with the

examiner related to a short document about daily life. The exam has to be taken in any of the more than 200 certified testing centers all over the world. Candidates need to achieve a minimum CEFR level B1. On their website <https://prepmyfuture.com/tef-english>, candidates can access a platform to prepare for the exam. Figure 2 shows a sample reading task with a prompt followed by a multiple-choice item taken from the online learning platform, similar to tasks in the real exam.

COMPRÉHENSION ÉCRITE

QUESTIONS 2 / 50

Promenades à cheval sur la plage
Informations au vieux port

On peut lire cette information

☐ A en ville

☐ B à la mer

☐ C à la montagne

☐ D à la campagne

VALIDER

Figure 2. Sample TEF Naturalisation reading task

Another alternative to assess French proficiency is the Test de connaissance du français (TCF), by France Éducation International. This is a paper and pencil test that offers the option to be done on a computer at an approved testing site. This test has two parts: listening (30 minutes) and speaking (12 minutes). The format is similar to the TEF Naturalisation, as shown in the sample listening task in Figure 3, which includes an image to provide visual support. The task is taken from the test simulator tool found on the following website: https://apprendre.tv5monde.com/en/tcf/simulation-du-tcf#tcf_header.

7/80

COMPRÉHENSION ORALE

88:48

Écoutez les 4 propositions. Choisissez celle qui correspond à l'image et cliquez sur le bouton correspondant.



Cliquez sur votre réponse

- ☐ Réponse A
- ☐ Réponse B
- ☐ Réponse C
- ☐ Réponse D

Arrêter le test

Question suivante →

Figure 3. *Sample TCF for French nationality listening task*

Additional resources to prepare for the test are available on multiple websites, such as <https://www.france-education-international.fr/tcf-tout-public/comment-sy-preparer>.

4.1.3. United Kingdom

From all the tests that the United Kingdom accepts to certify English proficiency, the Integrated Skills in English (ISE) and the Graded Examinations in Spoken English (GESE) Secure English Language Test are the only two tests that offer the option of computer-based delivery. They are both developed and provided by Trinity College London. The ISE exam includes the four skills, while GESE focuses only on speaking and listening. Candidates can do the exams at any of the 16 Trinity SELT centers across the United Kingdom. Candidates must obtain a minimum CEFR B1 level.

The ISE exam includes two different modules. The Reading and Writing part lasts two hours, and the Speaking and Listening part has a duration of 18 minutes. On the other hand, the GESE exam assesses only listening and speaking. This exam is 10 minutes long and has two parts: a presentation about a topic for discussion with the examiner and a short conversation with the examiner about two subject areas. The GESE exam and the speaking and listening part of the ISE are offered online due to COVID-19. Candidates are allowed to do the one-to-one parts with an examiner via video conference in a testing center.

4.2. Phone apps

Additional resources to prepare for citizenship exams are provided in certain countries via apps for cell phones. The majority of the available

apps are designed to help candidates prepare for the civics component of the tests. In Spain, even though the exams are delivered by paper and pencil, we find a free app developed by the Instituto Cervantes to prepare for the CCSE (conocimientos constitucionales y socioculturales de España) exam that includes 300 questions from the exam preparation guide. The app simulates the exam and includes both multiple-choice and true-false questions.



Figure 4. Sample item in the CCSE test preparation app

A similar app is offered by the U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) to help candidates test their knowledge of U.S. history and government. This app has the peculiarity that provides audio, which allows users to hear the questions. Even though the official exam is in English, users also have the option to change the language to Spanish in the case they want to study and practice in their native language. The practice test offered in the app includes 20 questions with feedback at the end for both correct and incorrect answers.

Among the commercial apps, we want to highlight an app called ‘Life in the UK 2020 Test’, developed by Deedal Studios Inc., originally created to prepare for that particular test. However, it now includes questions for the tests in Australia, Canada, and the United States. The free version offers a limited number of questions in each test, and more features such as flashcards, a larger pool of questions, or access to courses, are added in the upgraded paid version.

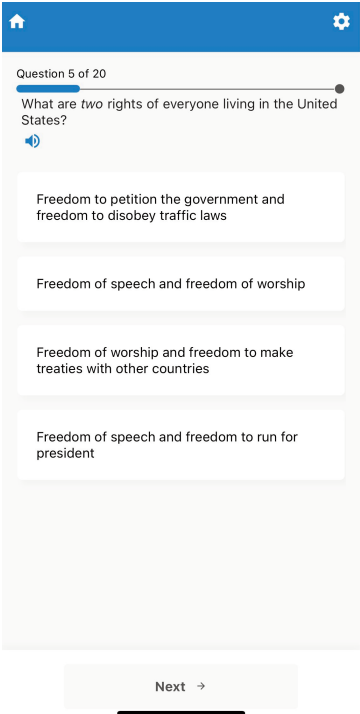


Figure 5. Sample item in the USCIS test preparation app

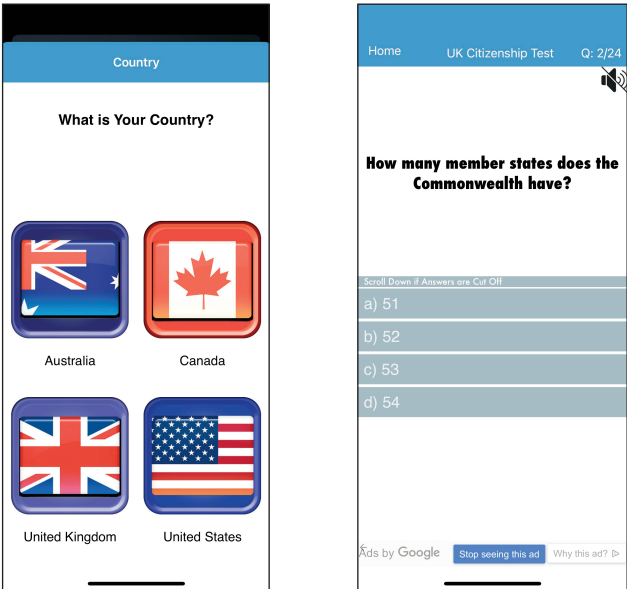


Figure 6. Life in the UK 2020 Test app

The only app that focuses on language preparation for citizenship purposes is found in France. It is called Français 3.0, and it is developed by the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris Île-de-France to prepare for the TEF exam. The app is designed for users to test their level in general French and to practice for any of the different versions of the TEF test, including TEF for Naturalisation. The app simulates the real test and includes items to practice both listening and reading comprehension together with grammar and vocabulary and is similar to the platform shown in Figure 2.



Figure 7. Sample Français 3.0 app tasks

With the help of this app, candidates can locate testing centers and register for any available tests. Additionally, there are grammatical explanations organized around certain topics that can be useful in case users want to review any aspect in particular.

4.3. MOOCS for citizenship test preparation

While there are some Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs) aimed at preparing for citizenship tests, indeed, its variety is not too large. In this section, we present a quick overview of those MOOCs that are provided for that purpose. The list is very limited, which proves that there is a need for more work in this area.

In the case of the United States, we can only find one MOOC offered to prepare students to pass the naturalization test. The title of the course is ‘U.S. Citizenship Test Preparation Course’, and it is offered by Alison with the aim of preparing candidates to pass both the

language and the civics components of the naturalization test. With only one module and a total duration of two hours, this course offers the possibility of obtaining a certificate after successful completion with a score of at least 80% and paying a fee. Even though this resource is advertised on the Alison website as a MOOC (<https://alison.com/course/u-s-citizenship-test-preparation>), its content and format differ from a typical MOOC. This is just another resource with a practice naturalization test.

On the other hand, Coursera offers the course ‘Citizenship and U.S. Immigration’, provided by the University of Emory. While the topic of this course is citizenship, its focus is on the law for the acquisition of citizenship, immigration law, the role of the federal government in terms of immigration, and reforms of immigration law. It is a good resource for users to have a better understanding of the process, but the main objective is not test preparation. As opposed to the first MOOC, this one is divided into modules and has a duration of five weeks. It can be accessed from <https://www.my-mooc.com/es/mooc/immigration/>.

Canvas offers a three-module MOOC to prepare for the Australian Citizenship test. The course, found at <https://canvas.instructure.com/courses/1374946>, includes a list of resources, practice quizzes, and discussion forums where participants can interact with other users. The grade book allows students to track their progress throughout the course, and badges are earned when specific tasks, such as the introduction discussion or the module quizzes, are completed.

Wellesley College offers the course ‘Italian Language and Culture: Advanced’ on edX. The course can be accessed from <https://www.edx.org/course/italian-language-and-culture-advanced-2019-2020>. The contents of the course include both language and cultural aspects that will allow participants to prepare for both the CELI 2 or the CILS B1. The language part includes videos, podcasts, grammar charts, video lessons, readings, and a discussion board to communicate with other students. The culture part focuses on a variety of topics from economy, politics, art, music, literature and immigration, and the Italian citizenship law.

4.3.1. Citizenship Language Pack for Migrants in Europe (L-Pack)

Perhaps, the most noteworthy MOOC that is available in the ‘Citizenship Language Pack for Migrants in Europe (L-Pack)’ training course, and that is the reason why we present it in a separate section. This resource can be accessed from <http://www.l-pack.eu>. Funded by the European Commission, it is the product of the collaboration between several European adult training organizations that joined to develop materials addressed to adult migrants who want to learn and practice any of the following languages: Italian, Spanish, German,

Lithuanian, Greek, and Czech. From the project home page, shown in Figure 8, users can choose the target language they want to prepare. All the contents, independently of the language, are similar. They include written materials with dialogues, exercises, grammar, and cultural information together with a series of videos and audio tracks that correspond to the dialogues in those materials. The project contains also two guides (one for teachers and one for learners) on how to use the materials.

The course is divided into 12 modules that focus on everyday situations that immigrants would face, such as applying for a job, going to the doctor, finding an apartment, or communicating with an officer or some school personnel. The list of topics is common to all the language versions of the course.

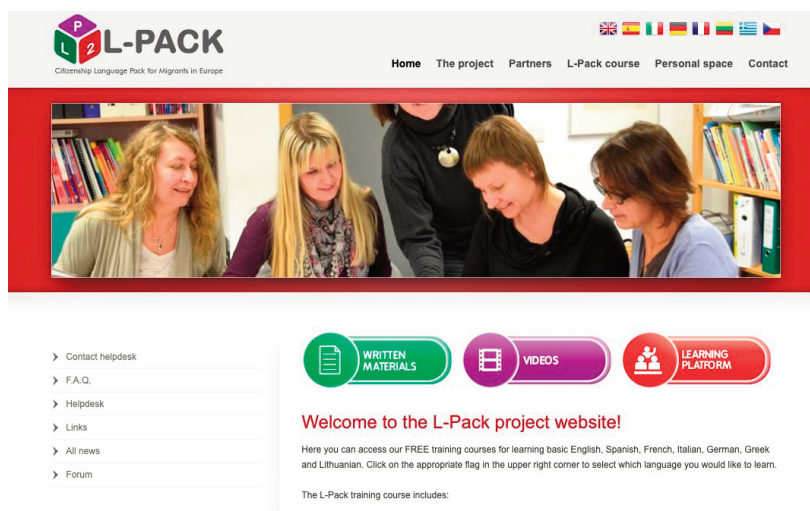


Figure 8. *Citizenship Language Pack for Migrants in Europe (L-Pack)*

Figure 9 shows a sample from Module 5, which focuses on health. The situation depicted is based on a visit to the doctor. In this case, users have to watch a video where a doctor and a patient interact. A series of comprehension activities are presented to the students once they watch the video.

Another feature of the course(s) is that users have access to an online platform where they can practice their pronunciation by recording their voices. In this platform, they can also communicate with other users and create their own learning plan. Perhaps the learning plan is one of the most interesting aspects of the platform. It is designed to help users track their progress and set goals for a certain period of time. Based on the self-evaluation that the student does at the beginning of the learning

period, a series of objectives with recommended activities are presented to help them achieve those goals.

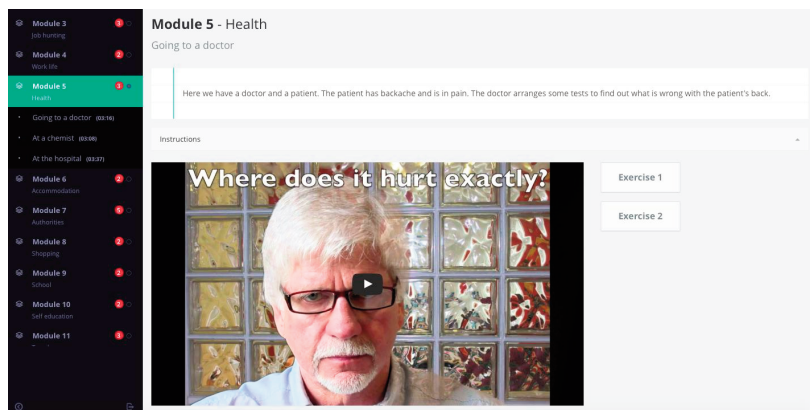


Figure 9. Sample L-Pack module

6. Conclusion and future directions

As we start the third decade of the 21st century, we can clearly realize that we are living in a world that is rapidly changing. However, there are fields where evolution seems to be at a different pace. One of the difficulties we still encounter is the lack of interdisciplinary collaboration (Moirano, Sánchez & Štěpánek 2020), which is evident at different levels, and that is one of the challenges we must face in a new era. On the one hand, we have the field of language testing, which has experienced enormous advances during the last decades (Fernández Álvarez 2016), but language testing as a discipline cannot function in isolation in many cases. On the other hand, advances in other fields such as migration policies and governance (Castles 2004) or language policies and planning (Strani 2020) are affected by politics. All these differences create gaps that are difficult to fill without a strategic plan that is based on collaboration among disciplines.

Technology is a common nexus that can bring solutions, but it cannot be effective if foundational principles, such as a clear construct and impact validation, are missing. Any language test, regardless of its intended purpose, first needs to adhere to the guidelines for test development established by international language testing organizations. Second, we need to take into consideration Bachman's (1996) conceptualization of Target Language Use in order to establish criteria to determine both the construct of the test and the expected outcomes on the part of the users. Finally, aspects related to the delivery of the test need to be reeval-

uated in order to adapt and adjust to the new trends in the field of testing in general. The analysis presented in this paper shows a mismatch between theory and practice at these three facets. We find language tests for citizenship that lack the principles of validity and reliability, others that are valid tools but not for citizenship purposes, and others that rely on the traditional paper-and-pencil delivery method. In other words, when tests are not designed properly and they do not follow any principles, the delivery method becomes something secondary. An additional issue would be the need to define what being a citizen is and what does it really imply.

One of the arguments in favor of the use of paper-and-pencil tests is security. Tests for citizenship fall within the category of high-stakes tests and that serves as the justification for in-person test delivery. However, that is just a small step in the whole process of naturalization. Sooner or later, users will need to participate in an interview with an officer or delegate where they can demonstrate their civic behavior and adequacy to become a citizen. The question here is at what point language proficiency has to be assessed, how and what for. Computer delivery, as we have seen, facilitates the process and ensures validity and reliability, but just a few countries have taken the step of using CBTs for their language component. It is true that if the inclusion of a language test was a gatekeeper to avoid immigration from certain countries at the beginning of the 20th century, why wouldn't the use of technology and CBTs be another gatekeeper in the 21st century to limit migration from areas with a high percentage of computer illiteracy? This is a question that needs to be further explored but it is also related to culture, education and also to socio-economics.

If security is one of the issues, then we need to put our attention on how to ensure not only that test takers are correctly identified but also that the tests are being done under the best conditions. E-securitization can only be ensured with adequate proctoring. Here, again, we see the need for collaboration among fields, and both cyber security and artificial intelligence play a very important role. The future of online proctoring depends much on how these two fields develop. Research on the use of multi-modal biometrics will be the key to improving aspects such as facial recognition to deter impersonation, keyboard behavior analysis and patterns of unusual responses, to mention just a few.

There is a sentiment that criteria for naturalization need to be revised to adapt to the new century and to adjust to the global society we are moving towards. Citizenship tests need some revision, as has been argued in the paper, but perhaps they should also be complemented with the completion of other tools and resources like the L-Pack project. If the main reason why language is assessed in citizenship tests is to

ensure that users can function as citizens and communicate in the language of the country, then the assessment process needs to be as authentic as possible. Completing a course and a final exam can be much more effective and useful for a citizen than just writing a sentence or passing a certification test based on topics that have nothing to do with everyday life. But again, there is a lot of work ahead of us. All in all, we are in a critical moment when technology can mean a step forward in citizenship tests but it needs to be supported by research and better analyses of what being a citizen in reality means.

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El perfil básico, identificativo y sociolingüístico de migrantes y refugiados en España

Ana Ibáñez Moreno y Antonio Pareja-Lora

En este artículo se presentan los resultados del análisis parcial de un conjunto de datos recientemente recabado para conocer el perfil de los migrantes y refugiados (MR en adelante) en España. Los datos analizados incluyen: (a) los propios de ONG y asociaciones que trabajan con este colectivo en la Comunidad de Madrid; y (b) algunas de las respuestas obtenidas a un cuestionario distribuido entre las personas responsables de dichas asociaciones. Estas respuestas del cuestionario han permitido delinear el perfil identificativo y sociolingüístico de los MR en nuestro país. Este estudio se complementa con otro presentado en este mismo volumen, y cuyo fin último conjunto ha sido realizar un análisis de necesidades de formación lingüística de las MR en España, de cara al posible desarrollo de cursos masivos en línea y abiertos (o MOOC, por sus siglas en inglés) para un aprendizaje del español y/o de otras lenguas de alta demanda (inglés, francés, etc.) convenientemente adaptado a las mismas.

Palabras clave: migrante, refugiado, análisis de necesidades, MOOC, LMOOC, ELE.

The basic, identifying and sociolinguistic profile of migrants and refugees in Spain. This article shows the results of a partial analysis of a dataset recently collected to identify the profile of migrants and refugees (hereinafter MRs) in Spain. The data analysed include: (a) those associated to NGOs and associations that work with these people in the Autonomous Region of Madrid; and (b) some of the answers to a questionnaire filled in by some officials and/or managers in these associations for this target group. These answers of the questionnaire allowed assessing the identifying and sociolinguistic profile of MRs in our country. This study is supplemented by another one presented also in this volume, and their joint, final aim has been to carry out a linguistic training needs analysis of the MRs in Spain, with a view to the possible development of some massive open online courses (or MOOCs) for a fairly adapted learning of Spanish and/or other highly demanded languages (e.g., English or French) that meets their needs.

Keywords: migrant, refugee, needs analysis, MOOC, LMOOC, ELE.

1. Introducción

Uno de los principales retos que suelen tener que afrontar los proyectos e iniciativas en el campo de la ayuda a migrantes y refugiados es la falta de conocimiento acerca del perfil de los sujetos a los que van destinados, así como de sus necesidades reales una vez arriban a un país de acogida, sea este un destino provisional o su destino definitivo. Esta inquietud es la que ha motivado, a fin de cuentas, el desarrollo del estudio que aquí se describe: conocer en detalle las características, las motivaciones y expectativas de los inmigrantes y refugiados (MR en adelante) acogidos en nuestro país (España), al menos en lo que respecta al aprendizaje de las lenguas de la Unión Europea.

En efecto, en este artículo se presentan los resultados del análisis de parte de un conjunto de datos que se han recabado recientemente para conocer el perfil de los MR en España. Los datos recogidos incluyen los propios de ONG y asociaciones que trabajan con estas personas en la comunidad de Madrid (presentados más adelante) y las respuestas obtenidas mediante un extenso cuestionario, distribuido a personas con un cierto nivel de responsabilidad en dichas asociaciones. Las preguntas del cuestionario buscaban averiguar los perfiles identificativos¹, profesional, sociológico², tecnológico y/o académico de los MR en nuestro país.

Más concretamente, aquí nos centramos en analizar las respuestas al cuestionario concernientes al perfil básico y sociolingüístico de los MR en España, dadas las limitaciones de espacio. En otro artículo posterior, en esta misma publicación (Pareja-Lora e Ibáñez Moreno, este volumen), se analizan las respuestas al cuestionario que tienen que ver con el perfil profesional y académico. Por tanto, ambas publicaciones son complementarias y forman parte de un mismo estudio, cuyo fin último ha sido realizar un análisis de necesidades de formación lingüística de los MR en España, de cara al desarrollo de cursos masivos en línea y abiertos (o MOOC, sus siglas en inglés) para un aprendizaje del español y/o de otras lenguas de alta demanda (inglés, francés, etc.) convenientemente adaptado a las mismas.

El presente trabajo, por tanto, está organizado de la siguiente manera: para empezar, el punto 2 proporciona una contextualización conveniente de dicho estudio, junto con las definiciones y conceptos clave tenidos en cuenta en su desarrollo. A continuación, el punto 3 describe el proyecto europeo MOONLITE, del que parte esta investigación, así como sus objetivos, además de la estructura y cuestiones clave de la encuesta que fue distribuida entre las asociaciones de ayuda a refugiados y migrantes en España arriba mencionadas, y que aquí se analizan. El

punto 4 presenta el perfil identificativo y sociológico de los MR en España, detallando los datos básicos de los mismos, como son su edad, género, etc. Finalmente, en el punto 5 presentamos algunas conclusiones relevantes, que nos han servido, entre otras cosas, como punto de partida para desarrollar los dos primeros MOOC de enseñanza del español para MR en España (denominados *Puertas Abiertas I* y *Puertas Abiertas II: Español para necesidades inmediatas*³).

2. Contextualización y conceptos clave en el mundo de los migrantes y refugiados

En este apartado, en primer lugar, se incluyen todas las definiciones de los conceptos que van a manejarse en el resto del artículo. En segundo lugar, el siguiente aporta algunos datos estadísticos básicos del colectivo de inmigrantes y refugiados en España (países de procedencia y tipología, número y estado de sus solicitudes de asilo, etc.) en el momento de arranque del proyecto MOONLITE, en el que se enmarca este estudio particular (véase el punto 3).

2.1. Migrantes y refugiados: definición y tipología

Hay una gran diversidad de personas migrantes y refugiadas, así como una gran variedad de casuísticas asociadas, que deben ser tenidas en cuenta a la hora de diseñar cualquier programa de formación, de forma que pueda adaptarse con éxito a sus necesidades reales. Existen, por un lado, personas que salen de su país por razones políticas y, por otro lado, personas que migran por razones económicas. A primera vista, la principal diferencia entre ambos tipos de desplazamientos, según el Alto Comisionado de las Naciones Unidas para los Refugiados (ACNUR 2007), es que los primeros –es decir, los refugiados– dejan su país mayoritariamente por ser perseguidos y amenazados, incluso de muerte. Es decir, en este caso, generalmente se produce una migración forzada o forzosa y, además, este primer tipo de MR no puede regresar a su país de origen en condiciones de seguridad, a menos que se produzca un cambio en la situación política. Por su parte, los segundos –a las que suele designarse con el término general de migrantes– abandonan su país voluntariamente, para buscar una vida mejor por razones económicas, financieras o personales. Por ello, en este segundo caso, si regresan a su país, seguirán recibiendo la protección de su gobierno (ACNUR 2007).

Más concretamente, la Organización Internacional para las Migraciones (OIM 2011) define al *migrante* como toda persona que se

traslada o se ha trasladado a través de una frontera internacional o dentro de un Estado fuera de su lugar de residencia habitual, independientemente de (1) la situación jurídica de la persona; (2) si el traslado es voluntario o involuntario; (3) cuáles son las causas del traslado; o (4) cuál es la duración de la estancia. La OIM se ocupa de los migrantes y de cuestiones relacionadas con la migración y, de acuerdo con los estados pertinentes, de los migrantes que necesitan servicios de migración internacional (OIM 2011). A pesar de las definiciones legales, hay mucha ambigüedad sobre el colectivo de MR debido a las legislaciones restrictivas que suelen establecerse en torno a los refugiados y la migración. Según Espinar Ruiz (2010), la migración internacional es un concepto global muy amplio, pues incluye perfiles muy diferentes: (i) desplazados (migrantes) o refugiados; (ii) personas que buscan trabajos de baja cualificación; (iii) trabajadores con alta cualificación que buscan mejores empleos; (iv) personas jubiladas que cambian de lugar de residencia; etc.

Respecto a la definición de *refugiado*, según la Convención sobre el Estatuto de los Refugiados de 1951 y su Protocolo de 1967, un *refugiado* es una persona que “debido a un temor fundado de ser perseguido por motivos de raza, religión, nacionalidad, pertenencia a un determinado grupo social u opiniones políticas, se encuentra fuera del país de su nacionalidad y no puede o, debido a dicho temor, no quiere acogerse a la protección de ese país”. En consecuencia, aquellos individuos reconocidos como refugiados tienen entonces derecho a recibir “protección internacional”, otorgada por “un gobierno que funcione adecuadamente”, es decir: protección por parte de la policía, la legislación y los tribunales contra el crimen y la persecución, etc. A partir de esta definición y sus propiedades derivadas fue posible concretar el procedimiento de *solicitud del estatuto de refugiado*, pero el reconocimiento de este estatuto obliga a probar que existen causas objetivas para la existencia del “temor fundado de ser perseguido”, lo cual no siempre es sencillo (Espinar Ruiz 2010).

Existen asimismo múltiples definiciones y/o tipos de individuos migrantes, que conllevan diferentes niveles de protección: solicitantes de asilo, solicitantes (de otras acciones), personas desplazadas, migrantes forzados, personas desarraigadas, apátridas, personas en determinación del estatuto, etc. (OIM 2011).

Se distinguen, igualmente, múltiples definiciones y/o tipos de refugiados: refugiados *de facto*, refugiados en órbita, refugiados en tránsito, refugiados *in situ*, refugiados *prima facie*, y las personas con mandato de refugiado (OIM 2011).

En este artículo nos referiremos a este colectivo mediante la expresión *migrantes y refugiados* y, más frecuentemente y por abreviar, mediante su acrónimo (MR).

2.2. Migrantes y refugiados: datos estadísticos sobre su situación en Europa y España

En cuanto a la situación en Europa, y más concretamente en España (en la que en realidad se centra a este artículo), según el Informe de 2016 de la Comisión Española de Ayuda a los Refugiados (CEAR 2016), en 2015 se contabilizaron las solicitudes de asilo y/o protección internacional recogidas en la Tabla 1.

Área geográfica	Estado de las solicitudes		Número de casos
Europa	Totales		1.321.600
España	Totales		14.800
		Resueltas	3.240
		Con protección internacional concedida	1.020
		Con protección subsidiaria ⁴	800
		Con estatuto de refugiado /derecho de asilo concedido	220
		No aceptadas	2.220

Tabla 1. *Datos sobre las solicitudes de personas refugiadas en Europa y España en 2015 (datos extraídos del informe de la CEAR – 2016)*

Como puede observarse en la Tabla 1, casi 15.000 personas solicitaron la protección del Estado español en 2015⁵. Pero estas cifras representan sólo el 1% de las solicitudes realizadas en 28 países europeos (1.321.600 en total; 476.000 en Alemania; 162.000 en Suecia; etc.). Sin embargo, sólo se resolvió el 21% de las solicitudes recibidas por nuestro país y únicamente se concedió el estatuto de refugiado a 220 personas (un 6,7% de las solicitudes resueltas). Los medios de comunicación indican que esta cifra es baja comparada con el resto de Europa, donde ésta se sitúa en torno al 50%.

Este informe (CEAR 2016) también proporciona datos sobre los países de procedencia y el perfil de los MR. Los más relevantes se muestran en la Figura 1⁶, aunque a los reseñados en la misma habría que añadir otros, como República Dominicana, China, Malí o Nigeria, con un nivel de incidencia bastante inferior⁷.

Por lo que respecta a la casuística correspondiente a estas solicitudes, aunque algunas de ellas se realizaron a título individual, bien por hombres solos (v.g., ciudadanos ucranianos) o jóvenes sin familia (como es el caso mayoritario entre los ciudadanos argelinos), en su mayor parte son a título colectivo, es decir, en favor de familias (v.g., ucranianas) que, en su desplazamiento, se llevan consigo incluso a miembros menores de edad.

En resumen, el informe CEAR (2016) muestra que los MR de España, en su mayoría, hablan el árabe y son familias, dado que, debido al conflicto bélico desarrollado en Siria desde 2011, se ha producido un gran éxodo migratorio de su población hacia Europa. A ello hay que sumar, además, el constante flujo de personas procedentes principalmente de África o América Latina, aunque también de otros países y otras áreas geográficas, como China.

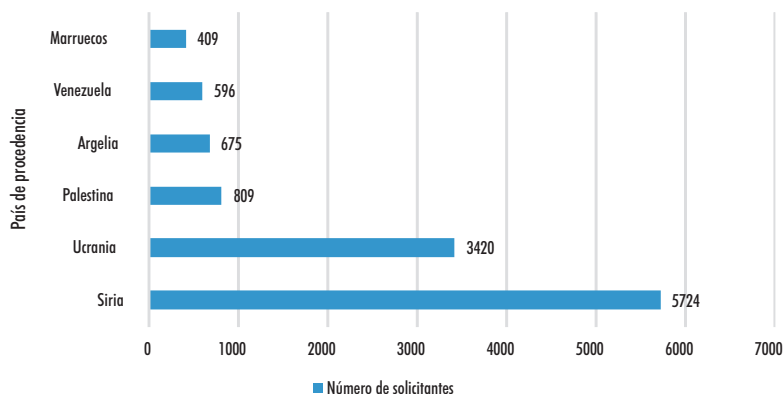


Figura 1. *Principales países de procedencia de los solicitantes de asilo y/o refugiados en España, según CEAR (2016)*

3. El proyecto MOONLITE: objetivos y análisis de necesidades

En esta sección, primeramente, se detallan los objetivos de MOONLITE, el proyecto que motivó este estudio. A continuación, se describen los criterios de diseño de la encuesta distribuida entre las ONG para recabar datos acerca del perfil y las necesidades reales en el campo del aprendizaje de lenguas de los destinatarios de los resultados del proyecto (MR).

3.1. Presentación y objetivos del proyecto MOONLITE

MOONLITE (*MOOCs for Social Inclusion and Employability*) es un proyecto europeo (*Erasmus+*) en el que han participado como socios las instituciones incluidas en la Tabla 2.

Institución	País
ESCP (<i>European Business School Berlin</i>)	Alemania
LNU (<i>Linnaeus University</i>)	Suecia
UoW (<i>University of Wolverhampton</i>)	Reino Unido
EADTU (<i>European Association of Distance Teaching Universities</i>)	Países Bajos
WEB2LEARN	Grecia
KIC (<i>Knowledge Innovation Centre</i>)	Malta
UNED (<i>Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia</i>)	España

Tabla 2. *Socios (y países) participantes en el proyecto MOONLITE*

MOONLITE⁸ promueve el aprendizaje, apoyo y certificación de la educación y/o formación sin fronteras, y parte de la base de aprovechar el potencial de los MOOC para que los migrantes y refugiados desarrollen sus competencias lingüísticas y empresariales para el empleo, la educación superior y la inclusión social. En general, MOONLITE busca mejorar la oferta educativa para los MR, tanto a través de las instituciones europeas de educación superior (IEES) como de la colaboración interregional.

En particular, los MOOC tienen el potencial de integrar a los refugiados en los sistemas educativos (Traxler 2018, Traxler *et al.* 2019). Los refugiados se enfrentan a barreras legales, lingüísticas y financieras para acceder a la educación superior, además de los retos derivados de la “pérdida de tiempo” que supone obtener el estatuto de refugiado, encontrar alojamiento, restablecer los vínculos con la familia, etc. Además de que pueden ofrecer una vía muy motivadora de aprender la lengua meta (en línea con Beaven *et al.* 2015), con la ayuda de los MOOC con créditos reconocidos, los estudiantes pueden comenzar a introducirse en sus estudios a su propio ritmo, sin necesidad de matricularse en las instituciones, sabiendo que estos créditos serán eventualmente reconocidos para la obtención de su título final, una vez puedan acceder a la Educación Superior de manera más formal. Asimismo, los MOOC pueden ayudar a los refugiados a completar sus cualificaciones específicas y entrar directamente en el mercado laboral. De ahí surgieron *Puertas Abiertas I e II*, los primeros MOOC de enseñanza de español para MR en España, que han partido de la identificación de oportunidades y barreras en el reconocimiento del aprendizaje basado en el MOOC para estudiantes y refugiados.

3.2. Diseño de la encuesta para el análisis de necesidades del proyecto

Para comenzar a diseñar los MOOC *Puertas Abiertas* fue necesario un estudio exhaustivo previo del perfil de los MR en España, así como de

sus necesidades inmediatas. Para ello, además de un análisis de contenidos preliminar, a partir del cual se obtuvieron los datos incluidos en el punto 2, se elaboró un cuestionario previo muy detallado, que pretendía recabar información realista y muy concreta y exhaustiva, tanto de tipo cualitativo como cuantitativo (en menor medida) del perfil identificativo (personal), académico, profesional y tecnológico de los MR en España. Posteriormente, además, un MOOC nos permite obtener datos muy valiosos sobre el perfil de los usuarios mediante técnicas de *learning analytics* (Martín Monje *et al.* 2017).

Teniendo en cuenta estos parámetros, se elaboró un cuestionario extensivo, que fue completado por personas responsables y/o delegadas de diversas asociaciones y ONG para de atención y acompañamiento al colectivo de MR, que fueron invitadas a acudir a una sesión informativa del proyecto para completarlo. En total, realizar esta tarea les llevó una hora y media.

El cuestionario⁹ (“Cuestionario para grupos de apoyo a colectivos de personas desplazadas”), fue desarrollado a través de la herramienta de *Google Forms*. Constaba de 9 secciones, y fue contestado en total por 15 asociaciones (a veces por dos miembros de cada asociación) en la primera jornada de toma de contacto con las mismas, arriba mencionada.

Respecto a sus secciones, la primera era la mostrada en la Figura 2, y servía para obtener el consentimiento de las asociaciones y ONG para el uso de sus respuestas con fines académicos (de investigación y/o educativos). La sección 2 constaba de una sola pregunta: DATOS SOBRE LA ASOCIACIÓN/ONG/INSTITUCIÓN, en la que se solicitó que incluyeran el nombre de la asociación, la(s) persona de contacto y un correo electrónico. Un análisis de las respuestas a esta pregunta nos permitió identificar las instituciones que finalmente rellenaron el cuestionario, a saber: Alioth Social – Proyecto *Horizon One to One*; Asilim; Asociación de Apoyo al Pueblo Sirio (AAPS); Asociación Dianova España; Asociación Mun2; Asociación Refugio Atenas Yallah; Cáritas Madrid; Centro de Acogida a Refugiados de Vallecas (Subdirección General de Integración de los Inmigrantes - Ministerio de Empleo y Seguridad Social); Fundación Cepaim; Fundación La Merced Migraciones; Fundación para el Fomento del Desarrollo y la Integración (Fundación FDI); ONG Rescate; y RED SOS REFUGIADOS.

La sección 3, que se corresponde con el Apartado I de la encuesta, pretendía recabar información sobre el perfil básico de los MR, en relación los siguientes datos: país de origen, género, edad, lengua materna, conocimiento de otras lenguas, su nivel de español, etc. Se han incluido todas ellas entre las capturas de pantalla de la Figura 3, la Figura 4, la Figura 5, la Figura 6 y la Figura 7.

Figura 2. *Pantalla principal del cuestionario*

Como se puede observar en estas figuras, el Apartado I pretendía recabar, por un lado, datos muy similares a los dados en 2, pero obtenidos a partir de las personas que trabajan directamente con MR, de tal forma que los datos iniciales pudieran ser actualizados y, además, obtener una muestra de datos parciales y disgregados en función de los individuos atendidos por cada una de las instituciones. Por otro lado, este mismo apartado también intentaba recopilar datos muy básicos acerca del perfil laboral (y su correlato económico) de los MR residentes en España en ese momento: labor profesional en sus países de origen y de acogida (subapartados de la pregunta 1), situaciones laboral y económica más habituales (preguntas 5 y 6) y principales ocupaciones diarias (pregunta 7). Los datos obtenidos a partir la mayor parte de apartados de la pregunta 1, de las preguntas 2 a 4 y la pregunta 8 son descritos en el punto 4 de este artículo (perfil identificativo).

En la determinación del perfil sociológico de los MR fue de gran ayuda la sección 4, que se corresponde con el Apartado II de la encuesta de recogida de datos. Este apartado se titulaba II. ACTITUD HACIA SU SITUACIÓN DE DESPLAZAMIENTO, y constaba de preguntas de respuesta múltiple (9 y 13), respuesta binaria (10, 11, 12 y 14) y de una pregunta de respuesta abierta (15), tal y como se indica en

la Tabla 3 más abajo. No obstante, cabe remarcar que en las preguntas 10 a 14 se podían adjuntar detalles adicionales (en caso necesario) dando lugar a respuestas de formato semiabierto. Las respuestas a las preguntas de esta sección se incluyen y analizan al final del punto 5 del presente artículo.

I. PERFIL DE LOS REFUGIADOS/MIGRANTES

1. ¿Cuál es el perfil de los refugiados/migrantes que llegan a España?

País de origen

Tu respuesta

Género

☐ Hombre

☐ Mujer

Edad

☐ Menor de 15

☐ 16-20

☐ 21-30

☐ 31-40

☐ 41-50

☐ Mayor de 50

Lengua materna

Tu respuesta

Figura 3. *Pregunta 1 del cuestionario (i)*

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Lengua materna

Tu respuesta

Conocimiento de otras lenguas (básico/intermedio/avanzado/nativo)

Tu respuesta

Nivel de lengua española

☐ Básico

☐ Intermedio

☐ Avanzado

☐ Nativo

¿Qué labor profesional desarrollaban en sus países de origen?

☐ Administrativo

☐ Trabajo manual

☐ Comercial

☐ Otro: _____

¿Qué labor profesional tienen en el país de acogida?

Figura 4. *Pregunta 1 del cuestionario (ii)*

¿Qué labor profesional tienen en el país de acogida?

- ☐ El mismo
- ☐ Superior
- ☐ Inferior
- ☐ Eventual
- ☐ No suele estar relacionado con su trabajo en el país de origen
- ☐ No suelen tener trabajo
- ☐ Otro: _____

2. ¿Cuál es la razón por la que llegan a España?

- ☐ Refugiados políticos
- ☐ Refugiados de guerra
- ☐ Razones socioeconómicas
- ☐ Catástrofes
- ☐ Razones familiares
- ☐ Otro: _____

3. ¿Cuál es su situación legal? Para los refugiados:

- ☐ Con derecho a asilo y refugio
- ☐ Solicitantes de derecho a asilo y refugio
- ☐ Otro: _____

Figura 5. Preguntas 1 (iii), 2 y 3.a del cuestionario

Para los migrantes:

- ☐ Situación de legalidad o regularidad
- ☐ Ilegalidad o irregularidad
- ☐ Permiso de residencia permanente
- ☐ Permiso de residencia temporal por arraigo familiar/ laboral/ por razones humanitarias
- ☐ Otro: _____

4. ¿Cuál es su situación personal más habitual?

- ☐ Solo/a
- ☐ Familia básica con ellos
- ☐ Familia básica en el país de origen
- ☐ Familia numerosa a su cargo con ellos
- ☐ Familia numerosa a su cargo en el país de origen

5. ¿Cuál es su situación laboral más habitual?

- ☐ Trabajando
- ☐ En paro
- ☐ Contrato a jornada completa
- ☐ Contrato a jornada parcial
- ☐ Otro: _____

Figura 6. Preguntas 3.b a 5 del cuestionario

6. ¿Cuál es su situación económica más habitual?

- ☐ Insuficiente para cubrir sus necesidades básicas
- ☐ Justa
- ☐ Suficiente

7. ¿Cuáles son sus principales ocupaciones diarias?

- ☐ Búsqueda de empleo
- ☐ Formación / educación
- ☐ Solventar sus necesidades más elementales
- ☐ Solucionar cuestiones legales
- ☐ Otro: _____

8. ¿Dónde viven en España?

- ☐ En casas o pisos en régimen alquiler solos
- ☐ En casas o pisos compartidos en régimen de alquiler
- ☐ En casas o pisos en régimen de propietarios solos
- ☐ En casas o pisos compartidos en régimen de propietarios
- ☐ En centros de acogida
- ☐ No tienen alojamiento fijo

Figura 7. Preguntas 6 a 8 del cuestionario

Número de pregunta	Pregunta	Respuestas posibles
9	¿Cuánto tiempo suelen estar fuera de sus hogares?	1. Menos de 6 meses 2. 6 meses-11 meses 3. 1-5 años 4. Más de 5 años
10	¿Planifican la duración de su estancia en algún caso?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
11	¿Suelen tener experiencia de estar en un país extranjero?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
12	¿Es para ellos prioritario incluirse en la nueva sociedad o mantener su cultura y costumbres?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
13	¿Qué actitudes suelen tener hacia su situación: rechazo, resignación, esperanza, etc.?	1. Rechazo 2. Resignación 3. Esperanza Otro:
14	¿Se muestran proactivos en buscar soluciones a esta situación?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
15	¿Cuáles son sus necesidades y preocupaciones prioritarias?	[Campo de texto libre]

Tabla 3. Preguntas 9 a 15 del cuestionario

El cuestionario continuaba con la sección 5, correspondiente al Apartado III del cuestionario: “III. PERFIL TECNOLÓGICO”. Esta sección constaba de cinco preguntas de opción de respuesta múltiple (las preguntas 16 a 20), además de otras dos (las preguntas 21 y 22), en las que la respuesta era de tipo binario (Sí/No), aunque se pedía además que dieran más detalles (en caso necesario) en forma de respuesta abierta. Todas estas preguntas y sus posibles respuestas se detallan en la Tabla 4.

Número de pregunta	Pregunta	Respuestas posibles
16	¿De qué tecnología suelen disponer?	1. Ordenador de sobremesa 2. Portátil 3. Tablet 4. Teléfono móvil sin conexión a Internet 5. Smartphone
17	¿A qué periféricos tienen acceso que pudieran usar en un proceso formativo?	1. Impresora 2. Escáner 3. Fotocopiadora 4. Fax
18	¿Qué tipo de conexión a internet tienen?	1. Desde el móvil 2. Rápida y fiable desde casa 3. Rápida y fiable desde otros lugares de fácil acceso 4. No fiable / en algunos lugares 5. Ninguna
19	¿Qué uso suelen hacer de sus dispositivos tecnológicos?	1. Juegos 2. Email personal 3. Redes sociales 4. Educativo 5. Redes profesionales 6. Trabajo en línea Otro:
20	De las herramientas sociales que usan, indica las que son más populares:	1. Facebook 2. Twitter 3. WhatsApp 4. Telegram 5. Instagram 6. Snapchat Otro:
21	¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura de aprendizaje y la española?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
22	¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura digital y la española?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:

Tabla 4. Preguntas 16 a 22 del cuestionario

A continuación, la sección siguiente (la 6), mostraba el Apartado IV del cuestionario: “IV. FORMACIÓN ACADÉMICA DE LAS PERSONAS DESPLAZADAS”. Las preguntas que conformaban este apartado se detallan en la Tabla 5. Respecto a las preguntas 23 y 27, al ser preguntas de respuesta SI/NO (binaria), se pedía además una aclaración en forma de respuesta abierta. En cuanto a la pregunta 24, era una pregunta con respuesta de escalas y categorías, tal y como muestra la Figura 8. Las preguntas 25, 26, 28 y 30a eran de respuesta de opción múltiple, y las preguntas 29, 30b y 31 eran de respuesta abierta.

Número de pregunta	Pregunta	Respuestas posibles
23	¿Son los migrantes y refugiados un grupo homogéneo en cuanto a su educación o formación?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
24	En caso negativo, ¿qué tipos de personas desplazadas cabe distinguir según su formación y cuáles son más/menos comunes en España? (marcar las respuestas de 1 – 6, donde 1 = más numeroso y 6 = menos numeroso)	1. Analfabetos 2. Estudios de primaria 3. Estudios de secundaria 4. Formación profesional 5. Estudios universitarios 6. Estudios de posgrado [Véase también la Figura 8]
25	¿En qué área de conocimiento están formados?	1. Humanidades/ Ciencias Sociales 2. Ciencias 3. Tecnología 4. Trabajos mecánicos (motor, fontanería, electrónica...) 5. Trabajos artesanales (carpintería, cerámica, panadería...) Otro:
26	En general, ¿qué tipo de educación en lenguas han recibido?	1. En el colegio o universidad 2. En una escuela de idiomas o academia 3. En cursos gratuitos en asociaciones o de fomento de empleo 4. De manera informal por su cuenta
27	¿Son los migrantes y refugiados un grupo homogéneo en cuanto a sus necesidades formativas?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
28	¿Qué tipo de formación requieren las personas desplazadas que están en España?	1. Ninguna 2. Práctica, para desenvolverse en la sociedad de acogida a nivel básico 3. Práctica, que les ayude a conseguir un empleo 4. Formal, para obtener una certificación útil que les permita acceder al nuevo mercado laboral 5. Reconocimiento oficial de sus titulaciones para poder ejercer la profesión para la que se prepararon en sus países de origen 6. Actualización, adaptación o especialización de sus conocimientos 7. Lingüística (español, inglés, etc.)
29	¿Sobre qué temas desean formarse prioritariamente?	[Campo de texto libre]

Tabla 5. Preguntas 23 a 31 del cuestionario Continúa...

Número de pregunta	Pregunta	Respuestas posibles
30a	¿Crees que tienen otras necesidades específicas en su proceso de formación?	1. Asesoramiento personalizado previo 2. Plan de acogida 3. Grupos de estudio (trabajo colaborativo con otros estudiantes) 4. Aprendizaje práctico 5. Espacios determinados para el estudio, p. ej. bibliotecas 6. Flexibilidad en los cronogramas 7. Apoyo y <i>feedback</i> continuo del profesor 8. Trabajo estructurado en sesiones cortas y frecuentes o largas y esporádicas
30b	¿Existe algún tabú o aspecto cultural reseñable en cuanto a su actitud hacia la educación y la suya propia?	[Campo de texto libre]
31	¿Qué valoración harías de la oferta de acciones formativas disponibles para refugiados y migrantes a día de hoy en España desde el punto de vista de la calidad y la adecuación?	[Campo de texto libre]

Tabla 5. Preguntas 23 a 31 del cuestionario

24. En caso negativo, ¿qué tipos de personas desplazadas cabe distinguir según su formación y cuáles son más/menos comunes en España? (marcar las respuestas de 1 – 6, donde 1=más numeroso y 6=menos numeroso):

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Analfabetos	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estudios de pri...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estudios de se...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Formación pro...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estudios unive...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Estudios de po...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Figura 8. Detalle de la pregunta 24 del cuestionario

Para concluir, las preguntas restantes (32 a 50) estaban incluidas en las secciones finales del cuestionario (en los apartados V, VI y VII), y buscaban obtener información sobre las posibilidades que las asociaciones y ONG presentes veían en cuanto a la formación en línea de los MR, así como a su disponibilidad para trabajar con IEES en la creación de MOOCs y otras actividades de formación en línea o mixta. Al no corresponderse, por tanto, con aspectos relativos al colectivo de MR de forma directa, no se describen aquí.

Por consiguiente, en lo que sigue desarrollamos los puntos del cuestionario que nos han permitido obtener información detallada sobre lo que atañe a este trabajo, es decir, el perfil identificativo y sociológico, de los MR en España.

4. Perfil identificativo de los migrantes y refugiados (MR) en España: datos estadísticos básicos

4.1. Los datos básicos (procedencia, género, edad, lenguas, etc.) de los MR en España

Los datos que aquí se presentan (gráficamente), y que serán analizados y discutidos en el apartado siguiente, están tomados de las respuestas obtenidas de las preguntas 1 (parcialmente), 2, 3, 4 y 8 de la sección 3 del cuestionario descrito en el apartado 3.b (véanse la Figura 3, la Figura 4, la Figura 5, la Figura 6 y la Figura 7). Esta sección tenía como objetivo obtener información sobre el perfil básico y laboral de los migrantes y refugiados en España, con la finalidad de poder hacer posteriormente un acercamiento más concreto a sus necesidades formativas. Aquí se detallan los resultados sobre el perfil básico de los MR.

Por un lado, los resultados obtenidos para la pregunta 1 del formulario, es decir, los datos personales: género, edad, país de procedencia, lengua materna y conocimiento de otras lenguas (español y restantes), se resumen respectivamente en la Figura 9, la Figura 10, la Figura 11, la Figura 12, la Figura 13 y la Figura 14.

Por otro lado, los resultados obtenidos para las preguntas 2 (motivo de su llegada a España), 3 (su situación legal, tanto en el caso de los migrantes como de los refugiados), 4 (su situación personal más habitual) y 8 (su tipo de residencia en España), se han incluido en la Figura 15, la Figura 16, la Figura 17, la Figura 18, y la Figura 19, respectivamente.

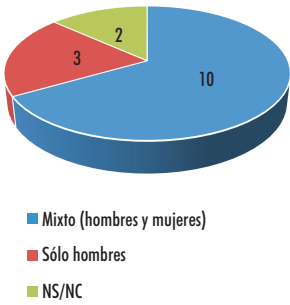


Figura 9. Número de instituciones de acogida en función del género de las personas acogidas

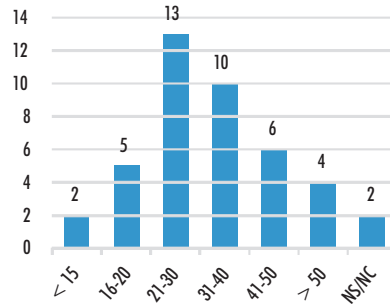


Figura 10. Número de instituciones de acogida en función de la edad (en años) de las personas acogidas

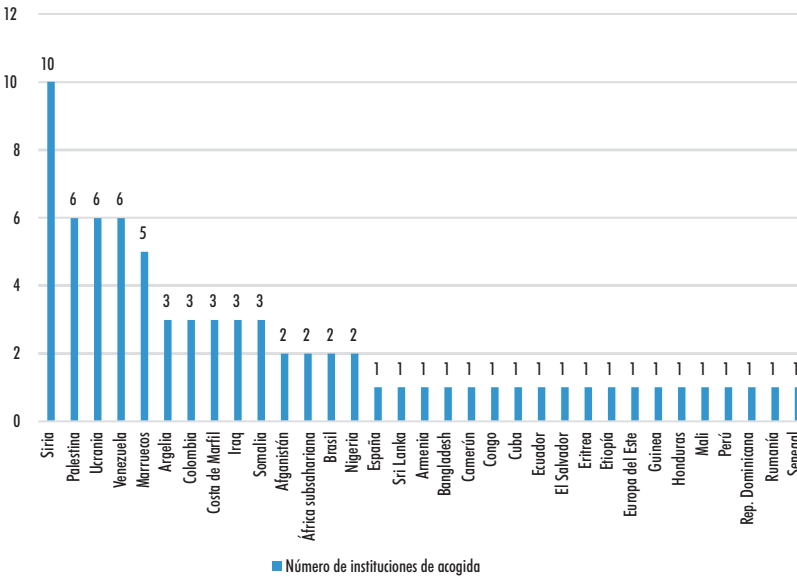


Figura 11. Número de instituciones de acogida vs. países de procedencia de sus personas acogidas

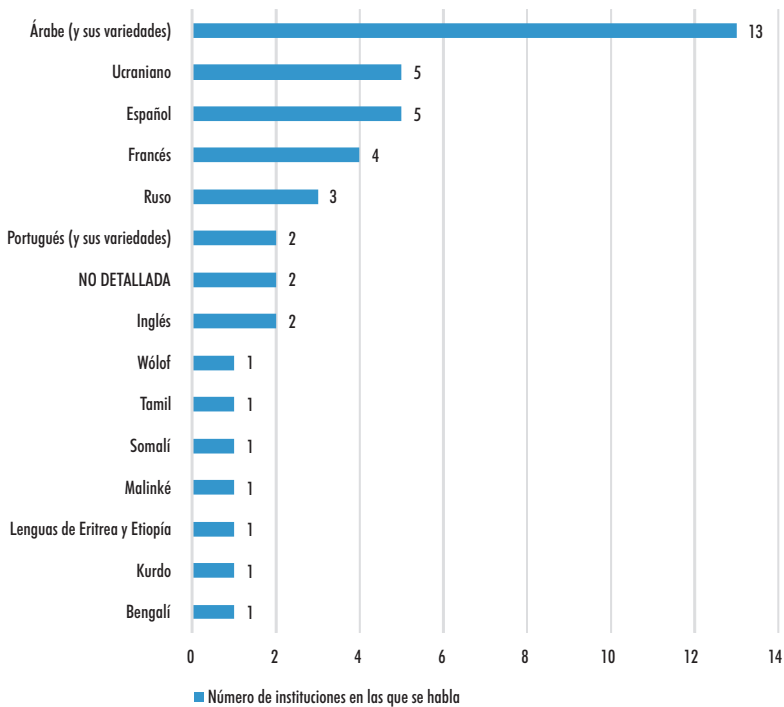


Figura 12. *Número de instituciones de acogida vs. lengua nativa de sus personas acogidas*

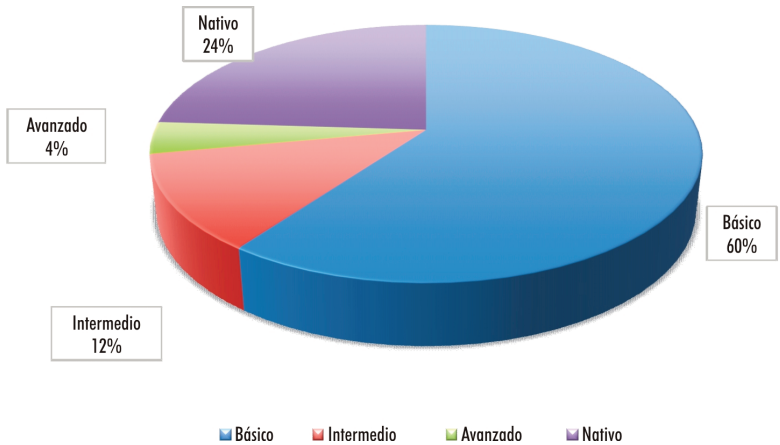


Figura 13. *Nivel de conocimiento de la lengua española por parte de los MR en las distintas instituciones de acogida*

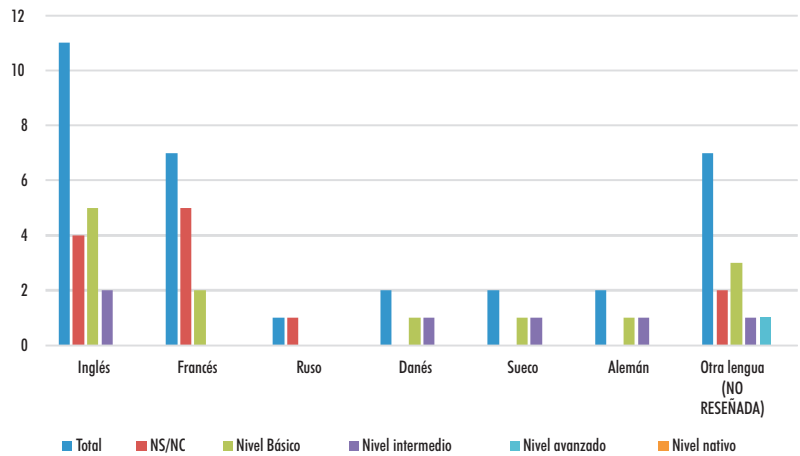


Figura 14. Nivel de conocimiento de otras lenguas por parte de los MR en las distintas instituciones de acogida

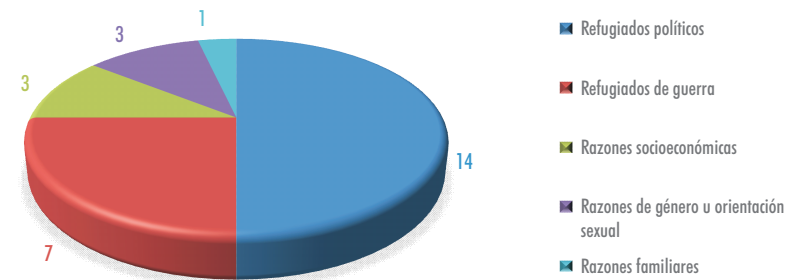


Figura 15. Número de instituciones de acogida vs. razones para la llegada a España de sus MR.

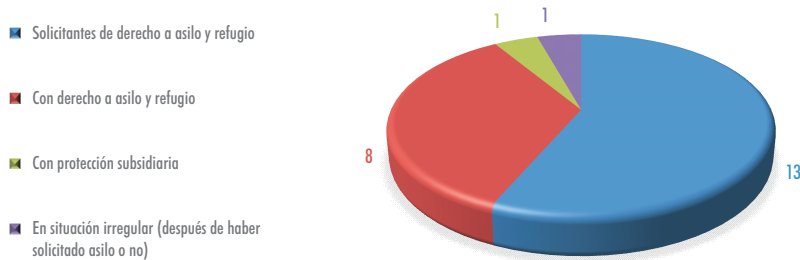


Figura 16. Número de instituciones concernidas vs. situación legal de sus refugiados

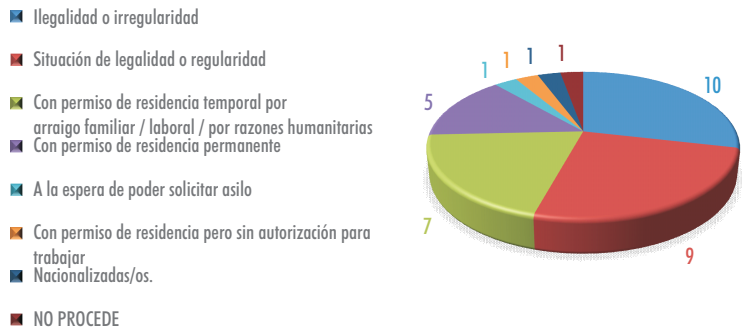


Figura 17. *Número de instituciones concernidas vs. situación legal de sus migrantes*

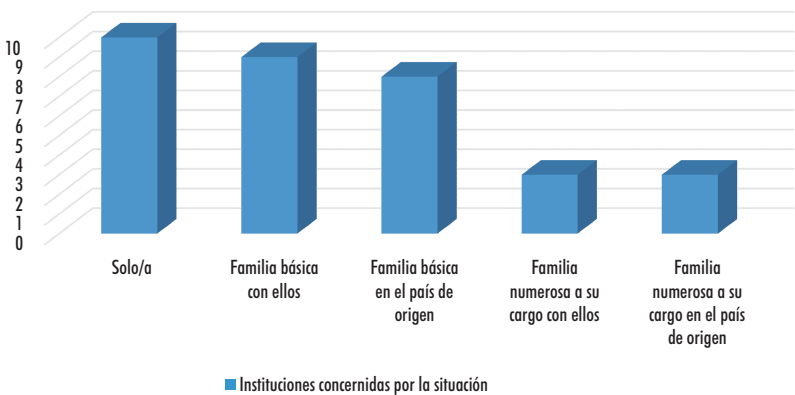


Figura 18. *Número de instituciones concernidas vs. situación familiar de sus MR*

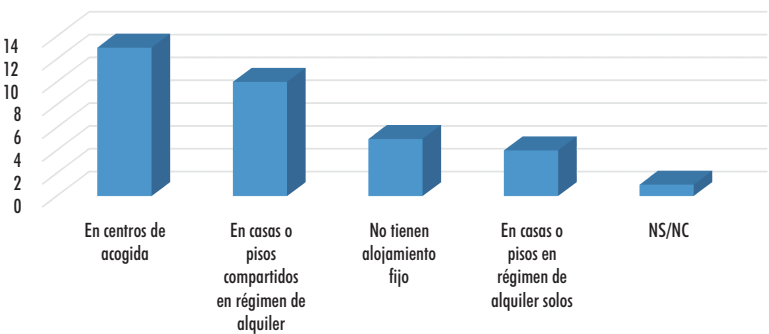


Figura 19. *Número de instituciones concernidas vs. tipo de lugar de residencia de sus MR*

4.2. El perfil básico de los MR en España

Para comenzar, nos interesaban las razones de la llegada a España de estos migrantes y refugiados. En este caso, podrían remarcarse varias razones: la mayoría de las asociaciones y ONG (14 respuestas de 15) señalaron que se debía a razones bélicas, seguidas de las razones políticas (11) y socioeconómicas (7).

En cuanto al país de procedencia, aparte de Siria, predominan sobre todo los Estados de África y Latinoamérica. No obstante, tal y como se muestra en el punto anterior (4.a), existe una gran variedad, y la diferencia entre unos países y otros no es representativa. Así, aunque 10 de las instituciones presentes señalaron que venían sobre todo de Siria, la cifra que le sigue es de 6 reseñas, correspondientes a Ucrania, Venezuela y Palestina. Cinco participantes en la encuesta señalaron que el país predominante era Marruecos, y a esta cifra le siguen Argelia, Somalia, Costa de Marfil, Irak y Colombia, con tres respuestas, y el África subsahariana, Afganistán, Nigeria, y Brasil con dos. Finalmente, hay una gran cantidad de respuestas con valor unitario sobre otros países de origen: Congo, Honduras, El Salvador, Armenia, Camerún, Europa del Este, Mali, Guinea, Perú, Ecuador, Cuba, República Dominicana, Bangladesh, Senegal, Rumanía, Eritrea, Etiopía, Sri Lanka, etc.

En lo concerniente a las respuestas sobre el género de los MR en su asociación u ONG, tras observar las respuestas dadas por los responsables vemos que, aunque hay algo más de hombres que de mujeres, la proporción es bastante equilibrada (13 de ellas acogen a hombres frente a las 10 que acogen mujeres).

Respecto a la edad, el rango de edad más frecuente es el de 21 a 30 años de edad, seguido del rango de 31 a 40, pero todos los rangos aparecen representados.

En lo tocante a las lenguas habladas por los MR, a la vista de los resultados, hay una gran variedad cultural y también lingüística, aunque podemos observar que la lengua nativa más hablada es el árabe. Junto con el árabe predomina también, aunque en menor medida, el francés (personas procedentes de África del Norte), donde parece haber una mayoría de bilingües árabe/francés, y el español (MR procedentes de Hispanoamérica). Lo que no queda recogido en este punto son las variables dialectales y si los hablantes dominan el árabe estándar, algo que puede ser importante a la hora de diseñar los materiales y subtítularlos o doblarlos. El estudio también muestra que los MR de España hablan otras lenguas, pero en general tienen un nivel básico (sobre todo de francés e inglés). También en el caso de la lengua española predomina el nivel básico, seguido por un nivel nativo, mayoritario entre todos MR de la comunidad latina.

Por lo que a la situación legal se refiere, por un lado, es difícil en el caso de los refugiados: la mayor parte de ellos están solicitando asilo y refugio (13), y los que ya lo tienen son minoría (8). Por otro lado, entre los migrantes predominan los que están en situación ilegal (10) frente a los que se encuentran legalmente en nuestro país (9), seguidos de un buen número de residentes temporales (7).

En cuanto a su situación personal, la mayoría vienen solos (10) o con una familia básica (9), pero con frecuencia sus parientes cercanos están en su país (8).

5. Perfil sociológico de los MR en España

5.1. Resultados de la encuesta

Los datos que aquí se presentan (gráficamente), y que serán analizados y discutidos en el apartado siguiente (5.b), están tomados de las respuestas obtenidas a las preguntas 9 a 15 del cuestionario descrito en el apartado 3.b (sección 4/Apartado II; véase la Tabla 3). Esta sección tenía como objetivo obtener información sobre la actitud de los migrantes y refugiados en España hacia su situación de desplazamiento, con la finalidad de conocer un poco mejor su realidad y sus expectativas en cuanto a permanencia y enraizamiento social y cultural en el país.

En primer lugar, la Figura 20 muestra las respuestas proporcionadas por los responsables de las asociaciones y ONG para la pregunta 9 (cuánto tiempo suelen estar los MR fuera de sus hogares).

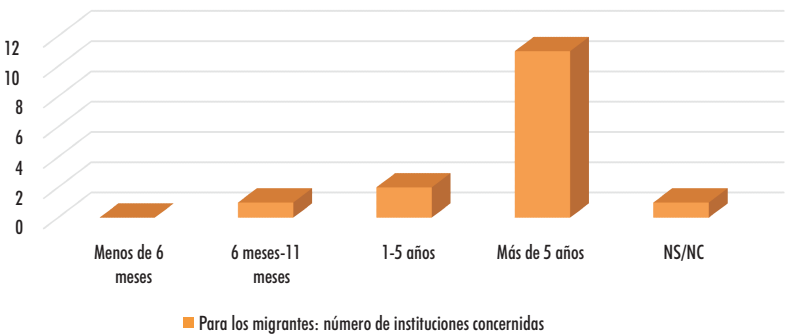


Figura 20. *Tiempo que suelen estar los MR fuera de sus hogares, según su institución de acogida*

En segundo lugar, los resultados obtenidos para las preguntas 10 y 11 del formulario (sobre (1) si planifican o no la duración de su estancia

en algún caso; y (2) si tienen en general experiencias previas de residencia en algún país extranjero) se incluyen, respectivamente, en la Figura 21 y la Figura 22.

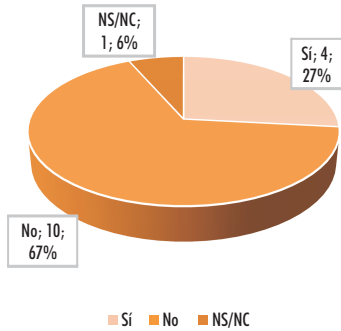


Figura 21. Respuesta de las instituciones de acogida a la pregunta 10. ¿Planifican los MR la duración de su estancia en nuestro país?

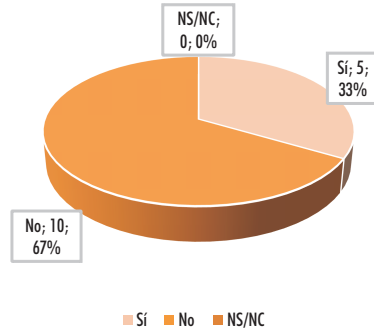


Figura 22. Respuesta de las instituciones de acogida a la pregunta 11. ¿Suelen tener experiencia de estar en un país extranjero?

En tercer lugar, los resultados obtenidos para las preguntas 12 (sobre si para ellos es prioritario integrarse en la nueva sociedad o no –manteniendo su cultura y costumbres– y 14 (sobre si se muestran proactivos en la búsqueda de soluciones a esta situación) se resumen, respectivamente, en la Figura 23 y la Figura 24. Los detalles adicionales añadidos en sus respuestas por los participantes en la encuesta (en modo texto) se muestran en la Tabla 6.

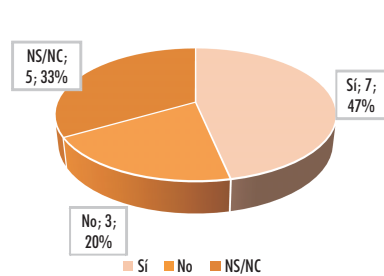


Figura 23. Respuesta de las instituciones de acogida a la pregunta 12. ¿Es para ellos prioritario incluirse en la nueva sociedad [o mantener su cultura y costumbres]?

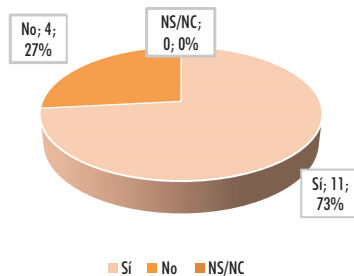


Figura 24. Respuesta de las instituciones de acogida a la pregunta 14. ¿Se muestran proactivos en buscar soluciones a esta situación?

RESPUESTAS COMPLEMENTARIAS DE 12 ¿Es para ellos prioritario incluirse en la nueva sociedad [o mantener su cultura y costumbres]?	RESPUESTAS COMPLEMENTARIAS DE 14 ¿Se muestran proactivos en buscar soluciones a esta situación?
Prefieren mantener sus costumbres.	No en todos los casos.
Depende mucho de su lugar de origen.	De momento están en una fase muy inicial de su estancia en España.
Para ellos es importante integrarse en la nueva sociedad, pero igual de importante es mantener su identidad cultural en su proceso de integración.	A pesar de percibir que su situación está llena de barreras, no pierden el impulso de mejorar esta situación y cambiarla.
Personalmente considero que en este ámbito hay que observar las dos caras de la moneda. Por un lado, tenemos a las personas refugiadas que llegan, y que en un principio se muestran reacias a dejar de lado sus costumbres y cultura; y en el otro, la sociedad, que también muestra cierta reticencia a aceptar este tipo de cultura. Por tanto, creo que es algo bilateral: si la sociedad se muestra más abierta y flexible a aceptar ciertos aspectos, los y las migrantes estarán más dispuestos a ceder en otros campos.	-----
Ambas opciones son importantes para construir/mantener su identidad.	-----
Prioritario es sentirse en casa aquí, con lo que es prioritario continuar con su vida, lo más parecida posible, manteniendo sus costumbres.	Han pasado por mucho. Están cansados y resignados.
Quieren incorporarse a esta sociedad manteniendo sus costumbres.	Búsqueda de medios de vida, trabajo...
Vemos procesos de reforzamiento de identidad cultural y religiosa una vez que llegan al país de acogida.	El problema es que los procesos normalmente son muy largos y se desesperan.
En la mayoría de los casos están interesados por conocer la nueva cultura con la que convivirán e incluirse en ella.	El hecho del aprendizaje del idioma indica su proactividad.
Lo habitual es que se dé una combinación de ambas cuestiones: mantener sus costumbres, pero integrados en la sociedad de acogida. No es excluyente.	Habitualmente es difícil trabajar aspectos de participación e implicación en su propio itinerario. La motivación es una cuestión a abordar continuamente en las atenciones individuales, ya que muchas veces aparecen frustraciones al no haberse cumplido las expectativas que traían desde su país de origen.
La lengua sí es una prioridad, pero la cultura y costumbres no les interesan tanto.	Quieren un futuro mejor para ellos/as y sus familias.
La población marroquí tiene grandes dificultades para integrarse en la cultura y costumbres españolas.	Cada persona tiene una actitud diferente, pero, aunque manifiestan una actitud proactiva en un primer momento, no son constantes.
Quieren incluirse y a la vez mantener su cultura y sus costumbres.	Lo intentan, pero no pueden hacer nada, ya que no depende sólo de su voluntad.
Ambas cosas.	Alguien que lo deja todo y se lanza al vacío es proactivo al máximo, ¿no?
Es una pregunta difícil. Primero, porque no me parecen mutuamente excluyentes en su totalidad. Por otro lado, claro que es una prioridad incluirse en la sociedad a la que migran, porque no sienten que a corto plazo puedan retornar a su país de origen. Sin embargo, es su deseo poder volver a sus hogares y a su cultura original.	De nuevo es complejo. Primero porque es una situación que les sobrepasa a muchos niveles (sobre todo dependiendo de la magnitud del problema a solucionar). Luego, evaluando la situación traumática por la que han pasado (y aun pasan), cualquier “mínimo esfuerzo” yo lo considero una actitud proactiva (y en la mayoría de los casos supera con creces el “mínimo esfuerzo”, salvo en momentos emocionalmente depresivos).

Tabla 6: *Respuestas complementarias a las preguntas 12 y 14 del cuestionario*

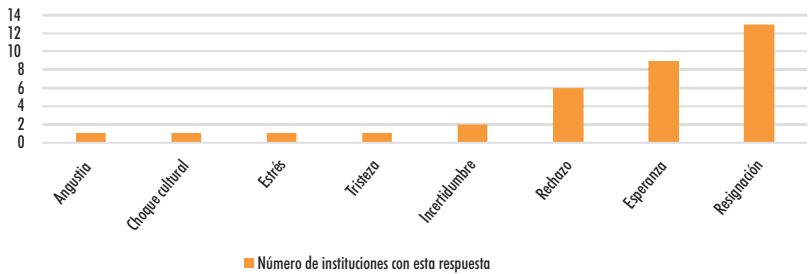


Figura 25. *Tiempo que suelen estar los MR fuera de sus hogares, según su institución de acogida*

Finalmente, las respuestas a la pregunta 15 (acerca de las necesidades y preocupaciones prioritarias de los MR) se resumen en la Tabla 8.

RESPUESTAS a la PREGUNTA 15 del CUESTIONARIO: ¿Cuáles son las necesidades y preocupaciones prioritarias de los MR en España?
Obtener el estatuto de refugiado o legalizar su situación.
El aprendizaje del idioma; la creación de una red de apoyos para su empleabilidad.
Empleo; reagrupación de sus familiares que se encuentran en país de origen.
Intentar poder alcanzar unas condiciones de vida aceptables, para ellos y sus familias.
Cuestiones laborales y legales, principalmente; también las relacionadas con el bienestar familiar (necesidades espaciales de los y las menores).
Sobrevivir.
Tener un medio de vida (empleo); vivienda; necesidades básicas; ayudar a su familia de origen.
Regularización, búsqueda de empleo, reagrupación familiar.
Necesidades básicas.
Tener una respuesta positiva a su solicitud de asilo; encontrar una vivienda y un empleo. Asimismo, la situación de su familia en el país de origen.
Las básicas; ser autónomos, tener un trabajo que les dé independencia económica.
Regularizar su situación, no perder prestaciones sociales, pagar facturas, llegar a fin de mes, etc.
Comida, vivienda, dignidad, legalización y poder rehacer su vida, saliendo del paréntesis en el que están bloqueados.
Empezar a trabajar y poder mandar dinero a los que están todavía “dentro”. Después, reagrupar a la familia o formar una.
Opino que un buen resumen de sus necesidades serían el correcto acceso a sus derechos fundamentales, que una y otra vez han visto vulnerados.
En cuanto a preocupaciones, son tan variadas como los perfiles de migrantes: su familia, el acceso a estudios, trabajo, vivienda, la lengua, la inclusión en la sociedad, etc.

Tabla 8. *Respuestas a la pregunta 15 del cuestionario*

5.2. Análisis y discusión de resultados

En cuanto a la actitud de los MR respecto a su situación, cuya información hemos obtenido, como ya hemos indicado, de la sección 4 del cuestionario, los encuestados señalan que, en general, cuando se ven obligados a abandonar sus países no tienen una idea clara del tiempo que esta-

rán ausentes y, por lo general, no están pensando en regresar a corto plazo.

Es común que hayan pasado por diferentes países antes de llegar aquí (por ejemplo, América Latina, Marruecos, Egipto, Turquía, o Grecia). Algunos también proceden de otros países de la Unión Europea, pero en los que no se les permitió permanecer (por ejemplo, Alemania, Francia, Holanda) y son (re)enviados a España, en aplicación del Convenio de Dublín.

Cuando se les pregunta por la cantidad de tiempo que los migrantes y refugiados suelen pasar en España, hay un cierto consenso en una duración de “más de 5 años”, y en que quieren quedarse (con sus familias). Como se señala en el punto 4, esto no refleja el perfil de las personas que se ponen en contacto con las asociaciones para obtener ayuda.

Respecto a su integración, los MR no quieren perder su propia cultura y costumbres, aunque son conscientes de que es necesario un cierto grado de integración. Varias respuestas apuntan que ambas posibilidades no son mutuamente excluyentes.

Están interesados en la cultura local y sienten que el idioma es una barrera, por lo que desean aprender español. Sin embargo, su limitada integración (vivir con sus compañeros y no utilizar el español a diario) reduce sus posibilidades de aprender y practicar el español, lo que a su vez limita aún más la integración. Una vez más, el objetivo de volver a casa a largo plazo puede limitar su deseo de integrarse.

Sus necesidades y prioridades son: seguridad, estabilidad, salud, aprendizaje del idioma, cuestiones legales y laborales, regulación de su situación, etc.

6. Conclusiones

En este capítulo, por un lado, se han resumido las definiciones más relevantes, la casuística más frecuente, y el contexto legal básico en el campo de la ayuda y acogida de los MR en España. Por otro lado, se han presentado los resultados de un estudio acerca de los perfiles identificativo y sociológico de las personas de ese colectivo en nuestro país.

Teniendo en cuenta las respuestas obtenidas en el primer apartado (perfil identificativo), estaríamos ya en condiciones de proponer unos prototipos generales del MR en España:

- 1) Hombre adentrado en la veintena, de origen subsahariano o magrebí, con un nivel básico de español, de lengua materna diversa, con trabajo de diversa índole en su país de origen y desempleado o con empleo precario en España. Suele hallarse solo

- en España (o con una familia básica) y vive en una casa de alquiler compartida. Tiene problemas para cubrir las necesidades básicas y emplea más tiempo en la búsqueda de trabajo que en la formación.
- 2) Hombre/mujer adentrado/a en la veintena o en la treintena, de Oriente Próximo, con un nivel básico de español, con el árabe como lengua materna y cierto dominio del inglés, con un trabajo de diversa índole en su país de origen y desempleado o con un empleo precario en España. Se halla solo o con toda su familia (numerosa) en España y vive en un centro de acogida.
 - 3) Hombre/mujer adentrado/a en la veintena, de origen hispanoamericano, con nivel nativo de español y poco dominio de otras lenguas, con trabajo de diversa índole en su país de origen y desempleado o con empleo precario en España. Suele hallarse solo en España (o con una familia básica) y vive en casa alquilada compartida.

A la vista de estos retratos robot, podría decirse que los perfiles más interesantes para el proyecto MOONLITE serían los descritos en los prototipos 1 y 2, es decir, personas que tienen un nivel muy básico o nulo de español y que provienen de una cultura muy distinta a la española, dado que el prototipo 3 hace referencia a personas cuya habla materna ya es el español.

En lo referente al perfil sociológico de los MR en España, parece que hay un proceso de integración e inserción social, en el que refugiados y emigrantes comienzan su periplo con la ayuda de las asociaciones y ONG y poco a poco van consiguiendo algún tipo de estabilidad. Inicialmente, están confundidos, no quieren estar aquí, pero con el tiempo se establecen, crían a sus familias, se dan cuenta de lo bien que se encuentran en España y no quieren regresar. Las preguntas que quedan por responder son la condición jurídica y profesional de estas personas: ¿están aquí ilegalmente o en el límite de la ley?, etc. También se observa que muchos de los refugiados se asientan en España a resultas del Convenio de Dublín: al intentar llegar a otros países de la Unión Europea y solicitar allí asilo (muchos de ellos tienen por objetivo no nuestro país, sino Centroeuropa), son rechazados y devueltos a España (su punto de entrada en Europa) y tienen que optar por permanecer aquí.

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Notas

- ¹ Datos básicos (edad, sexo/género, etc.).
- ² Atributos socioeconómicos, socioculturales y sociopolíticos básicos.
- ³ Estos MOOC se encuentran en IEDRA. Un ejemplo es: https://iedra.uned.es/courses/course-v1:UNED+MOONLITE_I_002+2020_T1/about.
- ⁴ Protección de asilo para aquellos que no son considerados refugiados, cuando se cree que no pueden regresar a sus países debido a un riesgo real.
- ⁵ Un récord nacional que dobla las 6.000 solicitudes del 2014, por ejemplo, y debido principalmente a la llegada de personas de Siria y Ucrania.
- ⁶ Estos datos contabilizan los países de procedencia, no el país asociado a la nacionalidad de los migrantes. De hecho, parte de los desplazamientos contabilizados por Palestina como país de procedencia corresponden, en realidad, a casos de ciudadanos sirios que entraron en España desde dicho país.
- ⁷ El caso de Marruecos es un tanto especial, pues en principio podría parecer que no se cumplen las condiciones objetivas para la obtención del *status* de refugiado. No obstante, los solicitantes alegan en general su orientación sexual o la existencia de un matrimonio mixto con personas de Siria como motivo de persecución en dicho país.
- ⁸ <https://moonliteproject.eu/>.
- ⁹ <https://goo.gl/forms/0TkinN8IIWIAWbTN2>.

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El perfil profesional, tecnológico y académico de migrantes y refugiados en España

Antonio Pareja-Lora y Ana Ibáñez Moreno

En este artículo se presentan los resultados del análisis parcial de un conjunto de datos recientemente recabados para conocer el perfil de los migrantes y refugiados (MR en adelante) en España. Estos datos son un subconjunto de las respuestas obtenidas mediante un cuestionario distribuido entre una amplia representación de responsables de ONG y asociaciones que trabajan con este colectivo en la Comunidad de Madrid. En concreto, las respuestas del cuestionario analizadas valoran el perfil académico, profesional y tecnológico de los MR en nuestro país. Este estudio forma parte de otro más amplio, destinado al desarrollo y adaptado a las necesidades de los MR, de cursos masivos en línea y abiertos (o MOOC, por sus siglas en inglés) para el aprendizaje del español, principalmente. En este contexto, el fin concreto de este estudio ha sido determinar qué requisitos debían cumplir estos MOOC y sus contenidos adaptados, desde un punto de vista tecnológico y formativo.

Palabras clave: migrante, refugiado, análisis de necesidades, MOOC, LMOOC, ELE.

The professional, technological and academic profile of migrants and refugees in Spain. This article shows the results of the partial analysis of a dataset recently collected to identify the profile of migrants and refugees (hereinafter MRs) in Spain. These data are, in fact, a subset of the answers to a questionnaire filled in by the representatives of a significant sample of NGOs and associations that work with these people in the Autonomous Region of Madrid. In particular, the answers of this questionnaire analysed here have helped to assess the professional, technological and/or academic profile of MRs in our country. This study is part of a broader one, whose aim has been to develop some specifically massive open online courses (or MOOCs) for a fairly adapted learning of (mainly) Spanish. In this context, the main goal of the present study has been to determine the technological and educational requirements that these MR-adapted MOOCs and their contents should fulfil.

Keywords: migrant, refugee, needs analysis, MOOC, LMOOC, ELE.

1. Introducción

Tal y como reflejan diversos autores en sus trabajos (Beaven, Codreanu y Creuzé 2015; Castrillo, Martín-Monje y Vázquez-Cano 2018; Martín-Monje 2019), la construcción de cursos en línea, masivos y abiertos (MOOC, por sus siglas en inglés: *Massive Open Online Courses*) debe ser convenientemente planificada. Esto permite cubrir las necesidades y expectativas de una audiencia de características y objetivos sumamente heterogéneos por lo general. Una buena planificación alcanza de lleno tanto a sus contenidos (su fondo: qué se enseña) como a su forma (cómo se enseña), y ayuda a mantener elevado el nivel de motivación de los estudiantes que lo cursan. Este último es un factor clave para su éxito, dado que uno de los mayores problemas a los que debe enfrentarse este modelo educativo es, frecuentemente, su elevada tasa de abandono (Beaven, Codreanu y Creuzé 2015; Castrillo, Martín-Monje y Vázquez-Cano 2018).

Esto es más importante si cabe cuando el objetivo es la construcción de un MOOC para la enseñanza de lenguas (LMOOC, Bárcena Madera y Martín-Monje, 2014) destinado a colectivos especialmente vulnerables, como es el caso de la comunidad de migrantes y refugiados (MR en adelante) de la Comunidad de Madrid en particular y de España en general¹. La construcción de este tipo concreto de MOOC era, precisamente, uno de los objetivos principales del proyecto MOONLITE², en el que se encuadra el presente trabajo.

Por ello, y de cara a un diseño adaptado y adecuado de los MOOC que se deseaba construir³ (Traxler 2018), se elaboró una encuesta para la recogida de datos que, una vez analizados, sirvieran como análisis de necesidades previo a dicho diseño, y que iluminaran todo el proceso de desarrollo de los mismos. Este artículo presenta los resultados del análisis de un subconjunto de los datos recabados mediante dicha encuesta, que ha servido para conocer el perfil de los MR en España. Los datos aquí analizados fueron proporcionados por responsables de una extensa muestra de ONG y asociaciones que trabajan con estas personas en la comunidad de Madrid, y se limitan a las preguntas del cuestionario que buscaban averiguar los perfiles, profesional, tecnológico y/o académico de los MR en nuestro país.

Este artículo está organizado como se explica a continuación. En primer lugar, la sección 2 detalla los objetivos, la metodología y los materiales empleados en el presente estudio. En segundo lugar, la sección 3, la sección 4 y la sección 5 muestran y discuten (en ese orden, y en secciones dedicadas) sendos análisis estadísticos y gráficos de los datos recogidos mediante las preguntas de la encuesta relativas a los perfiles

profesional, tecnológico y académico de los MR, respectivamente. Finalmente, la sección 6 presenta las conclusiones más relevantes de este estudio, sobre todo en lo tocante a la elaboración de los MOOC de enseñanza de español para MR arriba mencionados.

2. Objetivos, metodología y materiales empleados en el estudio

En esta sección, en primer lugar (apartado 2.a) se introducen los objetivos de la investigación que describe este artículo. En segundo lugar, el apartado 2.b detalla la metodología seguida para alcanzar dichos objetivos. Finalmente, en el apartado 2.c se presentan los materiales utilizados en este estudio (básicamente, la encuesta de recolección de datos y los programas informáticos usados para su tratamiento).

2.1. Objetivos

Como ya se ha dicho previamente, esta investigación forma parte de las actividades del proyecto europeo MOONLITE. El objetivo último de MOONLITE es promover “el aprendizaje, el apoyo y la certificación de la educación y/o formación sin fronteras, aprovechando para ello el potencial de los MOOC de cara a que migrantes y refugiados desarrollen sus competencias lingüísticas y empresariales para el empleo, la educación superior y la inclusión social” (Ibáñez Moreno y Pareja-Lora, este volumen). En este sentido, el objetivo de este estudio se centra en determinar principalmente las competencias profesionales (como el tipo y grado de especialización de sus ocupaciones actuales y previas) y tecnológicas (v.g., sus capacidades digitales – Traxler 2018), pero también sus conocimientos y su formación académicos (nivel de estudios, etc.).

2.2. Metodología

La metodología del estudio ha constado de las siguientes tres fases: (1) recolección de datos entre la población implicada acerca de las áreas arriba mencionadas; (2) análisis estadístico y gráfico de los datos obtenidos; y (3) análisis y discusión en profundidad de los datos para la obtención de los perfiles profesional, tecnológico y académico más frecuentes.

Para la recolección de datos se decidió crear un cuestionario o formulario que estuviera disponible en línea, pues esto facilitaría su cumplimentación de forma ubicua y asíncrona, en caso necesario. Aunque

en un principio se evaluó la posibilidad de hacer llegar este cuestionario directamente a la mayor cantidad de MR a los que pudiera tenerse acceso, esta opción fue descartada casi de inmediato, dado que (a) podría limitar o comprometer la exhaustividad y la representatividad de las respuestas obtenidas y, por tanto, también del estudio; y (b) como se muestra en Ibáñez Moreno y Pareja-Lora (este volumen), este colectivo tiene un conocimiento muy básico del español y, en general, de otras lenguas europeas, por lo que su nivel de comprensión de las preguntas de la encuesta habría sido reducido (y la traducción de la misma a sus distintas lenguas nativas era materialmente inasumible). Por ello, se decidió distribuir el cuestionario resultante entre responsables de una muestra adecuada de ONG y asociaciones a cargo del colectivo de MR e implantadas en la Comunidad de Madrid. De esta manera, los datos se obtuvieron ya de forma agregada (una respuesta por entidad, que aglutina los datos de todos sus MR correspondientes) y se circunscriben en principio a esta comunidad autónoma. No obstante, el grado de cobertura conjunto de estas entidades, atestiguado y plasmado por sus representantes en sus respuestas al cuestionario, permitirían una generalización razonable de los resultados obtenidos a escala nacional.

2.3. Materiales

Para la recolección de datos, como ya se ha indicado, se elaboró un cuestionario con la aplicación *Google Forms*, cuyos detalles de diseño se incluyen en (Ibáñez Moreno y Pareja-Lora, este volumen) y que se obvian en esta sección por limitaciones de espacio. Los datos recogidos mediante este formulario fueron analizados en primera instancia con las propias funciones de *Google Forms* pero, debido a la mayor interoperabilidad que proporcionan los gráficos de *Microsoft Excel* para su inclusión en documentos de *Microsoft Office* (como el presente artículo), se optó por reproducir su análisis con esta última herramienta para su inclusión aquí.

Más en detalle, el cuestionario⁴ constaba de 7 apartados, y fue contestado en total por una muestra estadísticamente significativa de 15 asociaciones que atienden de una manera u otra al colectivo de MR. Cada uno de estos apartados pretendía recabar los datos e información correspondientes a los perfiles que se detallan a continuación:

- a. Apartado I. PERFIL DE LOS REFUGIADOS/MIGRANTES (preguntas 1 a 8): acerca del perfil básico de los MR (país de origen, género, edad, lengua materna, conocimiento de otras lenguas, su nivel de español, etc. – datos analizados en Ibáñez

- Moreno y Pareja-Lora (este volumen), y también de su perfil profesional (datos analizados en la sección 3).
- b. Apartado II. ACTITUD HACIA SU SITUACIÓN DE DESPLAZAMIENTO (preguntas 9 a 15): sobre el perfil sociológico de los MR – datos analizados también en Ibáñez Moreno y Pareja-Lora (este volumen).
 - c. Apartado III. PERFIL TECNOLÓGICO [Y FORMATIVO] (preguntas 16 a 22): con datos relativos principalmente a dos perfiles de los MR: su perfil tecnológico (correspondientes a las preguntas 16 a 20 – analizados y discutidos en la sección 4) y su perfil académico (correspondientes a las preguntas 21 y 22 – analizados y discutidos en la sección 5).
 - d. Apartado IV. FORMACIÓN ACADÉMICA DE LAS PERSONAS DESPLAZADAS (preguntas 23 a 31): centrado por completo en el perfil formativo de los MR (datos analizados y discutidos en la sección 5).
 - e. Apartados V, VI y VII (preguntas 32 a 50): relativos a las posibilidades de formación en línea de los MR, así como a la disponibilidad de las asociaciones para trabajar con instituciones europeas de educación superior, tales como la UNED, en la creación de MOOC y otras actividades de formación en línea o mixta (descritos y analizados en otros artículos de este mismo volumen).

Por consiguiente, en lo que sigue, se analizan las preguntas del cuestionario que nos han permitido obtener información detallada sobre el perfil profesional, tecnológico y académico de los MR en España.

3. Perfil profesional de los MR en España

3.1. Resultados de la encuesta

Los datos que aquí se presentan (gráficamente), y que se analizan y discuten en el apartado siguiente, están tomados de las respuestas obtenidas a las preguntas 1 (parcialmente), 5, 6 y 7 del cuestionario descrito en el apartado 2.c (véase la Tabla 1), referentes al perfil profesional de los MR.

Número de pregunta	Pregunta	Respuestas posibles
1.d	¿Qué labor profesional desarrollaban en sus países de origen?	1. Administrativo 2. Trabajo manual 3. Comercial Otro:
1.e	¿Qué puesto ocupan en su país de acogida?	1. El mismo 2. Superior 3. Inferior 4. Eventual 5. No relacionado con su trabajo en el país de origen 6. No suelen tener trabajo Otro:
5	¿Cuál es su situación laboral más habitual?	1. Trabajando 2. En paro 3. Contrato a jornada completa 4. Contrato a jornada parcial Otro:
6	¿Cuál es su situación económica más habitual?	1. Insuficiente para cubrir sus necesidades básicas 2. Justa 3. Suficiente
7	¿Cuáles son sus principales ocupaciones diarias?	1. Búsqueda de empleo 2. Formación / educación 3. Solventar sus necesidades más elementales 4. Solucionar cuestiones legales Otro:

Tabla 1. Preguntas del cuestionario correspondientes al perfil profesional de los MR

3.2. Análisis y discusión de resultados

Por un lado, los resultados obtenidos para la pregunta 1 del formulario, es decir, los datos referentes a su labor profesional, tanto en sus países de origen como en España, se resumen respectivamente en la Figura 1 y la Figura 2.

A modo de resumen, como se ve en la Figura 1, podría decirse que el perfil profesional es altamente heterogéneo, siendo tanto de tipo manual (un 69 %), como administrativo (otro 69 %); después les sigue el perfil comercial (38 %). No obstante, varias de las instituciones (10 casos, 66 %) detallaron una gran diversidad de perfiles diferentes dentro del campo “Otros”, como por ejemplo informático (1), directivo (1), universitario (1), estudiante (1), educativo (1), emprendedor (1), o incluso relacionado con la estética (1).

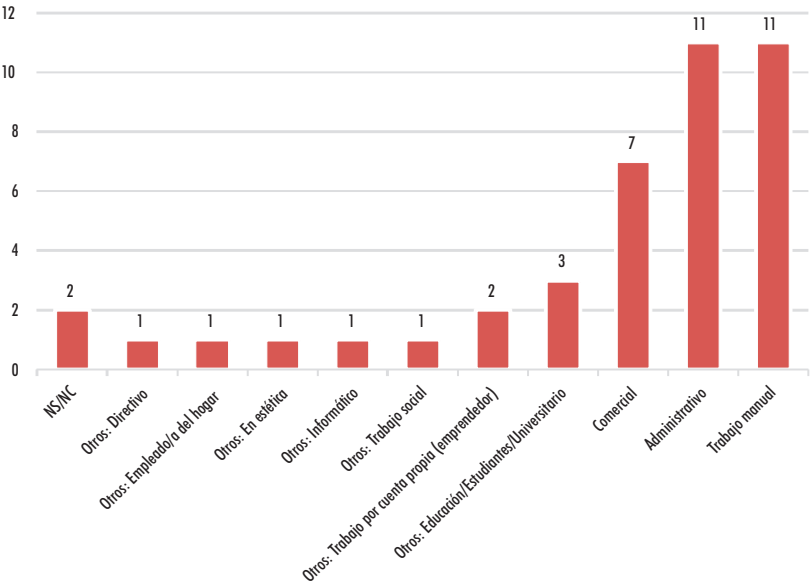


Figura 1. *Distribución de las labores de los MR en sus países de origen por cada institución de acogida*

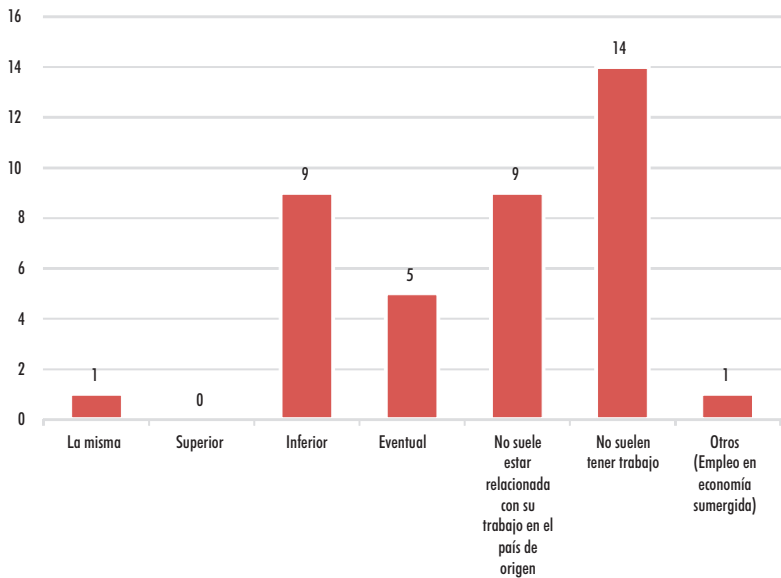


Figura 2. *Distribución de las labores realizadas por los MR en España por cada institución de acogida*

Por otro lado, los resultados obtenidos para las preguntas 5 (su situación laboral más habitual en España), 6 (su situación económica más habitual en nuestro país) y 7 (sus principales ocupaciones diarias tras su llegada), se han incluido en la Figura 3, la Figura 4, y la Figura 5, respectivamente.

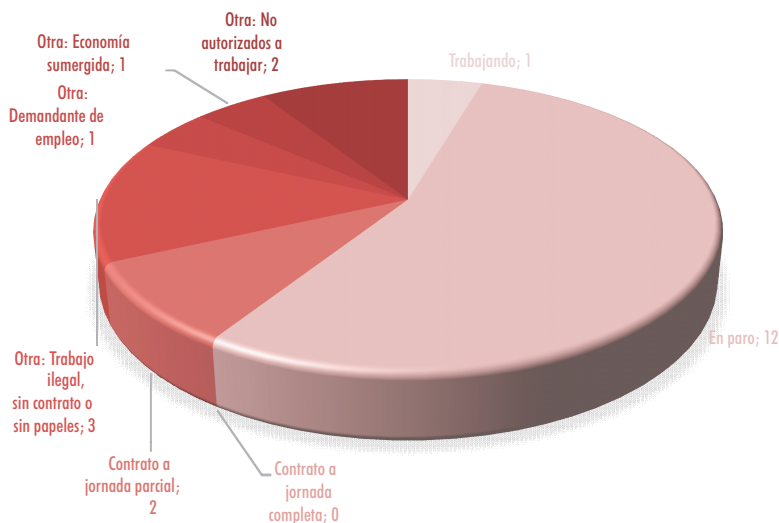


Figura 3. *Distribución de la situación laboral más habitual de los MR en España por cada institución de acogida*

Resulta interesante que, mayoritariamente, el perfil laboral de destino sea de inferior categoría y distinto del que se ejercía, en caso de que el migrante o refugiado haya conseguido un trabajo, lo cual no suele producirse. Generalmente (12 respuestas) están en paro, y nunca han estado empleados a jornada completa. Sólo dos instituciones reseñan la existencia de casos con trabajos a tiempo parcial. Hay un alto índice de respuestas que marcan la opción “Otro”, lo que implica que los que consiguen una ocupación lo hacen en trabajos eventuales (1), de forma ilegal (2), sin contrato o papeles (2), etc. En resumen, dado que estas personas no están autorizadas a trabajar durante los primeros 6 meses de solicitud de asilo, además de su nivel básico o nulo de español, nos encontramos con una clara tendencia a participar en la economía sumergida y con una alta precariedad laboral y económica para este colectivo.

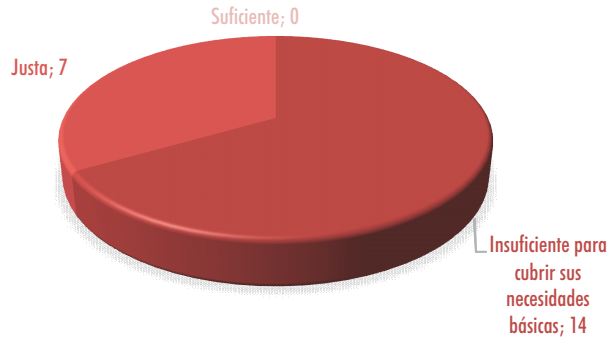


Figura 4. *Casuística de situaciones económicas más habituales de los MR, según su institución de acogida*

Como muestra la Figura 4, según las respuestas a la pregunta 6, sobre la situación económica de estas personas, casi todas las respuestas (14) indican que es habitual encontrar casos en los que los ingresos no son suficientes y que no llegan a cubrir sus necesidades básicas, además de las 7 respuestas que indican que su situación es la justa para sobrevivir. Sea como fuere, lo más reseñable es que, para las instituciones de acogida, o no existen casos o no son resaltables los casos de MR con ingresos suficientes. Probablemente sea esto lo que hace que vivan en su mayoría en centros de acogida o en alquiler compartido, y que casi nadie viva solo.

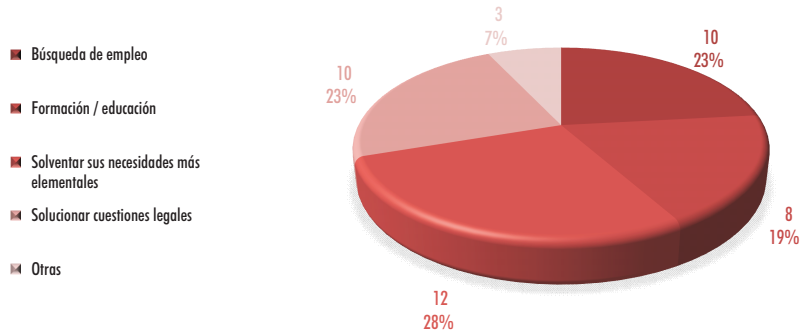


Figura 5. *Actividades a las que dedican su tiempo los MR, según su institución de acogida*

Como muestra la Figura 5, la pregunta: *¿cuáles son sus ocupaciones diarias?*, nos interesaba especialmente para poder diseñar un curso en el que los contenidos de aprendizaje fueran dirigidos a permitirles manejarse en las situaciones más frecuentes de su vida diaria en España. Las respuestas de los representantes de las asociaciones y ONG consultadas

indican que la distribución del tiempo entre el colectivo de MR que ellos acogen es la siguiente: un 80 % dedica parte de su tiempo a solventar necesidades elementales; un 67 % dedica algún tiempo a solucionar cuestiones legales, y otro 67 % de los MR intenta también buscar empleo en ese tiempo. Aunque hubo un 53 % de respuestas que indicaba que se dedicaban además a formarse, casualmente, es la opción que menos se seleccionó. Esto puede ser debido a que creen que, cuanto mayor tiempo dediquen a formarse, menor tiempo tendrán para encontrar un trabajo. Sin embargo, un curso de formación de español básico dirigido a cubrir sus necesidades inmediatas les ayudaría en su posterior búsqueda de empleo. Otras actividades que fueron marcadas de forma más subsidiaria fueron cuidar a las familias, cuestiones sanitarias, o trabajos esporádicos sin contrato.

4. Perfil tecnológico de los MR en España

4.1. Resultados de la encuesta

Como se indicaba más arriba (apartado 2.c), los datos que se presentan en este punto (gráficamente) han sido obtenidos a partir del Apartado III del formulario, referente al perfil tecnológico de los MR; más concretamente, aquí se detallan los resultados de las preguntas 16 a 20 (véase la Tabla 2⁵). Esta sección del formulario tenía por propósito determinar qué modalidades, metodologías y/o recursos docentes sería más adecuado usar en el desarrollo y despliegue de cursos de lengua específicos para este colectivo, contemplados en los objetivos del proyecto MOONLITE. Tanto el análisis como la discusión de estos resultados se incluyen en el apartado siguiente.

Número de pregunta	Pregunta	Respuestas posibles
16	¿De qué tecnología suelen disponer?	1. Ordenador de sobremesa 2. Portátil 3. Tablet 4. Teléfono móvil sin conexión a Internet 5. Smartphone
17	¿A qué periféricos tienen acceso que pudieran usar en un proceso formativo?	1. Impresora 2. Escáner 3. Fotocopiadora 4. Fax
18	¿Qué tipo de conexión a internet tienen?	1. Desde el móvil 2. Rápida y fiable desde casa 3. Rápida y fiable desde otros lugares de fácil acceso 4. No fiable / en algunos lugares 5. Ninguna
19	¿Qué uso suelen hacer de sus dispositivos tecnológicos?	1. Juegos 2. Email personal 3. Redes sociales 4. Educativo 5. Redes profesionales 6. Trabajo en línea Otro:
20	De las herramientas sociales que usan, indica las que son más populares:	1. Facebook 2. Twitter 3. WhatsApp 4. Telegram 5. Instagram 6. Snapchat Otro:

Tabla 2. Preguntas del cuestionario correspondientes al perfil tecnológico de los MR

En primer lugar, la Figura 6 y la Figura 7 (respectivamente) muestran las respuestas proporcionadas por los responsables de las asociaciones y ONG para las preguntas 16 (de qué tecnología suelen disponer) y 17 (a qué periféricos tienen acceso para su uso en un proceso formativo).

En segundo lugar, la Figura 8 y la Figura 9 presentan, respectivamente, las respuestas proporcionadas por los responsables de las instituciones presentes en la sesión informativa para las preguntas 18 (tipo de conexión a internet del que disponen los MR) y 19 (uso habitual de sus dispositivos tecnológicos).

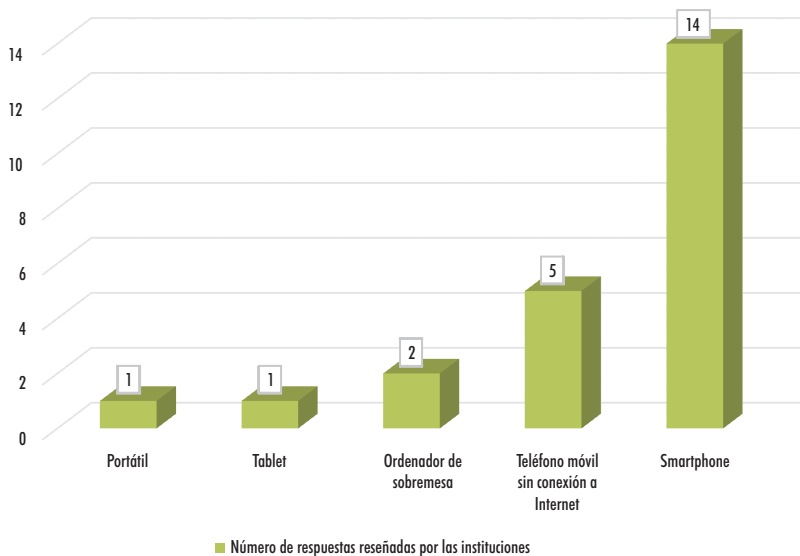


Figura 6. *Dispositivos tecnológicos de los que disponen los MR, según su institución de acogida*

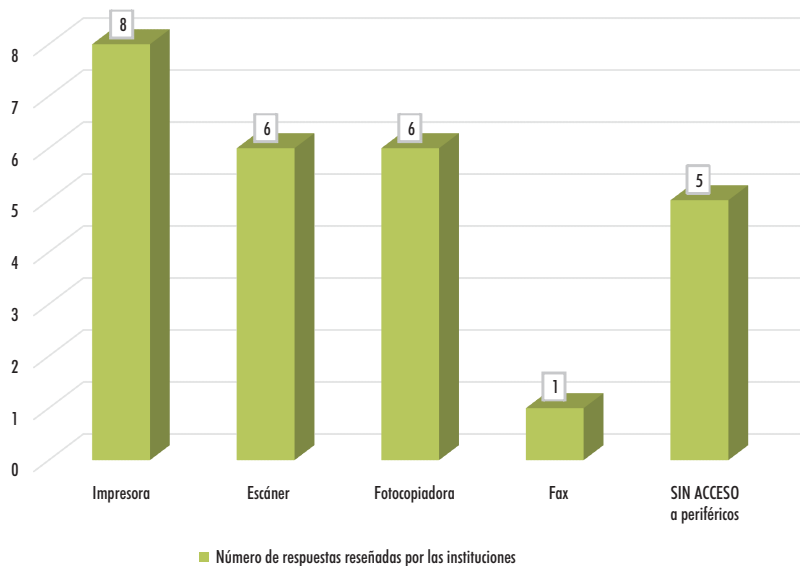


Figura 7. *Periféricos a los que tienen acceso los MR, según su institución de acogida*

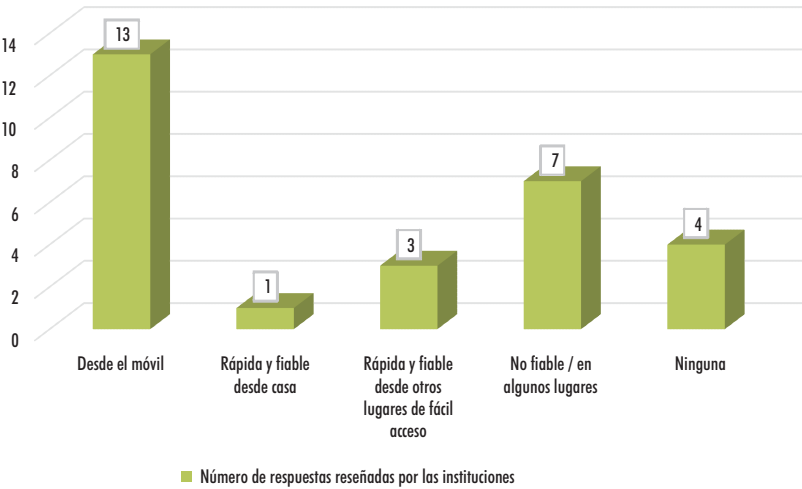


Figura 8. *Tipo de conexión a Internet del que disponen los MR, según su institución de acogida*

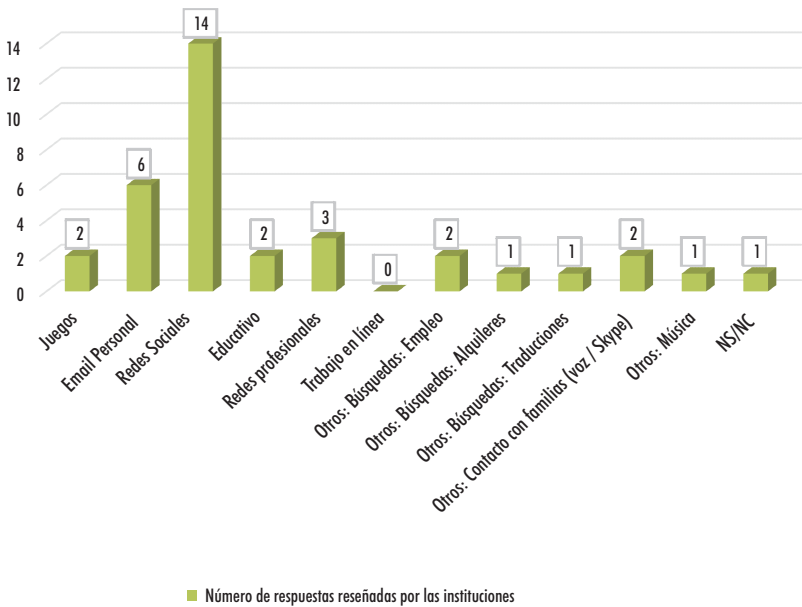


Figura 9. *Uso por parte de los MR de sus dispositivos tecnológicos, según su institución de acogida*

Finalmente, la Figura 10 muestra las respuestas proporcionadas por los responsables de las asociaciones y ONG a la pregunta 20 (herramientas sociales más populares entre el colectivo de MR).

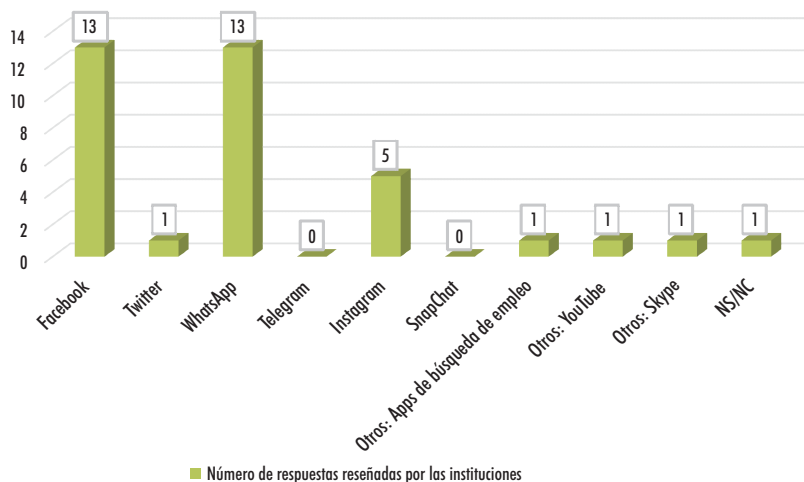


Figura 10. *Herramientas sociales más populares entre el colectivo de MR, según su institución de acogida*

4.2. Análisis y discusión de los resultados

Para empezar, los datos presentados en el apartado anterior nos indican que prácticamente la totalidad de los MR tiene un teléfono móvil y que hay un porcentaje mayoritario de uso de teléfonos móviles inteligentes (pregunta 16, véase la Figura 6), por lo que vimos que era imprescindible que los MOOC que habrían de desarrollarse fueran multiplataforma. Esto también llevó a pensar que, incluso, sería muy recomendable desarrollar una *app* móvil en el futuro (cf. Jordano de la Torre, Castrillo de Pareja Lora *et al.* 2013; Larreta-Azelain y Pareja Lora 2016).

En cuanto a los dispositivos periféricos que podrían utilizar para su formación (pregunta 17 del cuestionario, respuestas en la Figura 7), la mayoría podría acceder a una impresora, un escáner y una fotocopidora, y parecía recomendable descartar el fax. No obstante, no debía ignorarse que al menos un 33 % de instituciones reseñaron que los MR bajo su responsabilidad no tienen acceso a ninguno de estos dispositivos. Esto, unido al elevado coste del tóner y del papel, necesarios para el uso de impresoras y fotocopadoras, haría que sólo fuera aceptable el uso de los escáneres a los que pudieran tener acceso (disponibles en un 40 % de los casos consultados).

Respecto a la pregunta 18, tal y como se muestra en la Figura 8, su acceso a Internet es principalmente a través del teléfono móvil. En cuanto a la velocidad y la fiabilidad, las respuestas son variadas. Alrededor de la mitad de las instituciones considera que su conexión es rápida y fiable, pero el resto afirma que la conexión de la que hacen uso no es fiable y sólo lo es desde ciertos lugares.

En cuanto al uso, tal y como muestra la Figura 9, prácticamente la totalidad de las asociaciones y ONG (93,3 %) indican que los MR utilizan las redes sociales (principalmente Facebook y WhatsApp, tal y como se observa en la Figura 10, aunque alrededor de un tercio de ellos también utilizan Instagram), así como que la mayoría hace uso asimismo del correo electrónico. Este uso tan extendido de las redes sociales hace prácticamente insoslayable la integración de las mismas como un recurso formativo fundamental en el diseño de MOOC para MR.

Finalmente, las respuestas a la pregunta 20 (Figura 10) muestran que una inmensa mayoría de estas instituciones (86,67 %) han observado que los MR utilizan tanto Facebook –herramienta ya incorporada en varias experiencias previas en la enseñanza de lenguas, especialmente asociada al uso de MOOC (Beaven, Codreanu y Creuzé 2015)– como la aplicación WhatsApp (Castrillo, Martín Monje y Bárcena Madera 2015). El uso de esta última aplicación no resulta en absoluto sorprendente, pues se corresponde con una tendencia generalizada en nuestro país. Ahora bien, a diferencia de Facebook, y a pesar de su dilatado uso, son escasas las aproximaciones a la enseñanza de lenguas que recurren a esta aplicación como recurso formativo, salvo contadas excepciones (v.g., la ya mencionada Castrillo *et al.* 2015). Por tanto, se consideró que sería muy positivo integrar WhatsApp como recurso formativo en los MOOC que habrían de crearse a posteriori, pues sería algo muy novedoso en este campo. No obstante, previamente habría que estudiar las opciones y posibilidades al respecto; alternativamente, y como segunda opción, podría considerarse la incorporación de Facebook dentro de la metodología docente, bien como recurso sustitutivo o adicional.

5. Perfil académico de los MR en España

5.1. Resultados de la encuesta

Este apartado describe gráficamente los resultados de las preguntas 21 y 22 del cuestionario (incluidas en su Apartado III para una distribución más equitativa del espacio), así como las propias de las preguntas 23 a 31, incluidas en el Apartado IV del mismo, llamado “FORMACIÓN ACADÉMICA DE LAS PERSONAS DESPLAZADAS”. Todas estas preguntas (reproducidas en la Tabla 3 a partir de Ibáñez Moreno y Pareja-Lora, este volumen, por legibilidad) hacían referencia, de una u otra manera, a la educación y el aprendizaje adquiridos por los MR a lo largo de sus vidas, información crucial para determinar el nivel comunicativo transversal de partida a la hora de desarrollar cualquier tipo de material educativo en el campo de las lenguas para este colectivo. Estos resultados se analizan y discuten no aquí, sino en el apartado siguiente.

Número de pregunta	Pregunta	Respuestas posibles
21	¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura de aprendizaje y la española?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
22	¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura digital y la española?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
23	¿Son los migrantes y refugiados un grupo homogéneo en cuanto a su educación o formación?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
24	En caso negativo, ¿qué tipos de personas desplazadas cabe distinguir según su formación y cuáles son más/menos comunes en España? (marcar las respuestas de 1 – 6, donde 1 = más numeroso y 6 = menos numeroso)	1. Analfabetos 2. Estudios de primaria 3. Estudios de secundaria 4. Formación profesional 5. Estudios universitarios 6. Estudios de posgrado
25	¿En qué área de conocimiento están formados?	1. Humanidades/ Ciencias Sociales 2. Ciencias 3. Tecnología 4. Trabajos mecánicos (fontanería, etc.) 5. Trabajos artesanales (cerámica, etc.) Otro:
26	En general, ¿qué tipo de educación en lenguas han recibido?	1. En el colegio o universidad 2. En una escuela de idiomas o academia 3. En cursos gratuitos en asociaciones o de fomento de empleo 4. De manera informal por su cuenta
27	¿Son los migrantes y refugiados un grupo homogéneo en cuanto a sus necesidades formativas?	1. Sí 2. No Detalles:
28	¿Qué tipo de formación requieren las personas desplazadas que están en España?	1. Ninguna 2. Práctica, para desenvolverse en la sociedad de acogida a nivel básico 3. Práctica, que les ayude a conseguir un empleo 4. Formal, para obtener una certificación útil que les permita acceder al nuevo mercado laboral 5. Reconocimiento oficial de sus titulaciones (para ejercer su profesión) 6. Actualización, adaptación o especialización de sus conocimientos 7. Lingüística (español, inglés, etc.)

Tabla 3: Preguntas del cuestionario correspondientes al perfil académico de los MR (Continúa...)

Número de pregunta	Pregunta	Respuestas posibles
29	¿Sobre qué temas desean formarse prioritariamente?	[Campo de texto libre]
30a	¿Crees que tienen otras necesidades específicas en su proceso de formación?	1. Asesoramiento personalizado previo 2. Plan de acogida 3. Grupos de estudio (trabajo colaborativo con otros estudiantes) 4. Aprendizaje práctico 5. Espacios para el estudio (bibliotecas) 6. Flexibilidad en los cronogramas 7. Apoyo y <i>feedback</i> continuo del profesor 8. Trabajo estructurado en sesiones cortas y frecuentes o largas y esporádicas
30b	¿Existe algún tabú o aspecto cultural reseñable en cuanto a su actitud hacia la educación y la suya propia?	[Campo de texto libre]
31	¿Qué valoración harías de la oferta de acciones formativas disponibles para refugiados y migrantes a día de hoy en España desde el punto de vista de la calidad y la adecuación?	[Campo de texto libre]

Tabla 3. Preguntas del cuestionario correspondientes al perfil académico de los MR

En primer lugar, se resumen los resultados obtenidos para las preguntas 21 y 22, sobre si los responsables de las instituciones de acogida y apoyo a MR observan alguna diferencia reseñable, respectivamente, (a) entre su cultura de aprendizaje y la española (véase la Figura 11); y (b) entre su cultura digital y la española (véase la Figura 12). Los detalles adicionales añadidos en sus respuestas por los participantes en la encuesta (en modo texto) se muestran en la Tabla 4.

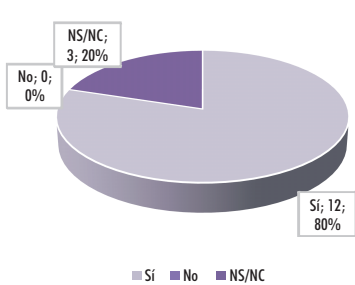


Figura 11. Respuesta de las instituciones de acogida a la pregunta 21. ¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura de aprendizaje y la española?

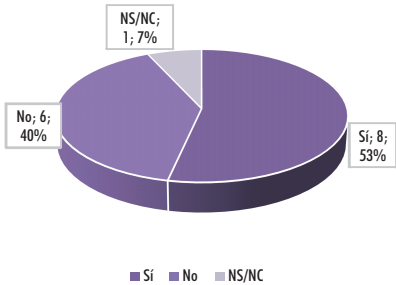


Figura 12. Respuesta de las instituciones de acogida a la pregunta 22. ¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura digital y la española?

RESPUESTAS COMPLEMENTARIAS DE 21: ¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura de aprendizaje y la española?	RESPUESTAS COMPLEMENTARIAS DE 22: ¿Se muestran proactivos en buscar soluciones a esta situación?
Hay un contraste cultural importante según cada caso.	-----
La diferencia suele ser principalmente con mujeres y niños, cuando en sus países de origen no tienen derecho de acceso a la educación. En algunos países de África, o en campos de refugiados, no tienen acceso a formación reglada.	Las dificultades de acceso a Internet en sus países de origen.
Depende también del acceso a educación que hayan recibido en su país. Muchas personas (especialmente mujeres de áreas rurales) no han tenido acceso a educación básica. Ciertos países tienen una cultura educativa algo más rígida.	Sí, sobre todo a la hora de hacer gestiones y trámites en España está todo muy informatizado y la mayoría no han practicado en sus países de origen la tramitación o gestión <i>online</i> .
Algunos no han accedido en sus países de origen a procesos de formación primarios – analfabetos de origen.	Depende de la edad.
Detalles metodológicos.	Las personas procedentes de África están escasamente alfabetizadas digitalmente.
Obligatoriedad de la enseñanza.	No han tenido acceso a ningún tipo de tecnología en sus países de origen.
Esta respuesta varía en función del país de origen.	Dependiendo de la zona de origen pueden ser personas que nunca han tenido acceso a un ordenador.
En Oriente Medio, por ejemplo, tienen una tradición de aprendizaje tradicional con ejercicios estructuralistas y basado en la memorización por repetición.	-----
Sobre todo, las mujeres marroquíes, ya que en su país culturalmente la mujer no realiza estudios medios o superiores.	No suelen estar acostumbrados a usar los medios digitales como lo hacemos en Europa.
La mayoría de los jóvenes, adolescentes y niños llevan más de seis años sin acceso a la educación reglada.	-----
En sus tradiciones de aprendizaje suele tener más peso la oralidad. Su estilo de aprendizaje suele ser más auditivo– kinestésico y visual que visual– lector (aunque estén alfabetizados y tengan un nivel de formación medio).	Creo que las diferencias vienen pautadas por el nivel de formación, no por el origen geográfico.

Tabla 4. Respuestas complementarias (con contenido) a las preguntas 21 y 22 del cuestionario

En segundo lugar, las respuestas a la pregunta 23 (acerca de la homogeneidad del colectivo de migrantes y refugiados en cuanto a su educación o formación) se resumen en la Figura 13 y en la Tabla 5.

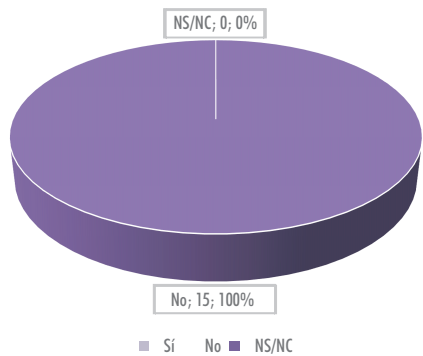


Figura 13. Homogeneidad en su educación o formación dentro del colectivo de MR (Pregunta 23), según su institución de acogida

En tercer lugar, las respuestas a la pregunta 24 (acerca de la frecuencia relativa de cada perfil educativo dentro de cada institución) se incluyen en la Figura 14.

RESPUESTAS COMPLEMENTARIAS a la PREGUNTA 23 del CUESTIONARIO: ¿Son los migrantes y refugiados un grupo homogéneo en cuanto a su educación o formación?	
Varía en función de: la edad, el lugar de procedencia, el nivel socioeconómico de partida, la cultura y los intereses personales.	
En contextos de inmigración económica las aulas son más homogéneas, pero el aula de refugiados es extremadamente heterogénea.	
Ejemplos:	
	Hay niños y otras situaciones de analfabetismo que deberían cursar educación primaria.
	Tras la crisis de refugiados y refugiadas sirios, un alto porcentaje son familias de clase media-alta, con titulaciones universitarias; pero las migraciones procedentes del norte de África tienen una situación completamente diferente.
	Hay incluso personas con un doctorado.
	Hay mucha diferencia entre marroquíes y latinoamericanos.

Tabla 5. Resumen de las respuestas detalladas a la pregunta 23 del cuestionario

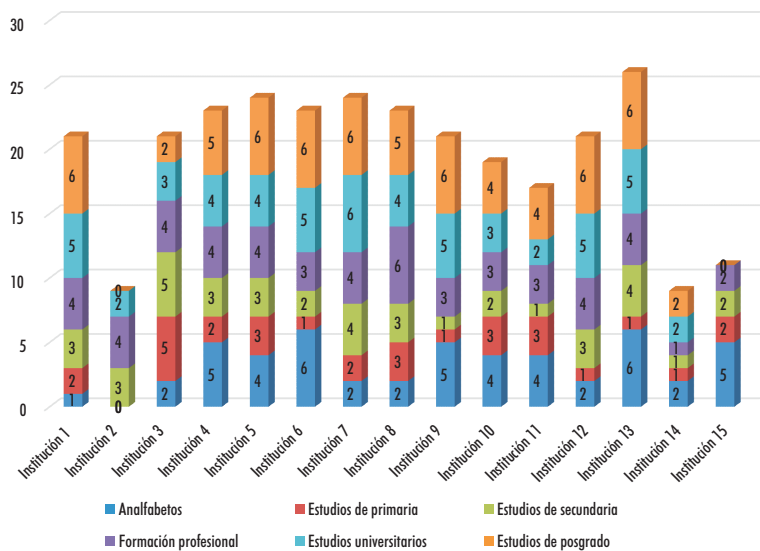


Figura 14. Datos brutos acerca de la presencia de los distintos perfiles educativos de los MR en cada institución

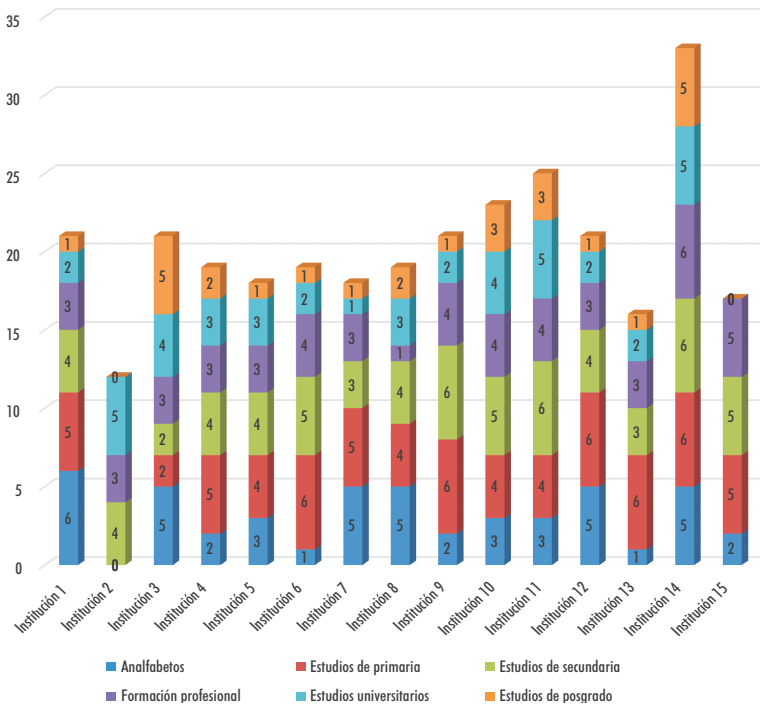


Figura 15. Datos invertidos de la presencia de los distintos perfiles educativos de los MR en cada institución

Desgraciadamente, los datos en bruto obtenidos a través de la encuesta, que son los que se muestran en la Figura 14, no permiten obtener una idea realista del nivel educativo mayoritario entre los MR de nuestro país. En efecto, el rango de valores (de 1 a 6) se asignaba en orden creciente según frecuencias decrecientes, es decir, al perfil más frecuente se le asignaba el valor 1, lo cual hace que las representaciones gráficas den más peso a los perfiles menos frecuentes (con un valor cercano a 6, el más alto de la escala). Por ello, sobre estos resultados en bruto se ha realizado una transformación de acuerdo con la fórmula siguiente:

$$valor'_{ij} = 7 - valor_{ij}$$

donde $i \in \{1, \dots, 15\}$ (el rango de índices de las instituciones que contestaron la encuesta) y $j \in \{\text{"Analfabetos"}, \text{"Estudios de primaria"}, \text{"Estudios de secundaria"}, \text{"Formación profesional"}, \text{"Estudios universitarios"}, \text{"Estudios de posgrado"}\}$. Esta transformación invierte el convenio de elección, para asignar valores más altos en función de una frecuencia de aparición de ese perfil en la institución en cuestión. De esta forma, se consigue que el peso real de cada perfil educativo en cada institución se aprecie mejor en las gráficas. Los datos obtenidos mediante esta transformación se presentan en la Figura 15.

No obstante, la mejor forma de observar el peso de cada tipo de perfil educativo en cada institución es mostrarlo en términos relativos a la frecuencia del resto de perfiles educativos de dicha institución. Esta representación (porcentual) de los datos relativos a la pregunta 24 se ha incluido en la Figura 16.

En cuarto lugar, la Figura 17 y la Figura 18 incluyen, respectivamente, los resultados de las respuestas a las preguntas 25 (área de conocimiento en la que están formados) y 26 (tipo de educación en lenguas recibida).

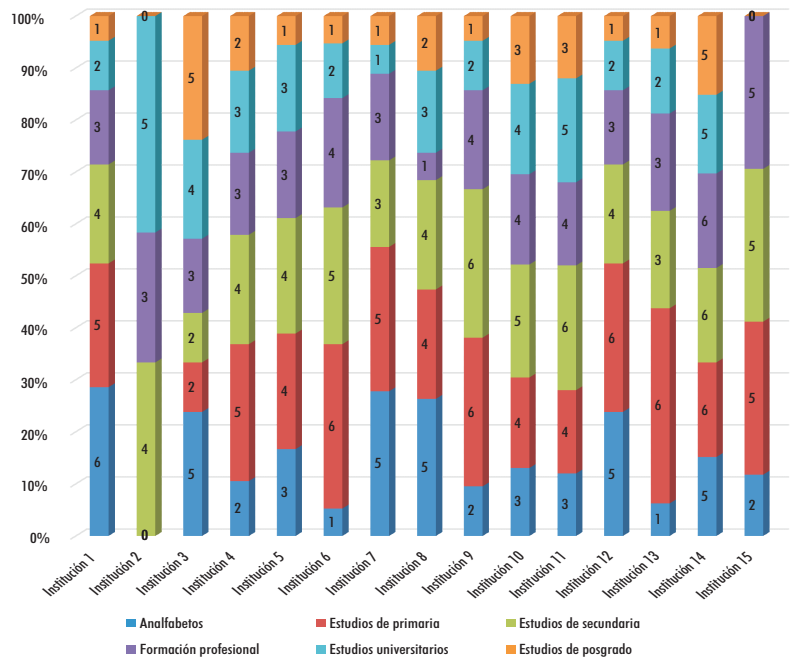


Figura 16. Datos porcentuales de la presencia de los distintos perfiles educativos de los MR en cada institución

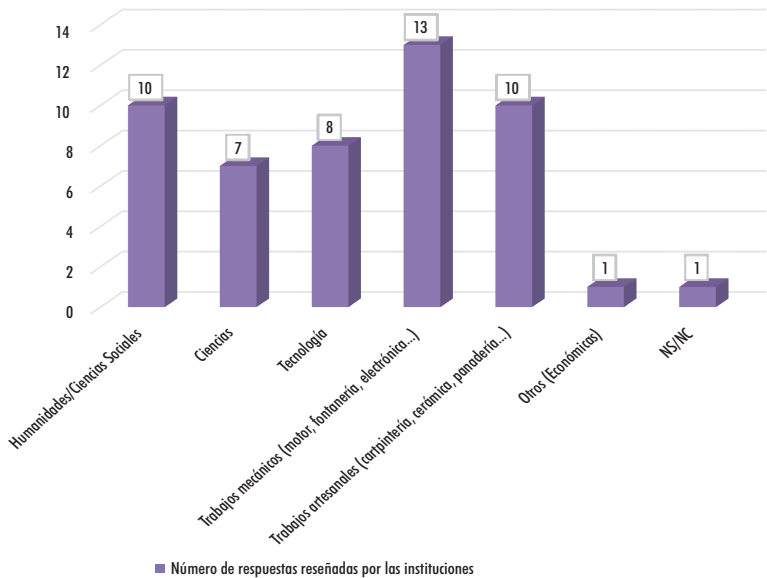


Figura 17. Áreas de conocimiento en las que está formado el colectivo de MR, según su institución de acogida

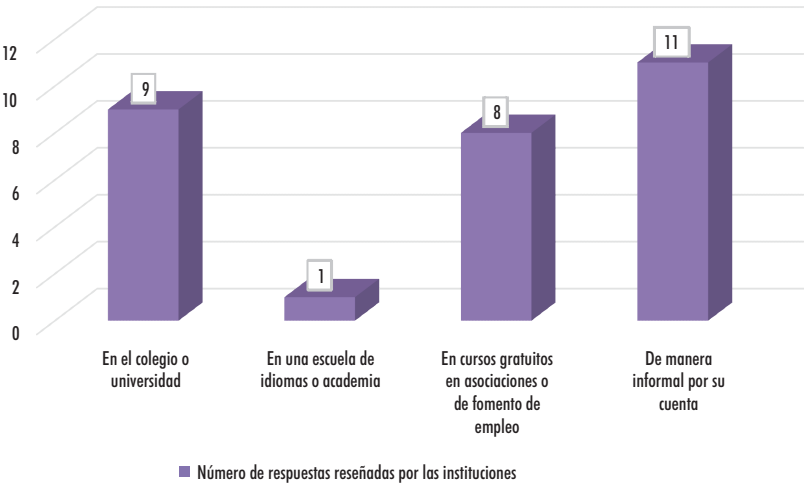


Figura 18. *Tipo de educación en lenguas recibido por los MR, según su institución de acogida*

En quinto lugar, las respuestas a la pregunta 27 (acerca de si el colectivo de MR es o no homogéneo en cuanto a sus necesidades formativas) se resumen en la Figura 19 y en la Tabla 6.

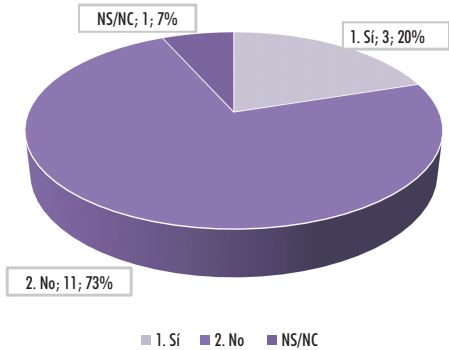


Figura 19. *Homogeneidad en las necesidades formativas (Pregunta 27) dentro del colectivo de MR, según su institución de acogida*

RESPUESTAS COMPLEMENTARIAS a la PREGUNTA 27 del CUESTIONARIO: ¿Son los migrantes y refugiados un grupo homogéneo en cuanto a sus necesidades formativas?
Depende de cada caso y cómo se trabaje el objetivo profesional; también de su procedencia y de su sustrato social.
Requieren aprender el idioma del lugar donde se encuentran (el español, en este caso) [incluido en 4 respuestas detalladas].
Algunos, además, necesitarán apoyo para trabajar, para el reciclaje profesional, para iniciar estudios a los que no tuvieron acceso en su país de origen, etc.
Los latinoamericanos [...] necesitan formación de grado medios/superior.

Tabla 6. *Resumen de las respuestas detalladas a la pregunta 27 del cuestionario*

En sexto y último lugar, por un lado, la Figura 20, la Tabla 7 y la Figura 21 resumen, respectivamente, las respuestas a la pregunta 28 (tipo de formación requerida por los MR acogidos en España), 29 (temas sobre los que desean formarse prioritariamente) y 30.a (detalle de otras posibles necesidades específicas en su proceso de formación). Por otro lado, la Tabla 8 y la Tabla 9 incluyen, en este orden, las respuestas (en texto libre) a las preguntas 30b (*¿Existe algún tabú o aspecto cultural reseñable en cuanto a su actitud hacia la educación y la suya propia?*) y 31 (*¿Qué valoración harías de la oferta de acciones formativas disponibles para refugiados y migrantes a día de hoy en España desde el punto de vista de la calidad y la adecuación?*).

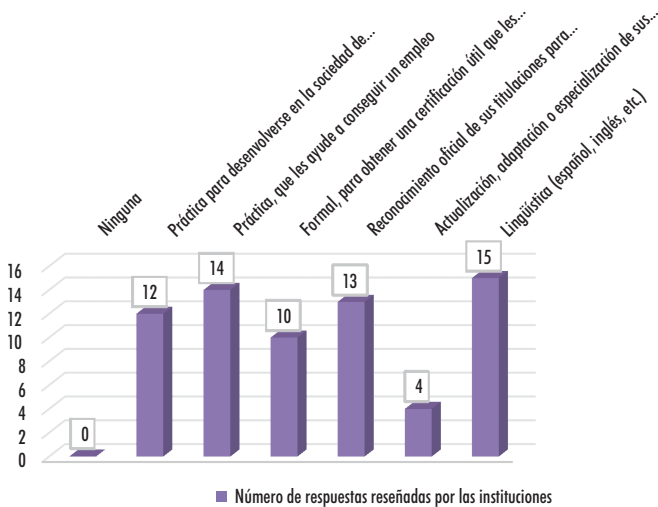


Figura 20 *Tipo de formación requerida por los MR acogidos en España, según su institución de acogida*

RESPUESTAS a la PREGUNTA 29 del CUESTIONARIO : ¿Sobre qué temas desean formarse prioritariamente los MR?		NÚMERO de OCURRENCIAS
Lingüística/lenguas		6
	Nombrando explícitamente el español (lengua del país de acogida)	2
Formación práctica/ocupacional que les ayude a conseguir un empleo.		4
	Campos profesionales: • restauración/hostelería; • cuidados personales. Ejemplos de profesiones: panadería, manipulación de alimentos (incluso cortar jamón, ¡a pesar de su prohibición de alimentarse con cerdo!)	2
Tecnologías de la Información y comunicaciones (TIC)		1
Permiso de conducir – obtención o convalidación		1
Graduado escolar/ESO		1
NS/NC: 3 respuestas.		5

Tabla 7. Respuestas a la pregunta 29 del cuestionario

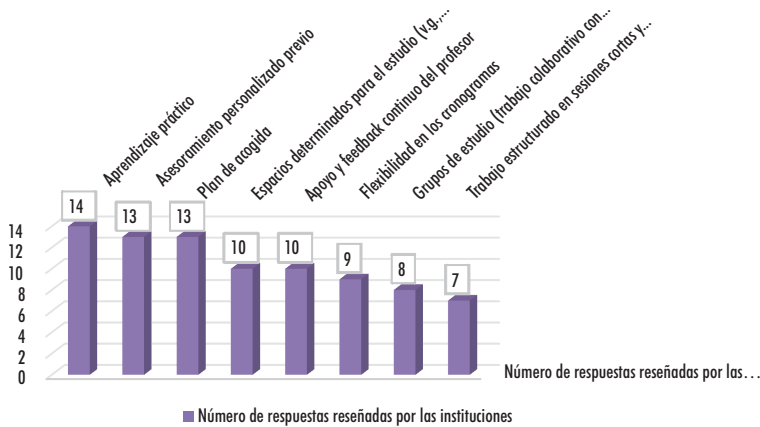


Figura 21. Otras posibles necesidades específicas en el proceso de formación de los MR acogidos en España, según su institución de acogida

RESPUESTAS a la PREGUNTA 30b del CUESTIONARIO ¿Existe algún tabú o aspecto cultural reseñable en cuanto a su actitud hacia la educación y la suya propia?
No (aparece en 5 respuestas).
El género y/o la diferencia entre hombre y mujer (aparece en 4 respuestas).
Todo lo que choca con su religión (aparece en 2 respuestas).
NS/NC (2 respuestas).
Pérdida de estatus (reseñado sólo en 1 respuesta).
No es posible unificar la respuesta ya que en función del país de procedencia pueden existir aspectos culturales relacionados con la educación o no. Casuística específica: • Las mujeres afganas que en su país tienen prohibido el acceso a la educación. • Las mujeres marroquíes tienen muchas barreras por su cultura para acceder a la educación en general. • Habitual en personas procedentes del Norte de África. • Los hombres venezolanos (por ejemplo) habitualmente cuentan con estudios universitarios o técnicos.

Tabla 8. Resumen de las respuestas obtenidas para la pregunta 30b del cuestionario

RESPUESTAS a la PREGUNTA 31 del CUESTIONARIO: ¿Qué valoración harías de la oferta de acciones formativas disponibles para refugiados y migrantes a día de hoy en España desde el punto de vista de la calidad y la adecuación?
Muy adecuada.

Muchos no tienen acceso a casi ninguna formación, por no tener documentación que les permita acceder [a ella], por no tener permiso de residencia o de trabajo, por desconocer la posibilidad que tienen, etc. El principal apoyo formativo lo realizan las ONG.
Considero que puede haber ofertas interesantes, pero no se promocionan lo suficiente y, por tanto, no llegan bien al público al que se ofrecen.
Mala, con difícil acceso a solicitantes de asilo; recursos públicos masificados, con baremos cuantitativos.
Cuando hay formación para colectivos vulnerables, los que están en España en calidad de refugiados están excluidos y no pueden participar.
Es numerosa, poco conocida y para las certificaciones profesionales hay exigencia de "legalidad documental" (largos y costoso)
Es escasa y no es gratuita.
Escasa
Existen dificultades de acceso a acciones formativas oficiales (por ejemplo, certificados de profesionalidad) ya que existen una serie de requisitos previos como el nivel de estudios homologados con los que ellos no cuentan.
Muy mala, están diseñadas para lanzarles al mundo laboral precariamente sin tener en cuenta sus perfiles.
No está bien adaptada a sus circunstancias y características.
Siendo Grecia nuestra referencia, no hay valoración posible, ya que es prácticamente inexistente.
Muy regulares, debido a la escasa o nula remuneración de los profesionales del sector. Se apoyan demasiado en el voluntariado.
Que es insuficiente, no sólo por el acceso a ella, sino también por la falta de información, así como de contenidos adaptados al perfil de la persona a la que están dirigidos.
A esto se le suma las carencias en otros aspectos psicológicos, sociales y de servicios.

Tabla 9. Respuestas obtenidas para la pregunta 31 del cuestionario

5.2. Análisis y discusión de resultados

Respecto a las respuestas a la pregunta 21 del cuestionario: *¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura de aprendizaje y la española?*, el 100 % de las instituciones encuestadas manifiesta que hay diferencias significativas dependiendo del país de procedencia. La mayoría alude a cuestiones relacionadas con el hecho de ser mujer o niña, dado que en sus países de origen no tienen derecho de acceso a la educación. Otro aspecto interesante está relacionado con la metodología ya que, por ejemplo, en Oriente Medio se cuenta con una metodología tradicional basada en la repetición y la memorización, además de que en muchos de esos países el trabajo oral predomina frente al escrito y su modalidad de aprendizaje tiende a ser más audio-kinestésica. Se observa, asimismo, que hay diferencias notables entre su cultura de aprendizaje y la española, principalmente en las niñas y mujeres, por la misma razón aludida más arriba. Un ejemplo de ello es la cultura afgana, donde, como se señala en una de las respuestas de los encuestados en la pregunta 30b, no tienen acceso alguno a la educación. Esto fue subrayado por varios encuestados, y se ha tenido muy en cuenta a la hora de diseñar el/los MOOC *Puertas Abiertas* (véase el párrafo siguiente). En muchos de esos países de origen no existe la educación obligatoria, lo que implica que, sobre todo en el caso de las mujeres, haya una clara desventaja, no sólo a nivel tecnológico sino también académico.

Todos estos datos indican la gran conveniencia de elaborar las lecciones y recursos educativos de los cursos de lenguas para nuestros MR con un alto componente audiovisual. Más tarde se decidiría que todos ellos estuvieran provistos de vídeos de escenas típicas de la vida cotidiana que, además, dada su gran variedad de lenguas nativas y su bajo nivel de español, estarían subtitrulados en varios idiomas. También se tendría en cuenta la diferencia cultural y educativa, especialmente en mujeres y niñas, a la hora de diseñar los MOOC *Puertas Abiertas*. Así, entre otras cosas, en el diseño no sólo se usaron materiales con gran apoyo audiovisual, sino que se usaron numerosos vídeos didácticos inclusivos, en los que aparecían todo tipo de personas de diferente origen, género, edad, y educación en escenas de la vida cotidiana, mostrando de esta manera el respeto y la atención a la diversidad que se habían juzgado tan necesarios.

En cuanto a su cultura digital, a la que se refiere la pregunta 22 del cuestionario (*¿Hay alguna diferencia reseñable entre su cultura digital y la española?*), el 57,1 % manifiesta diferencias reseñables, relacionadas principalmente con dos factores: (1) falta de alfabetización digital, y (2) falta de acceso a Internet. No obstante, las respuestas son variadas. Un poco más de la mitad de los encuestados piensa que hay diferencias, pero el resto no cree que haya diferencias notables. Las diferencias men-

cionadas se centran principalmente en los procedimientos burocráticos que se han digitalizado en España, pero uno de los encuestados señala que las diferencias tienen que ver más con su formación que con su origen geográfico.

En resumen, son grupos muy heterogéneos, tanto desde el punto de vista educativo como del cultural, yendo desde el nivel del analfabetismo hasta el de la enseñanza superior, incluyendo postgraduados. Además, pertenecen a diferentes grupos y clases sociales. Se menciona en las respuestas que muchos refugiados sirios proceden de comunidades sociales de nivel medio-alto y que tenían una exitosa carrera profesional en su país, frente a los migrantes, que en la mayoría de los casos vienen a mejorar su situación económica. Entre inmigrantes hay también grandes diferencias, mencionan, entre africanos y latinoamericanos. Hay una gran variedad de niveles educativos, existiendo tantas personas analfabetas como personas que terminaron la educación primaria o que terminaron sus estudios de nivel de secundaria o universitarios. Los menos frecuentes son los que tienen estudios de postgrado.

No obstante, la cantidad de personas que tiene alguna formación técnica en áreas profesionales es ligeramente superior. Por tanto, hay una ligera mayoría de miembros del colectivo que se han formado en trabajos mecánicos, seguidos de los artesanales y, con menor frecuencia, en el ámbito de las humanidades. Las especializaciones menos comunes son las ciencias y la tecnología, pero las diferencias no son grandes.

En cuanto a las lenguas, la mayor parte de ellos saben algo de inglés, porque lo aprendieron en el colegio o porque lo aprendieron informalmente. Casi ninguno de ellos había seguido cursos de idiomas hasta llegar a España, donde, una vez llegados, alrededor de un 50 % ha seguido algún curso gratuito.

Debido a tal diversidad de antecedentes, los encuestados (alrededor del 80 % de las respuestas) dicen de ellos que los MR necesitan oportunidades de educación heterogénea y de alta calidad. Sin embargo, cuando se les pide que especifiquen estas oportunidades y necesidades, la mayoría de los encuestados afirma que, para empezar, necesitan aprender español y, luego, seguir cursos personalizados y especializados. Muchos de los encuestados coinciden en pensar que necesitan una formación específica para poder encontrar un trabajo y para poder integrarse en la sociedad lo antes posible. Además, muchos de ellos creen que necesitan asistencia sobre cómo homologar los diplomas obtenidos en sus países de origen.

En definitiva, a la vista de las respuestas dadas por los encuestados, los MR en España necesitan, sobre todo, cursos orientados a la práctica, de integración, de lenguas (español primeramente y también en un segundo lugar inglés) y, eventualmente, de formación profesional.

Para concluir, en cuanto a las posibles barreras culturales que puedan existir para su acceso a la educación (pregunta 30 del cuestionario), se observa que, en algunos casos (pero no en todos), el género es relevante (por ejemplo, en Marruecos o Afganistán), debido sobre todo a creencias religiosas. En cuanto a su impresión acerca de la actual oferta educativa en España para estas personas (pregunta 31), la mayoría de las instituciones consultadas declaran que no es suficiente porque, a pesar de que hay una gran cantidad de iniciativas, la burocracia es un gran impedimento. De hecho, los inmigrantes irregulares ni siquiera pueden acceder a esta oferta, y lo mismo ocurre con los refugiados; incluso se hace notar que la oferta educativa ni siquiera se promueve suficientemente para los inmigrantes regularizados, por lo que es difícil que esta información les alcance.

6. Conclusiones

En este artículo se han presentado los resultados de un estudio acerca de los perfiles profesional, tecnológico y académico de las personas de los migrantes y refugiados (MR) en nuestro país, con el fin de elaborar MOOC de enseñanza de español convenientemente adaptados a las posibilidades, necesidades y expectativas de este colectivo. Estos perfiles han sido determinados a través de los datos recopilados mediante una encuesta desarrollada ad hoc por los miembros del grupo de investigación ATLAS de la UNED que han participado en el proyecto europeo MOONLITE, financiado con fondos Erasmus+.

Por un lado, con respecto al perfil tecnológico de los MR, las conclusiones más destacables serían las siguientes. Dado el acceso y uso de dispositivos electrónicos que muestran las respuestas correspondientes del cuestionario, parece evidente que la modalidad de enseñanza de lenguas mediante MOOC encajaría perfectamente en sus posibilidades y necesidades. Ahora bien, las respuestas analizadas también indican que estos MOOC deberían ser multiplataforma pues, aunque la gran mayoría de MR accede a Internet a través del móvil, también hay un número no despreciable de ellos que lo hace desde ordenadores de sobremesa, portátiles y/o tabletas. Por otra parte, parece recomendable que los diseños de los MOOC se basen en recursos sencillos y que no consuman mucho ancho de banda, dado que casi la mitad de los encuestados manifiesta no disponer de una conexión estable a Internet. Asimismo, el uso prácticamente unánime de las redes sociales (93 % de respuestas positivas al respecto) hace que sea absolutamente necesaria la integración de las mismas como un recurso formativo fundamental en el diseño de MOOC de enseñanza de lenguas para MR. En este sentido, se conside-

ra una prioridad la incorporación de la dimensión social, mediante este tipo de recursos (preferentemente WhatsApp o Facebook), a la metodología docente asociada al uso de este tipo de MOOC. Además, y dado el extendido uso de teléfonos móviles entre esta comunidad, no debería descartarse el diseño y desarrollo de *apps* móviles en el futuro, con el mismo propósito, supuestos y propiedades indicados para los MOOC.

Por otro lado, en cuanto a las principales conclusiones en relación con los perfiles profesional y académico de los migrantes y refugiados residentes en España, puede afirmarse sin lugar a dudas que es una comunidad sumamente heterogénea en estos aspectos, pues abarca desde el nivel del analfabetismo hasta el de la enseñanza superior, incluyendo postgraduados. Se aprecia también una gran diferencia en el nivel educativo de los refugiados (medio-alto) frente al de los migrantes (bajo y medio-bajo). Asimismo, todos los datos recogidos mediante la encuesta parecen indicar que lo audiovisual y, por tanto, los vídeos educativos, deberían ser un recurso crucial en cualquier curso de lenguas dirigido a este colectivo, lo cual se adapta a la perfección al mundo de los MOOC por definición, y confirmaría su validez, aplicabilidad y adecuación en este contexto. Esto sería aún más cierto si, atendiendo al resto de respuestas a la encuesta, estos vídeos se centraran en escenas típicas de la vida cotidiana (por ejemplo, cómo encontrar y conseguir un trabajo) y fueran subtítulos en varios de los idiomas nativos de este colectivo, dado su bajo dominio de nuestra lengua. En este aspecto, las asociaciones y ONG participantes en la encuesta señalaron que nuestra lengua (i.e., la lengua del país de acogida) es la que necesitan aprender los MR prioritariamente. También debería tenerse en cuenta la diferencia cultural y educativa, especialmente en mujeres y niñas, a la hora de diseñar cualquier tipo de material educativo para los mismos, por el alto grado de asimetría que se observa en su educación (según el género) en gran parte de sus países de origen.

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<http://moonliteproject.eu>) y *NEXUS (Promoting the NEXUS of migrants through active citizenship*; Programa Erasmus+, Unión Europea, n.º ref.: 2019-1-ES01-KA203-065861, <https://nexus4civics.eu>)

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Notas

- ¹ En lo que sigue, se ha adoptado la terminología recogida en ACNUR (2007), CEAR (2016), IOM (2011) y Maley (2016) para el colectivo de MR.
- ² Financiado con fondos del programa europeo Erasmus+. Para más información acerca del proyecto, consúltase su página web oficial, <https://moonliteproject.eu/>, y también Ibáñez Moreno y Pareja-Lora (este volumen).
- ³ Finalmente denominados Puertas Abiertas I e II, y disponibles en IEDRA, el servidor de MOOC de la UNED. Puede verse un ejemplo de los mismos en la URL: https://iedra.uned.es/courses/course-v1:UNED+MOONLITE_I_002+2020_T1/about.
- ⁴ Disponible en <https://goo.gl/forms/0TkinN8ilWIAWbTN2>.
- ⁵ Tomada de Ibáñez Moreno y Pareja-Lora (este volumen), y copiada aquí por razones de legibilidad.

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The role of higher education institutions and support entities in creating open technological solutions for language learning by refugees and migrants

Jorge Arús Hita y Laura Caballero Bermejo

This chapter discusses the ways in which support entities and higher education institutions can collaborate in order to help refugees become integrated into the host society, notably Spanish society. While support entities play a crucial role at the early stages by providing refugees with aid addressing some of their most basic needs, these early interventions often serve as a springboard for the later access of refugees to higher education. While there are abundant volunteering efforts, mostly revolving around the work done by support entities, the aid coming from institutional agents is far from sufficient. This should not be put down to a lack of compromise from such institutions but rather to the difficulties involved in setting the bureaucratic machinery in motion. On the other hand, an example of how research groups at universities can help refugees and migrants is that of the MOOCS created in the context of the MOONLITE project, which have obtained official recognition by the UNED. In this way, before actually obtaining access to tertiary degrees, refugees can reap benefits from their efforts to learn the language by receiving an official certification for the MOOCS completed.

Keywords: Higher education institutions, support entities, MOOC, language learning.

El rol de las instituciones de educación superior y de las entidades de apoyo en la creación de soluciones tecnológicas abiertas para el aprendizaje de lenguas para refugiados y migrantes. En este capítulo se analizan las formas en que las entidades de apoyo y las instituciones de educación superior pueden colaborar para ayudar a los refugiados a integrarse en la sociedad de acogida, especialmente en la española. Mientras que las entidades de apoyo desempeñan un papel crucial en

las primeras etapas, proporcionando a los refugiados ayuda para cubrir algunas de sus necesidades más básicas, estas primeras intervenciones suelen servir de trampolín para el posterior acceso de los refugiados a la educación superior. Si bien existen abundantes esfuerzos de voluntariado, que en su mayoría giran en torno a la labor realizada por las entidades de apoyo, la ayuda procedente de los agentes institucionales dista mucho de ser suficiente. Esto no debe achacarse a la falta de compromiso de dichas instituciones, sino a las dificultades que supone poner en marcha la maquinaria burocrática. Por otro lado, un ejemplo de cómo los grupos de investigación de las universidades pueden ayudar a los refugiados y migrantes es el de los MOOCS creados en el marco del proyecto MOONLITE, que han obtenido el reconocimiento oficial de la UNED. De este modo, antes de acceder a las titulaciones terciarias, los refugiados pueden obtener beneficios de sus esfuerzos por aprender el idioma al recibir una certificación oficial por los MOOCS realizados.

Palabras clave: Instituciones de educación superior, entidades de apoyo, MOOC, aprendizaje de lenguas.

1. Introduction

Support entities have for a long time helped migrants and refugees in the never easy and often dangerous task of trying to make themselves at home in EU countries in general, and in Spain in particular. The Spanish Constitution of 1978 declares in its article 13.4 that “[...] citizens from other countries and stateless persons may enjoy the right to asylum in Spain”¹. This led to the development and consolidation of the national system for the reception and integration of asylum seekers and refugees by the Spanish government in the 1980s (Ministerio de Trabajo, Migraciones y Seguridad Social 2018: 5).

The journey started at the end of the 1980s when four Refugee Reception Centres (henceforth CARs, after Spanish ‘Centros de Acogida a Refugiados’), managed directly by the Administration, were opened in Madrid (Vallecas and Alcobendas), Sevilla, and Mislata (Valencia). Later, in the 1990s, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security signed a collaboration agreement for developing a comprehensive assistance programme (social, legal and health) for asylum seekers and refugees, with three large non-profit organisations: Cruz Roja Española, Comisión Española de Ayuda al Refugiado (CEAR) and Accem (Piera Ansuátegui 2018: 16-17). Other NGOs, such as Rescate, La Merced Migraciones, Comrade, or Karibu, have since joined the agreement.

What is the relationship between those endeavours and language? As part of the comprehensive assistance programme previously mentioned, most of those organisations are very involved in training and professional development. It should be recalled that applicants for international protection may work from the sixth month after they apply for asylum (Real Decreto 557/2011 Disposición adicional vigésimo primera). For this reason, during the first six months in which asylum seekers and refugees live their first phase of reception in our country, actions are focused on carrying out training activities that improve each person's work skills. This also allows them to acquire the basic social skills that prepare them to undertake the search for occupational training or a job. In the case of non-Spanish speaking applicants, the focus is especially on language learning, with the aim of enabling these refugees to achieve the necessary language skills to facilitate their social inclusion and access to training, so that they can get a job in the future. In other words, as the Spanish Ministry states, "the first phase will focus on activities of cultural and formative orientation, with special emphasis on language teaching and pre-employment and job training, so that the recipients can acquire the necessary skills to access the second phase of the itinerary in a short period of time (Ministerio de Trabajo, Migraciones y Seguridad Social 2018: 17)².

On a national level, CEAR, Accem, and Cruz Roja are the specialised and subsidised non-governmental organisations with the greatest reach in the teaching of Spanish as a second language, due to their presence in large parts of the country.

In the case of CEAR, this organization has been offering classes with volunteers for many years, but it has been doing so in an official and subsidised way, with teachers on the payroll since 2017. Its language training program is established in Madrid, Canarias, País Vasco, Cataluña, Andalucía, Valencia, and Navarra. (Cobo Espejo 2019: 24).

Concerning Accem, this NGO offers a nationwide program called "Language Learning Service", also funded by the Ministry of Labour, Migration and Social Security, through the General Directorate of Integration and Humanitarian Care (Accem 2021). This service aims to promote the learning of the Spanish language and other co-official Spain as a basic instrument to facilitate the integration of refugees in the host society while enabling the exchange of cultural codes in a positive and critical way in order to overcome prejudices and stereotypes. This service is currently being offered in twenty-seven Spanish provinces.

As far as Cruz Roja is concerned, most of the linguistic training action is left in the hands of volunteers, who are sometimes trained and experienced, but not always. The service operates throughout Spain,

except in the Canaries, Jaén, Ceuta and Melilla, where the asylum programme has not been implemented (Cobo Espejo 2019: 24).

At a local level, and focusing on the Comunidad de Madrid, we find other organizations which also play an important role in language teaching, such as Asociación para la Integración Lingüística del Inmigrante en Madrid (Asilim), the NGO Rescate and La Merced Migraciones.

Asilim is an association founded by teachers of Spanish as a foreign language (Asilim 2021). Since 2001, it has exclusively been dedicated, without any type of aid or subsidy, to teaching Spanish to migrants without resources. Asilim collaborators must have training in the didactics of Spanish as a foreign language and/or second language as well as experience in working with immigrants and refugees. They carry out their function in an altruistic manner. The organisation operates from their headquarter in Madrid, as well as the CARs in Vallecas and Alcobendas, from La Casa Encendida (the social and cultural centre of the Montemadrid Foundation), and until June 2019, from all CEAR venues in Comunidad de Madrid.

The NGO Rescate is highly specialized in providing comprehensive assistance, including Spanish classes, to gender-based refugees (Rescate 2021). Lessons are taught by one person on the payroll as well as well-prepared volunteers with experience in teaching Spanish to immigrants and refugees.

Since 2013, La Merced Migraciones has been running the project “Aulas de aprendizaje de español como segunda lengua” (“Classrooms for learning Spanish as a second language”), aimed at migrants and refugees who need to learn or improve their Spanish for social and labour integration (La Merced 2021). The program is operated by two instructors specialized in teaching Spanish to immigrants and refugees.

Thus, the role of support entities in relation to language is focused on providing the tools for newcomers to achieve their autonomy and integration, highlighting, in line with the words of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe (PACE), that “Integration is inevitably a **two-way process**, requiring **mutual respect** and sustained effort between the host society and the immigrant population” (2006).

The invaluable work carried out by support entities is a constant battle that is better not fought alone. That is why they need to be backed by local authorities and institutions. When dealing with refugees with an educational background entitling them to pursue university degrees, higher education institutions are the obvious perfect partner for support entities. It might *prima facie* seem that access to higher education is not such a pressing matter to deal with as are other issues more directly relatable to basic needs. However, it is important not to underestimate

its role in the integration of refugees into target societies. UNESCO stresses the importance of higher education in the integration of refugees and migrants in the target societies. Among other things, they claim that “access to higher education contributes to solutions and post-conflict reconstruction, promotes social, economic and gender equality, and empowers refugee communities” (2017: 8). All this is, however, not easy to achieve, as their access to higher education is greatly hampered by several circumstances: “Refugees’ access to higher education is also challenging because of interrupted education, learning gaps, language, confusing application procedures, and other factors” (UNESCO 2017: 9). As a result of this, the successful integration of these groups into the target society is compromised: “Without access to higher education, refugees are condemned to passivity and may eventually lose their competences, which need to be used to be maintained. They may be unmotivated and frustrated, and the risk of some of them turning to violent extremism is greatly increased. Today less than 1% of refugee youth are able to access universities” (UNESCO 2017: 9).

In this line, showing a commitment to not remain indifferent to the refugee drama, the Conference of Chancellors of Spanish Universities (CRUE, short for the Spanish name), reached on 8th September 2015 the following threefold agreement:

- “1.- Facilitate access for refugee students who are university students in their country of origin.
- 2.- Facilitate the collaboration with Spanish universities of refugees who are professors in their home country.
- 3.- Promote voluntary actions among students, in collaboration with other administrations and agents, especially in those disciplines most directly related to this social drama” (CRUE 2015, translated by authors).

While the second of these three points has not yet really been tackled by Spanish higher education institutions, points 1 and 3 are to a larger or a lesser extent being dealt with by some of them. This is explained below in this paper, which is structured as follows: section 2 looks at the needs expressed by support entities in the data collection phase of MOON-LITE described elsewhere in this special issue; section 3, in turn, focuses on how higher education institutions can address, and eventually meet, these needs; the last section offers some concluding remarks.

2. The role and needs of support entities

As stated in the introduction, the role played by organisations aiding displaced persons varies depending on their size, resources, and target.

Large institutions such as Comisión Española de Ayuda al Refugiado (CEAR), Accem and Cruz Roja are devoted to providing comprehensive assistance for refugees and migrants (social, legal and health care); smaller entities, such as Asilim, are entirely dedicated to addressing linguistics needs.

In relation to language, all support entities working with migrants share a common purpose, i.e. helping those refugees and migrants for whom Spanish is not their mother tongue to acquire the language skills needed for their social inclusion and access to training so that they can get a job in the future.

For a better understanding of the role of support entities and their needs, let us make a previous reflection about three subjects linked to the process of teaching and learning the language of the host country and to the learners who usually represent our target audience.

Firstly, what does it mean to teach Spanish to migrants and refugees? There has always been a debate around this question in the sense of whether teaching Spanish to displaced people can be regarded as a specialization within the field of teaching Spanish as a foreign language. Our view is aligned with that of Villalba Martínez and Hernández García, for whom “the teaching of a second language is framed inside the general didactics of foreign languages and that is the framework from which the appropriate didactic adaptations have to be made” (2009: 61)³. When implementing a program for teaching Spanish as a second language, these authors suggest following the same guidelines as when teaching Spanish to non-immigrants and non-refugees (2009: 62). That is:

- Bringing students to the same level.
- Developing a teaching programme or syllabus of Spanish as a second language.

In this section, we find it interesting to point out a reflection by Miquel López (1995: 247) on the frequency with which displaced persons fail to attend class. This makes it advisable to elaborate a programme of communicative objectives in which it is as important to define the communicative goals that students must achieve (functions) and the notions (topics) that they are going to work on.

- Designing courses adapted to the characteristics and needs of the students. Sometimes this is not easy, as pointed out by Miquel López (1995: 247), since immigrants and refugees do not always know them and those needs are not static, but dynamic. The needs on arrival in our country are not the same as those they have when they have been with us for some time. On the other

hand, it is also important to point out that their needs cannot always be met on the spot or are the most appropriate (some students believe that the best way to learn a language is to follow a structural rather than a communicative approach). Yet how do we determine their communicative needs? According to the same author, the general needs of immigrants match the threshold level as defined in the *Council of Europe's Living Languages Project*, i.e. needs related to the ability to communicate in everyday life situations.

All the organisations cited in the introduction follow these guidelines. In the case of Asilim, when someone requests to join a class, a placement test is administered and the person is then assigned to the most suitable group. Nowadays, in its headquarter and in the Refugee Reception Centres where it works, Asilim covers the needs of students for levels A1, A2, and B1 (according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). The rest of the entities follow a similar procedure. The next question is: what happens to the students who participate in the classes of Spanish as a second language offered by these organisations when they pass the B1 level? We must banish the idea that displaced people only need Spanish to cover their communicative needs: refugees and migrants need to make use of the communicative, integrating, and expressive functions of language.

Taking Asilim as an example, the association opens groups and, if necessary, other levels depending on demand, but as the number of people who require the lower levels is greater, sometimes those learners who need to move on to level B2 cannot do so in this non-profit organization, whose voluntary but specialized teachers must focus on training for the access (A1), platform (A2) and threshold (B1) levels. When the support entities cannot cover the higher levels, the intervention of Universities can be the solution to this real need.

The second important question to be addressed is: Who are our students? There is still a tendency to identify asylum seekers, refugees, or immigrants as persons with limitations; people who unfortunately often feel that “their socioeconomic status usually overshadows their characteristics as learners, and negative or deprivation considerations are often encountered” (Llorente Puerta 2018: 46)⁴. In the same way, although twenty-five years have already gone by, we recall the words of Lourdes Miquel, which are still valid today: “we tend to always assume a low level of training and yet we can find, above all among refugees but also among some immigrants (from the Maghreb, for example), some university students who work in construction here, or school graduates dedicated, in the best of cases, to street vending” (Miquel López 1995: 244)⁵.

From Asilim's experience teaching displaced persons, we can infer that, although it is true that the level of education among immigrant learners varies and can sometimes be very heterogeneous, this does not differ greatly from what is found among Spanish adult students. The following data are revealing: from a sample of 60 people, all of them both asylum seekers and students of Asilim, 18% declared to have a university degree, 23% to have completed high school and only 8% declared not to have received formal education.

So, what is the situation for those with university or pre-university education who wish to have their studies validated, or complete or start them? This need can be best addressed by universities. As primary support entities have for a long time lamented, when their students want to pursue formal education, they find that, despite having a good command of communication skills in Spanish, they lack the knowledge of Spanish for Academic Purposes. They do not have the tools to make good use of oral and written texts for academic communication: papers, presentations, exams, and research articles, among others. As an example, let us share our experience with the course *Quiero Estudiar en España* (QEE), designed by Aselim and taught for four years (2010 – 2014). This training was aimed at non-Spanish speakers who were interested in studying in Spain (High School, Training for Employment, Vocational Training, undergraduate and graduate university studies) and also at all those interested in acquiring formal Spanish skills, necessary to meet their job expectations. With a minimum consolidated A2 level required for enrolment, the course was organized into three interdependent modules: a reading and writing module, an oral skills module, and a grammar and vocabulary module. Unfortunately, the scarcity of instructors (see below) brought about the interruption of the course after its fourth edition, despite its huge success.

Finally, we believe it is important to reflect on **who are the people who carry out the task of language teaching in the support organizations**. The document Santander Manifesto (VV.AA. 2004) collects the principles that guide the teaching of Spanish to those who come to our country looking for a better future. One of its fundamental pillars is the professionalization of teachers who are dedicated to this kind of teaching. Not every native speaker can teach his own language. Yet this does not mean that the instruction should necessarily be in the hands of graduates in Spanish Studies, who, according to Miquel López (1995: 253) “...to teach immigrants, should ‘deacademize’ themselves”⁶.

According to Villalba Martínez and Hernández García (2009: 62), for the teaching of Spanish to migrants to be recognised and valued “the commitment of the Administrations is needed, but also that of publishers and the University; and, above all, it is necessary to approach this activity with humility, rigour, and social commitment”⁷.

There is one last issue which organisations working with displaced persons need to see addressed. If we defend the existence of professional teachers, the training offer must increase, keeping in mind that teaching immigrants and refugees is not a passing fad; there will always be people who come to our country for different, often dire, reasons, but always seeking a better future; and they have the right to quality instruction by professionals properly trained in teaching Spanish as a Second Language. As González Blasco (2007: 609) puts it: “the fact that undergraduate programmes include L2 subjects, that there are specialised postgraduate courses and a multitude of courses for teachers from different teaching contexts, shows that there is recognition –at least by the university, some institutions and the teaching community– of the specificity of the teaching of Spanish as a Second Language and the need for specific training”⁸.

Yet teachers who work with migrants and refugees must not only know how to teach language, culture, and prosody; they must also be prepared to at least understand the migratory grief which their students may be experiencing; they should also have a minimum amount of training, or at least information, of legal matters so that they can adapt their classes to the legal and bureaucratic needs of their learners in their daily lives. Such multidisciplinary training could be organized and offered by universities and their different colleges to people who collaborate or wish to collaborate with support entities.

The role of universities as second-stage elements in the integration of migrants and refugees is becoming increasingly meaningful insofar as they can complement the more direct and basic intervention of NGOs.

3. The role of higher education institutions

As said in the introductory section, higher education institutions, notably universities, have a potential key role in the integration of refugees and migrants. University degrees open the doors to the labour market and can therefore serve as valuable means to channel the efforts made by support groups to turn certain refugees and migrants into skilled labour.

The first step to be taken by these groups in order to access higher studies in the EU is obtaining recognition by national education authorities of the degrees of secondary education from their countries of origin. Once this is done, the main obstacle arises from registration fees. This is where universities can pick up the gauntlet by providing fee waivers for duly accredited refugees and migrants, something that has been demanded, among others, by the Spanish Network of Immigration and Refugee Aid (Marrero 2016).

Countries such as Canada, the US, Sweden, or France have taken more or less coordinated steps in providing refugees with access to higher education, whether by means of scholarships, bridging programs, or related initiatives, sometimes including not only tuition fees but also room & board waivers (see Loo, Streitwieser & Jeong 2018). These authors quote IIE's⁹ President, Allan Goodman, who makes the following thought-provoking statement: "the more than 20,000 higher education institutions worldwide should each offer to take in at least one displaced student and rescue one scholar. This would make a dent in preventing a global lost generation, while also saving, in some cases, entire national academies" (Goodman 2016, quoted in Loo, Streitwieser & Jeong 2018).

In Spain, the action taken by most universities in providing aid for refugees and migrants is limited to encouraging their students to join volunteering programs. Such is the case with the Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, Universidad Rey Juan Carlos, or Universidad Autónoma de Madrid. The latter's Solidary and Cooperation Office adopts the following manifesto: "The main objective of the Office is to contribute to channelling the demand for the participation of the university community, and especially of its students, in activities and projects of cooperation and education for development, university volunteering and solidarity" (UAM 2021, original in Spanish, translated by authors).

While such measures are no doubt praiseworthy, they do not add much to what is being done by support entities. Much more useful to refugees and migrants is the policy undertaken by universities such as Universidad Complutense de Madrid (henceforth UCM), Universitat de Barcelona (henceforth UB), and Universidad Camilo José Cela (henceforth UCJC) (Laborde 2016). These are the only real existing commitments by higher education institutions in Spain to grasp the nettle of providing refugees with access to tertiary education.

The UCM refugees Office states as its two strategic goals: a) To contribute to guaranteeing the right to higher education of refugees from a diversity perspective and to recover and recognize their scientific potential; and b) To strengthen their potential for social integration. In particular, the UCM provides fee waivers for accredited refugees and asylum seekers. According to the UCMrefugees Office (personal communication), 75 applications had been accepted up to now 2017/2018, and about half of those did finally enrol in an official degree, whether at graduate or postgraduate level. The enrolment in Bachelor's degrees is revised and renewed every year. The tuition fee waiver does not necessarily cover 100% of fees. Applicants must offer proof of their financial status, based on which the university decides the percentage that is applied.

Those displaced persons who want to benefit from this fee-waiver, are first requested to become acquainted with the Spanish university system, in particular the Comunidad de Madrid's system, as well as with the degrees offered by the UCM and the prerequisites for admission. Although the prerequisites include proof of previous studies and/or degrees, official recognition of these by the Spanish education authorities is not always a *sine qua non*. The UCM contemplates the possibility of accepting original transcripts and/or certificates of studies provided that these are accompanied by a sworn translation and, in the case of certificates of degrees enabling access to postgraduate studies, an official certification that such is the case. It must be taken into account that, as migrants and refugees come from countries outside the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), equivalences between education systems are not always easy to establish.

Refugees are also requested to prove a B2 level of Spanish prior to admission. If this level is not achieved or applicants cannot prove it, the UCM facilitates access to the Complutense Center for the Study of Spanish, where individuals can take free Spanish courses and/or a placement test. Especially important is the motivation letter that applicants are requested to write, where they should explain their motivations for enrolling in studies at the UCM. The amount of the socioeconomic aid granted is decided by the Commission of evaluation, "based on the annual budget allocated and the File of each applicant" (UCM 2021).

The UCM initiative has been selected as a good practice in the inclusion of refugees in the university and is part of the Welcome Refugees map of the European University Association/Higher Education Policy Unit (UCM 2017), an effort to "to showcase and document the commitment of higher education institutions and organisations in supporting refugees" (EUA 2021).

UB channels its aid to refugees through the Fundació Solidaritat UB, which has "the aim of applying the policy of university cooperation to development, and thus promote human rights and the social action of the University, within the framework of its actions of responsibility towards society" (UB 2021, translated by authors). The prerequisites for displaced people to access studies at the UB are very similar to the ones described for the UCM, above. In terms of the actual action taken, in the school year 2016-2017, the UB waived the tuition fees of 100 refugees, providing free room and board for 33 of those (<http://www.solidaritat.ub.edu/refugees/>). The UB initiative shares with the UCM its appointment as a good practice in the inclusion of refugees in the university and is also part of the Welcome Refugees map of the European University Association/Higher Education Policy Unit (UB 2017).

UCJC has taken a meritocratic approach in the admission of refugees by selecting 10 individuals with a high GPA from secondary education –starting from 7.9 out of 10– and a good command of languages, including Spanish. The aid to refugees –called *Proyecto Integra*– includes tuition fee waivers, as well as free room and board for those in need. UCJC makes it clear that, in the selection of applicants, their religion, nationality, political ideology or ethnic group were not taken into account. (UCJC 2016).

In much of the work done by higher education institutions to aid refugees, collaboration with support entities is essential. Whereas the actual admission to tertiary degrees is something that only the universities can do, these rely on support entities for the fulfilment of the prerequisites mentioned above, notably the acquisition of the necessary proficiency level of Spanish, as well as assessment in the paperwork involved in the adaptation of their diplomas and certificates from their countries of origin to the Spanish system, not to mention the invaluable psychological support throughout the whole process.

The efforts just described to grant access to higher education are usually accompanied by an additional effort to prepare both staff and students to be receptive to the specific needs of refugees. To this end, higher education institutions have developed social volunteering programs that help to create the right environment for the integration of these groups in the higher education community. Some institutions train staff in the acquisition of good practices in the assistance to refugees pursuing studies in those institutions (see, for instance, the case of UB and their participation in the inHERE project for staff training [UB 2018]).

The other main way in which higher education institutions can help refugees and migrants is through research projects targeting this issue. The European Union has funded several such projects in the last few years, among them MOONLITE, the project within whose framework the research presented in this special issue is taking place. Other chapters in this volume deal with several aspects of this project, including the initial meetings held with support entities and the results of the data mining from the needs analysis carried out with their collaboration. A clear example of the synergy resulting from the joint effort of the researchers in this project and support entities as well as displaced people themselves is the work done in the planning and development of the MOOCS which are described in Chapter 5. An important stage in the MOONLITE project has been the official recognition by the UNED of these MOOCS as part of their institutional life-long training program. Refugees completing these courses will therefore receive ECTS credits, which should not only open a gate for their integration in the Spanish

educational system but also facilitate their mobility across EU states.

Because we wanted to create MOOCS addressing the real needs of displaced people, we made it a priority to empower these groups by involving them in the process. To that end, a brainstorming session was carried out, where delegates from many support entities as well as refugees decided on those topics which they considered most relevant for integration in Spanish society and which therefore should represent the backbone of the Spanish LMOOCS addressed to refugees and migrants. In order to ensure the effectiveness of the brainstorming session (see Hillson 2007, about the risks of brainstorming), a Design Thinking approach was adopted. In this kind of brainstorming, participants are monitored and given a topic about which to come up with ideas (see Sprangers 2016, about brainstorming in Design Thinking). The topic in our brainstorming session was “what I urgently need to be able to do”. All participants contributed by writing their ideas on post-its, calling them out, and then posting them on a whiteboard. After this, conceptual clouds were created with the ideas expressed on the post-its, eventually determining the Spanish LMOOC contents.

Another important step in Design Thinking is prototyping, which “offers designers the opportunity to bring their ideas to life, test the practicability of the current design, and to potentially investigate how a sample of users think and feel about a product” (Dam and Siang 2017). We, therefore, avoided long theoretical discussions about the suitability of the contents, deciding on a relatively fast and efficient way to bring the LMOOCS to life. To that end, researchers and support entities worked together in the actual development of the lessons, including the shooting of the video lessons that are central to this type of courses. Now that these prototypes have been implemented, it will be important to do a follow-up of their effectiveness to identify their strengths and weaknesses and thus reinforce the former and address the latter. This will allow us to move from the prototype stage to final products, with the added value that the improvements made will have been informed by real practice. This will bring about a symbiosis by which we, as researchers, will be able to develop more efficient learning tools which are then bound to have a positive impact on the lives of refugees and migrants.

4. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the ways in which support entities and higher education institutions can collaborate in order to help refugees become integrated into the host society, notably Spanish society. While

support entities play a crucial role at the early stages by providing refugees with aid addressing some of their most basic needs, these early interventions often serve as a springboard for the later access of refugees to higher education. For instance, their help with paperwork and with the acquisition of language skills can be the first steps in a race for integration where the relay is then passed on to the hands of higher education institutions.

Another way in which support entities and higher education institutions can collaborate is through the implication of the former in projects carried out by the latter, as is the case with the MOONLITE project mentioned in this chapter and discussed more in detail in other chapters in this volume. A positive by-product of this kind of collaboration is that refugees themselves can end up having a say in the whole process. This empowerment results, in the context of MOONLITE, in symbiosis by which the work of the researchers is better informed, thus resulting in more efficient learning tools from which refugees and migrants can in turn benefit.

Of the three points in the CRUE manifesto alluded to in the introduction, the third one –i.e. promote voluntary actions among students– is clearly the most satisfactorily addressed to date. The first point –i.e. facilitate access for refugee students who are university students in their country of origin– is starting to be tackled by higher education institutions, yet, as seen above, still on a very small scale. The examples set by the UCM, the UB, and the UCJC should be an inspiration for other institutions to follow. Lastly, the second point of the CRUE manifesto –i.e. facilitate the collaboration with Spanish universities of refugees who are professors in their home country– has not yet been addressed and no efforts have been so far identified to revert this situation.

We see, therefore, that there still is much to be done in the quest for providing the means for the integration of refugees into Spanish society. While there are abundant volunteering efforts, mostly revolving around the work done by support entities, the aid coming from institutional agents is far from sufficient. This should not be put down to a lack of compromise from such institutions but rather to the difficulties involved in setting the bureaucratic machinery in motion. And this is precisely where research groups have an important role to play. Because research projects can be run quite autonomously by these groups, once funding has been obtained, they can provide additional help from the institutional end which to a certain extent palliates the slow response coming from the administration. An example is that of the MOOCS created in the context of the MOONLITE project, which have obtained official recognition by the UNED. In this way, before actually obtain-

ing access to tertiary degrees, refugees can reap benefits from their efforts to learn the language by receiving an official certification for the MOOCS completed. This may be a first step in their integration into the university educational system and ultimately into Spanish society.

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Notas

- ¹ “La ley establecerá los términos en los que los ciudadanos de otros países y los apátridas podrán gozar del derecho de Asilo en España”.
- ² “En esta fase se incidirá en las actividades de orientación cultural y formativa, haciendo especial hincapié en la enseñanza del idioma y en la formación pre laboral y laboral, de forma que los destinatarios puedan contar con las habilidades necesarias para acceder a la 2ª fase del itinerario en un corto plazo de tiempo”.
- ³ “La enseñanza de L2 se encuadra dentro de la didáctica general de idiomas y ese es el marco desde el que se tienen que realizar las adaptaciones didácticas oportunas”.
- ⁴ “Por lo general, se antepone su situación socioeconómica a sus características como aprendices y resulta frecuente encontrar consideraciones negativas o en términos de carencia”.
- ⁵ “Solemos presuponer siempre un bajo nivel de formación y, sin embargo, podemos encontrar, sobre todo entre los refugiados, pero también entre algunos inmigrantes (del Magreb, por ejemplo), algunos universitarios que aquí trabajan en la construcción o graduados escolares dedicados, en el mejor de los casos, a la venta ambulante”.
- ⁶ “...para dar clase a inmigrantes, deberían desacademizarse”.
- ⁷ “Se necesita el compromiso de las administraciones pero también, de las editoriales y de la universidad y, sobre todo, se necesita acercarse a esta actividad con humildad, rigor y compromiso social”.
- ⁸ “El hecho de que los programas de grado cuenten con asignaturas de L2, que existan posgrados especializados y multitud de cursos para los profesores en activo de diferentes contextos de enseñanza, pone de manifiesto que se reconoce, al menos desde la comunidad universitaria, algunas instituciones y el colectivo de profesores, la especificidad de la enseñanza de EL2 y la necesidad de una formación específica”.
- ⁹ Institute of International Education.

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The Role of Scaffolding in LMOOCs for Displaced People

Timothy Read and Beatriz Sedano

This article presents the results of an analysis of how passive and active scaffolding, such as types of structured student learning support, can be provided for refugees and migrants in Language MOOCs (LMOOCs). It focuses on the nature of such scaffolding and what effect it has on learning. After an analysis of the theoretical aspects of supporting refugees and migrants in this type of course, a case study is presented. This study focuses on the inclusion of scaffolding in the design, development and running of two Spanish LMOOCs for immediate needs, created within the MOONLITE project in collaboration with support groups for displaced people. The results of the study support the use of scaffolding as a mechanism that improves the course completion rates (increasing from the usual figure of around 10% to 31% and 30% in the respective courses), language learning, and the overall satisfaction and motivation of the students.

Keywords: MOOC, LMOOC, passive scaffolding, active scaffolding, immediate need.

El rol del andamiaje en los LMOOC para personas desplazadas. En este artículo se presentan los resultados de un análisis sobre cómo proporcionar un andamiaje pasivo y activo a migrantes y refugiados, como tipos de apoyo estructurado para el aprendizaje en los MOOC de lenguas (LMOOC). Se centra en la naturaleza de dicho andamiaje y en el efecto que tiene este en el aprendizaje. Tras un análisis de los aspectos teóricos del apoyo a los refugiados y migrantes en este tipo de cursos, se describe un estudio de caso. Este estudio se centra en la inclusión de andamiaje en el diseño, desarrollo y funcionamiento de dos LMOOC de español como lengua extranjera para necesidades inmediatas, creados dentro del proyecto MOONLITE en colaboración con grupos de apoyo para personas desplazadas. Los resultados del estudio respaldan el uso del andamiaje como mecanismo que mejora las tasas de finalización de los cursos (pasando de la cifra habitual de alrededor de un 10% a un 31% y un 30% en los respectivos cursos), el aprendizaje del idioma, así como la satisfacción y motivación general de los estudiantes.

Palabras clave: MOOC, LMOOC, andamiaje pasivo, andamiaje activo, necesidades inmediatas.

1. Introduction

The lack of scholarly research on the use of MOOCs in fragile contexts has been noted in the literature. However, at the same time, there has been a growing interest over recent years in tailoring MOOC design for displaced people's specific needs (Castrillo & Sedano 2021; Lambert, 2020; Castaño-Muñoz *et al.* 2018; Read, Sedano, & Barcena 2018), following “human-centred” (Moser-Mercer, Hayba, & Goldsmith 2018) and “contextualized” (Shah & Santandreu 2019) design approaches.

There have been MOOC initiatives at a European level for vulnerable groups of learners, which include women, young people, specific cultural groups, people with disabilities, and refugees and migrants. Two examples are OpenUpEd and MOOCs4inclusion. The first initiative offers a search page for MOOCs that meet certain inclusion requirements and use a quality label, created by the same initiative, which follows a series of quality benchmarks for MOOCs (Rosewell & Jansen 2014). The second example focuses on the assessment and categorisation of free digital learning resources for displaced people, providing recommendations on how to use them (Colucci *et al.* 2017). In their research, they include several MOOC-based projects that have targeted refugees and migrants such as those by Kiron, InZone, Ready4Study, to name a few.

In the existing open online learning initiatives for refugees and migrants identified by MOOCs4inclusion, language learning stands out as the most common one, followed by civic integration and employment, and higher education (Castaño-Muñoz *et al.* 2018). Some of these initiatives take the form of apps (e.g., Funzi); online courses (e.g., OLS); SPOCs (e.g., the Jamiya project); and several follow the Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach (Gimeno-Sanz, Navarro-Laboulais & Despujol-Zabala 2017; e.g., for academic skills, LASER; or for citizenship, L-Pack Citizenship Language). These resources can be extremely useful, but are also very challenging for many displaced people, due to their low level of language competence (Read, *et al.* 2018). Since effective target language use is important to facilitate social inclusion in a host community, it can be argued that MOOCs aimed at learning a second language (henceforth, LMOOCs) are essential. Hence, more research on this specific topic must be carried out, since there is little available (Castrillo & Sedano 2021).

In general, LMOOCs, have four inherent limitations, which can create added difficulties for displaced people. Firstly, the foreign language itself is both the vehicle of course communication and the object of learning (Barcena & Martín-Monje 2014). Given that communication in

MOOCs is predominantly written, this can be even more challenging for students who are at a beginner level, with little or no knowledge of the Roman alphabet. Secondly, the lack of teacher presence in the courses to enhance communication and interaction. Thirdly, the lack of personalised feedback and correction, which are both fundamental aspects when learning a foreign language (Sokolik 2014). For displaced people, a lack of face-to-face (henceforth, F2F) contact with the teacher or other students can be especially challenging, due to psychological circumstances and the feelings of isolation (Shah & Santandreu 2019; UNESCO 2018). However, other authors (Colpaert 2016; Rubio, Fuchs, & Dixon 2016) have noted that the main advantage of LMOOCs is the opportunity to bring isolated learners together, from different parts of the world, and create an authentic learning community, which can have a very positive effect for refugees and migrants. Fourthly and finally, one of the most controversial aspects of MOOCs is the low completion rate they have (an average of less than 10%). This can be even worse in refugee camps and humanitarian settings (UNESCO 2018). LMOOCs normally have similar statistics that can be due, among other factors, to the above-mentioned lack of personalised feedback, instructor presence, and F2F interaction (Barcena, Martín-Monje & Read 2015).

2. The nature of scaffolding in LMOOCs for refugees and migrants

From the smallest F2F classes through to the largest online courses, teachers have always had a key role in supporting their students' learning. Exactly how such help is manifested depends on the experience of a given teacher and the material being taught. Furthermore, as the teaching process continues, and the students learn and become more competent in what they are studying, then the support they require should gradually fade as it is not so necessary.

Such support can be viewed as a kind of 'scaffolding', a term borrowed as a metaphor from the temporary metallic structures used in construction. The structure is erected around a building as it is being built, enabling the builders to work on it above ground level, and then removed as the work finishes and the building is complete. In the context of education, the term was coined by Wood, Bruner, & Ross (1976) to refer to the assistance provided to a learner when undertaking a task that can be removed as the task is learned. Similarly, Bruner (1985) describes scaffolding as "the steps taken to reduce the degrees of free-

dom in carrying out some tasks so that the child can concentrate on the difficult skill she is in the process of acquiring” (19). As Gibbons (2015) notes, scaffolding is not a synonym for help but rather a kind of assistance given to learners as they move towards new skills, concepts, etc. Dabbagh (2003) refers to it as just-in-time, just-enough assistance, which is removed as students’ progress.

When courses move from F2F classrooms to online learning environments, the need for scaffolding not only remains but arguably becomes greater, since the types of possible interactions in these courses are not as rich and varied as those possible in small student-number classrooms. It is arguably easier for teachers to provide just-in-time, just-enough assistance, which is removed as students progress, than in online courses where the teacher and the students are separated both geographically and temporally (Dabbagh 2003). Dabbagh highlights three types of relationships that are important for scaffolding to be effective in online courses, namely teacher-student, student-student, and student-content. The challenge is in providing the right degree of support for students requiring different degrees of help, too much, or too little, given to the wrong kind of student, can have adverse results.

Scaffolding in MOOCs is typically more complicated than in other online courses, for at least two reasons, firstly, there are often large numbers of students (so managing the interactions can be more complicated), and secondly, since the role of the teacher in a MOOC is mainly that of course designer, and even developer, working to set up the course at the beginning, but not as someone who participates in the course once it starts. There may be course facilitators and/or curators available to support students but this depends on a series of factors such as the policy of the MOOC provider or institution that hosts the course, the human resources available to provide such functions, and the underlying business model associated with the platform (which might provide a way for people to be remunerated for such activities, thereby facilitating their availability). Since the key characteristics of MOOCs are the large student numbers and the lack of active participation of a teaching team, then the majority of the scaffolding that can be provided needs to be present in the course before the students actually start to study it.

Given the difficulties highlighted above, it can be argued that, in order to improve LMOOC success rates for displaced people, additional support or scaffolding should be incorporated in their design and of execution (cf., Shah & Santandreu 2019). Authors such as de Waard *et al.* (2014) point out that success in MOOC for vulnerable groups can be achieved giving them “a citizen role based – if only in part – on MOOC learning outcomes” (9). It is reasonable, therefore, that the different

stakeholders (from the actual students who will undertake the course through to support organizations who regularly work with them) of a given course should be actively involved in its design and execution (Colucci *et al.* 2017).

2.1. Technological limitations

Given the social instability and mobility of displaced people, it is inevitable that there are technological factors present in their access to, and participation in, online courses that can directly affect their ability to learn. Such factors include the stability of their Internet connection, access to an electricity, or even not possessing a computer from which a given course can be undertaken. Therefore, scaffolding for these criteria should include the possibility of downloading all the course materials (videos, audios, PDFs...) for offline consultation (Moser-Mercer 2014), course responsiveness given low-bandwidth connection to access light-weight versions of audio-visual content, and even the inclusion of a ‘blackout’ proof design (Jansen & Konnings 2017). Shah and Santandreu (2019) propose to adapt technology issues to the context by the use of “green technologies” such as renewable energy, for example.

According to UNESCO (2018), 71% of refugees own a mobile phone, although it is often just a basic device. Mobile learning can provide a unique learning opportunity for displaced people who cannot attend F2F language courses, offering them a way to integrate learning into their daily routine (Kukulska-Hulme 2019). Therefore, since mobile learning seems to be appropriate for displaced people’s needs and situations, LMOOCs should be designed to be responsive, i.e., deploy effectively on mobile devices (de Waard *et al.* 2014). However, three aspects need to be kept in mind when scaffolding mobile language learning activities. Firstly, many people will need extra technological support in order to have a reliable mobile Internet connection (UNHCR 2016). Secondly, refugee and migrants’ specific needs and learning challenges must be addressed, such as allowing them to monitor and regulate their own learning (Demmans 2017). Thirdly and finally, flexible combinations of human support are needed (what Kukulska-Hulme 2018: 4 refers to as “new configurations of human assistance combinations -teachers, friends, volunteers, mentors, and online communities”).

Finally, it is important to highlight the limitations of some refugees and migrants’ digital literacy. Such literacy is essential in order to undertake a MOOC. Problems often arise due to sociocultural differences, since “digital literacy is both culturally and contextually specific” (Traxler *et al.* 2019: 20), and as such these people have difficulties with

Western online pedagogy models. To limit these problems, among others, an LMOOC should be accessible and have user-friendly navigation, include a simple technical guide, and have a technological support team available during the course execution.

2.2. Linguistic issues

As noted above, LMOOCs present an added difficulty for displaced people, since the target language is both the vehicle of course communication and the learning object. This is problematic for low-level learners since they have only basic (or no) knowledge of that language. Furthermore, most courses' content, assignments, and interaction are text-based, which increases "the threshold for those learners not familiar with the language of instruction" (de Waard *et al.* 2014: 9).

Therefore, in order to mitigate these difficulties, an LMOOC aimed at refugees and migrants should be designed with the following linguistic scaffolding criteria included: firstly, the use of simple expressions when formulating instructions, presenting contents and activities, and moderating video and audio speeds. Secondly, specific linguistic terms and the use of dialects should be avoided. Thirdly the written content requires an audio-visual support component. Fourthly, a glossary of terms, video subtitles, and transcriptions, in several languages, should be included. Fifthly, inclusive language should always be used in forums by trained facilitators (Read *et al.* 2018).

Finally, although, the aim of an LMOOC is to learn a designated language, in an LMOOC for refugees and migrants, where the variety of ethnicities and languages can be very high, plurilingualism and multilingualism can be argued to be enriching (de Waard *et al.* 2014). Therefore, diverse language use can be permitted in the forums and associated social networks, to empower learners' plurality. Furthermore, research on language teaching for displaced people highlights the concept of "translanguaging". This refers to discursive practices carried out by bilingual or multilingual people in a diverse world that goes beyond a limited national concept of language; and the pedagogy behind that "starts by enabling migrants to recognize their full language repertoire and helping them incorporate new features into their own language system" (García 2017: 18).

In this research, the nature and role of scaffolding for refugees and migrants in MOOCs is explored in terms of two research questions:

1. How can scaffolding be provided for refugee and migrant students in an LMOOC to overcome or limit both the inherent

difficulties with this teaching/learning modality, together with the problems that these students bring to the courses?

What is the effect of this scaffolding on learning in the courses?

2. The authors argue that the answers to these questions will come by analysing the scaffolding provided for two LMOOCs (described below), to help with five areas of difficulty for refugees and migrants (technological limitations, linguistic issues, methodological aspects, cultural and ethical issues, and institutional policy; Read *et al.* 2018). These areas are analysed next.

2.3. Methodological aspects

The first methodological aspect to consider in MOOCs is their openness, something that is quite often not respected, although it should be when vulnerable groups are considered (Jansen & Konings 2017). LMOOCs for displaced people should apply the following openness criteria, be free of charge and not impose any entry requirements (neither academic nor administrative). They should also provide free certification, and have materials with open educational licences, that can still be accessed once a course is finished (Read *et al.* 2019). Finally, they should follow an open pedagogy, facilitating different learning styles, and contain a flexible and modular structure.

An LMOOC for displaced people should follow “a learner-centred pedagogy” (UNESCO, 2018) and be created ad hoc, based on a bottom-up approach of learners’ needs analysis (Moser-Mercer *et al.* 2018), following a design thinking approach, and in collaboration with civil organisations (Read *et al.* 2019; Jansen & Konings 2017). There are three aspects that need to be taken into consideration during the course scaffolding process. Firstly, diverse learning styles should be included in the course, such as for example, the oral learning traditions, common to the educational experience of a lot of refugees. Other approaches, such as peer-to-peer learning and activities focused on creativity without teacher-direction, may be new for displaced learners and differ from their existing ideas of what constitutes quality F2F teaching (UNESCO 2018). Furthermore, these types of activities also imply a certain level of digital skills. Therefore, explanations of learning content in a MOOC should be provided in different ways and formats (written, oral, graphical, etc.). Activities should include self-evaluation so that they can be undertaken whenever it is appropriate for learners, providing meaningful feedback and the possibility of repetition.

Secondly, many free resources for learning a language focus solely on the acquisition of grammatical structures and vocabulary, and do not

follow a practical approach, which is what displaced people want. Therefore, LMOOCs for these collectives should be designed with an action-oriented approach (Council of Europe 2001), and focus on learning the language to fulfil immediate needs and facilitate improved employability (Traeger *et al.* 2018). From a practical point of view, neither course duration nor learning activities should be long, and the workload should not be too high (Moser-Mercer 2014), since displaced people often have to combine learning with other immediate tasks (e.g., health, administrative, housing, looking for a job, working) and as such do not have the capacity to concentrate for long periods due to their physical and psychological state (Castaño *et al.* 2018).

Thirdly, these courses should not only take into account displaced people's needs through the involvement of refugee support groups (henceforth, RSGs), but also include refugees and migrants themselves in the design process (Halkic & Arnold 2019), in order to empower them to be the agents of the change they wish to be ((Moser-Mercer *et al.* 2018: 46)). INEE (2012) includes, among the 19 minimum standards for education in emergencies, a standard that refers to inclusive community participation: "Community members participate actively, transparently and without discrimination in the analysis, planning, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of education responses" (22).

With regard to facilitation in the course, it has been noted that the presence of tutors or facilitators is crucial in a MOOC. This is even more important in an LMOOC for displaced people, in order to create a solid and stable virtual learning community. Some LMOOC research has stressed that success is related to social engagement in forum participation (Martín, Read & Barcena 2017). To this end, some authors (Read *et al.* 2019; Shah & Santandreu 2019) propose the participation of volunteers, such as recently graduated teachers or students, as mentors and facilitators in online learning communities. Such volunteers need to be trained on how to manage a community before a course starts.

A potential limitation with LMOOC facilitation can arise from the functionality of the forum tool on the platform where the MOOC is hosted. Therefore, the structure of forums should be very clear, with defined threads or discussions associated with a practical topic, which can be quickly and easily accessed (e.g., by using tags; Moser-Mercer *et al.* 2014). Furthermore, social networks used by this collective (e.g., Facebook) can be an effective element for connecting and collaborating (Castaño *et al.* 2018).

2.4. Cultural and ethical issues

Within the cultural issues that need to be taken into account, given the potential for a multilingual and multicultural audience in

LMOOCs, diversity, identity, and interculturality should be considered, both in content and the facilitation of the courses. For example, materials and activities should be diverse in terms of identity, origin, beliefs, age and gender, so that learners can identify with them since “identification is connected to motivation and learning” (de Waard 2014: 8). Furthermore, interaction activities in forums should be oriented to reflect learners’ identities, since a general problem these collectives experience is that of acculturation, which can lead to problems of identity (UNESCO 2018).

Furthermore, LMOOCs aim to prepare students with the necessary socio-cultural and sociolinguistic skills to become intercultural speakers and citizens. Therefore, materials should include intercultural perspectives and try to relate to both origin and target cultures. Forum discussions should similarly be oriented to promoting intercultural communication.

With regard to ethical issues, the vulnerability of participant groups must be addressed, since “the open nature of MOOCs may be problematic in certain cases, such as some groups of refugees” (UNESCO 2018:67). Therefore, student privacy and data management must be treated seriously, and facilitators must be aware of the potential vulnerability of learners in order to address certain topics with care.

3. A case study of scaffolding in an LMOOC for refugees and migrants

The data used in the case study undertaken here comes from two LMOOCs, namely “Puertas Abiertas” I and II (henceforth PAI/II; Read *et al.* 2018) and comes from three sources: firstly, from analytic data stored by the UNED OpenEdX MOOC platform where the courses were run. Secondly, from initial and final questionnaires. Thirdly and finally, from a questionnaire given to the facilitators in the courses that were followed up with personal interviews in some cases.

PAI/II are two A1 – A2 level Spanish courses (following the Council of Europe 2001), specifically designed and developed for refugees and migrants. In the first edition of these courses, there were 2,252 students registered in PAI, and 1,233 in PAII. There was a good balance of males (53%) to females (47%), with an age range of 20 – 40 years old. The student population had a range of nationalities, of which the main ones were Moroccan (16%), Russian (7%), Ukrainian (5%), Senegalese (4%) Malian (4%), Cameroonian (4%) Brazilian, (4%), Indian (2%), and Syrian (1%). In PAI, of the students registered, 717 finished the first

task, and 702 successfully completed the course (31%). The mean of the activities successfully undertaken by the students was between 96% and 98%. In PAII, of the registered students, 461 finished the course (30%), with a mean of 92% to 98% activity success. In PAI/II, the teachers were supported by 15 facilitators, who provided most of the scaffolding in the forums, where they motivated the students as they progressed, provided complementary guidance for the tasks the students had to do, and finally, solved problems and answered questions. Each course contained a general forum and a specific one for each of the four modules. In PAI there were 1,647 messages in the forums and in PAII there were 1,230.

Course resource	PAI support value	PAII support value
Audios	95%	97%
Videos	100%	99%
Texts	95%	100%
Additional explanations	80%	95%
Cultural materials	94%	99%
Test activities	98%	100%
Forum activities	90%	90%

Table 1. *Percentage of students who positively valued the support resources in both LMOOCs*

Based upon the analyses carried out in this case study, the authors differentiate between what can be defined as passive and active scaffolding. The former refers to support mechanisms designed into a course before it starts, and the latter, those that are provided by the facilitators, interacting with the students, as the courses progress. Passive scaffolding can only be provided if the teacher is aware of the parts of the course that some students will find difficult. In PAI/II, this type of scaffolding took the form of additional documentation (subtitles and transcriptions of the course videos, vocabulary lists, both monolingual [word and definition in Spanish] and multilingual [word in Spanish and its equivalent in French, English and Arabic], additional explanatory information, and cultural notes), activities that explicitly help the students to structure their work in a similar way that they would if there were a teacher present (often these can be undertaken in small groups with changing roles so that the students, in assisting their peers, can reinforce their own learning, and at a metacognitive level, become aware of the benefit of working in this way). There was also a first introductory module with videos and textual materials explaining what the goals of the course was, how the platform and its tools worked, and presenting a study guide.

The students were asked in the final questionnaire to value whether they felt that these materials had supported them in the studies they undertook in the course. The results are presented in table 1, where the final questionnaire in PAI received 778 answers and in PAII 313. As can also be seen in the table, the course resources prepared by the teachers to passively scaffold the students learning were very positively valued by them. It is interesting to note, additionally, that this perception was also shared by students in the PAI course who didn't actually finish the course (there were 778 answers to the final questionnaire when only 702 students finished). This is not the case in the PAII course, since only 68% of the students who finished the course answered the final questionnaire.

Active scaffolding depends on changes in student behaviour as the courses progress. For example, a member of the teaching team can follow discussions in the forums to see where students are having problems and provide assistance there or direct the students' attention to where additional resources can be found. In PAI/II, specific interactions in the forums were programmed so that shared discussion, undertaken in a structured way, would help students to clarify doubts and achieve a deeper understanding of different parts of the course and its related concepts. As can be seen from the results in table 1, the forums were also seen to be a key tool for supporting the students. Furthermore, in the final questionnaires, when asked what aspects of the forums the students found most helpful and motivating, around 67% (in both cases) noted both the presence of the facilitators, and the way in which they communicated with them consistently throughout the courses. Typically, such communication is usually high at the beginning and end of a MOOC but is not maintained during intermediate weeks.

In newer online (or virtual) learning environments and MOOC platforms, where learning analytics tools are available, a teacher can use them to identify students who are experiencing problems that often appear for students who are failing a course or are about to drop out. This evidence can come from their ongoing results (suspending assignments), or by changes in online behaviour (such as connecting less often to the course or by becoming more inactive in the forums). In the case of PAI/II, the OpenEdX platform had very limited analytics, so this possibility was not available.

As well as conceptual difficulties in working with the materials covered in a course, there can also be other psychological difficulties where students who require a more guided and structured learning process can lose track in a course or have motivational issues. Such a loss of direction is not really a question of knowing what to do next, which activities to undertake, or what content to study, but more a question of

being able to pace the work being done and understanding what degree of depth is required, as it is undertaken. As noted earlier, it is recognised that a significant problem for MOOCs is course dropout (Daniel, 2012), but this is not always an indication that a course is badly designed or structured, more a question of why students actually signed up to the course (Read, Barcena, & Sedano, 2018). Experienced teachers, who have developed a number of MOOCs, will be aware of the type of problems that can arise in these courses and the way in which scaffolding can be provided to help the students overcome them. Finally, in courses where facilitators or curators are included, the passive scaffolding required is greatly simplified for the teachers or course designers.

Facilitators can have two different roles within a MOOC. Firstly, as a source of guidance and help for students who cannot find the resources they need in the course, or do not understand how these resources can be used. This can happen even if the teachers have dedicated significant effort to explaining what should be done, since different people have different needs when requiring support. Secondly, for students who, even after having used such resources to learn a specific concept, or work on the development of a given competence, are still having difficulties. As the students report their difficulties in the course forums, the facilitators can either directly help, by providing additional information or explanation, or they can try to structure the interactions taking place there so that other students, who have a better understanding a given concept/competence, can be encouraged to help their peers who have difficulties, by providing the explanations and support themselves. For this to work it is essential that the more advanced students can appreciate the benefits they gain by helping others.

When MOOCs are developed for refugees and migrants, as well as the general difficulties present in this type of course for all types of students, which need to be included in any scaffolding provided, it is important to take into account other factors that also can be detrimental for this particular social group, and scaffold them as well. Firstly, for refugees coming from the MENA (Middle East or North of Africa) regions, who may not have experience of using online educational platforms or tools or even using social networks for their learning. It is one thing to use such networks, with small closed contact groups, to interact with friends and family members, and quite another to openly interact with large groups to undertake activities that would be classified as social learning (Koku & Wellman 2004). This, unfortunately, is particularly the case for females. Furthermore, regardless of the scale and nature of an online course, which can be closed with a small number of participants, or open and with many, given that refugees are often in unpredictable, instable, and changing circumstances (such as moving

from one camp to another), then trying to undertake online learning is, not surprisingly, unpopular with them. Even when this is not the case, living in noisy refugee camps, with limited access to Internet, mostly undertaken from small mobile devices, which they may not always be easy to charge, can make studying online far from easy or desirable. Furthermore, if refugees are already feeling socially isolated, then using a MOOC to attend to their learning needs may not be ideal for their feelings of isolation, since they would prefer to meet in classic F2F classrooms.

In MOONLITE, the LMOOCs PAI/II have been specifically designed and developed for refugees and migrants taking into account the specific difficulties they have with this type of course (outlined above). A series of steps were taken to address the five types of difficulties identified (namely, technological, linguistic, methodological, cultural and ethics, and institutional policy [not directly relevant for the effects of scaffolding]). Firstly, regarding the technological problems, given that 70% of the refugees and migrants taking part in these courses use mobile devices to connect to Internet, PAI/II have been developed to deploy on these devices in such a way that all the textual content is legible on a small screen, and the videos and audios have a small footprint, so that they can be downloaded without the need for broadband connections. Navigation in the courses was also simplified to be effective from mobile devices, and finally, the activities were developed to be able to be undertaken from any device without the need to use a desktop or laptop computer. As noted above, a simple user guide was also provided so that people unfamiliar with such courses or educational platforms can learn how they can move around the course and what resources and activities are available and how they should be used. The facilitators reported that no students had complained that the course resources hadn't deployed well on their mobile devices.

Secondly, regarding the linguistics problems, specific scaffolding is required. Care has been taken so the instructions for the course in general, and specifically for contents and activities, are written in such a way as to be clear, simple and avoid unnecessary linguistic terminology. As noted above, subtitles and transcriptions were provided for the videos, in both the target language and also ones already known by the refugees, i.e., French and Arabic. As can be appreciated from table 1, these videos were well valued by the students as support mechanisms.

Thirdly, from a methodological perspective, the MOOCs are structured to be massive and open in every sense. They are free of charge for registration, access to the materials, and when requesting a certificate. Although the courses have been created specifically for refugees and migrants, other types of students who want to learn introductory

Spanish could participate. It is for this reason that the courses use the term “displaced people” in their title rather than that of “refugees and migrants”. As noted previously, identifying what kind of MOOCs would be suitable for this collective, together with the actual design and development process has been undertaken in collaboration with RSGs. For this reason, the content and learning activities included in the PAI/II courses focus on practical real-world language use, since they are more relevant to the intended audience and therefore more motivating. This is an important factor when trying to prevent course dropout. It is argued that the effectiveness of the activities for the students is reflected in their mean successful completion, that is, as noted above, between 96% and 98% in PAI, and between 92% and 98% in PAII. Furthermore, as noted above in table 1, 98% of the students in PAI and 100% in PAII stated that they found the activities supporting and motivating in helping them learn.

Fourthly, the cultural and ethical problems. Firstly, specific cultural scaffolding materials were prepared by the teachers before the course started. In general, the two LMOOCs PAI/II use inclusive teaching materials and course videos with participants that are diverse in terms of origin, beliefs, age, and gender. Such a selection is intended to help the students relate to them and not feel alienated by typical middle-classed European educators. It should be noted that while it is important to provide such cultural scaffolding, to help the students in the courses, it is also equally important to help them develop the necessary sociocultural and sociolinguistic skills to become intercultural speakers and citizens, thereby moving them toward their goal of social inclusion. Given the background of a lot of the refugees and migrants taking the MOOCs, where in their countries there is a historical tradition of oral learning, learning by repetition, etc., then the audio-visual components in the course are maximised and learning is not only based upon reading text. In fact, little text is used initially in the courses. Subsequently, as the refugees and migrants progress, then more importance is given to this modality. Secondly, regarding the ethical questions, at no point did the students have to disclose any personal data, and while there were activities in the forums that might lead to such disclosures (e.g., compare the health care system in a foreign country and in Spain), they were advised not to disclose any real information about themselves or their lives. The facilitators were also trained before the LMOOCs started, to be particularly sensitive to interactions that might give rise to such disclosures, and the need to take appropriate measures.

Finally, many of the facilitators in the courses were actually members of the RSGs. They were able, therefore, able to provide scaffolding based not only upon their knowledge and experience of teaching lan-

guages, but also specifically upon their practical experience of working with social group and the types of problems they have.

In both PAI/II courses, all the facilitators noted the success of this engagement, causing more than 80% of the culturally relevant interactions in the forums to be longer than other ones. In the follow up interviews, the facilitators also noted a series of factors identified by the students as being supportive and motivating them in working hard in the courses. These factors included the preparation of courses adapted to their specific needs (e.g., defending their rights), the provision of scaffolding within the materials of the course, the practical nature of the topics covered in the modules, and the multicultural atmosphere generated in the forums.

4. Conclusions

The research presented in this article was carried out in the context of the MOONLITE project. Following a design-based approach, including both RSGs and refugees in the process, two Spanish A1 - A2 LMOOCs were designed, developed, and run. The results of these courses showed that nearly a third of all the students who had registered for the courses successfully completed them. These rates are well above the 10% figure common in almost all MOOCs. From previous experience the authors appreciate the value given to the support the students receive in LMOOCs. Hence, a study has been undertaken to explore the nature of scaffolding in the courses and the effect it has had on these results.

This article started by presenting the limitations of LMOOCs in general and for refugees and migrants in particular. Previous research has identified five areas where they can have particular difficulties with this type of course, namely: technological, linguistic, methodological, cultural and ethical, and institutional policy. For all except the last, this paper presented research that considers what effect scaffolding can have for displaced people. After contextualising the problems in these areas according to the existing literature, two research questions were presented. Firstly, how can scaffolding be provided for refugee and migrant students in an LMOOC to overcome or limit both the inherent difficulties with this teaching/learning modality, together with the problems that these students bring to the courses? Secondly, what is the effect of this scaffolding on learning in the courses?

Regarding the first question, two types of scaffolding were identified, which can be referred to as passive and active scaffolding. The former was designed into a course before it started, and the latter was provided by the facilitators, interacting with the students, as the courses

progressed. As discussed previously in the article, the passive scaffolding took the form of introductory videos, textual materials, subtitles and transcriptions for all the videos, supplementary resources (such as subtitles and transcriptions of the course videos, vocabulary lists, both monolingual and multilingual, additional explanatory information, and cultural notes), activities that explicitly help the students to structure their work in a similar way that they would if there were a teacher present. As noted from the final course questionnaire results, the students greatly valued these passive scaffolding mechanisms, and the support they provided for learning. The results presented above also show the motivational value given by the students to these elements, something that arguably helped prevent course abandonment.

Active scaffolding refers to the guidance and help provided by the facilitators, and more advanced students, in the course forums, as the need arises. When the students have difficulties using the learning resources in the course, or require additional explanations and information, the facilitators complemented what already exists in the courses and provide additional help.

Regarding the second research question, from 92% to 100% of the students who undertook the courses successfully completed all the activities. These activities tested the students' knowledge and understanding of the Spanish taught therein. When questioned about the activities, the students attested to the effectiveness of the (passive and active) scaffolding received for their learning. Furthermore, as well as just the completion rates for the courses, the overall results presented above include indirect evidence of learning. This can be seen in terms of overall progress in the activities in the courses and the way in which knowledge and understanding of the Spanish covered in the courses is used by the students in debates in the forums and in response to facilitators' questions.

It has been argued in this article that scaffolding has a key role to play in supporting learning and the development of language competences in LMOOCs. The analysis undertaken here shows that scaffolding should be included in all three phases of the lifecycle of such a course: during its design, development and deployment. Such support arguably fulfils two basic needs of students in online learning, shortening distances between participants and educators, thereby increasing social inclusion and engagement, and easing access to and the use of online resources and activities.

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Notas

- ¹ Massive Open Online courses enhancing Linguistic and Transversal skills for social inclusion and employability. ERASMUS+ project number: 2016-1-ES01-KA203-025731
- ² <https://www.openuped.eu/>
- ³ <https://moocs4inclusion.org/>

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Current advances in providing social, mobile, and open language teaching to all

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The aim of this article is to analyse the recent development of an innovative inclusive paradigm for distance, social, and open second language teaching/learning, whose core is defined by mobile technology and Mobile Assisted Language Learning or MALL. This is intended to be the main way in which distance second language learners can interact and carry out their learning processes effectively, not an additional tool that can be used to perform a repertoire of tasks.

Keywords: second languages, pedagogical inclusion, mobile assisted learning, open learning, social learning.

Avances en la enseñanza social, móvil y abierta para todos. El objetivo de este artículo es analizar el reciente desarrollo de un innovador paradigma inclusivo para la enseñanza/aprendizaje de segundas lenguas a distancia, social y abierto, fundamentado en la tecnología móvil y el Aprendizaje de Lenguas Asistido por Móviles (conocido por sus siglas inglesas: MALL). Se pretende que este sea el principal medio para que los estudiantes de segundas lenguas a distancia puedan interactuar y llevar a cabo sus procesos de aprendizaje de forma eficaz, no una mera herramienta adicional que pueda utilizarse para realizar un repertorio de tareas.

Palabras clave: segundas lenguas, inclusión pedagógica, aprendizaje asistido por móvil, aprendizaje abierto, aprendizaje social.

1. Introduction

Assuming that the aim of language learning is communication, an issue that often takes on a practical dimension of extreme necessity for displaced people, it is reasonable to infer that it should involve considerable practice¹. Therefore, since verbal communicative practice is intrinsically social, an important part of language learning must be undertak-

en with other interlocutors. Moreover, following this social constructivist approach which dominates language teaching methodologies today, the learner is expected to take an active role in his or her own learning. Since knowledge is generally self-constructed rather than transferred, learners require the opportunity to create strategies and connections that are meaningful to them, in an adaptive way, so that they can gradually take control of their own learning (Cuesta Medina, Anderson & McDougald 2017). However, given the intrinsically social nature of verbal communication, the research community highly values processes such as negotiating meaning and engaging in structured group work, which are often oriented towards the performance of practical tasks, such as participating, assisting each other and constructing and sharing new knowledge and skills (Warschauer & Kern 2000).

It should be mentioned in these preliminary reflections on language learning that languages have a dual nature as verbal communicative vehicles and also as rule-governed systems. After childhood, experts agree that individuals gradually lose some of their innate language acquisition skills and acquire a more rule-based cognitive profile. Therefore, adult second language learners, particularly those without strong self-regulatory mechanisms, as is the case for many human groups with uncertain access to education, are likely to benefit from the explicit model of learning, something partially based on face-to-face/textual/visual explanations with illustrative examples followed by some creative and engaging form of practice (Ellis 2015). It has been argued that part of this process will be more effective if done individually, particularly for improving certain language areas such as pronunciation or punctuation, as it provides the necessary flexibility and adaptation to personal learning styles, preferences, rhythms, and circumstances, however complex these may be, while enhancing the development of metacognitive and self-regulatory skills and processes (Read & Barcena 2014).

2. Distant language learning for all

Language learning in migrant groups is characterised by the prominent role of immediate needs and the lack of stability in the circumstances surrounding the subjects. Distance learning has been discussed in the specialized literature as a modality in which learners can effectively achieve a wide range of learning objectives (García Aretio 2017). Many authors, such as Hurd, Beaven & Ortega (2001) and White (2003), have published extensively on the feasibility of second language learning at a distance when continued attendance in face-to-face classes is not feasible, as is

often the case for the aforementioned groups. Subsequent research (e.g., White 2006; Moore & Kearsley 2011) has focused on gathering evidence and refining methods, practices and strategies for second language learning at a distance with multidisciplinary approaches and increasingly sophisticated designs and tools adapted to the complex profile of people in vulnerable situations, so that this kind of learning is now a recommended option more than a substitute or supplement.

There are multiple definitions and analyses of how the distance 'component' affects the way learners develop their linguistic-communicative competences. The most widely cited proposal is that of Keegan (1996), who points to three features of distance education that are key to language teaching and learning. Firstly, the physical separation of teachers and learners, which is accentuated in the case of displaced persons; secondly, the role of technology, which provides two-way communication and access to educational content in a flexible and immediate way; and thirdly, the structure of these studies, which is distinguished from others by its systematicity. Although a lot of research has been undertaken since this characterisation, as White (2006) points out almost two decades later, Keegan's model is widely referenced in the literature on distance language learning (e.g., Boyle 1994; Fleming & Hiple 2004; Harrell 2008; Andrade & Bunker 2009).

There is a considerable body of research demonstrating that distance learning in general can produce similar, if not superior, outcomes to face-to-face classrooms (e.g., Reuter 2009; Hanover Research 2011). Some specific studies have focused on languages and the characteristics that make online courses effective for learning them. Don (2005) used data collected from a questionnaire given to participants in an online Spanish course, identifying the requirements for an inclusive distance second language course: clear instructions and documentation, effective communication among participants and between participants and their teachers, parallel and counterbalanced focus on different language processes (with an emphasis on orality) and audio-visual materials. Coryell & Chlup (2007) also used questionnaire data obtained from ESL learners in the United States using different software programmes, websites and learning platforms, and concluded that key elements of a well-functioning course include teacher training, the degree of collaboration promoted, and the nature of individual instruction and support provided. Vorobel & Kim (2012) analysed 24 articles from 2005 to 2010 on studies that compared face-to-face and distance language studies. The articles surprisingly include an equal proportion of qualitative and quantitative methodological approaches and comparable achievements in terms of the effectiveness of the course in achieving its objectives, the coherence of its structure, learner satisfaction, the quality of pedagogy

used, and the presence of collaboration and assessment. Thus, while the results present in the literature support the use of distance language teaching over its face-to-face equivalent whenever necessary or even possible, it is worth arguing for further research to refine these findings, paying attention to the challenges of distance language teaching, such as interactivity and dropout.

The incorporation of online technology has made possible distance learning that is practical and abstract, exploratory, mechanical, interactive, and collaborative, and also adaptive (in pace and level) and personalised (according to interests and objectives). Through technology-mediated interaction, the development of so-called soft skills or social skills is possible, which, in turn allows for the personal and professional growth necessary in areas such as employability, social development, participation, change and adaptation (García, López, Molina & Morales 2016). This is in tune with the technological reality of groups such as migrants and refugees, who often participate in online social networks such as Facebook through their mobile phones to keep in touch with family and relatives. However, this online learning modality is not without its challenges. Durán Padilla & Reséndiz Rodríguez (2007) mention that, given that the learner does not have the emotional proximity of teacher and classmates, academic failure and dropout can occur if the learner falls into passivity and apathy. Furthermore, the most common problem is often related to technological failures, poor programme design, lack of robustness and inadequate software performance (Bates 2005). Social learning, in its broadest sense, refers to an open-ended, unstructured type of learning and is not necessarily bound by Social Learning Theory (Rotter 1945; Bandura 1977). Today it is often used in relation to the social networks that are part of Web 2.0 (a topic that has been addressed in the literature from complementary perspectives in works such as Downes 2005; Brown and Adler 2008; Li & Bernoff 2008; and Prensky 2009), but it is still linked to the idea of learning as a cognitive process that takes place in a social context, not necessarily physical, and that occurs by modelling, that is, by observing, imitating and or interacting with other people's behaviour, attitudes and models. As can be seen, social learning integrates elements of cognitive learning theory, focussing on cognitive factors, and behaviourism, which is based on the concept of responses to environmental stimuli.

The application of social, open, and massive online learning to second languages is recent and research highlights both success stories and challenges (Barcena, Martín-Monje & Read 2015). MOOCs represent a leading example of open education, although they are not the only form in which it has been implemented (bulletin boards, online communities, social networks, etc.). Open learning does not have a single, global def-

initiation, but generally refers to a modality that is adopted because of the subject's needs, and is delivered in formats related to learning communities, MOOCs, and the use of open educational resources. Its special interest for displaced people lies in the fact that it usually takes place without legal or economic constraints, beyond the formal, regulated programmes of educational institutions, to which they probably do not have access.

The application of mobile technology to second language learning has several advantages and disadvantages. Regarding the advantages, firstly, it allows users to access learning activities anywhere and at any time, which is crucial for people on the move and in other time zones, allowing them to make the best use of time within their complex life situations. Secondly, this technology leads “naturally” to social learning, as geographically distant users can collaborate with their peers to interact, discuss, and learn. Thirdly, extending learning to activities that require the use of mobile devices can attract and maintain users' interest, since it provides them with opportunities to connect on a social level and the possibility to move away from the “academic” environments that can alienate certain groups of people. Fourthly, mobile devices allow users to work at their own pace and review materials if/when/where they want. Fifthly and finally, these devices support different learning styles, making it possible to learn by reading texts or watching videos, to give some examples. Regarding the disadvantages, firstly, the connectivity problems often experienced by mobile groups can limit the learner's ability to study online. Secondly, the small size of the screen may strain the user's eyesight after a prolonged period of time. Thirdly, the type of device and its underlying operating system condition the online materials and resources that can be used. More flexible devices tend to be expensive, as are the monthly data plans that must be paid for Internet access. These and other limitations, together with the large number of apps and the ad hoc way in which they are often used, have so far prevented MALL from playing a more prominent role in the field of inclusive second language learning.

3. Collaboration

Collaborative or social learning takes place through the interaction between peers and may or may not lead to a change in the attitudes and/or behaviour of the subjects. However, it is generally considered to be intrinsically linked to the socio-constructivist paradigm of learning, which although a general or interdisciplinary concept, is suitable for subjects such as language and communication, where performance is

eminently interpersonal (Wijayanti 2017) (see <https://www.techprevue.com/collaborative-learning-tools/> for a sample list of collaborative tools for teachers and learners). To be considered social, a process must, firstly, demonstrate that there has been a change in the knowledge or understanding of the individuals involved. Secondly, that this change goes beyond the individual learning with the teacher, or from materials, and is situated within wider social units or communities of practice through what are considered to be social relations, such as those of displaced people's own collectives, which are typically situated between personal or private and occupational ones (Reed, Evely, Cundill, Fazey, Glass, Laing, Newig, Parrish, Prell, Raymond and Stringer 2010). Social learning is historically linked to Computer Mediated Communication (Turoff 1991) from the 1980s and 1990s. Just as collaborative project initiatives between groups of native speakers of different languages have been unanimously praised (Thorne & Payne 2005), there have also been criticisms related to the informality or unstructured nature of the learning process. This can cause the most vulnerable participants to be less humanistic and critical in their thinking (Oppenheimer 1997), as well as, on occasion, to reach erroneous conclusions.

However, the vast majority of these courses are run on "closed" institutional platforms, where general open access is not possible. The Web has gradually evolved into a gigantic social infrastructure where most tools and services have a component that allows people to discuss or give feedback on what they are reading/using or provide links to major social networks where this can be done. The popularity of this infrastructure has led in an expected way to didactic applications. Gradually, online courses are starting to move away from closed platforms towards open ones, where social interaction between students has become a key element in the learning process. As awareness of the existence of such courses grows, the number of learners originally distanced from traditional academic forums, but now able to learn online, has increased dramatically. Thus, massive, open, social learning has become an educational phenomenon that is receiving increasing attention from the research community (Kop 2011; Gea, Montes, Rojas, Marín, Cañas, Blanco & Gutierrez 2013).

Social modelling has a direct application in education. If students see positive consequences of a particular type of behaviour (e.g., a peer who clarifies all their doubts through questions), they are more likely to repeat that behaviour themselves. Conversely, if the consequences are negative, they are less likely to perform that behaviour. Another reflection on this theory is that students develop self-esteem and awareness of their limits through constructive comparison and feedback, which is particularly relevant for those who have experienced challenging or

traumatic situations. Moreover, studies have shown that the social roles that are created (such as coordinator, monitor, etc.) are very positive for the learners with problems, who are more open and participative with their peers than with their teacher. This is also the case for the more advanced learners, who find the task of assisting their peers not only rewarding, but also an opportunity to refine and ratify their own knowledge and, obviously, for the teacher, who sees part of his/her burden lightened, especially in overcrowded courses.

4. Openness

Despite what some media have tried to convey to society, MOOCs represent a natural evolution of open educational resources (OER) (Bárcena 2009). It was not until 2008 that Dave Cormier explicitly used the term MOOC to refer to a massive open online course (Siemens 2012; Watters 2012). Downes (2012) would later argue that MOOCs have unprecedented learning potential in that they allow large numbers of people to combine the advantages of open content with the concept of open learning - training and personal development. This educational modality attempts to promote learning for large numbers of people with a shared interest, removing the initial barriers to access and attendance and, in some cases, offering credits and/or certificates at a very low cost (or even for free) at the end of the course. It is not surprising, therefore, that despite the conflict of interests with the priorities of formal educational institutions, and the many criticisms raised about them in the literature (Romeo 2012; Jackson 2013), MOOCs are having a significant impact on the hundreds of thousands of people taking these courses around at any given time. These courses have also given rise to a large field of international research, where the author has been working for some time. Therefore, despite some unmet expectations and the low completion rates, considerable interest in the field still prevails, as evidenced by the growing number of such courses and their followers worldwide.

Several factors are responsible for making MOOCs in general, and LMOOCs in particular, both possible and popular for displaced people (see <https://www.my-mooc.com/en/categorie/foreign-languages> for a varied sample of language MOOCs). Firstly, widespread access to the Web has become a reality, even in many (though not all) disadvantaged parts of the world. Secondly, a large percentage of these people are not fortunate enough to be able to afford the usual tuition fees. Such a complex modality could not exist without challenges, including the size of the student body (which makes it difficult to handle and manage, e.g.,

how to provide feedback and scaffolding), problems of attribution of authorship of an assessment, and the high dropout rate, particularly among those with more objectifiable difficulties (Read 2014). In addition, Barcena & Martín-Monje (2014) have also discussed their difficulties, such as the changing role of teachers in LMOOCs (where they move from being instructors to facilitators, so they cannot interact in a personalised way with the majority of enrolled students), the aforementioned problem of how to provide effective feedback with such an unbalanced teacher-student ratio, and the difficulties of managing a highly heterogeneous group, composed of individuals with different levels of linguistic-communicative competences (in the case of LMOOCs). However, second language learning is an eminently practical and dynamic process and, as such, lies at the heart of the suitability scale for this open teaching modality.

The experience being gained by academics working on the design and development of inclusive LMOOCs (such as Open UNED's Spanish for Immediate Needs) is refining the concept empirically, discriminating what is more effective for the students. The results of this analysis include the average number of hours that a course should last to make it useful and engaging, the definition of prototypical learner traits that can be considered in the course design process, and the most appropriate assistive technology. In conclusion, enrolment figures, demographic studies of their population and satisfaction surveys show that LMOOCs are very popular (Martín-Monje, Bárcena, & Read 2013). It can be argued that the popularity stems in part from the lack of associated cost and the flexibility of access and engagement they offer. Unlike other OER-related initiatives, they represent comprehensive and guided learning. Furthermore, the social orientation of most of these courses is also stimulating and rewarding for learners (Boyd, Richerson, & Henrich 2011).

5. Mobility

With the advent of the smartphone and the development of open mobile operating systems such as Android, there has been a “democratisation” of such devices. Also, the reduction in the price of mobile devices means that even the most disadvantaged sectors have access them. As Evans (2014) points out, “The world is mobile!”, a claim supported by a multitude of data such as the approximately 5000 billion smartphones and tablets sold by the end of 2016 (compared to approximately 3500 billion desktops and laptops), the 115 billion app downloads on iOS and Android devices (see <https://www.cnet.com/tech/services-and-software/best-language-learning-apps/>), one of many websites with the best

and latest learning apps). Of these, the most popular category is social networking, with people spending a third of their mobile device usage time connecting with one of these, and it is the top mobile use among displaced people, ahead of information search.

Looking at the mobile device and app usage data outlined above, it is easy to see the relevance that networked mobile devices can have for inclusive learning and to aspire that through their use a huge number of people who do not have access to other technological equipment can access learning. They represent an important step towards ubiquitous access to information and, as such, will in the short-term condition the ways in which online education, which learners are beginning to explore, can be undertaken. This is not about researchers trying to draw people into Web 2.0 environments from their mobile devices, because they can already see the benefits. This is a bottom-up revolution, where learners themselves are pushing their teachers, not the other way around. This change in habits reflects basic human behaviour: if we are used to using a tool for one purpose, we will inevitably try to use it for others. In the case of displaced people, this means that, regardless of their willingness to use mobiles for learning, and the intrinsic qualities of these devices to do so, it is up to the teacher to extend their learning time through acts relevant to their daily lives, adapting content and methods to the realities and usage needs these people have. The concern for compatibility and ubiquity in mobile learning has already led to the creation of a line of research aimed at exploring how to ensure such uniformity, which has been called Mobile Seamless Learning (MSL), whose application to languages has been analysed by Wong, Chai, Chin, Hsieh and Liu (2011) and to LMOOCs by de Waard, Keskin & Koutropoulos (2014), both with promising results.

6. Conclusion

The paradigm proposed here builds on the well-established and standardised role of technology in distance learning and its potential for inclusive second language learning. The use of mobile devices here offers three benefits for social and open language learning, which can complement the experience. Firstly, it allows learners to pursue their studies in a flexible way, making the most of the time they have available as they move from place to place every day. This access, in itself, will promote frequent interaction and, in the process, communication and collaboration. The students do not need to wait to have a computer at hand, but can check to see if, for example, another colleague has commented on something they have said in a forum or social network. Secondly, modern smartphones provide an enriched way for students to interact with the world around

them, recording sounds and language, taking pictures, getting geographical data, etc. (e.g., find a certain type of object, take a picture of it, tag the parts of the object in the picture, and upload it to the course for their peers in order to continue the same activity). Thirdly and finally, modern mobile devices are themselves powerful little computers based on an extensible application architecture that can provide general tools to complement open social language learning, either as part of a course or as some kind of complementary activity (Godwin-Jones 2011).

The state of development of MOOC platforms for mobile deployment has been summarised by de Waard (2014). Given the widespread adoption of mobile devices, it is only a matter of time before most, if not all, of the major MOOC providers prepare their courses and related tools in mobile mode. This is becoming increasingly evident with new collaborative projects starting to emerge, such as the EdX partnership with Facebook for mobile course access in Africa. Other more recent initiatives, such as Indian My Open Courses, were mobile-friendly from the start. Even MOOC platforms that do not support mobile access can offer content and resources to be downloaded indirectly to a computer and then transferred to a mobile device. It should also be noted that, given the wide range of mobile 2.0 compatible tools that are available these days, it is questionable whether a true MOOC platform is really necessary to offer social and open learning to students these days. It seems to be the case that social, massive, and open language learning supported by mobile technology adds enough elements to make language learning an effective process, and a meaningful experience, following an approach that integrates these elements. In the emerging debate around the adaptation of LMOOCs to a mobile format, the logic has been identified that if there are learners doing a course, they will try to use a mobile device (which they will no doubt be using for other purposes) to continue this activity where possible (Kukulska-Hulme, Traxler & Pettit 2007; Pettit & Kukulska-Hulme 2007). This premise is implicit in much of the research being carried out on MALL.

The theoretical basis of the paradigm presented in this article aims to take advantage of the linguistic, methodological, and technological configurations of social and open learning resources and tools specifically adapted for distance language learners at risk of exclusion. This approach incorporates mobility and mobile devices into the configuration of an innovative learning paradigm. Furthermore, the backbone of this paradigm is defined by mobile and MALL technology, not only as an additional tool that can be used to perform certain tasks, in a loosely structured or controlled way, but as the main support or vehicle from which these users can interact and carry out their distance learning effectively.

It has been argued here that mobile devices can complement inclusive, social, and open language learning in three main ways. First, they can pro-

vide access to learning resources and other online learners “anytime-anywhere”. This access offers the possibility of a model of interaction and communication that replicates a real-world reference and immersive learning modality in a previously unheard-of way, including casual knowledge acquisition. Secondly, mobile devices have a wide range of sensors that can be used in an easy and intuitive way to interact with the real world. This allows learners to extract activities from the online environment and incorporate them into everyday life, where, moreover, information and interaction can be recorded for later reintroduction into the online world as resources for learning activities. Alternatively, online learning outcomes can be used as scaffolding resources for activities that an individual may need to carry out in the real world. Indeed, the literature has spoken of the dual role of mobile technology as both an assistant and a tutor to the second language learner (Sharples 2000). Thirdly and finally, the app culture associated with mobile devices provides a valuable set of programmes to complement previous online activities. In addition to general apps that can be useful in supporting learning, many of which are free, the author argues that MALL practices should be closely integrated with open and social language learning in order to diversify and optimise their potential. Some incipient work has already been done to apply mobile devices to specific tasks within social and open online learning processes for second languages. However, no systematic and grounded use of them as a cornerstone for such learning has been made to date, as the author here proposes.

The hypothesis underlying the intention to explore an innovative paradigm of inclusive social and open second language distance learning, whose backbone is defined by mobile technology and MALL, is that the social and open didactic dimensions, with a structure defined by mobile technology and MALL practices, can be integrated into a single modality for the effective development of linguistic-communicative competences at a distance (Barcena & Read 2015; Read, Barcena & Kukulska-Hulme 2015). The modality resulting from the intersection of these three dimensions would have a synergistic effect from a Kuhnian perspective, i.e., in the interpretative framework of today’s horizontal, fluid, connected and coordinated knowledge societies. In these, it would also provide, together with the agency of displaced people and their changing contexts and situations, the blurring of the boundaries of learning with those of their real lives towards greater linguistic immersion.

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Pronunciation improvement in MOOCs: an unavoidable challenge

Victoria Marrero-Aguilar

This article is focused on the challenges posed by the development of oral production skills (including pronunciation) in a Massive Open Online Course (MOOC), a resource that is totally conditioned by the technologies and has very limited possibilities for individual adaptation. First, the difficulties that this goal poses are reviewed and confronted with some successful precedents that show how to deal with those challenges. Next, we present a case study in which some strategies and resources have been used to develop oral skills and improve pronunciation in technologically mediated environments, a Spanish L-MOOC for migrants and refugees, absolute beginners, developed at UNED (Spain).

Keywords: speaking, pronunciation, oral skills, Spanish as a Second Language, linguistic integration of migrants and refugees, Mobile Assisted Language Learning, Language-MOOC.

La mejora de la pronunciación por medio de MOOCs: un reto ineludible. Este trabajo aborda los retos asociados al desarrollo de las destrezas de producción oral (incluyendo la pronunciación) en un recurso tan condicionado por las tecnologías y tan difícil de personalizar como un curso online masivo y abierto (MOOC). En primer lugar, se plantea una reflexión sobre las dificultades que ese objetivo plantea y se describen algunos precedentes de éxito que demuestran que, de una manera u otra, estos desafíos ya se han abordado. A continuación, presentamos un estudio de caso en el que se han utilizado algunas estrategias y recursos para desarrollar las habilidades orales y mejorar la pronunciación en entornos mediados por la tecnología, un L-MOOC español para inmigrantes y refugiados, principiantes absolutos, desarrollado en la UNED (España).

Palabras clave: producción oral, pronunciación, español como segunda lengua, integración lingüística de migrantes y refugiados, aprendizaje de lenguas mediado por ordenador, curso online masivo abierto para la enseñanza de lenguas, L-MOOC.

1. Introduction

MOOCs (Massive Online Open Courses) are educational resources that have increased exponentially in the last years, reaching in 2020 180 million learners, 16.3 thousand courses, 950 universities, and 67 MOOC-based degrees from providers all over the world (<https://www.classcentral.com/report/the-second-year-of-the-mooc/>), and the Covid-19 pandemic has only increased that trend (Sun 2020, Flores Tena 2020). The main knowledge areas in which MOOCs are offered are Computer, Business and Science (Health Sciences during 2020), but Language MOOCs (L-MOOCs) are more and more frequent. We may wonder if these courses, with their fixed structure, are an adequate tool for learning a foreign language. If we look at previous experiences, the answer will depend, to some extent, on the skills we focus on. For perception skills (oral comprehension and reading), grammar and vocabulary, MOOCs offer great advantages: plenty of audiovisual stimuli, complementary explanations and materials, as many cloze tests as desired... But for language production (written and, especially, oral skills) the difficulties are much greater, as will be shown in the following pages.

In this article, some ways to face the challenges derived from the development of oral production skills (speech, pronunciation) in the MOOCs are presented. In the next section, the difficulties inherent to MOOC characteristics are reviewed and confronted with some successful precedents in courses aimed at migrants and refugees that show how to deal with those challenges. After that, methodological aspects will be addressed, the strategies and resources needed to develop oral skills in a technologically mediated environment, with a quick review of those developed in the context of UNED (*Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia*, Distance Learning University in Spain). In the main section, we will present our own proposals for Spanish pronunciation teaching by means of MOOCs, especially in *Puertas abiertas: curso de español para necesidades inmediatas*, a course for migrants and refugees, absolute beginners. We will conclude by relating our results to those obtained by previous studies, and by proposing ways to address the challenges of technology-mediated pronunciation teaching.

2. The challenge to develop oral production skills in L-MOOCs. When the addressees are migrants and refugees

“Real language acquisition develops slowly, and speaking skills emerge significantly later than listening skills, even when conditions are perfect” (Krashen 1982: 7)

Engaging actively in a conversation is, in most cases, the primary goal and the hardest task when learning a foreign language. To achieve it, the learner needs to express ideas, feelings or personal views and, at the same time, to understand those of his/her partner. Oral skills (listening and speaking) require a highly demanding set of cognitive processes.

The complexity of learning to speak in another language is reflected in the range and type of subskills that are entailed in L2 oral production. Learners must simultaneously attend to content, morphosyntax and lexis, discourse and information structuring, and the sound system and prosody, as well as appropriate register and pragmalinguistic features. [...] The key metacognitive strategies widely adopted in L2 listening instruction include planning for listening, self-monitoring the comprehension processes, evaluating comprehension, and identifying comprehension difficulties [...]. Learners at beginning and intermediate levels of proficiency may benefit from instruction that concentrates on bottom-up and top-down listening processes, together with selective strategy training. For more advanced learners, an addition of cognitive strategies, such as discourse organization, inferencing, elaboration, and summation, also represent an effective approach to teaching listening (Hinkel 2006: 114-119).

Consequently, learners frequently feel unconfident about their achievements in these concatenated skills.

One theme that emerged consistently from both the students' and the instructors' comments was students' lack of confidence, whether in their listening abilities, their fluency, or their pronunciation. Students appeared convinced that they could not understand their instructors, that their native-English-speaking peers were irritated by them, and that their own speech was unintelligible." (Ferris 1998: 310-311).

The reasons for such difficulties are heterogeneous. Apart from the aforementioned psycholinguistic processes, there are also cultural variables, arising from the complex pragmatic rules that regulate the conversational exchange in every speech community, with different timing for turn-taking, and different hierarchical roles for each participant. Other difficulties have their roots in the educational tradition: it has not always been encouraged the active participation of the student in the classroom. Finally, the individual personality is an important factor in this regard: shyness, shame embarrassment for making mistakes, etc. are also variables that explain the phenomenon (Tanveer 2007, LeVelle & Levis 2014).

In the context of a one-to-one conversation, or a face-to-face class, the training on oral production skills can be done in many ways: questions and answers between teacher and students, pairs' conversations, small groups discussions, short individual dissertations or presenta-

tions, etc. In the context of Computed Assisted Language Learning (CALL) this is much more complex, because of the inherent asynchronicity in the communicative process in self-paced learning, which implies a delay in the feedback provided by the teacher and classmates. But when the vehicle used for releasing the teaching materials is the mobile phone (MALL), and especially in a Massive Online Open Course (MOOC), the above circumstances add up to a very high number of students with very diverse profiles (Estebas-Vilaplana & Solans 2020). Therefore, individual training or assessment, even asynchronous, becomes unattainable.

And, last but not least, our specific meta group poses an added challenge. Learning the new language for migrants and refugees is a means to achieve other purposes (first of all, survival), not a goal in itself; their attendance to the course will be conditioned by many external factors that result in a low attending rate (OECD/EC 2015). Some of the learners can use this course as a complementary resource for their face-to-face classes once they arrive in their destination country, but many others can access it from everywhere, far from a situation of immersion. Their access to the required infrastructure (connectivity, mobile phones quality...) can be poor. And their previous social, educational and cultural background also can be very diverse, as well as their age, their literacy level, their attitudes towards learning a new language, and even their mother and following (2nd, 3rd.) languages, in most cases not enough known in our context. Spain is receiving an increasing number of asylum applications (almost 100,000 in 2020, according to UNHCR, <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/documents/details/83974>), mostly from Spanish-speaking countries, but also from Ukraine, Mali, or several sub-Saharan countries. However, as we will see below, the language resources to address the needs of asylum seekers in Spanish do not seem to be receiving the same attention as those in other European languages.

Despite all the difficulties mentioned above, there are previous experiences that have achieved reasonable success in the development of language skills for migrants and refugees by means of MOOCs. Probably the most ambitious and well-known experience in their use for the access of migrants and refugees to the university is the Kiron Open Higher Education, whose motto is “Open Higher Education for Refugees. Kiron enables access to higher education and successful learning for refugees through digital solutions”. They define themselves as “a service provider in the field of education and tech that helps refugees to start or continue their studies with online courses” (<https://kiron.ngo/navigator/global/what-kiron-is-not/>). The Kiron Language School offers, in English, German and French, “language courses in various digital formats, including virtual classrooms, online live-teaching sessions, etc.”, as well

as traditional face-to-face classes. Those MOOCs are hosted, in general, on platforms as EdX or Coursera. The last one, on its page <http://refugees.coursera.org>, recommends appropriate courses for refugees, and also a procedure to apply for financial aid.

The project Moocs4inclusion (<http://moocs4inclusion.org>) was directed in 2016 by the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission with the aim of “assessing the adequacy (mapping and analyzing) of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) and Free Digital Learning (FDL) for inclusion of migrants and refugees”. Its main research question was “*Are MOOCs and other free digital learning offers (including free mobile learning) effective and efficient ways for developing the skills needed by migrants and refugees for inclusion, integration, re-engagement in formal or non-formal education (e.g. via recognition of learning outcomes), employability and civic participation?*” In the final report, the authors recommend “initiatives that take a ‘blended’ (online and face-to-face) and ‘facilitated’ (support services and mentoring) approach” and “found that language learning is a first-priority intervention for the general migrant and refugee community. Language learning and civic integration-related initiatives are commonly linked and the concept of ‘Content and Language Integrated Learning’ (CLIL) is gaining momentum” (Colucci *et al.* 2017: 5-6). Aside from the above, the project’s web page offers also a complete (and increasing) catalogue of digital and free resources for the integration of migrants and refugees.

In the Council of Europe frame, it is noteworthy the Erasmus+ Online Linguistic Support for Refugees (<https://erasmusplusols.eu/ols4refugees/>); it does not offer MOOCs, but blended or online courses in more than 20 European languages, six of them (Spanish included) from levels A1 to C2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). In the field of language policy, the Linguistic Integration of Adult Migrants (LIAM) Project aims at offering support to facilitate migrants’ linguistic integration in civil society; apart from various surveys, they launched, in November 2017, the Language Support for adult refugees: a Council of Europe toolkit (<https://www.coe.int/en/web/language-support-for-adult-refugees/home>), with 57 tools ranging from ethical and intercultural issues to L1 descriptions (Arabic, Kurdish, Somali or Persian), recommendations to develop different skills, and several didactic units. It is important to note that the page is offered in seven languages, but not in Spanish. In this context, the MOONLITE Project (Ref.: 2016-1-ES01-KA203-025731) is framed, whose objective is “Learning, support and certification without frontiers. Harnessing the potential of MOOCs for refugees and migrants to build their language competences and entrepreneurial skills for employment, higher educa-

tion, and social inclusion” (<https://moonliteproject.eu/>). Co-funded by the Erasmus+ Programme, MOONLITE offers, under the line “MOOC for integration and language courses”, an important added value providing materials for Spanish as a new language with the aim to provide linguistic and transversal skills to refugees and migrants for their social inclusion and employability (Castrillo & Sedano 2021; Read & Bárcena 2021; Read, Sedano & Bárcena 2018; Read, Sedano & Bárcena 2021).

Having outlined the challenges we face in using MOOCs for language training of migrants and refugees, and mentioned some initiatives that have addressed them, we will move on to the methodological issues, with a brief review of the strategies and resources that have been used in the broader context of computer-assisted instruction to develop oral skills in a foreign language.

3. Methodology

3.1. Strategies and resources for the development of oral skills in technology-mediated environments

Computer Assisted Language Learning or, more specifically, Mobile Assisted Language Learning have faced the challenge of developing oral skills in a context where face-to-face interaction is not possible, even before the arrival of MOOCs. There are plenty of references to experiences or research on the use of synchronous computer-mediated communication environments: videoconferencing (critical reviews by Coverdale-Jones 2000, or Yousef, Chatti & Schroeder 2014); use of social networks (Lomicka & Lord 2016; Reinhardt 2017); specific learners communities, in platforms as Busuu (Álvarez Valencia 2014), italki (Beaven, Fuertes Gutierrez & Motzo 2017) or LiveMocha (Lin, Warschauer & Blake 2016); or tens of language learning apps (review in Gangaianmaran & Pasupathi 2017).

Thus, the success of the new (or not so new) technologies in the field of second language learning seems to be proven. Within the UNED, and in the MOONLITE- ATLAS team, many initiatives have been carried out in this field (García Riaza *et al.* 2013). In the development of listening skills, apps as the following have been developed: *Audio News Trainer for English* (ANT; Pareja Lora *et al.* 2013; Bárcena & Read 2015; Read & Bárcena 2016); *Videos for Listening* (VIOLIN, Talaván & Ávila-Cabrera 2015); FAN CLUB (Friends of Audiobook Network), or *EATING OUT*, considered “not an app in itself, but rather a teacher resource for listening comprehension and communicative practice”

(Arús-Hita 2016). It uses language samples from a radio broadcast and other audio files or video clips. The kind of activities that students can do are automatic quizzes or questions with ‘sample answers’ (Castrillo, Bárcena & Pareja-Lora 2014). The authors recognize that the focus on oral comprehension is “mainly due to the fact that assessing and/or automatically correcting activities regarding [...] other skills is much more complicated than assessing oral comprehension” (Castrillo, Bárcena & Pareja-Lora 2014: 44). Certainly, the assessment is a difficulty to be solved when dealing with production skills in technology-mediated learning materials, but evaluation is only a part of the learning process. Focused on speaking, in the app *Videos for Speaking* (VISP, Ibáñez, Vermeulen & Jordano 2016) the task for the learner (B1/B2 level of CEFR) is to describe a short video clip as if they were explaining the scenes for visually impaired people. The student records him/herself (listening and repeating if needed) and sends the record to an email address; at that time the student can access a self-evaluation section, where he or she finds a model answer (oral and written) and some thought questions (in open and closed format). Future improvements could include, according to the authors, the use of social networks and a wiki for sharing and commenting on the audio files.

More recently, the use of chats, or, specifically, automatic chat systems (*bot chats*) have generated a remarkable interest in foreign language learning, even compared with human interaction (Frier *et al.* 2017). In their review, Golonka *et al.* consider “proved that with chat, both the amount of learners’ language production and its complexity significantly increased. The literature also revealed moderate support for a number of other claims, such as demonstrating pretest-posttest gains in speaking [...] and fluency; enhancing L2 speaking proficiency” (Golonka *et al.* 2014: 88).

In the narrowest field of pronunciation, many resources offer to the student articulatory or acoustic feedback, that is, schemes of the position of articulatory organs during the production of sounds and audio files. An interesting point is the role of automatic speech recognition technology in foreign language learning; it is quite usual to find systems that automatically assess the learner’s utterance recording with simple feedback (a number, a colour code, an evaluative adjective). The accuracy of these systems and their flexibility are always under review, and depends, to a big extent, on their capacity for continuous improvement. For the pronunciation of Spanish, some apps have also been developed to encourage self-learning by the learners (Carranza 2014). When considering the relevance of pronunciation for migrants and refugees, the Council of Europe considers that “they probably understand the importance of pronunciation, which adults

often find one of the most difficult aspects of language learning (Council of Europe 2017, Tool 11: 1)”.

In the next section, we will consider which of these tools can be included in a Language MOOC and how to adapt them to the predetermined structure that characterizes these courses.

3.2. Oral production skills in L-MOOCs

The MOOCs focused on language learning, also known as L-MOOCs, give a very unbalanced role in oral skills for perception and production. Most of their learning materials and activities are based on videos that require continual listening comprehension tasks (even if subtitles are frequently available). On the other side, oral production is reduced, generally, to “listen and repeat” exercises, strongly structured and absent of any feedback, or even a basic self-assessment rubric. These practices ignore the effect of the “phonological deafness” (Guberina 1931) suffered by language learners during the process of the new language acquisition, especially by adults (Dupoux and Peperkamp 2006): “the concept of phonological deafness, first proposed by Petar Guberina and incorporated to the verbotonal method for phonetic correction (Renard 1971), alludes to the difficult, or virtually impossible, task that listeners face when trying to recognize a phonetic difference based on an acoustic distinction that is not relevant to their own L1” (Lahoz 2012: 142). In the best-case scenario, students record themselves (audio or video) as part of a peer-to-peer (P2P) assessment task (Bárcena, Read, Martín-Monje & Castrillo 2014), but students participated in this activity much less than in the rest of the scheduled activities.

In an exception to this general pattern, Rubio (2015), in a specific L-MOOC on Spanish pronunciation, compared the improvement in a face-to-face course and a similar L-MOOC. He modified the standard structure of a MOOC by creating assignments in which students recorded themselves pronouncing a text they had previously heard from a native speaker, then sent that file to the course teachers, and received individual correction guidelines. The results showed that

“The format of this LMOOC was effective in providing students with the necessary tools to improve their level of comprehensibility. The analysis shows that, although both groups made significant gains after instruction, the LMOOC students showed a much larger effect size. The most immediate and general conclusion that can be drawn from the results is that the absence of face-to-face interaction and the large enrollment in the course did not prove to be an obstacle for acquisition” (Rubio 2015: 160).

The key element for this success was, according to the author, the quantity and quality of individualized corrective feedback, both instructor and peer generated.

Unfortunately, this personalized attention from teachers cannot be provided in general L-MOOCs, such as those offered to migrants and refugees, where teacher support is limited, didactic objectives go beyond pronunciation, and enrollment is very high. That is why our goal was to create, within a general L-MOOC, some progressive pronunciation modules, which would start by focusing on the perception of sounds (to deal with the phonological deafness), and then move on to production, so that the learners could autonomously build their learning process. The results will be shown in the following section.

4. Results

4.1. First experience. Oral production skills in Spanish L-MOOCs for foreign language learners

Considering the previous experiences, in the spring of 2015, we have tried to offer in a MOOC a didactical sequence of oral activities that begins with a perceptual training, in which pairs of stimuli are contrasted, to avoid or minimize the effects of phonological deafness increasing the consciousness of the student to the acoustic characteristics of the new language. In the L-MOOC *Español en línea UNED-ELE. Nivel B1. Bloque 1. Prensa y cine* ("Spanish online UNED-ELE. Level B1. Block 1. Press and cinema") the first pronunciation activities consist of a perceptive training that allows comparing minimum pairs, as the intonation of two sentence modalities (statements *versus* questions) that can be seen in the following screenshot (Figure 1). In this first activity, we use not only audio stimuli (in the two main dialectal macro-varieties of Spanish, the American and European), but also visual information of the corresponding tonal curves (obtained with *Praat* software, Boersma & Weeninck 2013), which shows very clearly the contrast of patterns between both structures. The stimuli, in this task and all the didactical sequence, were real audios from a commercial film trailer, in its version for Spain and Colombia. Other exercises, like the one shown above (Figure 2) contrast absolute interrogatives with pronominal interrogatives (*wh*- questions).

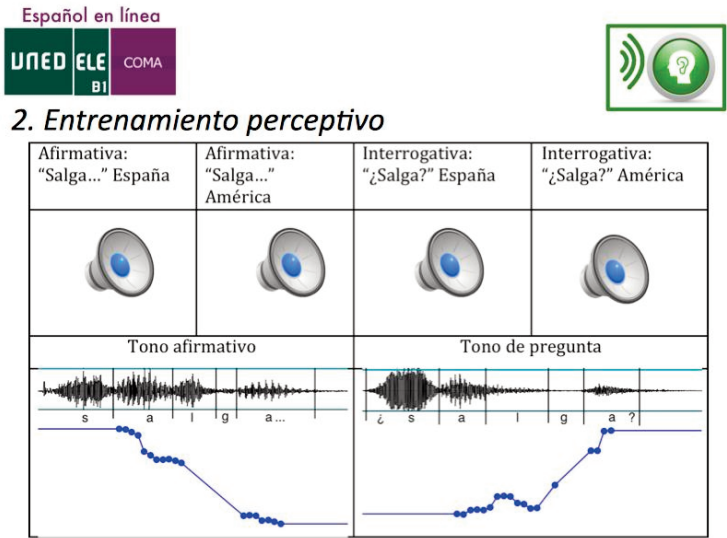


Figure 1. Screenshot of the first perceptual training exercise in the L-MOOC *Español en línea UNED-ELE. Nivel B1. Bloque 1. Prensa y cine*

The next step was a discrimination task shown in the image below, in which the learner has to decide if the audio file presented is a question or an assertion. The complexity of grammatical structures is increasing from the first to the last audios, and absolute questions and wh- questions are presented (image 2).

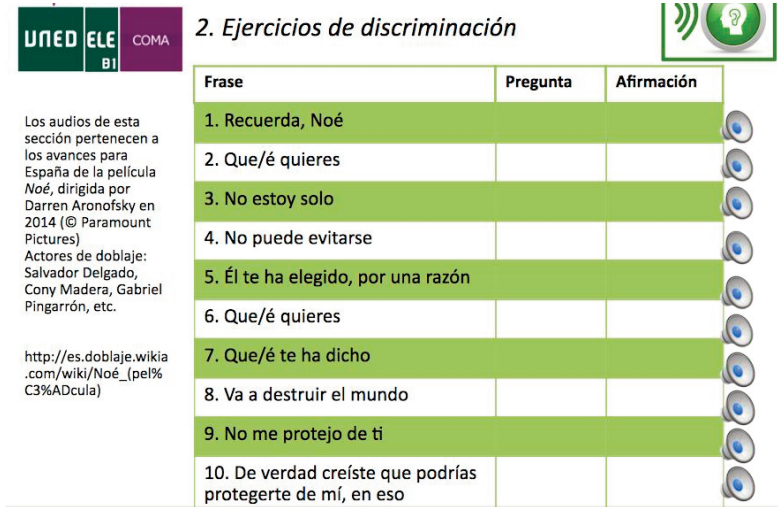
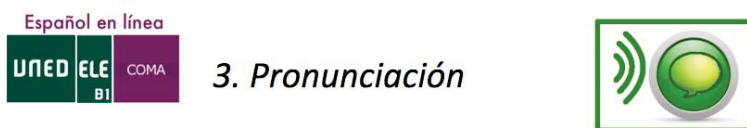


Figure 2. Screenshot of a discrimination task in the L-MOOC *Español en línea UNED-ELE. Nivel B1. Bloque 1. Prensa y cine*

At this point, the learner can be prepared for the last task, the oral production and comparison with the model, always with the help of the visual tonal curve (Figure 3).



Escucha, observa y repite. Cuando estés preparado, puedes grabar tu propia pronunciación de las frases siguientes

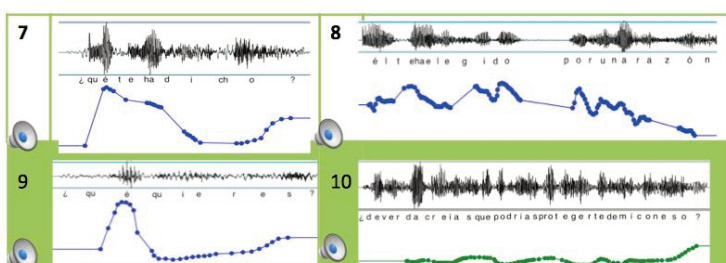


Figure 3. Screenshot of a production task in the L-MOOC *Español en línea UNED-ELE. Nivel B1. Bloque 1. Prensa y cine*. Instructions: “Listen, observe and repeat. When you are ready you can record your own pronunciation of the following phrases”

Unfortunately, the platform on which this course was set up ceased to be supported after a short time, and we were never able to get statistics on its results.

4.2. Pronunciation activities in Puertas Abiertas MOOC

Four years later, our team developed two new MOOCs for migrants and refugees, *Puertas abiertas. Curso de español para necesidades inmediatas* (“Open doors. A Spanish course for immediate needs”) (I) and (II), in the frame of MOONLITE Project (see above, section 2). The technological criteria to facilitate the usability and accessibility of the course were, among others, a responsive design, adequate for mobile phones, simple navigation, images and videos in low resolution, and the possibility of downloading every material. From the pedagogical, intercultural and linguistic perspectives, special attention has been paid to the simplicity of expression (mainly visual and not so dependent on writing), basic level of language, the diversity of identities in materials

and activities considering non-Eurocentric learning styles, as a way to foster intercultural awareness and competence. The courses so far have two editions, one in spring 2019, and another in spring 2020. We will now comment on the results of the first edition, which had 2365 students enrolled for the first part and 1299 for the second part.

Our previous experience, together with the technical and didactic peculiarities that this new MOOC presented, made us decide to carry out five new pronunciation activities, including a P2P (peer-to-peer) assessment task, for *Puertas abiertas*.

In the first part of the course (*Puertas abiertas-I*) we began with intonational contrasts, as in the previous MOOC. The learner receives multimodal information, both acoustic-auditory and visual (waveforms and tonal curve, highlighted with red arrows), and the same sound stimuli that have been presented in previous activities of this module (see Fig. 4). The activity ends with a minimum pair discrimination task (question/statement).

In the second part of the course (*Puertas abiertas-II*) the first activity is dedicated to the vowels. As in the previous exercise, the auditory information is reinforced with visual cues, the pronunciation feedback is related to the grammatical contents that have been addressed in the unit (in the box of Figure 5), and the activity ends with a discrimination task.

The suprasegmental level not only deals with intonation (with another exercise like the one presented in Puertas Abiertas-I) but also with stress, providing visual feedback along with auditory feedback (with audios taken from other exercises of the unit), as shown in Figure 6. The final discrimination test presents stimuli of increasing difficulty.

After performing this series of exercises, at the end of the third module (the penultimate of the course), students were faced with the most complex task in the MOOC: an oral presentation for a job interview, subject to peer-to-peer evaluation. To adjust the difficulty of the task and provide a homogeneous, provide a reliable correction rubric, and prevent the dissemination of protected personal data, the interview was not free, students had to choose an avatar (among 3 women and 3 men) and prepare the interview with the previous data of that character, which were provided in the instruction page (see Fig. 7). The following script with the structure of the recording was also provided: “Good morning, my name is [indicate name and surname]. I have studied at [indicate the data you entered in *Training*]. I have experience as [indicate data in *Professional experience*]. I speak [indicate data from *Languages*]. I am very interested in this job, and I am willing to learn. Thank you. I look forward to hearing from you. Goodbye.”

Previous

Preguntando y respondiendo en español

🔖 Marcar esta página

Mira y escucha:

Para preguntar algo que no sabemos subimos el tono de voz (observa la línea azul y las flechas rojas)

¿ l e l ú t i m o p o r f a v o r ?

0:00 / 0:04

La última vocal (/o/) tiene un tono de voz más alto. Así preguntamos.

Veamos otros ejemplos:

¿ q u é h a c e s ?

0:00 / 0:01

La última vocal (/e/) es más aguda, tiene un tono más alto.

¿ e n q u é t r a b a j a s ?

0:00 / 0:02

La última vocal, (/a/) es más aguda, tiene un tono más alto.

Para preguntar, subimos el tono de la última vocal en la frase.

En cambio, cuando no preguntamos, cuando responde el tono final cae (la línea azul baja), como en estos ejen

e s p e l u q u e r o

0:00 / 0:01

e s j a r d i n e r o

0:00 / 0:02

e s c a m a r e r a

0:00 / 0:01

1. ¿Pregunta o respuesta?

☐ Pregunta

☒ Respuesta ✓

2. ¿Pregunta o respuesta?

☒ Pregunta ✓

☐ Respuesta

3. ¿Pregunta o respuesta?

☐ Pregunta

☒ Respuesta ✓

4. ¿Pregunta o respuesta?

☒ Pregunta ✓

☐ Respuesta

Figure 4. Screenshot of the first exercise in the L-MOOC *Puertas abiertas. Curso de español para necesidades inmediatas*

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UNED

Abierta

UNED: MOONLITE_II_001

Puertas Abiertas: Curso de español para necesidades inmediatas (II)

Descubrir nuevos

Ver este curso como: Estudiante

ContenidosVocabularioTextos de los vídeosForoProgresoRecursos

Contenidos > Módulo 1: Hacemos planes > 1.1. Hablamos de gustos > 1.1.3. Las vocales en español

1.1.3. Las vocales en español

Marcar esta página

Mira

y

escucha:

El español tiene solo cinco vocales: /i/, /e/, /a/, /o/, /u/

Escucha cómo suenan y fíjate en cómo cambia la boca de unas a otras:

[i]

[e]

[a]

[o]

[u]

La vocal /a/ se pronuncia con la boca muy abierta

Las vocales /i/ /e/ se pronuncian con la lengua adelante

Las vocales /o/ /u/ se pronuncian con la lengua atrás

Imágenes adaptadas de <https://soundsofspeech.uiowa.edu/main/spanish> y de Wikimedia Commons

Como hemos visto en esta lección, las terminaciones de los infinitivos en los verbos del español se diferencian por su vocal: -ar, -er, -ir.

Las vocales en español

10 points possible (graded)

Diferenciamos las vocales. Escoge la respuesta correcta:

1. ¿Qué vocal es esta?

☐ [i]

☐ [e]

☐ [a]

☐ [o]

☐ [u]

2. ¿Qué vocal es esta?

☐ [i]

☐ [e]

☐ [a]

☐ [o]

☐ [u]

3. ¿Qué vocal es esta?

☐ [i]

☐ [e]

☐ [a]

☐ [o]

☐ [u]

4. ¿Qué vocal es esta?

☐ [i]

☐ [e]

☐ [a]

☐ [o]

☐ [u]

5. ¿Qué vocal es esta?

Figure 5. Screenshot of the vowels exercise in the L-MOOC *Puertas abiertas. Curso de español para necesidades inmediatas*.

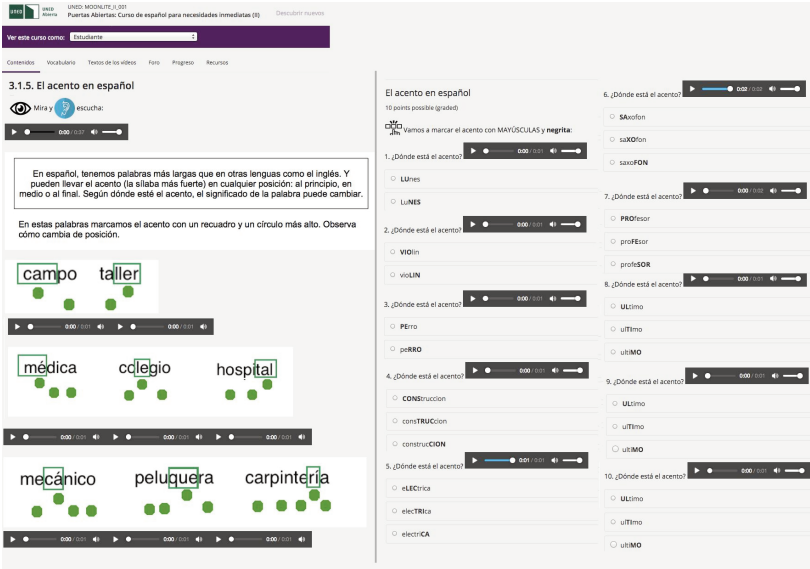


Figure 6. Screenshot of the stress exercise in the L-MOOC *Puertas abiertas. Curso de español para necesidades inmediatas*.

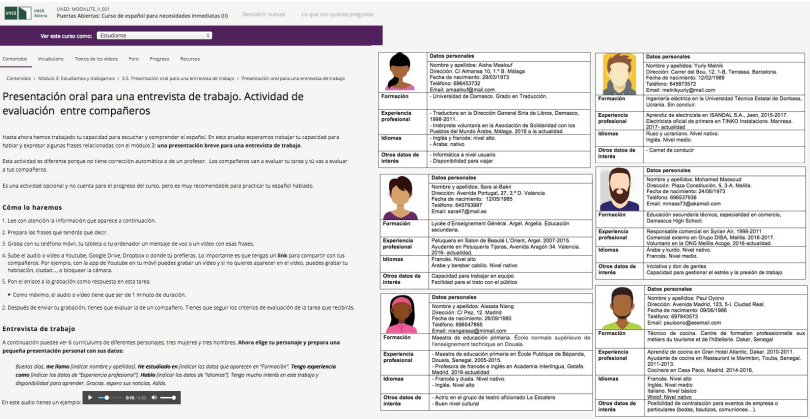


Figure 7. Screenshot of the P2P exercise in the L-MOOC *Puertas abiertas. Curso de español para necesidades inmediatas*.

The guidelines in the evaluation section were as follows: “We will give a maximum of 2 points to the following aspects. If the criterion is met only in part, or grammatical errors are observed, we will lower the score to 1 or 0. Select the table that corresponds to the character your partner has described. If none of the proposed characters have been described, the activity cannot be evaluated”. Below appear, in Spanish, six tables like Table 1. Finally, before sending their response, students

had a video replicating the evaluation process on the MOOC platform, to provide them with the technical details. In addition, a specific forum was created to solve doubts in relation to the activity, and the course facilitators received specific instructions in this regard.

In the recording, I hear...	Score		
1. The name and surname of one of the six characters in the activity: • Aisha Maalouf	2	1	0
2. Who has studied in Damascus the degree in Translation			
3. Who has experience as a translator and interpreter			
4. Who speaks English, French and Arabic			
5. A pronunciation easy to understand, with good rhythm, intonation and accent			
Total			

Table 1. Assessment rubric for the P2P activity in the L-MOOC *Puertas abiertas. Curso de español para necesidades inmediatas*

The results of the pronunciation activities are summarized in Table 2. As we can see, the participation rates were very similar to the average of the activities in the corresponding lessons, and the success and error rates were also very close. Both intonation activities reached higher rates of participation compared with the mean of their lessons, and also the higher rates of success. The stress activity was the one that registered the highest number of wrong answers, with a 92% success rate, compared to 96.6% on average for that lesson; its participation rate was lower than for other pronunciation activities, but it was higher than the average for the lesson (420 answers, compared to an average of 411; in general, in this MOOC and in all of them, throughout the course the participation rates are decreasing, and the accent activity appeared in the penultimate module, while those of intonation and vowels preceded it). The exercise of the vowels was the only one, among the pronunciation activities, with participation below the average of the lesson; although in absolute numbers its hit rate also seems lower, there is no difference in percentage from the rest of the lesson: 97.5% of total responses, compared to an average of 97.6%.

		Hits	Fails
Intonation-I	Pronunciation activity	625	8
	Mean of the lesson	618,75	13
Vowels	Pronunciation activity	464	12
	Mean of the lesson	485,5	11,75
Intonation-II	Pronunciation activity	455	15
	Mean of the lesson	420,75	9,25

Table 2. Results of the pronunciation activities in the L-MOOC *Puertas abiertas. Curso de español para necesidades inmediatas*

As for the P2P activity, only 70 students' answers were received; only 17 also performed the peer evaluation, and 8 of them attached a written text, instead of an oral recording. This was a non-computable activity for the student's final grade (the instructions stated "it is an optional activity and does not count for your course progress, but it is highly recommended for practising your spoken Spanish").

The next section will discuss these results in the context of the state of the art presented above.

5. Discussion

The pronunciation activities have been perfectly integrated with the rest of the exercises in our MOOC. And what is more interesting, the prosodical exercises dedicated to intonation and stress, frequently neglected in language courses, proved to be perfectly accessible to the students and even aroused their interest more than the traditional vowel exercises. Prosody has been shown to be particularly relevant for comprehensibility, intelligibility and fluency (e.g., Field 2005, Isaacs & Trofimovich 2012, Saito *et al.* 2018) and interacts continuously with the sounds level (Piñeros 2019): "from the very onset of learning, pronunciation activities should regularly and consistently incorporate larger prosodic structures than individual words" (Colantoni, Escudero, Marrero-Aguiar and Steele 2021). Being able to successfully include prosodic activities in a massive, online course, without individual tutoring and aimed at students who do not have language learning and pronunciation among their top priorities in life, such as refugees, can be considered a guarantee for its integration into the most common language teaching contexts as well.

Regarding the segmental level, our attention to vowels was determined by their high functional load in Spanish. They allow us to distinguish the masculine from the feminine, different verbal tenses, etc. and are very stable between our various dialects. This is a variable that we defend as relevant when prioritizing content in pronunciation teaching (Colantoni, Escudero, Marrero-Aguiar and Steele 2021).

Other research on pronunciation teaching through MOOCs, Estebas-Vilaplana and Solans 2020 has shown that, despite the limitations induced by the rigidity of the structure of these learning resources, and the lack of individualised support for students, the results obtained are very positive, especially when prosody (in their case, rhythm) is emphasised from the beginning: "the results of a final oral exam showed that the students who took the LMOOC did much better in their oral production than those who only worked with the regular course material" (Estebas-Vilaplana & Solans 2020:1).

However, not everything has been positive in this experience. The P2P evaluation activity, although carefully planned, did not have a good participation rate. The sharp drop in participation in this type of tasks is quite generalized (Bárcena, Martín-Monje & Castrillo 2014), and even more so when the exercise does not count in the final evaluation, as was our case. But, certainly, although the auditory discrimination activities that precede the oral production were well received by the students, whose results were excellent in the corresponding tests, moving on to the production exercises surely requires a more measured gradation in the difficulty of the task, as recommended by Gil Fernández 2007, Mellado Prado 2012, or Delicado Cantero, Steed & Herrero de Haro 2019, among others. It would be advisable to start with repetition in imitation, then controlled production of isolated words and sentences, and finally, free production of texts such as the one included in our P2P,

Some previous experiences on teaching pronunciation in L-MOOC (Rubio 2015) base their success on very thorough feedback from teachers, something that is only feasible when the number of learners is relatively limited. If we are faced with several hundreds of exercises, individual correction by instructors is not affordable. In these situations, from our point of view, there are three tools available to teachers that can help them overcome the challenge:

First, a careful grading of the difficulty of the tasks, always working on the perception before production, focusing on elements with high profitability in the language (very informative, common to the different dialectal varieties), and paying at least the same attention to the suprasegmental level (intonation, accent) as to the segmental level the sound system (Colantoni, Escuderon, Marrero-Aguilar & Steele 2021).

Second, make use of the almost infinite storage possibilities of online learning systems to provide a large number of stimuli to the students, even if not all of them are fully utilized, and without this exhaustive use being a requirement for successful completion of the course.

And, last but not least, try to make the most of the peer's evaluation, with careful, accessible, and sensitive enough assessment rubrics, in order to result in meaningful feedback, assigning an attractive score to these tasks and progressively increasing their difficulty.

6. Conclusion. The next steps

Paying attention and training learners in the tasks of language production is a challenge for any teacher of second languages, particularly when the learning environment is a massive online course. And oral

production (for which pronunciation is an essential component) is surely even more complex to handle than written skills.

In this paper, we have presented the results of incorporating pronunciation activities in two massive, online, and open Spanish courses for foreigners. We have followed a careful gradation of the difficulty of the tasks, starting with auditory awareness, supported by simple theoretical explanations and multimedia (with visual elements to support the auditory stimuli), and focusing on the suprasegmental level and on sounds with a high functional load. The results have generally been very positive, although there is room for improvement in the oral production activities.

But above all, it is one more step on a path that we trust will be long and fruitful, to the goal of gaining confidence, on the part of both teachers and students, in the real possibilities of developing oral production skills by means that go beyond a continuous individual face-to-face interaction between teacher and learner. Once the health emergency that has brought the online learning environments to the fore around the world will be solved, technology has come to stay in the world of second language learning and can be a valuable tool for learners who do not have easy access to traditional means of teaching/learning, such as asylum and refugee seekers, or migrants in general, as in the case study presented here.

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(1) <i>Pongamos</i>	<i>las cosas</i>	<i>en su sitio.</i>
Let's+set (V)	the things on their place	
'Let's be absolutely clear about this.'		
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Libros:

Moreno Fernández, Francisco. 1998. *Principios de sociolingüística y sociología del lenguaje*. Barcelona: Ariel.

Artículos:

Moreno-Fernández, Francisco y Jaime Otero. 2008. "The Status and Future of Spanish among the Main International Languages: Quantitative Dimensions". *International Multilingual Matters*, 2:1-2. 67-83.

Capítulos de libros:

Silva-Corvalán, Carmen y Noelia Sánchez-Walker. 2007. "Subjects in early dual language development: A case study of a Spanish-English bilingual child". En *Spanish in Contact. Policy, Social and Linguistic Inquiries*, Kim Potowski y Richard Cameron (eds.), 3-22 [Impact: Studies in Language and Society 22]. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

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- | | | |
|---|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| (1) <i>Pongamos</i>
Let's+set (V)
'Let's be absolutely clear about this.' | <i>las cosas</i>
the things | <i>en su sitio.</i>
on their place |
|---|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|

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Books:

Moreno Fernández, Francisco. 1998. *Principios de sociolingüística y sociología del lenguaje*. Barcelona: Ariel.

Article in journal:

Moreno-Fernández, Francisco and Jaime Otero. 2008. "The Status and Future of Spanish among the Main International Languages: Quantitative Dimensions". *International Multilingual Matters*, 2:1-2. 67-83.

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