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EDITORIAL *MEMORIA DE 25 NÚMEROS DE ENCUESTRO*

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“Son los profesores quienes, en definitiva, pueden cambiar
el mundo de la escuela, comprendiéndolo”
Lawrence Stenhouse

La revista *Encuentro*, iniciada en 1989, ha alcanzado su número 25 y nos parece oportuno echar una mirada atrás para ver cuáles fueron nuestros criterios y objetivos iniciales, hasta qué punto se han ido cumpliendo y el grado de validez en el momento actual.

Los orígenes

La Revista *Encuentro* nace en 1989 como parte del “Proyecto Encuentro” que surgió de una investigación de la enseñanza de lenguas y la formación del profesorado de inglés y francés en la provincia de Guadalajara, España (realizado por Fernando Cerezal y Carolina Jiménez en 1986-1987), a partir de la cual se convocaron los Encuentros de Profesores de Lenguas, de los que se celebraron trece (de 1987 a 2003) en el Campus de Guadalajara de la Universidad de Alcalá (Escuela de Magisterio y Escuela de Turismo), y a los que asistieron cerca de dos mil docentes de lenguas modernas (de inglés, francés, alemán y español como segunda lengua) de Guadalajara y de Madrid, principalmente, y también de diversos lugares de España. El objetivo de estos Encuentros era apoyar la actualización y el desarrollo profesional del profesorado de lenguas.

Las y los ponentes y comunicantes en los Encuentros de Profesores fueron cerca de 500 profesores de Educación Infantil, Educación Primaria y EGB, Enseñanza Secundaria y Bachillerato, así como profesores de diversas universidades españolas y extranjeras (Gran Bretaña, Francia, Italia, Grecia, Austria, Cuba, Argentina, Nicaragua...).

La Revista *Encuentro* se nutrió, en gran parte aunque no exclusivamente, de esas ponencias presentadas en los Encuentros de Profesores de Lenguas y aparecía como “un modesto intento de recoger y ampliar los esfuerzos desplegados por un buen número de profesoras y profesores de lenguas extranjeras en los Encuentros de Profesores (...) Pretende ser, por tanto, el medio de expresión de sus ideas, inquietudes, experiencias e investigaciones” (Editorial, *Encuentro* 1, 1989). Al finalizar la convocatoria de los

Encuentros de Profesores en 2003, la revista inició una segunda etapa en la que los artículos y experiencias publicados han venido siendo aportaciones totalmente externas y arbitradas.

Veamos qué ha sido *Encuentro* a lo largo de su historia a través de varios de sus editoriales.

Objetivos y metas de *Encuentro*

Encuentro recogía en su primer número, y ampliaba en los números 2 y 3, los criterios que considerábamos básicos de la formación permanente del profesorado, criterios que siguen teniendo total actualidad:

- “En primer lugar, el profesor debe ser considerado el artífice principal de lo que acontece en el aula; analiza su práctica, amplía sus criterios de actuación y, en consecuencia, puede producir una mejora de la calidad de la enseñanza (...) Es difícil pensar en la mejora de la enseñanza si paralelamente no se produce un desarrollo profesional docente.
- En segundo lugar, el trabajo investigador de las y los docentes debe basarse en la práctica que éstos desarrollan en la Escuela y en el aula, para a partir de su realidad y de las dificultades que en ellas encuentren buscar alternativas innovadoras para el proceso educativo. De ahí que no pensemos únicamente en interpretar lo que ocurre en la Escuela y en la clase de idiomas, sino en transformarlas. Esta transformación, además, debe manifestarse en procesos de cambio y desarrollo curricular.
- Consideramos, en tercer lugar, que el trabajo investigador de las y los docentes es la base principal de su formación permanente. Creemos, en consecuencia, que dicha formación no debe ser una mera transmisión de conocimientos y experiencias de los formadores a los docentes receptores, sino una actividad que sea realizada por los propios enseñantes para analizar y transformar la Escuela. Por esto último, el trabajo colaborativo entre docentes nos parece de indudable necesidad para producir resultados significativos en la investigación y en la innovación”.

Las metas de la revista las marcaba la Editorial del número inicial: “En primer lugar, eliminar la separación actualmente existente entre teoría y práctica educativas y, en segundo lugar, revalorizar la enseñanza de las lenguas extranjeras en los diversos niveles educativos”.

En el momento de su lanzamiento había un reducido número de revistas dedicadas a la enseñanza de lenguas, pero ninguna con el enfoque del profesorado como investigador en el campo de la enseñanza de lenguas. Esta característica la hacía totalmente pertinente a nivel nacional y, muy especialmente, en el área de la Universidad de Alcalá y de Madrid, y la sigue haciendo en la actualidad.

La reflexión sobre la realidad educativa

Encuentro, asimismo, relacionaba sus objetivos con las inconsistencias de la política educativa del momento. Al hilo de la reforma entonces en curso de la LOGSE, criticábamos en la Editorial del número 4 (1991) –“Cambio educativo y formación del profesorado”– las limitaciones del enfoque para un desarrollo docente y curricular basado en la investigación:

- “la tendencia a proyectar sobre el docente individual la responsabilidad del cambio, provocando actitudes de voluntarismo o de abandono;
- la inflexibilidad de la organización escolar, que impide el trabajo innovador y lo subordina a la inercia institucional, a las creencias y prácticas dominantes y al sistema jerárquico;
- la escasa o nula atención prestada a la investigación educativa basada en la práctica del aula o del centro en la formación del profesorado;
- la poca experiencia y el escaso valor concedido al trabajo colaborativo o en grupo entre docentes”.

Crítica que volvería a aparecer en la Editorial –“Una enseñanza de calidad”– de *Encuentro* 6 (1993), que sigue siendo de bastante actualidad:

“La reforma se halla encorsetada y en un callejón sin salida debido a factores como la excesiva duración del proceso, el uso de un lenguaje y de un entramado excesivamente complejos que han llevado a una constante interpretación de exegetas, la posposición de la entrada en vigor de ciclos y consiguiente ruptura del sistema, el excesivo número de asignaturas y el sistema cuatrimestral en universidad (...) y a una falta de voluntad político-financiera por parte de las administraciones educativas. Si comenzamos por las Universidades, vemos que se han iniciado unos nuevos planes de estudio que no han ido acompañados del consiguiente aumento presupuestario ni de plantillas, ni –lo que es más importante– de innovaciones en el terreno didáctico-metodológico. Situación propicia para buscar fondos con una perspectiva de privatización, acercamiento de tasas a costes reales, traspaso de parte de la formación a masters y postgrados caros, precarización del profesorado (ayudantes y asociados) (...).

La cicatería en el presupuesto de educación ha posibilitado la posposición de la aplicación de las reformas; se han incumplido inversiones ya del 32,7% desde 1990 (año de la LOGSE) (...) Se argumenta como justificación la crisis económica (lo que no se hace con otros capítulos) y se pierde de vista el carácter de inversión productiva a largo plazo que la educación tiene, sobre todo en momentos de crisis y como medio de formación de las personas”.

Y nuevamente aparece la crítica ante las propuestas de la denominada Ley de Calidad de la Enseñanza en la Editorial de *Encuentro* 12 (2001) –“Por una verdadera calidad en la enseñanza”– “que en esencia no deja de ser una contrarreforma conservadora después de haber mediatizado y creado “pánico social” en torno a lo tremendamente mal que está la educación (malos resultados, indisciplina en las aulas, profesores incapaces, universidades trasnochadas y decadentes...), sin haber llevado a cabo un estudio serio y sistemático o, incluso, rechazándose algunas aportaciones. Y todo ello, por supuesto, refiriéndose a la enseñanza pública (no a la privada, que –como buena empresa– sabe recoger sus beneficios) y en un marco de presupuesto educativo inferior a la media europea”. Crítica que se refuerza en la Editorial del número extraordinario 13-14 (2003), “Manifiesto por una Escuela de calidad: Otra Escuela es posible”.

Encuentro, asimismo, ha abordado en sus Editoriales otros temas de enorme actualidad e interés para la enseñanza de lenguas como la interculturalidad (nº 7, 1994), la enseñanza de lenguas en el contexto europeo (nº 8, 1995) y el año europeo de las lenguas (nº 11, 2000), en correspondencia con los proyectos europeos en los que los editores estábamos en esa época inmersos.

Las aportaciones a *Encuentro*

Los más de 300 artículos, experiencias e innovaciones publicados han sido aportados por profesores de un buen número de universidades españolas y extranjeras, por profesores de ESO, FP y Bachillerato, y profesores de EGB y Educación Primaria e Infantil. De ellos la mayor parte corresponde a la enseñanza de inglés; a la enseñanza de francés se dedican también algunas aportaciones, así como a la enseñanza de alemán y de español como segunda lengua para personas de origen inmigrante.

Se ha pretendido que estas aportaciones hayan tenido una orientación investigadora e innovadora para la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de lenguas. Hay que destacar que las aportaciones de los profesores de Enseñanza Secundaria y Primaria suponen sólo una cuarta parte del total, lo que muestra las dificultades que los profesores de esos niveles educativos tienen para poder reflejar el sinúmero de reflexiones que realizan sobre su propia realidad, ya sea por su amplia dedicación docente o por la escasa importancia que se le ha dado a la investigación educativa en las instancias ministeriales a esos niveles.

A partir del número 15 de *Encuentro* (2005) la revista inició una tercera etapa, abandonó su publicación en papel y toda la permanente dependencia de financiación (principalmente del Departamento de Filología Moderna y de

la Escuela de Magisterio de la Universidad de Alcalá) y distribución. *Encuentro* se convirtió en publicación digital y se dejaron atrás esas dependencias, se amplió el equipo editorial y se mejoró la evaluación de los artículos siguiendo el procedimiento “doble ciego” (ni los autores ni los evaluadores conocen la identidad de unos u otros).

Esta tercera etapa de *Encuentro* electrónica, de acceso libre y arbitrada, pretendía hacer la revista más ágil, llegar a un mayor número de profesores y estudiantes de lenguas y abaratar sus costes. De hecho, la edición de *Encuentro* es una aportación totalmente solidaria de sus editores y evaluadores.

El objetivo en esta nueva etapa era y es, en consecuencia, seguir publicando artículos, opiniones, documentos, experiencias y reseñas sobre la enseñanza de lenguas modernas, ya sean segundas o extranjeras, haciendo uso de las facilidades tecnológicas y priorizando aquellas aportaciones que sean útiles para el desarrollo profesional y docente desde una perspectiva reflexiva e investigadora. *Encuentro* se sumaba de este modo al movimiento de revistas electrónicas de libre acceso (Open Access Journals). La revista amplió, además, sus sitios de indexación, alcanzando con ello un mayor impacto y relevancia en el espacio de revistas de enseñanza de lenguas.

Algunos cambios en este cuarto de siglo

Desde los años 80 a la actualidad se han producido cambios de importancia, que afectan tanto a la situación socio-educativa general como a la situación y perspectivas del profesorado y del alumnado en los diferentes niveles educativos. Hay, no obstante, algunos aspectos que siguen siendo recurrentes, pues no hay que olvidar que al campo de la educación le cuesta tiempo hacer avances significativos, cuando no retrocesos.

Si revisamos la Editorial de *Encuentro* 19 de 2010 podemos seguir viendo como algunos de los aspectos que entonces se valoraban siguen teniendo una gran actualidad. Veámoslos:

1. Cambios en la formación inicial y permanente del profesorado

Los años 80 y principios de los 90 fueron años de debate y discusión acerca de la educación y la formación del profesorado, al calor de las reformas democráticas en curso tras la dictadura franquista; la reforma educativa fue un tema de gran debate que posteriormente se concretó parcialmente en la LOGSE.

Esta tensión sufrió un importante declive en los años siguientes, en las décadas de 1990 y 2000. Para algunos autores, aunque los contextos sociales han cambiado sustancialmente desde el siglo XIX, el dispositivo escolar vigente, el currículum escolar organizado en disciplinas, la forma habitual de organizar el espacio y el tiempo, los modos de agrupar a los estudiantes, los métodos de enseñanza, los sistemas de evaluación y calificación del alumnado, y los sistemas, programas e instituciones de formación de docentes eran esencialmente los mismos que se establecieron ya en el siglo XIX y que, con modificaciones cosméticas, se han mantenido y reproducido hasta nuestros días (...) La práctica mayoritaria en la formación actual de docentes tiene que ver con un modelo ya obsoleto pero resistente, de supuesta aplicación diferida y directa de la teoría a la práctica (Pérez Gómez, 2010:17)

La formación inicial del profesorado de Educación Primaria -a raíz de la unificación de los estudios europeos- fue reformada en España, ampliándola a cuatro años y con carácter de licenciatura, una reivindicación largamente planteada; adolece, sin embargo de una definición clara del maestro que se

requiere, no hay una selección de los estudiantes que pretenden ejercer la docencia, el período de formación es escaso respecto a otros países del entorno, las prácticas no se realizan en colegios de referencia y en estrecha relación con las facultades, y los grupos de clase siguen siendo excesivamente numerosos. En concreto, respecto a la enseñanza de lenguas, hay un retroceso en la formación del profesorado, al reducir asignaturas y créditos respecto al plan de estudios anterior (a pesar de haber una tendencia al bilingüismo en la Educación Primaria; bilingüismo que tampoco ha sido suficientemente analizado y evaluado).

La formación del futuro profesorado de Enseñanza Secundaria ha mejorado al implantarse recientemente la obligatoriedad de la maestría de profesionalización docente para el acceso a la enseñanza pública; en los años anteriores la formación pedagógica y didáctica fue realmente escasa y dejada en manos del voluntarismo del profesorado; la crítica a esta formación posterior a la licenciatura radica principalmente en la separación con la formación inicial en las áreas de conocimiento.

En los últimos años, por el contrario, hemos visto en algunas comunidades autónomas españolas un retroceso en las oportunidades de formación, la reducción de los centros de profesores y recursos, el aumento de número de alumnos en las aulas, la reducción de profesores de apoyo e, incluso, de presupuesto.

Podemos considerar, no obstante, que la formación del profesorado, en general, ha mejorado. Hay que distinguir, de todos modos, entre formación y educación docente. La mejora de la educación, más allá de la formación, debería implicar –como se aboga por muy diferentes autores- un enfoque orientado a “una interacción permanente de la práctica y la teoría que conforme un bucle creativo y dinámico, que expande el conocimiento y transforma la realidad” (Pérez Gómez, 2010: 18) Esta última propuesta, que se concreta en la investigación y reflexión en y sobre la enseñanza y el aprendizaje, sigue teniendo una gran validez mayor dada la complejidad de la educación. Para otros, la educación docente debería tener en cuenta cómo desarrollar comunidades educativas en las que el “el aprendizaje depende de las interacciones con todas las personas -profesorado, iguales, familiares, etc-” (Flecha, 2010: 9).

2. Cambios en los ambientes de clase y de centro

En estas dos décadas ha habido una creciente preocupación del profesorado respecto al clima social y la conflictividad en las aulas y en los centros, a la escasa colaboración de las familias y de las administraciones, así como al escaso reconocimiento social de la labor docente. Así lo refleja Mónica de la Riva en *Encuentro* 19:

If we compare the role of teachers in society with those of the teachers thirty or forty years ago we are in clear disadvantage. We have lost the respect and social influence we have had in the past and, what is worse, our work and dedication are not given the value and consideration they deserve.

Si bien es cierto que esta preocupación tiene un fundamento real, hay que considerar que el clima social depende de diversos factores, muchos de ellos externos a los centros y a las aulas: la educación en la familia, la influencia de la televisión, la importancia concedida a la educación en la sociedad, las expectativas juveniles, la insuficiente formación en valores y ciudadanía... Es decir, hablamos de la sociedad en su conjunto. A todos ellos hay que sumar la escasa formación del profesorado en estos aspectos, el excesivo número de alumnos por clase, así como una insuficiente participación e identificación del alumnado en sus clases y centros.

Hay, no obstante, una perspectiva muy extendida entre el profesorado y los padres que reduce los problemas a las conductas violentas o inadaptadas de algunos alumnos, sin ver el conjunto del problema y pretender orientar las soluciones por la vía del aumento de las medidas disciplinarias y coercitivas (Zabalza, 2002; Elzo, 2009).

Todo ello hace que enseñar hoy sea mucho más difícil que hace treinta años; la docencia se ha complejizado:

Atender a toda la población infantil sin exclusiones, supone meter de golpe en nuestras escuelas todos los problemas sociales y psicológicos de todos nuestros niños y ésta es una labor sin precedentes. Nunca lo habíamos intentado antes. No tenemos procedimientos para tratar con los niños más problemáticos porque lo que hacíamos con ellos era expulsarlos (...) Todos estos niños están en una escuela. Todos ellos están al cuidado de un maestro o una maestra a los que no han preparado para actuar como asistentes sociales, pero deben solucionar esos problemas previos que bloquean esa capacidad de aprender (Esteve Zaragoza, 2001:29, cit. por Usategui et al., 2009)

A la escuela española, debido a los cambios demográficos de los últimos años y a su extensión hasta los 16 años, se le reconoce un alto grado de inclusión (Informe PISA), aunque ello conlleva las dificultades y los retos al profesorado arriba expuestos. Se requiere, por tanto, posibilitar la formación del profesorado para responder a estas nuevas condiciones, tanto en la formación inicial como en la permanente, y promover comunidades de aprendizaje¹.

3. Papel del profesorado en la construcción del conocimiento

Los años 80 y principios de los 90 estuvieron marcados por un amplio debate sobre la educación, la formación y el papel del profesorado. Podríamos calificar ese período como una tendencia a la “formación para la autonomía”, lo que implica dar al sujeto -en este caso al profesorado- la capacidad de definir su modo de participación en los procesos educativos y en la elaboración de su conocimiento profesional práctico. En esos años continuaron teniendo una importante presencia un buen número de proyectos en los que destacaba la reflexión y la investigación por el profesorado (Movimientos de Renovación Pedagógica, Movimiento Cooperativo de Escuela Popular, Escuelas de Verano, Congresos, Centros de Profesores...). Este modelo, al promover el desarrollo profesional docente, posibilita un mejor reconocimiento social de la profesión, cuya insuficiencia es una preocupación del profesorado.

El modelo contrapuesto -la “formación para la sumisión”²- relega el papel del profesorado al cumplimiento del conocimiento y los programas elaborados por otros, bajo un enfoque homogeneizador, productivista y efectista. Este enfoque separa la teoría de la práctica y adjudica al profesorado un papel de segundones en la construcción del saber y, en definitiva, le imposibilita el desarrollo profesional y una adecuación a las necesidades concretas del alumnado.

Este modelo de la sumisión no está alejado de nuestra realidad actual. Las experiencias de los gobiernos neoconservadores y ultraliberales de Reagan y Thatcher³ fueron un buen ejemplo cuyos resultados

¹ Véase http://www.innova.uned.es/webpages/educalia/comunidades_de_aprendizaje.htm para información sobre las comunidades de aprendizaje y http://www.comunidadesdeaprendizaje.net/pdf/flecha_puigvert_02.pdf de Flecha y Puigvert (Acceso 20-12-2010)

² Martínez Bonafé (2010) propone las denominaciones de “formación para la autonomía” y “formación para la sumisión”.

³ La ley del gobierno de Bush “No child left behind” (2001) fue crítica pues «it forces teachers to teach to the test in order to get students to pass standardized tests. (They) say that a consequence of teaching to the test is that teacher creativity and student learning are stifled. Moreover, critics charge that it is unrealistic to expect learning disabled students and non English speaking students to pass the test (...) The law often leads to anomalous results» (en

educativos negativos han sido bien destacados, así como la Ley de Calidad del gobierno Aznar (2003)⁴ o las evaluaciones realizadas por el gobierno autónomo de Madrid (que fuerzan al profesorado “to teach to the test”).

En el momento actual hay una ofensiva renovada con esos mismos presupuestos. El modelo neoconservador pretende adecuar la formación del profesorado y del alumnado a las necesidades e intereses del mercado, bajo la égida del pensamiento único, de una tecnificación creciente y una creciente centralización y control de la educación (Goodson, 2002). La incorporación del aprendizaje por competencias, presentado como innovación pedagógica, es en buena parte una concreción metodológica de este modelo y, a su vez, una repetición de la fracasada programación basada en objetivos (ya criticada por Gimeno Sacristán en 1982). Martínez Bonafé (2010: 5) nos resume este modelo en los siguientes términos:

Así, la escuela es una empresa educativa, el sujeto un recurso humano, las familias son consumidores o clientes, el profesor un gestor del aula y un mediador del aprendizaje, la educación es formación y excelencia, el saber y los conocimientos son competencias que se numeran y jerarquizan en función de su operatividad para la aplicación a problemas concretos, el aprendizaje asociado a rendimientos (resultados), es la eficaz consecución de objetivos... y así sucesivamente.

Podríamos decir, a modo de conclusiones acerca de estos más de veinticinco años, que la sociedad española tiene un enorme reto por abordar y resolver en cuestiones de educación, algunas de ellas ya planteadas en los 80 y 90 pero con plena validez hoy. Las podríamos resumir en las siguientes:

1º. La formación y la educación de la infancia y de la juventud debe ser del conjunto de la sociedad, lo que implica a profesores, padres y madres, agentes sociales y medios de comunicación.

2º. La mejora de la educación requiere la implicación de cada profesor individualmente, pero es imprescindible el cambio de cultura de los centros.

3º. La formación inicial y permanente debe estar claramente relacionada con las escuelas e institutos, de modo que sirva para promover el desarrollo de esos centros, así como del profesorado y alumnado universitarios.

4º. La reflexión e investigación del profesorado debe promoverse como medio para resolver problemas, mejorar la formación del profesorado y, en consecuencia, del aprendizaje del alumnado. De este modo el profesor de aula puede abordar los grandes temas del lenguaje, las relaciones sociales, las actividades y los valores en relación al profesorado, el alumnado, los materiales y el contexto (Kemmis y McTaggart, 1986) y establecer una relación estrecha con la teoría.

Finalmente, aunque no el menos importante, es garantizar una financiación adecuada a esos retos que permita el desarrollo de una Educación Pública gratuita, inclusiva, de calidad, laica y no discriminatoria.

Encuentro, una revista con futuro

Estamos convencidos de la pertinencia de revistas que sigan abordando las necesidades específicas de la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de lenguas, ya que los retos de cambio y transformación se mantienen con bastante similitud a lo largo de los años, aunque los contextos no sean similares. Es necesario, igualmente, responder a los nuevos enfoques, en especial, al Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas

http://public.findlaw.com/education/no_child_left_behind_act_criticism.html; acceso 10-01-2010).

⁴ Véase la exhaustiva crítica de Gómez Llorente.

Extranjeras (AICLE en castellano, CLIL en inglés), a la evaluación del aprendizaje en enseñanza bilingüe, a la interculturalidad en contextos de diversidad cultural, y a la incorporación de valores críticos de ciudadanía global.

Todo ello exige, por una parte, una formación del profesorado de lenguas que responda a esos retos y cambios desde una perspectiva de reflexión e investigación en las aulas y, por otra, una ampliación significativa de la financiación de la educación en todos los niveles educativos.

Los actuales editores, Fernando Cerezal y Manuel Megías, cierran esta etapa de *Encuentro* y pasan la edición a un nuevo equipo editorial a partir de ahora. Queremos agradecer a todos los asesores y colaboradores todo el apoyo prestado durante estos veinticinco años, así como a los cientos de articulistas por sus aportaciones. La revista *Encuentro* no hubiera sido posible sin su apoyo y participación. Estamos seguros que *Encuentro* seguirá teniendo presencia en la enseñanza de lenguas.

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READY, SET, GO..... CLIL

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Abstract

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is currently implemented in almost all European countries and is used for the teaching of a variety of school subjects. Physical Education is a school subject that creates a supportive environment for pupils' exposure to a new language. The aim of this study is to present the perceptions of second graders and their parents regarding the implementation of the CLIL approach in Physical Education at the 3rd Experimental Primary School of Evosmos, Thessaloniki. The Physical Education teacher and the English language teacher were both responsible for the design and implementation of the lessons and both spoke only English to the pupils during class. The data was collected via pupils' interviews and parents' questionnaires. The results showed a high degree of satisfaction from both parents and pupils regarding the programme and its continuation.

Keywords: CLIL, Physical Education, pupil and parent perceptions, primary school, Greece

Resumen

El aprendizaje integrado de lengua y contenido (CLIL) se está implementando en casi todos los países europeos para la enseñanza de una gran variedad de asignaturas. La Educación Física es una asignatura adecuada para la exposición del alumnado a una nueva lengua. El objetivo de este estudio es presentar la percepción de alumnos de 2º grado y de sus padres en relación con la puesta en marcha de un enfoque CLIL en Educación Física en la 3rd Experimental Primary School de Evosmos en Salónica. Ambos, el profesor de Educación Física y el profesor de Inglés han sido los responsables del diseño y la implementación de las lecciones utilizando sólo la lengua inglesa durante las sesiones de clase. Los datos se han recogido por medio de entrevistas a los alumnos y cuestionarios a los padres. Los resultados muestran el alto grado de satisfacción de ambos, padres y alumnos en relación con el programa y su continuidad.

Palabras clave: CLIL, Educación Física, percepción de alumnos y padres, escuela primaria, Grecia.

1. Introduction

The aim of Physical Education (PE) in primary education is to promote whole child development, i.e., physical, cognitive, social and affective development. To achieve this, PE uses movement for dual purposes: first, as an end in itself, meaning children are taught movements and skills to become and remain physically active for a lifetime. Secondly, PE uses movement as a means to achieve objectives and

concepts of cognitive, social and affective domains (New Curriculum for Elementary Physical Education, Teacher Guide 2011: 5). The intrinsic motivation young children have for movement, low-stress conditions, the lack of anxiety for exams, and the cooperation required for their participation in games are some of the PE setting elements which enhance children's willingness to receive information, help them embed knowledge and skills, as well as provide excellent conditions for cross-curricular education.

CLIL is an umbrella term used to refer to any teaching activity in which a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and subject have a joint role (Marsh 2002). Physical Education is among a wide range of school subjects taught within the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach in almost all European countries (Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou 2011). New language patterns and oral skills can be developed or recycled while demonstrating, playing and interacting through games (Griva, Semoglou and Geladari 2010), thus promoting active learning of the language, and the intellectual, physical and social development of the learners (Christopher, Dzakiria and Mohamed 2012). Furthermore, according to Zindler (2013:3),

“... through linking language learning and sport within a CLIL PE setting, the learning experience is perceived as new and different by students. This, in combination with providing an immediate purpose for language learning, is regarded as a factor that has the potential to raise learners' motivation”.

The coordination of learners' physical movement with language learning and speech was first proposed by Asher (1969) in his development of Total Physical Response (TPR), an innovative method for foreign language learning in the 1970s. Elements of TPR are evident in the application of CLIL for PE as physical (motor) activity and language comprehension are involved in teacher's utterances and orders for particular movements. PE thus creates a supportive environment for the exposure of pupils to the new language. The connection of physical activity with language comprehension is actually the principal common point between TPR and the implementation of CLIL in PE. However, beyond this common feature, CLIL in PE further promotes students' learning skills by using techniques and activities that are specific to the particular subject.

The limited number of studies about CLIL in PE have shown positive results in learning for pupils. Coral and Lleixà (2014) conducted a study in Spain with 26 primary school participants aged 10-11. During the 21 weeks of fieldwork cycles, the participants received 63 hours of regular English classes and 84 extra hours of English through PE in CLIL. The study showed that there were significant improvements in oracy using the PE in CLIL approach. Rottman (2007) found similar results when she analyzed twelve CLIL PE lessons of three bilingual German high schools. In particular, she supported that PE is well-suited for CLIL because the activities and processes involved in doing and learning sports and their movements as well as the verbalization of these movement experiences allowed for more comprehensive learning and for more informal interactions between teacher and peers.

1.1. Student and parent perceptions

In order to have a clear picture of whether CLIL has been effectively implemented, it is necessary to analyse the perceptions of the participants. According to Cartwright and Green (1997), participants'

satisfaction is one of the main factors in determining the success of a programme because it reflects their needs and expectations and the degree to which these are fulfilled.

Papaja (2012) investigated the attitudes of CLIL students towards the subjects of Biology, Mathematics, Economics, Chemistry and Physics which are taught in English at a Polish University. The results showed that "...CLIL students like learning English in general but probably due to difficulty of the subjects being studied in English, their positive attitude slightly decreases" (p. 51).

The results from studies in primary education were also found to be positive. In particular, Pladevall-Ballester (2014) examined the perceptions of 197 Spanish 5th graders and their parents regarding the CLIL programme. The pupils attended a one-hour per week lesson in Science or Arts and Crafts in English in the first year of the programme. The pupils were generally satisfied with the experience which they perceived helped them learn new concepts and improve their level of English. They further expressed their desire to continue CLIL in more subjects in the future. Parents realized that their children's English language proficiency had improved, but the majority of them believed that in CLIL classes their children only learned English and not the actual subject matter; this was one of the reasons why they thought CLIL should only be implemented in 'non-serious' subjects such as PE or Arts and Crafts. The results of the above study concerning the perceptions of both student and parent perceptions of CLIL are in line with Massler's (2012) study. Massler researched the perceptions of 3rd and 4th graders, their parents and teachers in German primary schools. The results showed pupils' satisfaction and perceived benefits from the implementation of CLIL and parents' convictions of the value of studying a content subject module through an additional language.

Furthermore, Yassin et al. (2009) studied the perceptions of both 4th grade pupils and their parents about teaching Science through English in a CLIL project of the Malaysian education system. The results revealed positive attitudes of both parents and pupils towards Science in English, even though learners faced problems when using English. The importance of pupil perceptions regarding the successful implementation and, therefore, continuation of a CLIL programme led to the present research study of both pupil and parent perceptions.

Overall, to date research into students' and parents' views regarding the implementation of CLIL has indicated that both groups hold positive perceptions towards the method. However, research into young learners' and their parents' perceptions regarding the implementation of CLIL in PE is very limited and within the Greek context it is literally non-existent.

2. The present study

2.1. Aim and research questions

The present study aims to explore pupil and parent perceptions regarding the implementation of a one-year CLIL programme in the subject of PE. The study was conducted at the 3rd Experimental Primary School of Evosmos, Thessaloniki where CLIL instruction has recently been introduced. For the purpose of this study, the following research questions were formulated:

- (a) How did pupils at the 2nd grade perceive the instruction of PE in English?
 - i. Did they like the lesson?
 - ii. Did they find it difficult?
 - iii. Did they find the CLIL PE lesson more interesting than PE in Greek?
 - iv. Did they understand the language used?
- (b) How did they experience team teaching?
- (c) What elements of the lesson did the pupils like?
- (d) Which units of the programme did the pupils like?
- (e) What did the parents of the pupils think of CLIL in PE?

3. Method

3.1. Participants and context

The study took place in the 3rd Primary School of Evosmos; this is a state experimental school supervised by the School of English, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. CLIL started as a pilot project in this school in 2010 and for the last 6 years it has been expanding continuously within the school curriculum. Currently, the school is unique in Greece with regard to its CLIL programme. It has developed a well-structured CLIL curriculum that runs through grades 1 to 6. The school subjects that are offered through CLIL vary according to the grade: Physical Education and Arts for first and second graders, History and Environmental Studies for third and fourth graders, Geography, Science, IT and Religious Education for fifth and sixth graders and more recently, Chess for first and second graders as Chess has been introduced into the school curriculum. The CLIL programme runs in parallel with an intensive EFL programme which covers grades 1 to 6 and provides 5 hours of EFL instruction to lower grades and 8 hours to grades 3 to 6. The programme of PE through CLIL was piloted during the school year 2014-15. The participants of the study were 24 pupils (9 boys and 15 girls), second graders aged 7-8, and 19 of their parents (one parent per pupil).

The CLIL lessons were implemented for one of the four 45-minute sessions of the PE curriculum per week. Certain units were selected to be taught only in the CLIL lessons. The PE teacher and the English language teacher were both responsible for the design and implementation of the lessons. They both spoke only English to the pupils as the aim at that stage was to develop their listening and speaking skills. The course content was based on the state approved PE curriculum and consisted of activities from a variety of units (e.g., rope skipping, aerobics, dance choreographies and manipulative skills) mainly through related action songs, station tasks, and cooperative assignments in small groups. As far as language objectives are concerned, these included vocabulary related to motor skills (motion verbs, such as *skip*, *jump*, *slide*, etc.) and motor concepts (directions, prepositions of place, adverbs) (Graham, 2008). Thus, children participated in physical activities and were simultaneously required to listen to and follow instructions, in order to promote understanding and facilitate memorization (cf. Asher 1969).

3.2. Instruments and procedures

A semi-structured interview for the pupils and a questionnaire for the parents were used to collect the data pertaining to the participants' perceptions. Both the interview and the questionnaire which were constructed for the needs of the present study were conducted in Greek. The interviews were conducted face to face at the end of the school year by a researcher, other than the CLIL teachers, who recorded the responses by taking notes.

The pupils' interview consisted of 10 questions concerning their participation, attitudes and opinions regarding CLIL in PE as well as of two questions aiming to explore what they liked or disliked about the programme (Appendix 1). Furthermore, the pupils were asked to rank the activities of the programme using a 5-point scale (5=very much, 4=a lot, 3=somewhat, 2=a little, 1=not at all) according to how much they liked them.

The responses to the 10 questions were coded as to whether they were strongly positive (*yes/very much*), almost positive (*sometimes/quite a lot*) or negative (*no/not at all*), while the "likes" and "dislikes" were grouped according to their content.

The parent questionnaire comprised of 13 closed-ended questions with two-option responses (*Yes-No*) (Appendix 2) and were filled in at the end of the school year. The questions were related to their own thoughts and views and also to their children's perceptions and feelings about the CLIL programme. The questionnaire had an acceptable internal consistency for the present study with a Cronbach alpha coefficient reported of .71. Descriptive statistics were used for the calculation of the percentage of participants' responses.

4. Results

4.1. Interview results

The number of answers and the corresponding percentage for each question of the interview are shown in Table 1. All pupils who took part in the study liked PE and the great majority of them stated that they liked English. Half of them claimed that they definitely liked PE in English, and 46% stated that they wanted more PE lessons in English. In addition, 42% of the children said that they definitely found PE in English more interesting than in Greek and 62% of them wanted to have more subjects taught in English. The vast majority of the children pointed out that they either always understood the English used in the PE lesson (50%) or that they did so in most cases (46%). The same percentage stated that they were very pleased with the team-teaching approach that was implemented in the programme.

Questions	Yes/Very much		Sometimes/quite a lot		No/not at all
	%	N	%	N	%
Do you like English?	92%	22	8%	2	-
Do you like PE?	100%	24	-		-
Did you like PE in English?	50%	12	42%	10	8%
Was PE in English difficult?	4%	1	21%	5	75%
Would you like to have more subjects taught in English?	62%	15	17%	4	21%
Is PE in English more interesting than PE in Greek?	42%	10	37%	9	21%
Would you like to have more PE lessons in English?	46%	11	25%	6	29%
Was PE in English boring?	8%	2	21%	5	71%
Did you like that you had two teachers in PE in English?	92%	22	8%	2	-
Did you understand the English language in the PE lessons?	50%	12	46%	11	4%

Table 1. Pupils' interview answers

Pupils' answers to the questions "*Mention something you like about PE in English*", and "*Mention something you do not like about PE in English*" are shown in Table 2.

Answers	N
- "Everything..."	4
- "...that we have two teachers"	3
- "Dancing..."	2
"Mention something you liked about PE in English"	
- "Outside with two teachers..."	2
- "That we have lessons outside..."	6
- "Songs..."	1

	- “That we do a lot of different activities ”	4
	- “... that we speak English in PE.”	2
“Mention something you did not like about PE in English”	- “There is nothing I don’t like, I like everything”	13
	- “Songs...”	2
	- “Indoor activities...”	4
	- “Speaking only English...”	2
	- “When it’s raining and we must go inside ...”	2
	- “When we repeat the same activities...”	1

Table 2. Frequency of ‘likes’ and ‘dislikes’ according to pupils’ interview responses

Finally, learners were required to rate the units of the CLIL programme. By ‘units’ we refer to a number of lessons in a specific content area of PE. Apart from psychomotor objectives, units may also include cognitive and affective objectives. The results of children’s answers are shown in Figure 1. Manipulative skills in station organisation seemed to be the most popular unit since 80% of the pupils said that they liked it ‘very much’. The Parachuting and Rope skipping units followed with 67% and 54% respectively. The Choreographies unit was the least popular since 25% of pupils reported that they did not like it at all or that they liked it a little. However, 54% of them stated that they liked it a lot or very much.

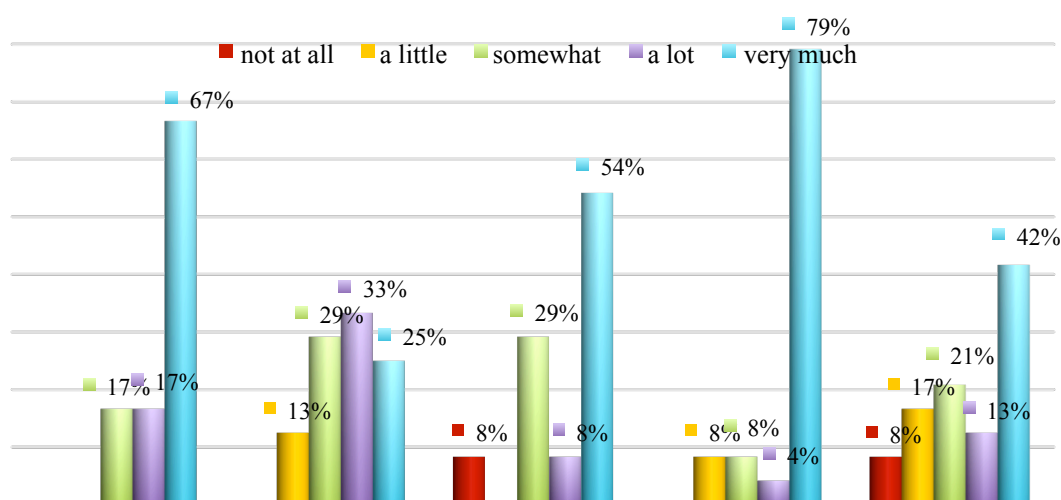


Figure 1. Pupils’ rating of each activity

4.2. Questionnaire results

The analysis of parent questionnaires showed that most parents stated that their children referred to PE in English at home either by singing the songs or using the words they had acquired during the lesson. The analysis also revealed that 95% of parents thought their children were happy with their participation in the CLIL programme, which they considered not to be difficult, and 84% believed that their children did not find the lesson boring. Furthermore, 90% of them confirmed that their children found the team-teaching approach interesting. Almost all parents (95%) replied negatively to the question whether the use of English had a negative impact on their children's participation in PE. They all believed that inability to perform a task successfully was not a reason for pupils to avoid participating in the CLIL class. All parents stated that their children liked PE and that they also liked learning English. They all considered that their children gained from both the English language and the PE content in the CLIL setting, with 84% of them agreeing that it would be good for their children to continue with more PE in English lessons. Almost all parents (95%) believed that the children would benefit from the implementation of the programme during the next school year. Parents' answers and the corresponding percentages are displayed in Table 3.

My child...	Yes	No
... referred to "PE in English" at home (songs, words etc.)	84% (16)	16% (3)
... was happy with his/her participation in "PE in English"	95% (18)	5% (1)
... finds the lesson with two teachers interesting	90% (17)	10% (2)
... considered "PE in English" difficult	5% (1)	95% (18)
... did not want to participate in "PE in English" because it was in English	5% (1)	95% (18)
... considered "PE in English" boring	16% (3)	84% (16)
... did not want to participate because he/she thought that he/she would not succeed	-	100% (19)
I believe that ...	Yes	No
... my child likes PE	100% (19)	-
... my child likes learning English	100% (19)	-
... my child benefits from English language learning through PE	100% (19)	-
... my child benefits both from PE and from English	100% (19)	-
... it would be good to have more "PE in English" lessons	84% (16)	16% (3)
... the children would benefit from the implementation of "PE in English" for the next school year	95% (18)	5% (1)

Table 3. Parents' answers to the questionnaire

5. Discussion

The perceptions that both pupils and parents have regarding the implementation of CLIL in PE are of great importance in order to evaluate the programme and introduce changes for its future implementation. Therefore, the aim of this study was to record the perceptions of both parents and pupils through interviews and questionnaires.

As can be seen from the results, PE and English are two of the young learners' favourite subjects. In particular, all pupils stated that they liked PE and English as separate subjects. When asked to express their view about PE lessons in English, the vast majority of the pupils claimed that they liked them very much or quite a lot and only two children responded that they did not like them at all. It seems that some pupils were sceptical and some even reacted negatively because they felt it was much more difficult for them to understand the content of the lesson in English as this required much more of an effort than they would have had to make if the class had been conducted in Greek.

In addition, more than two thirds claimed that they did not find the PE lessons in English difficult; in fact, only one child stated that she did so and she also claimed that she was not able to understand the English language used in these lessons. It might be that the learners' perception of the lesson as difficult is due to their limited understanding of the language. Similarly, only two pupils mentioned that they always found the lessons boring whereas the rest of them found them interesting

An interesting finding of this study relates to pupils' views regarding the increase of the number of PE lessons in English. We remind the reader that PE classes in the school curriculum consisted of four lessons per week and only one of them was conducted in English. Almost half of the participants wanted to have more CLIL lessons in PE whereas a quarter of them were not against the idea but did not express a clearly positive view. However, 7 children were definitely not in favour of the increase. The question that arises here is why all pupils, although they have very positive perceptions regarding both subjects, do not feel the same way about having the PE lesson in English. It is assumed that even though pupils overall do not feel that they have difficulty in understanding the English used in the PE lesson, the use of a foreign language may slightly decrease their enthusiasm and consequently their positive attitude toward the subject (cf. Papaja 2012). This in turn accounts for the lower percentage of pupils who would like to have more PE lessons in English.

The positive perception pupils have of the CLIL programme is also evident from the fact that the majority of the pupils stated that they would like to have more subjects taught in the English language. This is in line with Massler's (2012) research findings which indicated high levels of satisfaction among pupils towards the CLIL modules. However, it is worth noting that there were a few pupils in our study, who, although they would like the number of PE lessons in English to increase, would however, prefer not to have other subjects in CLIL. The opposite can also be seen. Generally more than half would like to see both an increase in the number of PE lessons in English and more subjects in CLIL as well.

A mainly positive tendency was observed with regard to the PE lesson conducted in English compared to that conducted in Greek. The great majority of the pupils stated that they found the PE lesson in English more interesting than in Greek. This positive perception may have been influenced by the team teaching

involved in CLIL, since this is a factor that differentiates the PE in Greek and the CLIL PE classes. All learners responded positively to the question whether they liked having two teachers simultaneously involved in the lesson. Learners' positive response may be due to the fact that the two teachers collaborated extremely well, each taking the leading role according to their expertise but always supplementing each other.

The answers to what the pupils liked or did not like about PE in English revealed that more than half of the participants stated that they liked everything about PE in English and that there was nothing they felt unhappy about. The main conclusions that can be drawn from their answers are that the most popular lessons are those that are conducted outside in the schoolyard even if this involves their least favourite activities; for pupils, anything is better than having the PE lesson indoors, possibly due to the fact that there is no gym in the school and PE takes place in the classroom when it rains. Another significant point that arises from learners' responses is the importance of variety in the activities, as young learners get easily bored with activities which are repeated. In general, most responses that elicited negative attitudes (i.e. PE lesson indoors and repeated activities) were actually directly related to the PE subject and not to the CLIL class. In other words, the same attitudes are expected to have been expressed towards the PE class in Greek as well.

The units from the PE curriculum that were selected to be taught in English seemed to satisfy the pupils. The teaching of motor skills and concepts using equipment that enhanced the achievement of the aims through pupil cooperation (e.g. parachute, ropes) appeared to please the participants. In addition, completely new tasks such as divergent discovery assignments (e.g. choreographies in small groups to specific pieces of music) pleased the majority of the learners despite the difficulties encountered because of their age. One of the pupils' most favourite units appeared to be manipulative skills practice in station tasks (see Figure 1).

Referring to parents' perceptions of the CLIL programme, the results of the questionnaire showed that there is a very high degree of satisfaction with the CLIL programme in PE, and that this is higher than that of their children's. This may be due to parents' belief that PE in CLIL benefits their children both language and content wise. Their positive views are also reflected in their desire for the programme to continue more intensively in the following years. This result is in tune with children's responses and reflects a positive view of both parents and pupils. In accordance with the opinions of the pupils, all parents believed that their children loved the subjects of PE and English as two distinct subjects. What is more, the impression the overwhelming majority of children gave to parents at home was that they enjoyed their participation in the CLIL programme without encountering significant difficulties. Overall, parents confirmed the interest and enthusiasm of their children as regards team teaching. However, interestingly, two of them stated that their children did not find team teaching interesting and this finding contradicts children's responses since no child expressed a negative view with regard to team-teaching. Parents' answers showed that they were convinced that their children had learning gains in both subjects by doing PE in English, which is a finding that corroborates previous studies (e.g. Massler 2012). At the same time though, such findings come in contrast with Pladevall-Ballester's study (2014) which found that parents believed that through CLIL, children learn English but not the subject matter

5.1 Limitations

This study has a few limitations. The small sample is quite problematic for the quantitative analysis conducted. A larger sample would have provided more reliable results and conclusions. It is also worth considering that the age of the pupils might have influenced the quality of their answers. More insight would have been gained if the parent questionnaires had been followed up with interviews.

6. Conclusion

This study aimed to explore and present the perception of second graders and their parents with regard to the implementation of CLIL in PE. This is an innovative piece of research as young learners' perceptions about CLIL implementation have been scarcely looked into. What is more, as CLIL has only recently been implemented in Greece, it is important to study and report on the effectiveness of the method in the Greek educational context. Due to the experimental nature of the school, educational innovations are regularly introduced to its programme, and both parents and pupils are open and quite positive towards them; thus, our initial assumptions in this study were that parents and children's perceptions regarding the CLIL implementation in PE would be very positive.

The results of the study have been quite interesting and encouraging for the continuation of the CLIL programme. On the whole, the results showed a high degree of satisfaction from both parents and pupils regarding CLIL, which is one of the reasons why this particular programme is expected to continue in the future years. Specifically, PE is one of children's favourite subjects, if not their favourite one, and the objective is for the learners to benefit as much as possible both language and content-wise from the supportive environment that this subject provides. Thus, careful planning and choice of content and methodology are needed so as to achieve the objectives set.

It is important to note that further research is recommended in order to gain data regarding views and perceptions not only of the participants of the present study in the long term, but also of other pupils in the same school. Such findings will allow us to improve the CLIL programme so as to better address learners' learning needs and preferences.

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IN-SERVICE TEACHER PERCEPTION OF IWB USAGE & TRAINING IN TECHNOLOGY-ENHANCED CLIL CLASSROOMS

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Abstract

This paper aims at (i) analyzing Primary and Secondary teachers' opinion about the current level of IWB usage in bilingual schools, and (ii) contrasting the results obtained with the level of knowledge and skill in the application of CLIL by teachers who are currently undertaking in-service training in the field of Plurilingualism. Results reveal that teachers from bilingual schools most frequently use low-interaction IWB functions, which is in accordance with the display of early levels of knowledge and skill in the application of CLIL learning strategies. These findings lead us to believe that in-service training design should focus on promoting a progressive curricular integration of technology in bilingual settings.

Key words: IWB, CLIL, technology integration, teacher training, Plurilingualism.

Resumen

Este artículo pretende (i) analizar la percepción del profesorado de Educación Primaria y Secundaria acerca del uso de la pizarra digital interactiva (PDI) en centros bilingües, y (ii) comprobar el nivel de conocimiento e implementación del modelo de aprendizaje integrado de lengua y contenido (AICLE) por parte del profesorado que realiza actividades de formación permanente sobre Plurilingüismo. Los resultados muestran que el profesorado de centros bilingües hace un uso de la PDI limitado a funcionalidades poco interactivas en consonancia con un conocimiento e implementación del modelo AICLE que no alcanza niveles de profundización metodológica. Estos resultados parecen indicar que el diseño de la formación permanente del profesorado debe favorecer una integración curricular de la tecnología de manera progresiva en contextos de enseñanza bilingüe.

Palabras clave: PDI, AICLE, integración curricular de la tecnología, formación del profesorado, Plurilingüismo.

1. Introduction

After approximately two decades since the widespread introduction of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in European educational contexts, research has shown that this approach improves foreign language learning (Lorenzo et al. 2010). Dalton-Puffer (2011: 185) considers CLIL “a way to transcend the perceived weakness of traditional FL teaching” including the communicative approaches in language learning. The impact of interactive whiteboards (IWB) in foreign language teaching is widely perceived to improve teaching and learning, adding value to the learner's experience in the classroom and increasing motivation (Kennewell and Morgan, 2003). Moreover, the myriad of applications whose access is enabled through the IWB can even secure the effect on learners that Coyle, Marsh & Hood (2011) finds too difficult to achieve, that is, to motivate and eventually produce a highly skilled plurilingual and pluricultural workforce. However, to our knowledge, there is a scarcity of research concerning claims that

effective IWB usage actually improve CLIL-instruction and what there is may not be completely objective or is inconclusive (Glover, Miller and Averis 2004). The main purpose of this paper is to prove the actual challenges teachers face when using the IWB in bilingual schools. One of the risks is returning to teacher-centered whole-class teaching instead of pursuing communicative task-based or project-based teaching. As regards students, there is a danger of cognitive overload and the risk of spoon-feeding with pre-designed presentation materials (Cutrim-Schmid, 2006), reducing interaction and therefore the added stimulation that integrated technology should offer in CLIL settings.

The study also explores the average CLIL knowledge and implementation skills acknowledged by teachers undertaking in-service training on language and methodology. Recent studies (Pérez-Cañado, 2012) prove that there is a lack of empirical evidence concerning the effectiveness of teacher training in bilingual contexts. Thus, our findings will aim to shed some light on this aspect by exploring teachers' perception of their practice, using a six-stage CLIL model as a reference. Hence, we review the main studies dealing with the importance of technology integration and explore the relationship between IWB usage levels and CLIL implementation procedures in bilingual schools. A report of the study conducted with its methodology, main results found and interpretation of those results follows. The paper concludes by pointing out some lines for further research trying to overcome the main limitations of the present study.

2. Interactive whiteboard usage in bilingual schools

In Andalusia, the implementation of Escuela 2.0 Programme led to a series of changes in methodology affecting the usage of ICT in classroom settings, either bilingual or non-bilingual. Schools were provided with IWBs, mainly to be installed in late courses in Primary Education and early ones in Compulsory Secondary Education. However, the frequency and type of use displayed by teachers have varied from lower level to high level depending on several factors, such as the quality of the training received, the type of technological equipment or the activation of a proper maintenance plan. In this sense, Haldane and Somekh (2005) describe a five-scale model which defines the natural evolvement of teaching practice. These scales were derived from group discussions based on observations in practical settings by trainee teachers and tested by subsequent research projects.

Considering these facts, there are different levels of IWB usage which might be in accordance with the average knowledge of CLIL unfolded by teachers. IWB low interactivity functionalities might convey a context where CLIL has not been properly developed to provoke thought among students and actual assimilation of content within the frame of the foreign language. Researchers have tackled the issue concerning the extent to which IWB effective usage stimulates pupils and enhances their attention. In this sense, Wall, K., Higgins, S. & Smith, H. (2005) estimated that visual effects help students understand better as several thinking skills (showing, storing, ordering, labeling and manipulating) are boosted. The ease of use of interactive whiteboards means that teachers have an opportunity to explore new ways to develop topics based on pupils' thoughts and ideas. This might have positive implications for pupil empowerment and effects in the development of self-learning skills. However, Harris, J., Grandgenett, N., and Hofer, M. (2010) consider that subject programmes are still designed according to traditional outlines that do not put technology at the core of content and pedagogy. For this reason, the present study tries to

ascertain the actual level of IWB usage (as the main piece of technology in the classroom) displayed by teachers in bilingual schools, and the degree of curricular and pedagogical integration of this tool.

3. The application of CLIL in technology-enhanced classrooms

As mentioned in the introduction, CLIL was defined as a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language (Marsh and Wolff, 2006). Since 2006 CLIL has received a continued support as the Eurydice report (published by the information network on education in Europe) marked CLIL on the European educational landscape (Pérez Cañado, 2015). Although it had already been noted in 2004-06 Commission Action Plan for promoting language learning and linguistic diversity, it is from this moment that CLIL was seriously taken into consideration as a reasonably cheap and effective educational approach that might improve Plurilingualism policies across Europe. But the contexts in which CLIL may vary widely, and it may be realized differently depending on the socio-cultural settings and educational policies of the countries involved (Coyle, 2007).

In Spain, the introduction of CLIL provides an opportunity to produce a methodological revolution in order to facilitate the development of oral skills and the increased motivation of students as foreign language learning required a radical change in the way foreign languages were taught and learnt (Pavón & Rubio 2010: 54). The interactive whiteboard, used as a visual scaffolding device, can become an effective tool that supports this sustained development of both motivation and oral skills. But it is important to clarify that effective use of any technology is not merely about understanding how to use it from a technical standpoint, but more importantly, how it impacts society and understanding of how it can develop higher order thinking (Rychen, 2002). Additionally, the success of the cognitive engagement CLIL forces students and teachers to, depends on the ability of the CLIL teacher to get the message through the students effectively, without dumbing down the subject content, oversimplifying concepts, principles or worse still, omitting them altogether (Pavón & Ellison 2013: 72). As we can see, the degree of fulfillment of this high cognitive demand is a meeting ground for CLIL (as an educational approach) and IWBs (as a learning technology) that we intend to explore in this article, as technology integration is one of the determining factors in high-quality CLIL programmes.

4. Method

4.1. Objectives and research questions

The Plan to Promote Plurilingualism, a document issued by the Consejería de Educación comprising 72 actions, marked in 2005 a turning point as the need for language learning improvement, at least two second foreign languages at Secondary Education, was widely acknowledged. Since then, CLIL has been adopted as the model for effective content and language teaching in bilingual schools in our region. However, Dalton-Puffer (2008: 139) claims that there is a lack of research on methodological references for CLIL practitioners. To our knowledge, the need for research is met with the scarcity of self-observation techniques implemented by teachers working in bilingual contexts. For these reasons and the aspects mentioned in the previous section, this study aims at (i) diagnosing the current level of IWB usage

displayed by teachers at bilingual schools; (ii) relating it to the actual knowledge and skill in the application of CLIL as stated by in-service training teachers; and (iii) drawing conclusions for a teacher training design which encompasses contents from the technology-enhanced CLIL classroom. Thus, this study set out to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the average level of IWB equipment, usage and training in bilingual schools?
2. Does the application of CLIL reflect a fully fledged IWB usage for teachers currently undertaking in-service training?
3. Are there specific guidelines for the design of a technology-enhanced CLIL classroom training course?

4.2. Participants

Two teacher samples constitute the participants in this study. The IWB group, was made up of 50 teachers from bilingual schools (teaching linguistic and non-linguistic areas through the foreign language), whereas the CLIL group comprised 38 teachers that were undertaking an in-service training course on L2 language level improvement (above B2 from CEFR) and the mastery of CLIL teaching strategies. Both groups included primary and secondary school teachers, as this study means to extract conclusions regarding technology integration and CLIL application for teachers independently of the grade they teach in.

The sample is homogeneous in regards to their CLIL background, as teachers are actually teaching in bilingual schools or are pursuing in-service training. No relevant information is provided regarding the average socio-economic and cultural background of the schools as there are no participating students in this study.

Bilingual school group	Questionnaire 1	40 items	50 answers
In-service-training group	Questionnaire 2	36 items	38 answers

Table 1. Participants profile

4.3. Data Collection

Data was collected between 01/10/2014 and 31/05/2015 through direct email messages addressed to teachers from bilingual schools who kindly accepted to anonymously complete questionnaire 1. Questionnaire 2 was completed on paper by teachers undertaking a language and methodology course (according to a credited B2 CEFR level and including strategies for successful CLIL implementation). In all, 88 answers were compiled and data was analysed with IBM SPSS Statistics V22.0. Percentages were extracted regarding the overall 76 items included in both questionnaires in order to check whether there were statistically significant similarities or differences among categories describing IWB level use (from 1 “low” to 5 “high”) and procedural decisions taken along the stages (from 1 to 6) in the CLIL implementation model used as reference for this study (Appendix 1).

5. Results

Regarding our first research question (What is the average level of IWB equipment, usage and training in bilingual schools?) the data (see Table 2) revealed that IWB usage is prominently used in schools, as 71.4% of the teachers agree on the idea that IWB is used more than once a week; but only 30.6% of them consider that it is used more than 50% of actual teaching time. 30.6% of the answers acknowledge that at least 50% staff members actually use the IWB. In some schools, shortage of equipment has a strong bearing on low IWB usage rates. A wider picture can be outlined by data referring to IWB frequency of usage according to subjects. 41.3 % of teachers consider that IWB is mostly used in subjects taught through L2; English scored number one in 21.7% of the answers, and Science did so for 15.2% of the teachers. The very same percentage was obtained by the answer “Other subjects”, whereas only 6.5% of teachers stated IWB was often used in maths. This figure indicates that teachers of maths do not frequently use subject-specific software through the IWB. However, research (Binterová & Komínková, 2013: 95) has proved that using interactive whiteboard elements and mathematical programs, i.e. GeoGebra to deliver maths courses in English at the elementary school level, reached positive outcomes in terms of student and teacher motivation and willingness.

IWB	Research dimensions	Items
IWB equipment	Age, place and IWB models.	1,2,3,4,5,6
IWB usage	IWB frequency of use according to subjects.	7,8,9,10
	IWB usage level.	11,12,13,14
	IWB and key competences.	15,16,17
	Opinion on IWB usage.	18,19,20
IWB training	Type and opinion of IWB training.	21,22,23,24,25,26
	IWB effect on learning.	27,28,29,30
Integrated use of technology	Curricular integration of technology.	31,32,33,34
	Digital skills.	35,36,37,38,39,40

Table 2: Categories in Questionnaire 1

Surprisingly enough, no participant considers that IWB usage has a positive effect on catering for diversity (Item 12), whereas studies (Wall, Higgins and Smith, 2005) prove that meeting the needs of learners with diverse learning styles (aural, visual and kinesthetic) through the use of multiple media is one of the main benefits of IWB usage. Instead, answers were spread among the other three options, being the distribution of percentages as it follows: 42.9% of teachers consider that the IWB offers the visual support that enables better knowledge assimilation; 22.4% of them strike the powerful motivating effect in learning and finally 34.7% of teachers consider that the main value of the IWB is its one-to-one relationship with interaction, as it generally fosters student participation in the classroom.

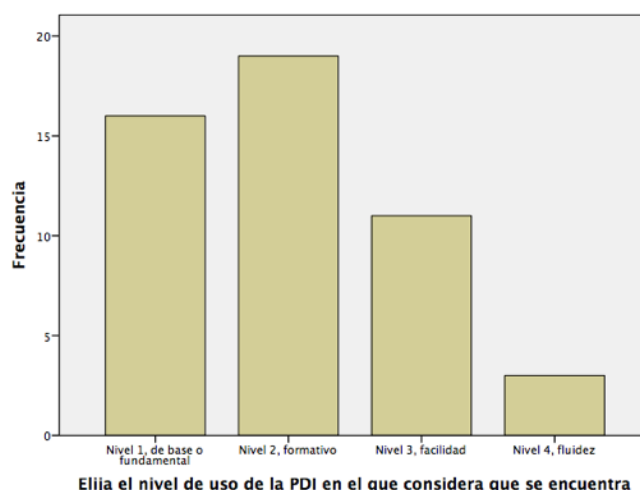


Figure 1

Item 14 in questionnaire 1 (Figure 1) is based upon the model described by Haldane and Somekh (2005), which classifies teaching from low-level foundation use, where practice replicates what is already possible with display technologies, to best practice full integrated flying use, where teachers prove confidence in technology and interaction is therefore enhanced. In spite of the fact that there is a wide scope for improvement leading up to level 5, participants acknowledge a constrained IWB usage. Supporting teachers' explanations, facilitating content assimilation and creating resources (level 2) were the most favoured uses provided by the interactive whiteboard. These results lead us to think that there is still a need for effective training conducive to levels 3 or 4, which strike a more interactive, multi-faceted use of IWB in a CLIL provision environment. In fact, these researchers suggest that at the highest level of this scale, a new pedagogy emerges where lesson design is constructed with fully embedded interactive technology.

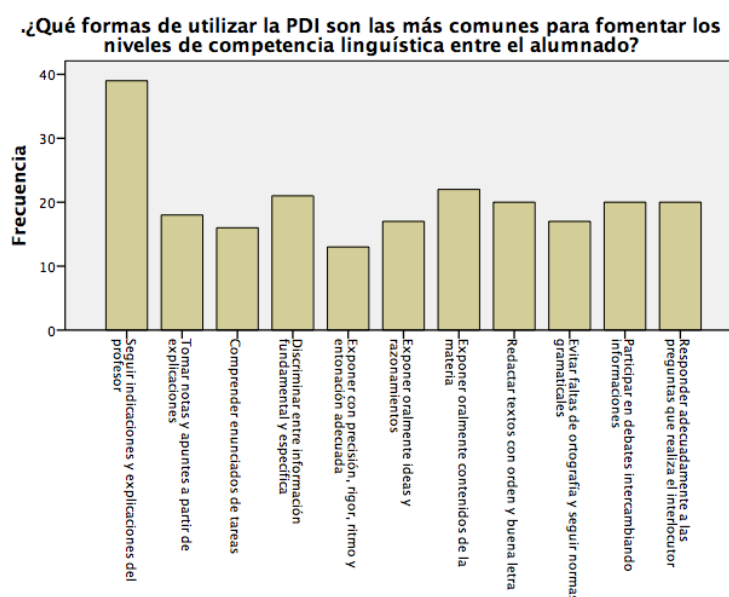


Figure 2

Regarding the promotion of linguistic skills, 81.2% of teachers stated that IWB usage favours oral comprehension when following teachers' instructions and explanations, which is also rather limited in terms of oral interaction. Glover, Miller and Averis (2003) proved the effect of IWB on enhancing the scope of interactivity and learner engagement in the classroom. Most teachers acknowledge that the best contribution of IWB usage to students' learning autonomy consists of its instrumental role in managing oral presentations (36.2%) and setting up collaborative work (26.6%).

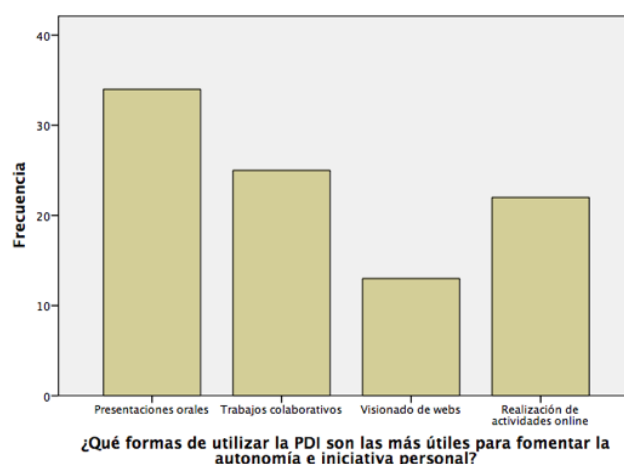


Figure 3

As regards digital skills, 64.5% of participants consider that IWB benefits students' abilities to obtain and select information related to complex issues and reflect or express it correctly. Among the pedagogical benefits of using the IWB in language and content lessons lie facilitating the integration of new media in language classroom (Gray, Hagger-Vaughan, Pilkington and Tomkins, 2005) and supporting the development of electronic literacies (Cutrim-Schmid, 2006). Additionally, Asikainen (2010: 4) reports that we are entering an age where the added value of learning languages, linked with the development of inter-related electronic literacies, is becoming profoundly important. Consequently, CLIL practitioners should be trained for a school context reflecting the so-called knowledge society.

Results from the analysis of items focusing on teachers' training opportunities conclude that 95.8% of them agree on the idea that training has had a positive effect on their own IWB usage, by fostering more positive changes in methodology (85.2%) than in assessment (14.8%). In the same vein, 47.91% of teachers confirm that the overall integration of technology in lessons (either L2 or NLS ones) is a key element for training design now and in the long run. Finally, 33.3% acknowledge that IWB training in bilingual schools can be managed by one or two members of the staff acting as trainers. The same percentage of participants imagine that future requirements of IWB training will be referred to a set of pre-established European digital standards for pre-service and in-service teachers.

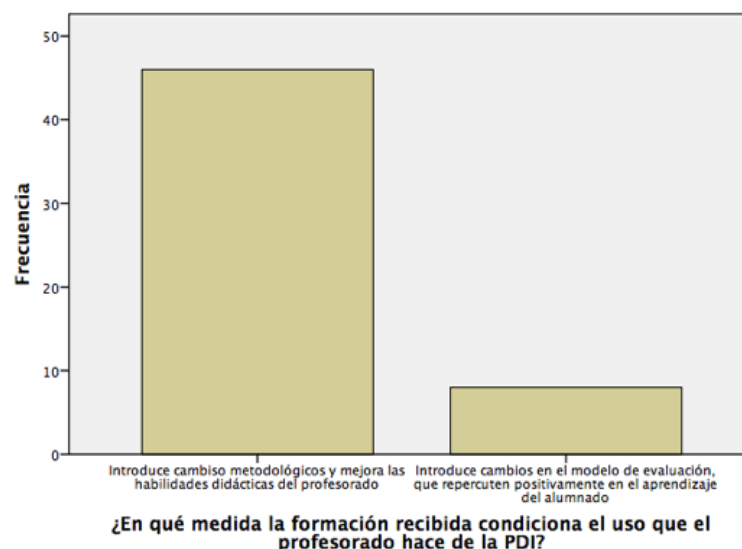


Figure 4

As for the second research question (Does the application of CLIL reflect a fully fledged IWB usage for teachers currently undertaking in-service training?), results (Table 3) are related to the six categories and research dimensions associated with the application of a CLIL type model (Dale & Tanner, 2012). Pérez-Cañado (2015: 167) affirms that a good training plan is behind high-quality practices in bilingual schools and so it is essential to monitor the effect and evolvement of teachers' training opportunities, especially regarding examples of good practices within the CLIL model. In fact, the underlying theory that guides CLIL-related data analysis is the one offered by Meehisto and Marsh (2011: 36), who consider CLIL to be a cognitively demanding approach, which requires efficient preparation of lessons unfolded along a six-stage route. Every stage and their accompanying scaffolding strategies constitute the set of items in the second questionnaire used in this study, which we intend to comment upon in the following lines. Once activation is managed, CLIL teachers pursue some strategies in order to guide understanding, such as understanding input and encouraging thinking skills strategies. Topic understanding is provided by using different sorts of input (multimodal input) such as texts, pictures, real objects, videos and models, to help learners understand the topic (37.5%). However, only 18.7% of participants always used graphic organizers or other forms of support to help learners understand input.

Stages in lesson CLIL implementation	Research dimensions	Items
Activating	Checking students' prior knowledge	1,2,6
	Scaffolding topic introduction	3,4,5
Guiding Understanding	Input understanding strategies	7,10
	Encouraging thinking skills	8,9,11,12
Focus on language	Developing subject vocabulary	13,14, 16, 17, 18
	Noticing similarities and differences between L1 and L2.	15
Focus on speaking	Using speaking activities.	20,21,24
	Encouraging speaking and interaction	19, 22, 23
Focus on writing	Using writing activities	25, 29, 30
	Encouraging writing	26, 27, 28
Assessment, review and feedback	Giving feedback	32, 33
	Implementing assessing strategies	34, 35, 36,

Table 3: Categories in Questionnaire 2

Encouraging thinking skills also registers the following percentages according to the different actions teachers might unfold in the CLIL classroom. 15.8% of teachers acknowledged that only occasionally had they formulated and used different kinds of questions, some related to LOTS (lower-order thinking skills) and others related to HOTS (higher-order thinking skills) to help learners understand input and process information actively.

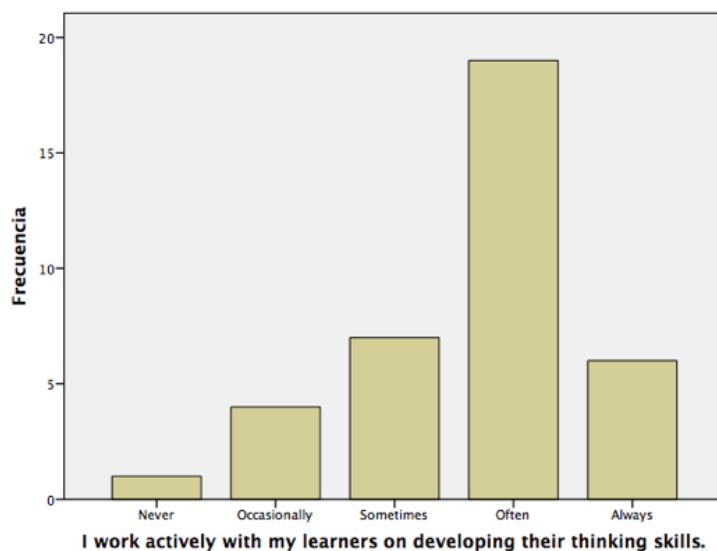


Figure 5

Alternatively, over 75% of teachers stated that they encouraged learners to interact and use a lot of pair and group work, yet only 18.9% of teachers always used a number of strategies or activities to help learners improve their reading and listening skills. Moreover, 10.8% of teachers confirmed that they never or only occasionally worked actively with learners in developing their thinking skills.

As regards the results for our third research question (Are there specific guidelines for the design of a technology-enhanced CLIL classroom training course?), percentages show that most primary and secondary teachers are committed to reflecting on content and language in their lessons, but few of them acknowledge a complete ability to do so. Therefore, the following results might be taken into consideration in order to design specific training for bilingual schools. Thus, IWB effective usage as a result of proper training might help a lot towards guaranteeing a pervasive use of graphic organizers, audio functionalities for listening skills activities and the visual support necessary for developing thinking skills.

Data analysis also confirms that 36.8% of teachers scarcely foster some strategies for developing subject vocabulary, such as using a personal vocabulary file actively or discussing ways of learning words with students (only 15.8% always does so). Few participants (only 2.7% always does so) create speaking activities with information gaps so that learners might need to communicate. About 44.7% of teachers only occasionally promote speaking about the subject for different audiences, either formally or informally. One of the most favoured CLIL writing activity focuses on using graphic organizers to help learners organize their writing, being the underlying strategy that of helping learners move from concrete to abstract language in their writing almost obliterated. Additionally, only 19.4% of surveyed teachers always instruct learners to give each other feedback on their spoken or written language. Finally, 44.7% of teachers have only occasionally used a rubric and an approximately similar percentage do not know how to design this assessment instrument. Hence we observe some definite patterns for language acquisition from teachers' perception of their own application of the CLIL model. According to results from this questionnaire, speaking, writing and assessment categories register the lowest scores, which support Coyle's (2007) idea that the contexts in which CLIL unfolds may vary widely, and it may be realized differently depending on the socio-cultural settings and educational policies of the countries involved.

6. Discussion

The analysis of our data clearly shows that IWB use in bilingual settings is still limited to non-interactive activities, whereas the impact of training was not as positive as expected, mainly because the duration was not adequate and the existing technical limitations at schools. According to Gray, Hagger-Vaughan, Pilkington & Tomkins (2005) language teachers are wary of moves to put them back in front of the board for long stretches of time, seeing the IWB as potentially luring the teacher into a presentation style of teaching leaving the learners in a passive role. On the contrary, CLIL teachers in this study showed themselves most at ease when using the IWB as a presentation device supporting teacher explanations. Further research should be recommended in order to clarify whether this is so because they do not know other interactive applications of content and language lessons, or rather because they feel like using the IWB in such a limited way.

Our data also indicates that IWBs are not widely used, nor its powerful functionalities, which seems to indicate that CLIL lessons have not reached the plateau of cognitive development suggested by Coyle, Marsh and Hood (2011: 54), who claim that CLIL is also associated with the development of skills such as problem solving, risk-taking, linguistic confidence, communication skills, vocabulary, self-expression, spontaneous talk, cultural awareness, and global citizenship. These skills are comprised in the so called 4Cs, essential when planning a CLIL lesson (content, communication, culture and cognition). It is clear

that for CLIL to be effective, it must challenge learners to create new knowledge and develop new skills through reflection and engagement in high-order as well as lower-order thinking. However, it is worth mentioning that according to data analysis it seems that most CLIL teachers are lagging behind this “thinking-skills stage” and therefore so is the accompanying technological development that makes it possible seamless integration of technology in CLIL lessons.

Studies consistently report that more than 40% of the residual variance in measures of student performance is at the class or teacher level (Marsh, 2012). In the same light Schuck & Kearney (2008: 396) consider IWBs a learning technology that can be used effectively according to the pedagogical mindset of the teacher or it can even be used to change the traditional methodological line that is followed in a school. Ultimately, the responsibility for learning how to use interactive whiteboards falls to the individual user and as questionnaire results indicate, most teachers rely either on their fellow teachers or trial and error to learn the technology. Hence the relevance of a high-performing teacher. When the interactive boards arrive, uneven training has been pursued in most cases, resulting in an extended learning curve for the teacher and a poor return on investment for the school. Interactive whiteboards require a dedicated individual who can convey their enthusiasm for the subject to students. The teacher should have an open mind to new teaching methodologies and be versatile enough to incorporate them into his or her curriculum.

Contrary to our expectations the value of IWB as an effective tool to cater for diversity does not seem to be recognised or valued by participants who actually teach CLIL. However, and due to the role of English as an international language, teachers should aim to focus on the multimedia functionalities that the IWB offers and consider visual support as the main driver when learning content and language in an integrated way, according to the dual-focused educational approach CLIL is considered to be (Marsh & Wolff, 2006). Different learning styles and abilities are the norm in CLIL lessons, and technology (in the form of an IWB and its functionalities or even its interplay with mobile devices) is the perfect ally for teachers to provide successful mixed-ability strategies and tasks.

7. Conclusions

Three main findings stand out from the present research study. First, primary and secondary school teachers still need to move ahead from lower level to high level use of technology in bilingual contexts. With regard to the second research question, the results support that in-service teachers consider that further methodological training is needed in order to fully acquire the professional development abilities required to teach in the technology-enhanced CLIL classroom. Finally, relevant training conclusions can be drawn from this analysis, which can be useful in order to design courses that fit in with teachers' current level of IWB usage within the CLIL lesson framework. Integration of technology should be promoted among teachers, as well as a full-fledged methodological model based on the CLIL approach along a five scale route. Levels range from (1) foundation; (2) formative; (3) facility; (4) fluency and (5) flying, according to Haldane and Somekh's five-tiered model in teaching practice. Teachers' full-scale professional development might eventually led to an improvement in learners' acquisition of language and content. Nevertheless, these results should be taken with caution due to the number of teachers who took part in the present research. Therefore, further research is needed in order to explore current levels of

technology integration in CLIL settings. This study has some limitations as it has not covered every bilingual school in the area. The sample is only an estimated 10% of the total number of teachers working in bilingual schools in the province. Thus, it would be interesting to do a follow-up study taking into account results from a higher number of schools and a larger sample. Future studies should include qualitative data to help explore this question, that is, the actual effect of pervasive IWB in CLIL and non-CLIL lessons in order to draw relevant conclusions related to the positive effect, if any, of IWBs as content and language learning facilitators. Teachers should work on how to improve their level of IWB usage, and therefore motivate students more, as merely implementing IWB tasks is not a panacea. The tasks to be carried out in class seem to have a great bearing on student motivation and a possible way to arouse more positive feelings could be by negotiating with students about how to use IWBs in an interactive way. This would foster student autonomy and help to bolster their intrinsic motivation (Lagasabaster 2011). This negotiation process seems worth considering when it comes to further research in the relationship between CLIL and IWB effective usage.

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Appendix 1:

Cuestionario 2 **HOW CLIL ARE YOU?** Likert-scale answers ranging from a) Always b) Often c) Sometimes d) Occasionally e) Never (Dale & Tanner, 2012).

ACTIVATING

1. At the start of a lesson or topic, I find out what learners know about the topic.
2. At the start of a lesson or topic, I find out what language related to the topic learners already know.
3. I use visuals (photos, video, drawings, etc) to introduce new topics.
4. I use hands-on activities (experiments, objects, etc) to introduce new topics.
5. I use graphic organisers (mind maps, tables, charts, diagrams) which learners complete, to find out and organise what learners know about a topic.
6. I ask learners to talk to each other when I am activating their prior knowledge.

GUIDING UNDERSTANDING

7. I provide different sorts of input (multimodal input) - texts, pictures, real objects, videos, models - to help my learners understand the topic.
8. I formulate and use different kinds of questions - some related to LOTS (lower-order thinking skills) and others related to HOTS (higher-order thinking skills) to help learners understand input and process information actively.
9. I encourage learners to interact in my classes and use a lot of pair and group work.
10. I use graphic organisers or other forms of support to help my learners understand input.
11. I use a number of strategies or activities to help learners improve their reading and listening skills.
12. I work actively with my learners on developing their thinking skills.

FOCUS ON LANGUAGE

13. I use a variety of activities to help my learners to recycle vocabulary related to my subject.
14. I help learners notice how language is used in my subject, for example we work together at the grammar or we work on the vocabulary of the subject.
15. I help learners notice the similarities and differences between English and their first language.
16. In my classes, learners use a personal vocabulary file actively.
17. I help my learners learn and use subject-specific terminology.
18. I discuss ways of learning words with my classes.

FOCUS ON SPEAKING

19. Learners often speak in English during my classes, i.e. I encourage spoken input.
20. I use speaking frames or graphic organisers to support learners' speaking.
21. I use a varied repertoire of speaking activities.
22. I use a lot of pair and group work.
23. My learners learn to speak about my subject for different audiences, informally and formally.
24. I create speaking activities with information gaps so learners need to communicate.

FOCUS ON WRITING

25. Learners often write in English for me, i.e. I encourage written output.
26. My learners learn to write different types of texts in my subject.
27. I use writing frames or graphic organisers (e.g. diagrams, tables, model texts) to help my learners organise their writing.
28. I help learners with the different stages in writing (brainstorming, organising ideas, drafting, editing, etc).
29. When learners write for me, they know what the aim is, who their audience is and the text-type they are writing.
30. I help learners move from concrete to abstract language in their writing.

ASSESSMENT, REVIEW AND FEEDBACK

31. I use a variety of ways to assess my learners on both content and language.
32. My learners give each other feedback on their spoken/written language.
33. I give feedback to my learners on their language.
34. I give marks for my learners' use of language as well as for my own subject.
35. I provide clear assessment criteria when learners present or write for me.
36. I know how to design and use a rubric.

ALIGNING QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE APPROACHES IN PROFESSIONAL TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT

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Abstract

Translation Quality Assessment in professional translation is a long-debated issue that is still unsettled today, partly, due to the wide range of possible approaches. Given the elusive nature of the quality concept, first, it must be defined from a multifaceted and all-embracing viewpoint. Simultaneously and from a textual perspective, the quality notion must be defined as a notion of relative (and not absolute) adequacy with respect to a framework previously agreed by parties at stake (petitioner and translator). The backbone of this structure is formed by revision parameters. Hence, in former studies, the two mainstream quality assessment models in professional translation were analysed. On the one hand, there are those based on a “bottom-up” approach, which rely on microlinguistic point-deduction error schemes and, on the other hand, the “top-down” approaches, whose assessment provides a macrolinguistic valuation of the target text using assessment rubrics. Both perspectives stand at the ends of the quality continuum, providing essential cues for a holistic analysis of the translated text and, at the same time, reciprocally make up for the deficiencies inherent to the other model. Consequently, and with a view to design a global and comprehensive assessment model for professional translation, it is necessary to set a sound framework of reference based on a limited number of clearly and objectively revision parameters. As a result, in line with what has been explained above, a preliminar alignment between the recurrent and essential revision parameters of those long-lived and reputed models and the dimensions which define a quality construct that brings together the strengths of both mainstream models is put forward.

Key words: Quality Assessment, quantitative, qualitative, alignment, parameters.

Resumen

La evaluación de la calidad en el mundo de la traducción profesional es tema largamente debatido para el que, aún en nuestros días, no contamos con una visión unificada debido a la gran cantidad de enfoques existentes. Dada la elusiva naturaleza del concepto de calidad, en primer lugar, es necesario definirlo, lo que requiere de la adopción de una visión polifacética e integradora. Asimismo, y desde una perspectiva textual, la noción de calidad por la que se aboga debe establecerse en términos de adecuación relativa, y no absoluta, respecto de un marco de referencia previamente consensuado entre las partes involucradas (peticionario y traductor). Los criterios que constituyen la espina dorsal de este marco de referencia son los parámetros de revisión. Por ello, se ha analizado en estudios previos las dos principales corrientes de modelos de evaluación de la calidad de la traducción. Por una parte, están los fundamentados en un enfoque del tipo “bottom-up”, basados en esquemas de categorización y penalización del error lingüístico a nivel microtextual, y, por otra, los que consideran las estrategias “top-down”, cuya valoración ofrece una visión macrolingüística del texto analizado mediante el uso de rúbricas de evaluación. Ambas perspectivas, situadas en lo que serían los extremos dentro de un continuo de la calidad, aportan elementos de análisis fundamentales para la valoración holística de texto traducido y, simultáneamente, suplen recíprocamente las carencias inherentes de cada modelo. Por ello, y de cara a diseñar un modelo que permita valorar globalmente una traducción, es necesario asentar un marco de referencia sólido, basado en unos criterios de revisión limitados en número, claros y objetivables. Como consecuencia, y en base al estudio anterior, se propone una alineación preliminar de los parámetros de revisión de los modelos que cuentan con mayor reconocimiento y trayectoria histórica con unas dimensiones que definen un constructo de calidad que recoge la visión de ambas corrientes mayoritarias.

Palabras clave: evaluación de calidad, modelos cuantitativos, cualitativos, alineación, parámetros.

“Despite extensive debate on various fronts, little agreement exists as to how translations should be evaluated. This lack of agreement can be understood as the result of a multiplicity of factors: amongst them are the elusive and relative nature of quality, often dependent on social and culturally-based values and priorities, and, more generally, a multiplicity of views about translation”.

(Colina 2011: 43)

1. Introduction

Both from a theoretical and a practical viewpoint, Translation Quality Assessment (hereinafter, TQA) is probably one of the most heated debate topics nowadays in translation arena. Nonetheless, widely recognized agreements are still to be made on several crucial issues. To this date, research into TQA is a daily need and reality. Aware as we are of the impossibility of reaching total objectivity in TQA (Gerzymisch-Arbogast, 2001: 238), at best, it is aspired to lessen the partiality of assessment as much as possible by counting on well-defined assessment criteria and a transparent methodology.

Lately, Translation Quality Assessment studies have exponentially evolved so that they have turned into a complex maze of methodological possibilities, which can make use of different tools to assess quality and have a wide variety of objects on which to study quality. Consequently, the first step is to trace the path that will be followed as far as the object of study, the purpose, the time, the methodology, and the long list of possible choices are concerned. In order to achieve that goal, this paper is divided into the following parts. Firstly, the thorny issue of defining quality is addressed in order to take the necessary multidimensional outlook. Secondly, we delve into Translation Quality Assessment and we limit the object of study within its ample field of research. Finally, we put forward a preliminary alignment of the quality criteria (on which *bottom-up* or quantitative approaches are based) and the dimensions (on which the *top-down* or qualitative approaches rely).

Traditionally, TQA has been characterized by depending on simple value judgments issued by an expert (assessor), based more on his/her intuition and experience than on empirically-justifiable data (Rothe-Neves, 2002: 118). Therefore, the need to establish a solid assessment model leads us to consider the following steps:



Figure 1: The three steps to assess quality

Despite the diversity of views on assessing translation quality available nowadays, most of them share some basic ideas about what are the keys towards setting a sound model. For that, we posit that the three above mentioned steps have to be followed: Defining quality, specifying the methodology to be employed

and, finally, carrying out the actual assessment according to the quality definition and methodologies specified beforehand.

2. Defining Quality

The degree of vagueness revolving around the definition of quality in professional translation calls for its settlement before initiating further actions. House (1997) regards the definition of translation quality, at least, as a problematic issue, since it involves many varied factors such as ideals, expectations and previous quality conceptions of people at stake in the assessment (petitioner, translator, reviewer and target audience, basically). Therefore, in order to be able to assess quality, all the parties involved must reach a consensus on what they understand by a quality translation.

Nowadays quality in translation cannot be addressed from just a single perspective, leaving aside all the various factors that play a part in the fulfillment of that particular professional service. What is more, that assessment must not be implemented until the setting, the actors, the method, the timing and a long series of different possible choices for establishing the assessment framework have been made. As Stjeskal (2006: 13) summarizes in his '3P' categorization, quality is liable to be assessed in the Producer (translator), the Process and in the Product. These three objects bring together different cues which contribute to shape the final translated text, such as expectation fulfillment (Byrne, 2002: 43; Nobs, 2003: 26; O'Brien, 2012: 56) or user requirements. Besides, from a professional viewpoint, other restrictions such as those of time (De Rooze, 2003: 113) and budget (Muzzi, 2006; O'Brien, 2012: 56) are not to be missed. Hence, it is not surprising that a literature review reveals that many current quality definitions are mostly identified with fitness for purpose according to client specifications (Muzzi, 2006: 15), either implicitly hinted (Kingscott, 1999: 199) or explicitly stated (through the translation assignment) as the ruling criteria to determine and, consequently, to assess quality.

More specifically, a revision of the technical literature relative to translation quality specifications in the industrial sector shows that most definitions confine themselves to client-specified parameters (Jiménez-Crespo, 2009: 64). On the other hand, searching for more general quality definitions, not purposely devised for translation, many emphasize the adequacy of the translation for a given purpose and the fulfillment of needs amongst the key quality criteria. Considering quality definitions in the technical field, two stances are commonly adopted: the first defines quality as fulfilling certain requirements and the second equates quality with an error-free product or service (Conde, 2008: 50).

From the first type (requirement-fulfilling), there exists a broad assortment of norms published by International Organizations whose aim is to secure the quality of the translation service by specifying a set of criteria that has to be met. A number of organizations provide these stipulations. For instance, the European CEN (*Comité de Normalización Europeo*), the German DIN (*Deutsches Institut für Normung*), the American ASTM F 2575, the Austrian ONÖRM D1200 or the Chinese and GB/T 19363.1.

The lesson that can easily be derived from a review of current quality definitions is that it is such a complex issue that its definition demands a many-sided outlook. As quality may be considered from various angles and is liable to be assessed on different stages and subjects, a multi-layered consideration of the concept is needed. Translation assignments are condition-abiding agreements so their relative success will be dependent upon the requirement-fulfillment of the particular task at hand. That is why

many scholarly views hold the view that quality definition is a commonly agreed construct build up amongst the participants in the transaction.

With hindsight, the quality concept in translation is automatically linked to values such as accuracy, correctness and fidelity to source text (Nord, 2009: 248-249). Updated approaches to the quality concept have gradually evolved to cater for the multifaceted nature of the notion in which all the knitted fabrics will call for different attainment and, accordingly, different assessment processes. From the perspective of localization studies, Garvin (LISA, 2004: 31) establishes that the quality concept comprises five categories involving various criteria and measuring rods: first, what he calls the 'perceived' is something that 'you know it when you see it'. This approach has a cognitive nature since it is based on the world knowledge of the recipient and it thus a highly subjective appreciation. It implies value judgments and it is not to be objectified. Contrarily, the second category is product-based and adopts a textual approach. It allows measurement by comparing the translated text and the source text against preset linguistic criteria. This *tertio comparationis* allows rendering more reasonable assessments. The next category places the notion of adequacy as the ruling criterion for use and evaluation. The fourth one takes on a norm or operation-based approach arguing that if process specifications are followed, this will lead to a quality resulting product. So it relies in conformance to specifications aspiring to get an error-free final product. Final category regards value for money as an essential ingredient in the successful translation recipe.

All these categories bestow pivotal cues to shape the general picture of quality in translation. What can be drawn from the above stated is that quality notion is not an absolute value, but it comprises several dimensions. As a result, it is obvious that a comprehensive approach to TQA has to be settled. In this paper we will consider the quality of translation from a textual viewpoint as a final outcome. Consequently, due to the lack of absolute standards that could cope with the full notion of quality and, to the unavoidable inherent subjectivity of the evaluator, a human-being (House, 1997: 47), TQA needs an explicit set of criteria on which to ground the decision making. Thus, the evaluator could be guided by them as a benchmark for assessment and so, increase the reliability of his evaluation.

Nonetheless, it is admitted that a defective translation process may have major negative consequences on the final translation (Colina, 2008: 99). This is the reason why several proposals have ended up drafting international standards¹, which specify the criteria to needed to achieve a quality translation. Nonetheless, these standards lie beyond the scope of this paper.

Currently, Translation Quality Assessment based on standards primarily concerns the process and not on the product (Martínez & Hurtado, 2001: 274). Yet, the dominant trend in professional TQA is to analyse the microlinguistic features of translated texts to identify errors, therefor adopting a restrictive and one sided approach (Martinez Mateo, 2014).

¹ For more information about standards see Stejskal (2006) who lists the existing standards and their applications in translation and interpreting. He compiles the state of the art of standards in a table. However, he warns (2006: 15) about their limited applicability to regional or national territories and that no internationally accepted standard for translation is available.

3. Narrowing down the scope

TQA being such an ample field of research as it is, it is essential to narrow down the scope of analysis. For that Martínez & Hurtado's (2001) three basic questions contribute to attain that aim: What is assessing? What is going to be assessed? and What for?

As for the context in which translation assessment may take place, Martínez & Hurtado (2001) aptly differentiate amongst professional translation evaluation, teaching practice evaluation and translated literature evaluation. Our interest lies in professional translation regarded as those translated texts by a freelancer or a translation agency that are subsequently delivered to a customer for a payment. Yet professional TQA may be splitted into intuitive and analytic processing (Muñoz, 2007). Primarily, the former is based on personal judgments whereas the latter takes on a systematic approach to TQA.

Regarding the object of study, as has already been said, our focus is not the producer², nor the process, but the final textual product. As for the Product, Stejskal (2006) clearly establishes two evaluation methods to determine the quality of a translation. On the one hand, there are metrics (qualitative or *bottom-up* approach) that rely on error counting (i.e. SAE J2450, LISA QA model 3.1 and ASTM standard). On the other hand, there are the holistic assessment (qualitative or *top-down* approach) methods based on evaluation rubrics. Whichever method is employed, it has to unmistakably identify what features it is going to assess, assess them and use a pre-established set of criteria. In the case at hand, the aim is to evaluate the translation product as a textual instantiation. Independently of the methodology chosen, the mode will be revision. Concretely, bilingual (and not uni-/monolingual) revision owing to the fact that it has been proved to be the mode that renders best results in quality terms (Brunette 2005). Brunette defined revision as a function of professional translation whose aim is to identify the unacceptable features of a translation to improve and correct them. More precisely, the revision of the text is partial, since a randomly chosen sample is used to comparatively analyse the microlinguistic features of target and source texts. This is implemented while the text is not a finished product yet and it cannot be a '*self-revision*', when it is the translator himself who carries it out. It must be '*other-revision*' Mossop (2007), conducted by a third person. Nowadays, revision has become a key stage in every translation model (Parra, 2005; Tardáguila, 2009).

In any case, amongst the type of functions that the evaluation may fulfil, namely; diagnostic, summative and formative (Melis & Hurtado, 2001: 277) here it will be summative. This evaluation type consists in checking whether the foretold aims have been attained, usually through a test and within academic settings. It generally takes place on the last stage of the process and its aim is to give a Pass or a Fail final decision. Summative function can also be norm-based, when the subjects under study are compared, or criteria-based, when comparison is made against a pre-established set of criteria (Martínez & Hurtado, 2001).

² The most commonly used method to establish the competence of a translator (Producer) is certification exams, that occur in three possible scenarios: i) certifications by professional associations (ATA, FIT, etc.); ii) certification by some government ('Interprete Jurado' by the Spanish Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Cooperation) iii) and certifications by academic institutions.

4. Methodologies

As we reviewed in previous papers (2006b and 2014), we have found out that terminological variation is also rather frequent in this field. It is not to be forgotten that current methodologies under the scope of this paper are centered on a textual product, the translated text. Yet many authors find common ground in setting up a dichotomy in TQA methods. On the one hand, we have those methods, which analyse the microlinguistic features at sentence level. They are grounded in the notion of error and aim at pinpointing errors by comparison against a preset typology. Errors included in the typologies have an allotted number of discount points according to their relevance that will be deducted from the initial bonus points from which every translation departs. Williams (1989) refers to these as Quantitative methods; Waddington (2000) calls them Analytic and Colina (2008, 2009) refers to them as Anecdotal or experimental. Generally speaking, these types of methods include the SICAL, SAE, LISA, amongst others³.

On the other hand, we have those methods, which also analyse the textual outcome of a translation but from a more general perspective, from a *top-down* approach. Williams (2001) calls these methods Qualitative or Argumentation-centered; Waddington (2000) refers to them as Holistic and finally Colina (2008, 2009) names them as Theoretical. As an example of this type, we draw on the analysis made in Martínez Mateo (2016a) of Colina's framework (Colina, 2008, 2009), and the ATA (*American Translators Association*) rubric for grading⁴ (v. 2011), as they both take on a textual and functional approach to TQA, considering as well the pragmatic features of a translated text as the criteria to determine quality. They are based on a double entry table that links dimensions (assessment criteria in that match up the smaller units in which the quality construct in translation is broken down), command levels and, at the intersection, level descriptors (in the form of affirmative statements). This tool's success depends on the correct choice and accurate definition of the dimensions, command levels and level descriptors (Martínez-Mateo 2016a).

5. Criteria

However, the above mentioned methods rely on revision as a method for determining the linguistic quality of a translation that, on its turn, will only be valid and acceptable if is not grounded in intuitive or subjective judgments (Tardágula, 2009). As a result, the initial step in every assessment process consists in setting up a reference framework to be the basis for source-target texts comparison. Hence, the reviewer will be able to resort to this framework and ground his decisions on it, therefore reducing as much as possible the inescapable biased settlement of human actions task (Martínez-Mateo, 2016a, 2016b). For that, a thorough study in chronological order of the most renowned revision parameters for translation quality assessment based on Horguelin (1878), Hostington & Horguelin (1980), Horguelin & Brunette (1998), Mossop (2001) and Parra (2005) was made in previous works (Martínez-Mateo, 2014, 2016b). The main findings of that comparative study of the authors' proposal were the following:

³ For further information on these methods, see Martínez-Mateo (2014).

⁴ For more information, visit the website: http://www.atanet.org/certification/aboutexams_rubic.pdf

1. The number of parameters kept constant along the time and in most of the proposals (accuracy, correct use of target language and adaptation to target audience) the different authors.
2. The number of revision parameters was limited to five in most of the proposals in order to provide the reviewer with an easily manageable set of parameters.
3. The complexity implied in the revision of translations quality may lead to claim that a breakdown of the object of study into smaller constituents⁵ will make its analysis easier.

Likewise, in another paper (Martínez-Mateo 2014, 2016a), more attention was paid to the so-called qualitative models concluding the following:

1. They are not point-deduction schemes to assess quality but they describe their assets and qualities.
2. They are based on assessment rubrics.
3. They offer a macrolinguistic perspective of the object under study.

Hence it is argued that if translation revision is about checking the smaller components of a whole, the quality of a translation will be derived from the addition of its dimensions. This reasoning is in line with preceding theoretical-experimental research undergone by the PACTE research group (Hurtado, 2004). Considering the above reasoning, it is not unwise to claim that the revision parameters may well stand for the constituent blocks of the construct of quality if they are turned into quality criteria. Simultaneously and from a *top-down* viewpoint, these constituent blocks may become the dimensions of the qualitative-based criteria for a quality assessment model and from a *bottom-up* approach; they could constitute an error typology in an error-counting assessment model.

In view of that, these two perspectives (*top-down* or qualitative and *bottom-up* or quantitative) could correspond to the ends of a continuum of quality and not the options of a dilemma (Waddington 2000: 234). So their combined point of view is necessary and complementary in order to provide the full picture of translation quality. Its axis, around which the whole quality revolves, is formed by the right alignment of the dimensions of the *top-down* approaches and the parameters of the *bottom-up* ones. Should the parameters and dimensions of both approaches be rightly chosen, specified and defined and their alignment be carried out on a sound basis, this will constitute the spine of a solid quality construct.

In this sense, this is the proposal taken from Martínez-Mateo (2016b):

⁵ In line the research done in Applied Linguistics, where the works of Hymes to define the term communicative competence allow him to fully grasp the complexity of the definition at hand and led later researchs to divide the concept into its constituent parts in order to ease its description and analysis (Hymes, 1972; Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Celce-Murcia, 2000).

Horguelin (1978)	Hostington & Horguelin (1980)	Horguelin & Brunette (1998)	Mossop (2001)	Colina (2008, 2009)	ATA Rubric for grading (v.2011)	Dimensions
Accuracy	Accuracy	Accuracy	Transference			
Correctness	Correct use of target language	Correctness	Language	Target language	Target mechanics	Target language
Readability	Transparency	Readability		Non-specialized content	Idiomatic writing	Idiomatic correctness
Tone	Tone					
Adaptation to target audience	Adaptation to target audience	Functional adaptation		Textual and functional adequacy	Usefulness and transfer	Functional and textual adequacy
			Content	Specialized content and terminology	Terminology and style	Specialized content and terminology
			Layout			
		Profitability				

Table 1. An alignment of parameters and dimensions for TQA.

Nonetheless, the preliminary alignment remains to be empirically tested. A bilingual corpus formed by source and target texts made by professional translators in actual circumstances would be the ideal scenario for this test.

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TEACHING WRITING IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

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Abstract

Competence in written English is widely recognized as an important skill for topics related to business, education and personal relationships. Teaching writing is fast becoming more and more important in learning today. The present study was intended as an attempt to explore whether Anita Pincas' teaching method for writing enables Spanish primary school children to improve their writing skill in English. This study was conducted with two groups of sixth year Spanish children who were divided as follows: i) making them use the teaching writing method (experimental group) and ii) without the method (control group). The first group was trained by means of a 4-lesson intervention programme following the main phases that Anita Pincas proposes. To examine the effects of this method, one pre-test and one post-test were given to the children of each group to check their differences and evaluate their improvement through comparing the errors made. Results indicated that the children of both groups improved their writing skill, although this was especially significant in the experimental group concerning writing structure. Therefore, it can be concluded that Anita Pincas' method positively influenced the progress of schoolchildren's writing skills.

Key words: EFL Writing, Anita Pincas' method, written errors, pre-test & post-test design, Primary Education.

Resumen

El escribir correctamente en inglés se considera una habilidad importante para tratar temas relacionados con los negocios, la educación y relaciones personales. La enseñanza de la expresión escrita en inglés está asumiendo un papel importante en el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras en la actualidad. El presente estudio fue planteado con el propósito de explorar si el método de enseñanza de la escritura propuesto por Anita Pincas permite a los niños españoles de educación primaria mejorar su capacidad para la expresión escrita en inglés. Fue llevado a cabo con dos grupos de niños españoles de sexto curso que fueron divididos de la siguiente manera: i) haciéndoles usar el método de enseñanza de la escritura (grupo experimental) y ii) con ausencia total de dicho método (grupo control). Se intervino en el primer grupo, enseñándoles a usar dicho método durante 4 sesiones, siguiendo las principales fases que Anita Pincas propone. Los niños realizaron una prueba inicial (pre-test) y una prueba final (post-test) para poder observar sus diferencias y evaluar su mejora a través de la comparación de los errores cometidos. Los resultados indicaron que los niños de ambos grupos mejoraron su capacidad de expresión escrita en el post-test, aunque esta mejora fue especialmente significativa en el grupo experimental, sobre todo en lo referido a la estructura del texto. Por lo tanto, se puede concluir que el método de Anita Pincas influyó positivamente en el progreso de las habilidades de escritura de los escolares.

Palabras clave: Expresión escrita en EFL, método de Anita Pincas, errores escritos, diseño pre-test/post-test, Educación Primaria.

1. Introduction

Writing, which was once considered the domain of educated people, has become accessible to all. Whether used in reporting analyses of current events for newspapers or web pages, composing academic essays, reports, letters, or email, the ability to write effectively allows individuals from different cultures to communicate. Furthermore, it is now widely recognized that writing plays a vital role not only in expressing information, but also in transforming knowledge to create new knowledge.

Writing was traditionally viewed as less important than the other skills in English (listening, speaking and reading). Similarly, EFL writing has been employed in primary education mainly as a means of reinforcing and supporting overall English learning, especially grammar and vocabulary. Even in many classrooms, the writing is mainly relegated to a homework activity. Teaching writing does not mean simply asking students to complete grammar exercises. It requires specific and comprehensive methodology based on imitation models which help them to familiarise with the task and develop it successfully (Pincas, 1982).

However, nowadays there needs to be a balance between the development of oral and written skills in the field of learning and teaching foreign languages. In the same vein, it is generally recognised that writing is important from a very early age in foreign language classrooms. For that reason, it is necessary the study of different methods to know what is the best method to start teaching this skill in primary education.

Recent studies have focused on the process of writing, an area where the use of the first language (L1) during the composition process has been one of the main issues in research (Abisamra, 2003). Most of the studies related to teaching writing both in second language or foreign language acquisition appear mainly in the form of case studies of learners studying at universities and colleges (Ridha, 2012; Alhaysony, 2012; Chan, 2004 and Huang, 2001, 2006). Moreover, all of them were devoted to analysing the common types of errors that students made. Therefore research with beginner-level learners involving written production, especially instructed learners, is still needed and even studies which analyse writing teaching methods.

In an attempt to address this gap, the present study has been designed with the aim of exploring whether Anita Pincas' method, a pedagogical procedure based on teaching writing following a series of phases can help primary schoolchildren to develop and enhance their English writing skills. In order to figure out if this method is truly beneficial to improve the writing, an experimental study was conducted with two groups of Spanish children aged 11 to 13 (sixth year of primary education) who were divided into control group and experimental group. This last one, was trained by means of a 4-lesson intervention programme in which Anita Pincas' method was put into practice while the other group continued learning normally without any support. The children were set a pre-test and a post-test to evaluate their performances and if their writing improved as a direct result.

In what follows, writing as a skill and the ways it is taught are explored. A brief review of previous studies exploring the typical errors made by students in EFL contexts and their main limitations are underlined. The objectives of the study are then set out, the methodological decisions taken in the collection and analysis of data are reported, and the results obtained are discussed in an attempt to provide answers to the research questions. Finally, the conclusions related to the significance of findings for research development and its practical applications are presented.

2. Literature review

2.1. The writing skill

Writing is the process of using symbols (letters of the alphabet, punctuation and spaces) to communicate thoughts and ideas in a readable form. It is clearly a complex process, and competent writing is frequently accepted as being the last language skill to be acquired for native speakers of the language as well as for

foreign/second language learners due to it is being one of the most difficult skills that learners are expected to acquire, requiring the mastery of a variety of linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural competences. This sense of difficulty is most tangible when learners are required to produce a piece of writing (Hedge, 1988).

Traditionally, writing has been put on the back burner in second/foreign language teaching, however, this skill has assumed an important role in applied linguistics and it remains an important discussion topic in the field of linguistics. This is the case both to clarify how the skill works and to determine the steps to follow in its teaching or acquisition (Hyland, 2002).

Writing usually needs to be taught as it does not come instinctively through the correct use of vocabulary and grammar, but it has to be taught specifically (Pincas, 1982). Learning to write is not just a matter of developing a series of mechanical spelling strategies; it also involves learning a range of new cognitive and social relations (Tribble, 1996). Writing in a coherent, appropriate and effective way requires understanding the purpose of the text and the characteristics of the reader (Pincas, 1982).

2.2. Approaches to teaching writing in EFL classes

As mentioned above, writing, in the context of the second language or foreign language, was deemed necessary only in the case of written compositions. But for a long time need teach writing has gained more attention and people have become more aware of this importance.

Faced with the question how to teach writing, "there is no answer to the question of how to teach writing in ESL or EFL classes. There are as many answers as there are different approaches as teachers and teaching styles, or learners and learning styles" (Raimes, 1983, p. 5). Thus, we can find the following approaches to teaching writing in EFL classes according to this author:

- ♦ The controlled-to-free Approach

This teaching approach is also known as guided composition and traces its roots to Charles Fries' oral approach (1945), precursor of the audio-lingual method. Students are first given sentence exercises, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically by, for instance, changing questions to statements, present to past, or plural to singular. The reader is the teacher who acting as an editor focuses on linguistic forms rather than on the ideas expressed. In short, this approach focuses on formal instruction and emphasizes accuracy rather than fluency or originality.

- ♦ The free-writing Approach

On the contrary, writing fluency is the central axis of the Free-Writing Approach which stresses quantity over quality in terms of ideas. This approach encourages students to write quickly and as much as possible since "the emphasis in this approach is that students should put content and fluency first and not worry about form. Once ideas are down on the page, grammatical accuracy, organization, and the rest will gradually follow" (Raimes, 1983, p.7).

To emphasise fluency even more, some EFL teachers begin many of their classes by asking students to write freely on any topic without worrying about grammar and spelling for five or ten minutes. At first, students find this very difficult. As they do this kind of writing more and more often, however, some find that they write more fluently and that putting words down on paper is not so frightening after all.

- ♦ The paragraph-pattern approach

Increasing awareness of second language writers' need to produce extended written texts led to the realization that there was more to writing than constructing grammatical sentences. The result of this realization was what Raimes (1983b) has called the 'paragraph pattern approach', which emphasized the importance of text organization. Students copy paragraphs, analyse the form of the model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They order scrambled sentences into paragraphs, they identify general and specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence, they insert or delete sentences. This approach is based on the principle that in different cultures people construct and organize their communication with each other in different ways. So even if students organize their ideas well in their first language, they still need to see, analyse and practice the particularly "English" features of a piece of writing.

- ♦ The grammar-syntax-organization approach

Some teachers have stressed the need to work simultaneously on more than one of the features. They devise writing tasks that lead students to concentrate on organisation while they also work on the necessary grammar and syntax. Students see the connection between what they are trying to write and what they need to write. However, they do not write starting with the form, but by the content, therefore, come to the organization based on the meaning.

According to Scott (1996) "The writing tasks are designed to make students to pay attention to grammar and syntax while also giving them words such as first, then, and finally to organize their text."

- ♦ The process approach

Recently, the teaching of writing has begun to move away from focusing on written form to an emphasis on the process of writing. Student writers in particular need to realise that what they first put down on paper is not necessarily going to be their finished product but just a beginning, a setting out of the first ideas, a draft.

This approach was developed by Zamel (1985), among others, who claims that ESL writers use similar strategies to those of native speakers of English who write through a nonlinear, exploratory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning. This approach offers the writer the freedom to address the situation, purpose, and audience for the text.

- ♦ The communicative approach

This approach stresses the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it. Student writers are encouraged to behave like writers in real life, knowing how to communicate to their audience and connect with their readers. This approach "feels that writers do their best when writing is truly a communicative act, with a writer writing for a real reader" (Raimes, 1983, p.9).

Teachers using the communicative approach, therefore, have extended the readership. The audience is extended; not only is the teacher but the writer's peers, too, who can respond, rewrite in another form, summarize, or comment their classmates' writings.

Hedge (1988), Brooks and Grundy (1990) and Pincas (1982) also proposed to teach writing communicatively joining communicative practice, an integrated approach taking into account principles

such as having something meaningful to say; reaching an audience; trying to be understood by others; working in small groups providing more opportunities of communication, etc.

After describing some of the writing teaching approaches in EFL, it is important to consider that “there simply are no comprehensive theories of L2 writing teaching and it does not seem prudent to assume that theories of first language writing alone will suffice” (Silva, 1990). However, the above mentioned approaches are the most influential in EFL writing teaching. Some of them conflict in their viewpoint, but some also overlap. It is rare to “find a classroom where a teacher is so devoted to one approach as to exclude all the others. Thus, there is no one way to teach writing.

2.3. Previous studies

In addition to writing and writing teaching approaches, it is important to consider previous writing research findings which enrich the EFL writing theory. Several writing studies have been carry out in recent years, some of them related to the main above-mentioned approaches and others have analysed the second/foreign language learners’ speech or written performance concerning the errors that they usually make.

Research into second language acquisition has seen massive advancements since the publication *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (Fries 1974). Since then, various studies have been conducted to account for the process of L2 acquisition in many languages around the world. Most of the studies carried out so far have been fundamentally based on Error Analysis (EA) approaches. Error Analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on errors committed by learners (AbiSamra, 2003) and has attractive a lot of attention from linguists becoming an important part of applied linguistics. Instead of looking at learners’ errors only, EA looks at the learner and the language being learned.

The error analyses studied have been conducted in English as a second or foreign language field. These studies are important because students’ errors always provide an insight into how the language is learned, and it provides key information for teachers to revise their lessons. In the EFL context, Alhaysony (2012) examined written samples of 100 first-year female Arabic-speaking EFL students in the University of Ha’il. The findings showed that students made a considerable number of errors in their use of articles, especially, omission errors. This study had a mixed finding because these errors included interlingual and intralingual ⁽¹⁾ transfer. In Hong Kong, Chan (2004) studied 710 Hong Kong Chinese ESL students. There were 5 types of error found (all of them related to grammar). This study found out that these university students used the syntactic transfer from Chinese to English, that is, they tended to think in Chinese first before they wrote in English, and that the sentence structures produced by the participants were identical or very similar to the usual or normative sentence structures of the learners’ first language (L1), Cantonese. Therefore, it caused the run-on sentence and incomplete ideas.

Alonso (1997) studied the main types of interlingual errors made by Spanish students when learning English as a foreign language. The students who took part in this study were a group of twenty-eight first-year High School students. The interlingual errors taken from the corpus were divided into four types: transfer of structure, overextension of analogy, interlingual/intralingual and substitution. Most of the errors were due to transfer of structure. The linguistic structures of the mother tongue were the main cause of interference when writing in the L2.

AbiSamra (2003), in his article collected samples of written work from 10 students of 9th grade. He classified the writing errors into five categories, namely, grammatical (prepositions, articles, adjectives, etc.); syntactic (coordination, sentence structure, word order, etc.); lexical (word choice); semantic and substance (punctuation, capitalization, and spelling); and discourse errors. The results revealed that one third of the students' errors were transfer errors from the native language, and the highest numbers of errors were in the categories of semantics and vocabulary. The rest of the errors (64.1%) were errors of over-application of the target language, the highest numbers of errors being found in substance (mainly spelling), syntax and grammar.

In addition, Ridha (2012) examined English writing samples of 80 EFL college students and then categorized the errors according to the following taxonomy: grammatical, lexical/ semantic, mechanics, and word order types of errors. The results showed that most of the students' errors were due to L1 transfer.

Furthermore, she found that most of the learners rely on their mother tongue to express their ideas. She added that although the rating processes showed that the participants' essays included different types of errors, grammatical errors and mechanical errors were the most serious and frequent.

Specifically, some studies were conducted in the same context like this study. Huang (2001) investigated the nature of distribution of different grammatical errors made by 46 English students of a Taiwanese university. This study found the top six common errors were related to verb usage, nouns, spelling, articles, prepositions and word choices. These errors were due to overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, simplification, incomplete application of rules and L1 negative transfer. Huang (2006) analysed 34 Taiwanese English students' writing errors based on a web-based writing program. This study found that 55% errors are on the usage. Namely, subject-verb is the main area EFL students need to study. Huang's study (2006) also found the errors on mechanics, style, and grammar, and these errors are transferred from the EFL students' L1. Among these previous studies, there was no agreement found in these studies.

2.4. Limitations of previous studies

In spite of the insights offered, the studies reviewed above share a number of characteristics in relation to the type of populations analysed and the methodological procedures employed that, collectively considered, suggest a number of issues which need to be employed in further research.

Firstly, the participants included in the studies have been university students (Alhaysony, 2012; Chan, 2004; Ridha, 2012; Huang, 2001, 2006) and EFL junior high school students (Alonso Alonso, 1997 and AbiSamara, 2003), which means that the number and types of errors in writing on primary education children have been overlooked from an empirical perspective. In one of these studies (Alhaysony, 2012), the subjects were female only; therefore, it would be difficult to reach conclusions for both genders. Moreover, while only one of those studies were carried out with learners whose mother tongue was Spanish (Alonso, 1997) the others included participants with L1s such as Arabic (AbiSamara, 2003; Ridha, 2012 and Alhaysony, 2012) and Chinese (Chan 2004 and Huang 2001, 2006).

Secondly, the subjects were English learners selected from one specific place (a university, a high school...), consequently the findings in these researches may not be generalised to the general group of EFL learners. And the data of these studies was collected from one piece of writing that was produced in a

specific moment by the participants. Accordingly, these studies merely serve as one preliminary attempt in this topic.

Bearing these limitations in mind, it may be concluded that the number of writing errors made by Spanish schoolchildren still remains relatively unknown. Add to that the lack of previous studies on the evolution of writing in primary school children following any of the previously discussed approaches to teaching writing. This issue, however, is precisely what the present study is intended to explore. This study will focus on the evolution of writing as a skill for Spanish schoolchildren using Anita Pincas' communicative method based approach.

2.5. The present study

Martínez Rebollo (2014) claims that a student who learns to write in a foreign language (FL) should follow a similar process to the one followed in his/her mother tongue (MT) and, therefore, the learning should start by simple or basic activities, in which the student has to copy, write and join sentences, complete sentences, analyse model texts, etc.

The objectives of writing are different when you learn a foreign language to when you learn your mother tongue. In this regard, Pincas points out that "most people, however, especially when writing in a foreign or second language, use it primarily to communicate with other members of their own community or the wider world. Our main task is therefore to teach effective functional writing rather than creative self-expression" (Pincas, 1982, p. 28). For that reason, as the writing process, besides composing, involves communicating (Hedge, 1988) the present study emphasises the need to equip students not only with suitable grammar and vocabulary but also the need to know the objective or purpose of writing, the students need to know the purpose of a text before writing it. Therefore, it is desirable that students become familiar with different types of text before practicing the skills involved in writing. This is best taught through the use of a model.

According to Pincas a writing lesson should follow three phases all of which are related and interlocked (Pincas, 1982, p. 14-22). The first is the stage of "familiarisation", in which you choose a text type as a model and work through an activity that can be simply reading comprehension.

The second phase involves a series of controlled exercises that introduce the student in the writing process. The third phase consists of guided exercises that establish a bridge between the activities of controlled writing and free writing. Finally there is the stage of "free writing". This is the phase of production and creativity by the student. It involves a real activity that establishes a certain relationship with the exercises and the previous stages but that makes the student develop their own writing.

Given the lack of research into EFL writing acquisition of Spanish-speaking primary school children, and particularly in Spain, the present study attempts to address this gap by measuring the effectiveness of Anita Pincas' method (based on teaching writing by means of different phases: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing), with regards on the writing ability of Spanish primary school children. In order to do so, a pre-test and post-test experimental design was carried out in two groups (experimental group and control group) and the findings will be compared to discover if it more effective to use Anita Pincas' method. The general objective of this study (above-mentioned) can be broken down into the following research questions:

- 1) Are there any differences in the number of errors between the experimental group and the control group in the pre-test?
- 2) Are there any differences in the number of errors between the experimental group and the control group in the post-test?
- 3) Are there any differences in the number of errors made by the members of the experimental group between the pre-test and the post-test?
- 4) Are there any differences in the number of errors made by the members of the control group between the pre-test and the post-test?

3. Method

3.1. Research design

This exploratory study employed a quantitative methodology in order to ensure collection of data from various sources. It followed a pre-test and post-test experimental design over four sessions to carry out the different writing phases that Anita Pincas proposes in her method. Two classes were selected to analyse whether participants made any progress in terms of their writing ability. An experimental group, in which the different writing phases were implemented, a control group which continued with its normal lessons focused on grammar and morphology.

3.2. Context and participants

3.2.1 The school

This study was conducted at the State Primary School “Juan de la Cierva”, a non-bilingual school located in Casillas, a small town 5 kilometres from the provincial capital (Murcia). Most of the children attending this school are from working-class families and some of them belong to a wide range of ethnic groups including, among others, Chinese, Moroccan and South Americans. Even though most parents’ professions are related to the services sector, some of them have managed to finish secondary education and a small number of them have completed university degrees. In general, students’ parents in this school assume a respectful attitude to the school, the teachers and the teaching; moreover, they are deeply committed with the education of their children.

The choice of this school was not random; the researcher selected this school because she attended it while she was a primary student and she carried out her first two teaching practice periods there. Therefore, she maintained keep a good relationship with the teaching staff.

3.2.2 The participants

The participants were selected from two 6th grade classes. Both classes were made up of 16 children whose ages ranged from 11 to 13 years old and they all spoke Spanish as their first language. They have a similar level of proficiency and all of them had been learning English at school since they were three years old (not in a bilingual programme). The children have all received some form of writing instruction, however it was not very intensive or detailed as their English lessons were mainly oral-focused.

As is the case in all classes, there are pupils with different levels of proficiency (high-achievers, average learners and low-achievers) but the majority of children in both classes are average learners, in terms of English level. In addition, they did not have any sensory impairments or disabilities.

3.3. Instructional treatment

3.3.1 Justification

The teaching procedures featured in this study were based on Anita Pincas' approach that is geared towards communicative competence in various forms of written English. This communicative approach suggests that the teaching material should be chosen for its intrinsic usefulness and interest, that is, if writing is placed in a realistic context, children's motivation increases because in this way they can be aware importance of writing. As Pincas (1982) proposes the training sessions of the study consisted of a series of activities from more to less control which students had to carry out it in order to improve their communicative written skill.

The different phases that Pincas recommends to follow are:

- Familiarisation: involves activities which prepare students for actual writing by demonstrating one or other of skills that are to be practised (the main types of familiarisation are identifying and evaluating).
- Controlled writing: concerns activities with the objective of students practising writing to minimise mistakes (there are two types of controlled exercises –combining and substitution-).
- Guided writing: includes activities which establish a bridge between controlled and free writing. They include any writing that gives students assistance (such as a model to follow, a plan or outline to expand from, a picture...) to prepare them for an attempt to write freely (the principal exercises to develop this kind of writing are completion, reproduction, compression and transformation).
- Free writing: involves activities in which students write freely what has been taught. The children are given a topic without detailed assistance.

3.3.2 Teaching procedures

This study was conducted between March and April, 2016, over a period of 5 45-minute sessions. Before the research was initiated, the children's parents were given a consent sheet in which they were informed of its main objectives and procedures, and were asked for their permission for their children to be evaluated. In the first session, the children of both classes were given the pre-test (a friendly letter) and the following 3 sessions, which covered the training period (only with the experimental group), were devoted to each one of Anita Pincas' method phase (lesson 1: familiarisation, lesson 2: controlled writing and lesson 3: guided writing). Once the training period was over, the children of both classes were given the post-test, in which they had to write a friendly letter different from the pre-test (free writing phase). Each training session featured different activities to present input and to prepare student to write communicatively with minimal mistakes. The main procedures of which are described below.

Each session in the training stage of the study lasted 45 minutes and was devoted to preparing children to improve their writing skills by means of sequenced phases (see *Table 1*) focused on a communicative approach. The topics chosen for these writing classes were based on their intrinsic usefulness and interest. The first part of session, which was intended to work with vocabulary and grammar, began with a 15-minute period in which the teacher and the researcher presented new lexis or reviewed old language points encouraging children to actively participate at the same time. After the first 15 minutes, there was a 30-minute work period in which the researcher carried out different written activities with the children (mainly drills or meaningful

drills) so that the students could gradually familiarise themselves with the writing. All these activities were especially designed for this study following the practical writing exercises that Pincas suggests (1982) including several exercises to work individually or in pairs. These exercises were ranged from controlled to free writing depending on the lesson.

This is the schedule for the implementation of the study:

Table 1.- Study's implementation schedule

Session 1	<i>Pre-test</i> 1. Presentation of the study. 2. Implementation of the pre-test (a friendly letter about what he/she did last weekend).
Session 2	<i>Familiarisation</i> 1. A Prezi presentation showing a friendly letter in order to explain its main parts. 2. An ordering activity which children have to arrange in the correct order the pieces of a puzzle to create a new friendly letter (in pairs). 3. A "selecting information" activity in which students have to identify the past simple by underlining regular or irregular verbs in past that appear in the previous letter.
Session 3	<i>Controlled writing</i> 1. Presentation of specific vocabulary (free time activities) by means of flashcards. 2. A controlled activity in which students have to join words into sentences and match pictures with its corresponding free time activity.
Session 4	<i>Guided writing</i> 1. Individual written activity to review content worked on in previous lessons (parts of a letter, free time activities, past simple...) consisting of a gap fill exercise. 2. A semi-controlled activity in which children have to rewrite a friendly letter in pairs. 3. Individual activity to rewrite a letter with verbs in the past keeping the format given in an example.
Session 5	<i>Post-test (free writing) + questionnaire</i> 1. Each individual learner carries out the post-test (writing a friendly letter telling what he/she did last Easter). 2. Each student completes a questionnaire on their feelings about the method.

3.3.3 Materials used in the study

As mentioned above, during some of the study training sessions the children received some training about how to write a friendly letter by means of a Prezi Presentation. After this presentation, some review worksheets specially designed by the researcher and then worked on by the students to help them consolidate the key language and the steps to follow to write a friendly letter that previously were presented to them.

On the other hand, the materials for the pre-test and the post-test consisted of a friendly letter in which children had to write what they did last weekend or what they did last Easter, respectively.

3.4. Data collection

3.4.1 Instruments

The instruments employed for the collection of data were the following:

- 1) A pre-test which consisted of writing a friendly letter in which students had to describe what they did last weekend. The addressee could be a relative or a friend.
- 2) A post-test similar to the previous one. This task was made up of a friendly letter in which children had to state what they did last Easter. In this case, the addressee was their English teacher.
- 3) A questionnaire intended to gather information about the children's perceptions of the method.

- 4) A consent sheet for the parents which stated the purpose of the study as well as requesting their permission for their children to participate.

3.4.2 Procedure

The data was collected in the form of two integrative tests focusing on written ability consisting of two friendly letters. In the case of the pre-test, the topic was “Tell what you did last weekend” and the audience of the letter was a relative (their mother, father, uncle...). A similar topic was dealt with in the post-test; in this test children had to state what they did during their Easter holidays and the audience was their English teacher.

These two tasks were administered in both classrooms by the researcher under exam conditions, although the participants were told it will be unassessed. All the subjects were given 30 minutes to write on the given topic (above-mentioned) following the friendly letter format they had been shown (date, greeting, body, closing and signature).

3.5. Data analysis

3.5.1. Instruments

To analyse each student’s friendly letter carried out in the pre-test and in the post-test, the researcher used a classification of writing errors types adapted from Kroll (1990). Observing the collected data, the researcher decided to make several changes to Kroll’s classification, including categories which the author failed to add and she found very pertinent for the purpose of her study as well as removing other categories that were not relevant. For example, other categories such as genitive, spelling or friendly letter format were added. As can be seen below, this classification includes varied errors from different categories (grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, etc.) and all of them were mistakes that children made in both tests.

Table 2.- Writing errors types

ERROR TYPES	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE
Lexicon (Lex.)	Insertion of a wrong or invented word	“I went to the beach and I saw two <i>krustys</i> ” instead of “I went to beach and I saw two crabs”
Article (Art.)	A missing, extra or incorrect article	“I watched <i>a</i> TV” instead of “I watched TV”
Tense/Aspect (T/A)	An incorrect tense or not incorrect formation	“Last weekend I <i>meet</i> María (...)” instead of “Last weekend I met María (...)”
Preposition (Prep.)	An incorrect, missing or extra preposition	“ <i>In</i> Sunday I played football” instead of “On Sunday I played football”
Missing word (MW)	Omission of a preposition, article, verb, subject, relative pronoun, etc.	“(…) and ____ <i>played</i> with my dog” instead of “(…) and I played with my dog”
Punctuation (Pun.)	Missing, extra, wrong including punctuation mark or do not include capitalization.	“¿What did you do last weekend?” instead of “What did you do last weekend?”
Spelling (Sp.)	An error to the conventionally accepted form of spelling a word (vowel/consonant insertion, reduction, substitution...)	“I <i>eatied</i> a hot-dog” instead of “I ate a hot-dog”
Genitive (Gen.)	Missing/misused 'S or N of N misused	“I went <i>at house of my uncle</i> ” instead of “I went to my uncle’s house”
Wrong order (WO)	Words placed in the wrong order in the sentence (i.e. the adjective after the noun)	“I saw a <i>film horror</i> ” instead of “I saw a horror film”
Format (Format)	Don’t follow the letter format (date, greeting, body, closing...)	“ <i>For Inma, by Teresa</i> ” instead of “Your friend, Teresa”

3.5.2. Procedure

Previous writing studies as summarised in the literature review informed the selection of analytical measures to describe and compare learners. Table 2 shows the 10 measures or error types used to analyse the written tasks in this study; all of them were selected because in previous studies, they were seen to best reflect the development of level of accuracy.

The friendly letters in both the pre-tests and post-tests were rated by the researcher according to previously established criteria that are described below. To carry out this process of analysis the researcher followed the next steps:

First of all, each group's pre-test and post-test were examined word by word and sentence by sentence to identify the different types of mistakes that children had made. Once they were examined, according to the classification of writing error, each mistake was counted and was differentiated to create a table (using *Excel* as data analysis software) which collected the final number of error of each student. This collection was carried out to subsequently compare the number of error made in the pre-test with the number of error made in the post-test, thus this comparison will allow the researcher to see if student improved their writing skill from the pre-test to the post-test. Table 3 lists the steps to analyse each error found in the writing samples.

Table 3. Steps to analyse errors

Steps	Definition of the steps	Examples
Step 1: Collect data	Gather written data from the tests	32 writing sample were collected
Step 2: Identify errors	Underline the main errors	<i>Rided</i> (rode) - <i>Mather</i> (mother)
Step 3: Classify errors	Differentiate types of errors	Lexicon, Article, Format, Tense/Aspect, Preposition, Missing word, Punctuation, Spelling, Genitive and Wrong order
Step 4: Quantify errors	Count the number of errors	<u>Student 1</u> : Lex. → 1 ; Spelling → 3
Step 5: Compare groups	Observe the number of errors of each groups	Experimental group (Pre-test) → 200 errors Control group (Pre-test) → 196 errors

4. Results

The results obtained in this study are reported below according to the research questions proposed:

- 1) Are there any differences in the number of errors between the experimental group and the control group in the pre-test?
- 2) Are there any differences in the number of errors between the experimental group and the control group in the post-test?
- 3) Are there any differences in the number of errors made by members of the experimental group between the pre-test and the post-test?

Table 4.- Statistics final results

• ERROR TYPES:	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP				CONTROL GROUP			
	Raw Data		Mean & Standard Deviation		Raw Data		Mean & Standard Deviation	
	PRE-TEST	POST-TEST	PRE-TEST Mean (SD)	POST-TEST Mean (SD)	PRE-TEST	POST-TEST	PRE-TEST Mean (SD)	POST-TEST Mean (SD)
Lex	11	4	.6875 (.60)	.25 (.45)	18	20	1.125 (1.09)	1.25 (1.13)
Art	21	7	1.3125 (1.08)	.4375 (.51)	10	15	.625(.81)	.9375 (1.12)
T /A	24	13	1.5 (1.67)	.8125 (.75)	18	27	1.125 (1.67)	1.6875 (1.82)
Prep	23	5	1.4375 (1.41)	.3125 (.60)	34	19	2.125 (1.63)	1.1875 (1.42)
MW	16	12	1 (1.15)	.75 (1.18)	20	20	1.25 (1.73)	1.25 (1.57)
Pun	6	5	.375 (.81)	.3125 (.70)	6	6	.375(.72)	.375 (.62)
Sp	70	40	4 .375(2.42)	2.5 (1.37)	55	30	3.4375 (2.25)	1.875 (1.63)
Gen	10	1	.625 (.72)	.0625 (.25)	4	4	.25 (.45)	.25 (.45)
WO	4	1	.25 (.45)	.0625 (.25)	4	5	.25 (.45)	.3125 (.48)
Format	15	1	.9375 (.77)	.0625 (.25)	27	18	1.6875 (.60)	1.125 (.72)
TOTAL	200	89	12.5 (11.08)	5.5625 (6.32)	196	164	12.25 (11.39)	10.25(10.95)

Firstly, the results of both groups in the pre-test and the post-test will be compared. Then, the differences in the number of errors made by both groups in each test will be presented. Table 4 includes statistics which have been used with the aim of describing the development of participants' errors as a whole. In order to analyse the main findings of the present study, the mean number of errors in each category will be observed to differentiate the progress of both groups in both tests.

1) Are there any differences in the number of errors between the experimental group and the control group in the pre-test?

This question was answered by counting the errors made by the children once both groups had finished their pre-tests and calculating the mean of errors made. Figure 1 shows that, globally the mean number of errors made by both the experimental group and the control group were very high ($M = 12.5$ and $M = 12.25$ respectively), the most common mistakes related to spelling, prepositions and the format of the text.

2) Are there any differences in the number of errors between the experimental group and the control group in the post-test?

The answer to this question involved comparing the number of errors in the post-test with those made by the children of each group. Figure 1 shows a notable difference between the errors that the students of the experimental group made and those made by the students of the control group. The experimental group made 5.5625 mistakes while the control group made more than double, 10.25 mistakes. Moreover, both groups agreed about the type of errors made, especially, they made those related to spelling, missing words and tenses.

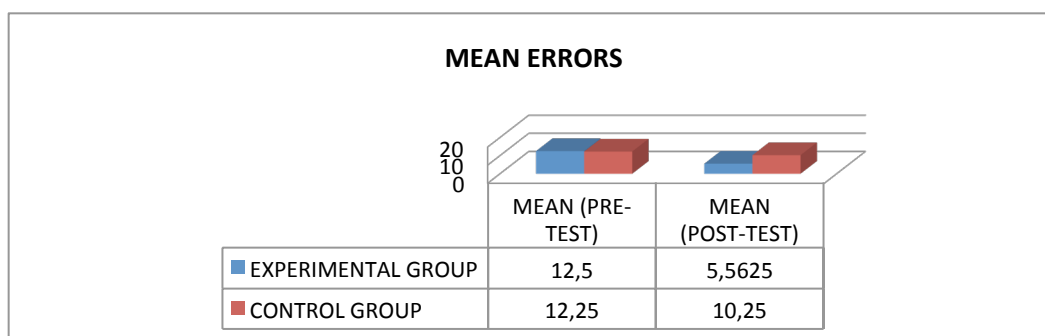


Figure 1. Mean errors of both tests

3) *Are there any differences in the number of errors made by the members of the experimental group between the pre-test and the post-test?*

So as to answer this question, the number of errors made by the children of the experimental group was compared between the two tests (pre-test and post-test). As Table 4 shows, there was a strong decrease in the total mean number of errors, from 12.5 mean errors in the pre-test to 5.5625 mean errors in the post-test. Besides, the mistakes of each category diminished considerably. Those categories that underwent the most important drop were those related to spelling, prepositions and the format of the text (see Figure 2).

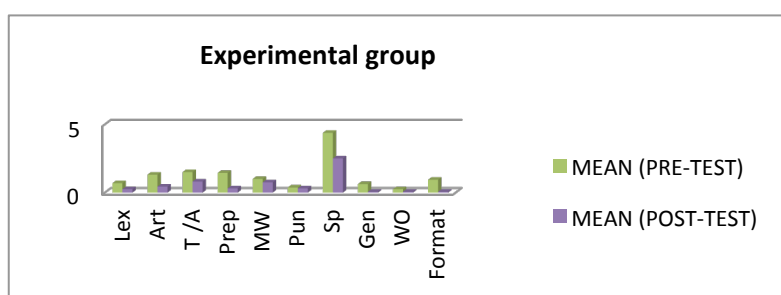


Figure 2. Experimental group's mean errors by categories

4) *Are there any differences in the number of errors made by the members of the control group between the pre-test and the post-test?*

As in the previous question to answer this question, the results of both tests (pre-test and post-test) were compared. As Table 4 shows, there was a slight reduction in the total number of error between both tests (12.25 in the pre-test and 10.25 in the post-test), which is in contrast to the findings above so this group did not improve at the same rate. Some error types decreased (spellings, prepositions and format) however, others like lexicon, articles and tenses increased (see Figure 3). Therefore it can be said that the number of errors did not vary greatly from pre-test to post-test in the case of the control group.

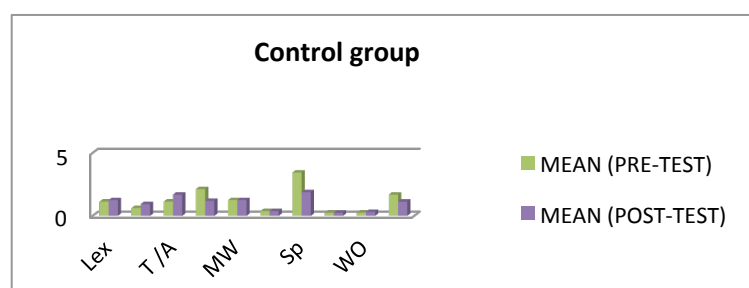


Figure 3. Control group's mean errors by category

5. Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to explore whether Anita Pincas' teaching writing method helped primary school Spanish children to improve their writing skill in English.

In order to explore the effectiveness of this method the pre-test and post-test evaluations that each group completed were analysed to identify the different types of mistakes that the children made. Once they were checked, according to the classification of writing errors proposed by Kroll (1990), each mistake was counted and was differentiated so as to create a table which collected the final number of error of each student. This collection was carried out to subsequently compare the mean number of errors made in the pre-test with the mean number of errors made in the post-test.

The data indicated that children improved considerably in terms of their writing ability given that there was a reduction in the total number of errors from the pre-test to the post-test in both groups. Generally both groups improved their writing, but mainly, the group which most improved was the experimental group. This important progress was due to the writing instruction that the experimental group received by the researcher. The categories which experienced the most significant fall were *spelling* and *prepositions*; surprisingly children improved in these two types of errors which are the most difficult for English learners to acquire. In spite of this, children in the experimental group decreased the number of errors in every single category, the control group only improved in *prepositions*, *spelling* and *format* (see Table 4). The reduction in the number of errors in the format category in the control group was an unexpected result because in contrast to the experimental group, the control group did not receive any instruction on how to organise a friendly letter or its main component parts.

Despite the fact that children generally improved, the most common mistakes that children of both groups continued making were those related to *verb tenses*. This result is in line with the findings reported by Sawalmeh (2013). He claimed that the main errors made by a group of Saudi EFL learners at university level in their written work were those referred to *verb tenses*. Nevertheless, the participants Sawalmeh's study also made a lot errors related to the *word order* category while children of the present study made fewer errors of this type. Therefore it can be claimed that adult learners and young learners usually made the same types of errors when they write in English.

In accordance with the Torras, Navés, Celaya and Pérez Vidal's study (2001) in which the learners who received more instruction gain more marked improvements, in the present study happened the same, the group which received the instructional lessons of the writing phases of Anita Pincas' method, obtained better results. Moreover, the experimental group learners wrote longer compositions with longer sentences and used a greater variety of content words. Thus, general results seem to suggest that students who were taught through Anita Pincas' method substantially improve their English writing skill.

6. Conclusions

As the present study was intended as an attempt to explore whether Anita Pincas' teaching writing method allows Spanish primary school children to improve their writing skills in English. Looking at the data collected it is clear that young language learners can improve their writing skills with the help of this communicative method.

Several pedagogical implications for teaching writing can be drawn from the results previously reported and discussed. As English teachers know, writing in a foreign language is by no means easy. Teaching writing in a foreign language to large classes of unskilled writers is a demanding job. Though significant progress may not be easy to achieve within a limited timeframe, teaching learners to improve their writing skills is possible if teachers have better understanding of their students' writing difficulties. Furthermore, they should prepare themselves with effective instructional strategies such as Anita Pincas' method, which integrates reading, writing as well as vocabulary and grammar.

Poor writing ability is a problem for many learners at this school made worse by the fact that English is not the main means of instruction in the Spanish education system, the students are less exposed to English in daily communication, and they are weaker at English, especially in the written form. Thus, the researcher of the present study believes that sufficient practice of English writing and a proper method as Anita Pincas' method of teaching English writing are the best solutions to help young learners to improve their writing skill in English and reduce their writing errors. Additionally, they should be encouraged to speak English at home and with their friends, as well as being taught more effectively the rules and conventions of writing. Because writing is a skill acquired only through practice. Therefore, our students need much practice as possible in writing.

The present study, like all studies, has its limitations which should be considered for future research. For instance, the numbers of subjects involved were relatively small and the duration of the training was limited. More solid evidence might have been obtained if a longer study could have been over a longer period and with a larger sample of participants. Moreover, a more complex study might have been conducted with different kinds of compositions (informal letter, formal letter, etc.) The results would be more scientific if different types of classes had been included in the study (different levels, bilingual groups...). In addition, the subjects were students of 6th year selected from a non-bilingual school. Therefore, the findings in this research may not be considered as a representative of all Spanish EFL learners. Besides, the lack of previous studies related to Anita Pincas' method made it difficult to compare the results obtained in this study to others from different studies. Therefore, the present study merely serves as a preliminary attempt. Given the results of this study, a number of recommendations for further research can be suggested. Firstly, it is recommended that further research be undertaken to investigate Anita Pincas' method in different levels of the Primary Education, from Year 1 to Year 6. Moreover, further investigation into the effectiveness of this method for bilingual groups of all levels is strongly recommended to compare whether children in different programmes improve at the same rate. Last but not least, it would be interesting to compare experiences of learners from Spain to children from other countries. Even it is recommended to compare the results of this study with others in which Anita Pincas' method is carried out.

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EL SOFTWARE DE ANÁLISIS DE CORPUS APLICADO A LA DOCENCIA DE LFE: PROPUESTA METODOLÓGICA

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Resumen

Las necesidades del mundo actual han modificado la demanda de aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras hacia la profesionalización, provocando un crecimiento exponencial de la enseñanza de lenguas para fines específicos (LFE). Esto ha supuesto un importante reto para los docentes que, en muchas ocasiones sin ser expertos, tienen que implementar metodologías efectivas que permitan formar a alumnos con perfiles muy diferentes en un periodo habitualmente limitado. El presente artículo expone una propuesta metodológica adaptativa basada en la utilización de software de análisis de corpus en la docencia de LFE. El empleo de corpus en la enseñanza de lenguas, investigado desde hace décadas por numerosos autores (Aston, 2000, 2001; Johns 1991, 1994, 1997, 2002; Santamaría-García, 1995, 1998, 2011; Sinclair, 1991), permite al alumno construir su conocimiento de forma autosuficiente, siguiendo la premisa «learn by doing» (Schank, 1995), y acercándose así al lenguaje real utilizado por los expertos. La metodología permite, a su vez, adoptar distintos enfoques en función del nivel del alumnado y solventar las carencias puntuales en el conocimiento experto del docente, el cual podrá nutrirse de los posibles conocimientos expertos del discente.

Palabras clave: Lenguas para fines específicos, análisis de corpus, lingüística del texto, didáctica de la lengua.

Abstract

The needs of our current globalized world have transformed the demand of foreign language learning towards professionalization, which results in an increasing demand of languages for specific purposes (LSP) training. Teachers, who many times are not LSP experts, are facing new challenges like finding effective methodologies to train students of very different profiles usually in limited periods of time. This paper presents an adaptive methodology proposal based on the use of corpus analysis software for LSP teaching. The use of text corpora in language teaching – researched by different scholars in the last decades (Aston, 2000, 2001; Johns, 1991, 1994, 1997, 2002; Santamaría-García, 1995, 1998, 2011; Sinclair, 1991) – allows students to build their own knowledge through «learn by doing» theory (Schank, 1995), while approaching to real language used by experts. In addition, different approaches can be adopted through this methodology according to the level of the students, and lack of expert knowledge of the teachers can also be resolved, as students will share their expert knowledge with them.

Keywords: Languages for specific purposes, corpus analysis, text linguistics, language didactics.

1. Introducción

En los últimos tiempos la enseñanza superior ha evolucionado hacia la especialización, tanto del alumnado como del profesor. En el caso de los idiomas, esto se ve reflejado en la demanda de formación en lenguas para fines específicos (LFE), que comienza tan pronto como termina la enseñanza obligatoria. Esta realidad ha dado origen a nuevos retos en la enseñanza de lenguas a los cuales los docentes han tenido que adaptarse para cubrir dicha demanda. Autores como Roberts (1991), Rodríguez Piñero y García Antuña (2009) y García Laborda y Litzler (2015), entre otros, han analizado los problemas a los que deben enfrentarse los profesores de LFE, de entre los que destacan especialmente tres. En primer lugar, la diversidad de perfiles de los discentes, que tienen niveles de partida de lengua extranjera dispares,

conviviendo en el aula alumnos con una base previa afianzada de la lengua extranjera con compañeros que tienen un nivel relativamente bajo. Esto también sucede, según nuestra experiencia, en el nivel de conocimientos de la especialidad en la lengua materna, pues algunos alumnos ya son expertos, mientras que otros no. En segundo lugar señalan que, en la mayoría de los casos, los docentes de LFE no son expertos en el dominio de especialidad que enseñan, sino profesores de lengua extranjera general que deben reorientar sus conocimientos hacia una especialización por materias dentro de dicha lengua. Si unimos este condicionante a las nuevas modalidades de aprendizaje (la presencialidad ha dejado de ser imprescindible y la docencia se basa, cada vez más, en las nuevas tecnologías como apoyo, o en sustitución, de la clase magistral), observamos como el docente de LFE se ha convertido en un profesional «todoterreno» que debe formarse en múltiples aspectos para poder enfrentarse a los nuevos retos de la enseñanza. En tercer lugar cabe destacar las restricciones temporales que suelen caracterizar los cursos de LFE frente al volumen de contenidos exigido, lo cual añade otro condicionante que complica aún más el panorama del docente. Todos estos escollos tienen como consecuencia la necesidad vital de encontrar metodologías efectivas que permitan al docente ser altamente productivo y adaptativo para que el alumno alcance el mayor rendimiento equilibrando las posibles discordancias y carencias de alumnado y profesorado en el periodo limitado de que se dispone.

Las LFE se contraponen a la lengua general por su carácter especializado, pues se trata de lenguajes con «[...] una temática específica, utilizada en situaciones pragmáticas determinadas» (Aguado, 2002: 18). Esa temática específica corresponde al saber de los distintos dominios de especialidad, por ejemplo la medicina o el derecho. Las situaciones pragmáticas, por su parte, son aquellas que se producen cuando los expertos de dichos dominios, por ejemplo médicos o juristas, comunican esa temática específica. Esta especialización temática y situacional tiene como consecuencia la existencia de características que hacen que las LFE difieran de la lengua general. De entre estas características podemos destacar las siguientes:

este autor en su definición implican que estos textos especializados tengan reglas específicas de elaboración que es necesario aprender, en contraposición a la espontaneidad del aprendizaje de la lengua general (Cabré y Gómez de Enterría, 2006).

Todo lo anterior debe sumarse a los elementos propios del aprendizaje de lenguas en general (desarrollo de competencia oral, escrita, auditiva y lectora), lo cual demuestra la complejidad de la enseñanza de LFE. Esta complejidad deberá reflejarse, necesariamente, en las metodologías empleadas para su impartición. Si bien es cierto que autores como Hutchinson y Waters (1987) postulaban en los albores de la época moderna de esta disciplina que no existía como tal una metodología de LFE, sino que se trataba de metodologías utilizadas para su enseñanza pero que se podían utilizar para la docencia de la lengua general, estudios más recientes (Robinson, 1991; Cabré y Gómez de Enterría, 2006) abogan por una especialización en las metodologías con el objetivo de satisfacer las necesidades específicas de esta disciplina.

- Simulación global: reconstrucción en el aula de los elementos que configuran una situación comunicativa en un ámbito específico.
- Proyectos: tarea final amplia en la que todas las actividades están orientadas a la preparación, desarrollo y elaboración de un proyecto relacionado con la actividad profesional.
- Tareas: implica a los aprendices en la comprensión, manipulación, producción e interacción en la LE.
- Presentaciones orales: permite ejercitar la comunicación no verbal de forma natural. Puede utilizarse por sí sola o puede formar parte de uno de los enfoques anteriores.
- Estudios de casos: analizar problemas reales en un contexto profesional.

Observamos en esta recopilación una serie de actividades orientadas, efectivamente, a la práctica profesional real del alumno. En todas ellas existe un proceso de aprendizaje basado en el «learn by doing» (Schank, 1995), y en la mayoría de estas técnicas se trabajan las características distintivas de las LFE (terminología, sintaxis/gramática y géneros) a las que hemos hecho referencia. Pero abordar el estudio de todos estos elementos de forma unificada sin hacerlo de forma artificial puede suponer un problema en el aula de LFE. Por ello, en la presente propuesta abogaremos por el uso de una metodología que permite el estudio de todas estas características en contexto e investigada por numerosos expertos (cabe destacar Aston, 2000, 2001; Johns 1991, 1994, 1997, 2002; Santamaría-García, 1995, 1998, 2011; Sinclair, 1991): el aprendizaje de lenguas mediante análisis de corpus.

3. El uso de corpus en la enseñanza de lenguas

Para entender esta metodología es esencial comenzar analizando el concepto de corpus. Podemos definirlo como «a collection of pieces of language that are selected and ordered according to explicit linguistic criteria in order to be used as a sample of the language» (EAGLES, 1996: 4). El objetivo principal del análisis basado en corpus es documentar e interpretar patrones de uso de la lengua mediante la observación de la comunicación real entre los hablantes (Gozdz-Roszkowski, 2011). Al tratarse de un análisis de textos reales es considerado un método con un amplio índice de fiabilidad (Biber, Conrad y Reppen, 1998), y de ahí su utilidad en la enseñanza y aprendizaje de lenguas (Santamaría-García, 1995), más concretamente de LFE (Tolchinsky, 2014).

Muchas son las perspectivas aportadas por diversos autores a lo largo de las más de tres décadas en que la unión corpus y docencia se ha venido desarrollando, cada vez con más peso. Parece existir acuerdo en que Johns es el precursor de la exposición directa del alumno y el profesor al corpus, en lo que denominó «data-driven learning» (1991, 1994, 1997, 2002, entre otras). Desde ese momento otros autores han seguido contribuyendo en el desarrollo de esta metodología con distintos enfoques, entre los que cabe destacar el trabajo mediante corpus de muestras producidas por aprendices de una lengua extranjera (Aston, 2000; Flowerdew, 2000), el uso de las concordancias en la docencia (Cobb, 1997; Santamaría-García, 1998; Aston, 2001; Flowerdew, 2001), los estudios sobre colocaciones (Sinclair, 1991; Stubbs, 1995), la obtención de datos sobre géneros textuales a través de corpus (Henry y Roseberry, 2001) o el análisis del discurso mediante el uso de corpus oral (Santamaría-García, 2011), entre otras.

Todos estos enfoques de análisis son solo una muestra resumida de las múltiples aportaciones con que esta metodología puede contribuir a la enseñanza de lenguas. La contribución más inmediata es la posibilidad de estudiar a través del corpus los elementos básicos de la lengua, como son la gramática, el vocabulario y el discurso (Santamaría-García, 1995). Pero la investigación de estos elementos no se detiene ahí, pues puede derivar en la mejora de manuales pedagógicos (Nesselhauf, 2004; McCarten, 2010), el diseño y evaluación de planes de estudio o la creación de diccionarios y gramáticas (Aston y Burnard, 1998; Walter, 2010). Por último, no debemos olvidar los aspectos positivos que supone para el aprendizaje del alumnado la implementación del uso de corpus o material basado en él. Por un lado, su aplicación implica que el estudiante se aleje de modelos lingüísticos idealizados y artificiales, habituales en los libros de texto, para exponerse a muestras naturales del lenguaje, lo cual le proporcionará una formación más cercana a sus necesidades reales. Por otro, fomenta el autoaprendizaje más allá del aula una vez los

alumnos ya se han formado en el manejo de corpus, pues como afirman Aston y Burnard (1998: 19-20) «with appropriate training, advanced learners can use large corpora as reference tools which overcome many of the limitations of existing dictionaries and grammars by providing a much larger number of more contextualized examples». Finalmente, aunando los beneficios para enseñanza y aprendizaje, como valor añadido a su utilización se produce una simbiosis entre profesor y alumno en la cual ambos aprenden mediante la investigación del lenguaje en contexto, lo cual hace de ella una metodología tanto útil como atractiva, pues, como apunta Santamaría-García (1995: 195) es percibida por los usuarios como «[...] easy, quick and motivating».

3.1 El análisis de corpus en LFE: compilación y herramientas

Para que el aprendizaje logre cubrir las necesidades reales anteriormente mencionadas es esencial adaptar el corpus al estudiante y sus objetivos de aprendizaje (Johns, 2002). Como establecimos anteriormente en su definición, el concepto de corpus gira en torno a dos ejes: las muestras del lenguaje, es decir, una delimitación de textos concretos que se incluirán en el corpus en función de su propósito, y los criterios lingüísticos, es decir, la definición de cómo se compondrá ese corpus.

Para determinar las muestras del lenguaje que formarán parte de la compilación nos valdremos de la clasificación por géneros textuales, dado que lo que vamos a compilar para nuestros propósitos es un «topic-specific corpora» (Aston y Burnard, 1998: 12), es decir, un corpus centrado en un dominio de especialidad concreto. Swales (1990) introduce ligado a su definición de género el concepto de prototipos. Se trata de ejemplares de un género que muestran patrones estructurales, estilísticos, de contenido y receptor meta comunes. Estos prototipos suelen surgir asociados a comunidades discursivas específicas, por lo que, en el caso de la aplicación del análisis de corpus a las LFE, los géneros textuales prototípicos seleccionados vendrán determinados por la comunidad discursiva a la que se adscriba dicha LFE: juristas, médicos, etc. Una vez definida la comunidad discursiva y sus géneros prototípicos podremos seleccionar aquellos que más puedan interesar para nuestro propósito, y serán principalmente aquellos más representativos de cada dominio de especialidad. Por un lado, esto permitirá que los alumnos se familiaricen con los textos a los que más posibilidades tengan de enfrentarse en el uso profesional de la LFE y, por otro, al tratarse de los más representativos contendrán los principales elementos terminológicos y sintáctico-gramaticales del dominio de especialidad.

Una vez determinados qué géneros incluir en el corpus es momento de realizar su diseño en base a los criterios lingüísticos. Para ello, nos valdremos de la lingüística de corpus, metodología que se encarga de definir los parámetros principales para compilar un corpus. Los parámetros de mayor relevancia para nuestra propuesta serán los siguientes:

- Tipología: determinada por la selección de distintos elementos, como medio oral o escrito, temporalidad diacrónica o sincrónica, grado de especialización, extensión completa o parcial de las muestras incluidas, lengua(s) de dichas muestras, originales o traducciones, etc. (Sinclair, 1991; Kennedy, 1998; Leech, 2007; McEnery y Hardie, 2012).
- Tamaño: si bien se presupone que un corpus debe tener el mayor número posible de elementos (EAGLES, 1996), el número específico dependerá de cada estudio en particular, dados los múltiples factores que pueden influir según el caso: el propósito del corpus (Kennedy, 1998), la dificultad para encontrar los materiales incluidos en el corpus (EAGLES, 1996), que no requieran el uso de equipos costosos y que sean manejables sin que el usuario posea habilidades técnicas muy específicas (Sinclair, 2001), etc. En este caso, el tamaño se verá afectado por factores como la duración del curso, que

- Procedencia: es necesario confirmar que se trata de muestras de calidad (EAGLES, 1996) elaboradas por usuarios reales y cualificados.
- Representatividad: es importante que las fuentes del corpus sean lo suficientemente diversas para que sea una muestra real del género seleccionado. Si todos los textos provinieran del mismo autor podríamos encontrarnos con preferencias en el uso de expresiones o términos que darían como resultado unos datos sesgados.

La compilación de un corpus oral podría ser interesante para cuestiones como comprensión y pronunciación, pero se debe tener en cuenta que, habitualmente, es complicado obtener muestras de audio originales y reales que no hayan sido elaboradas artificialmente por especialistas en la enseñanza e interpretadas por actores. Por esta razón vamos a centrarnos en la compilación de corpus escritos.

En cuanto al grado de especialización, lo ideal para un aprendizaje completo sería compilar subcorpus de distintos géneros. Así se podrá adquirir una panorámica de cómo funciona la LFE desde los términos y estructuras típicos de cada género.

Una vez esté compilado el corpus será el momento de implementar su uso en el aula. Para ello será necesario que los alumnos aprendan a manejar la herramienta informática que les permitirá analizarlo. El software de análisis y gestión de corpus permite que su análisis sea más ágil, y además permite almacenar el conocimiento y seguir ampliándolo de forma más cómoda y rápida.

Este mismo autor (ibid.) describe las principales herramientas de AntConc, de entre las cuales consideramos que podrán sernos de especial utilidad las siguientes:

- El manejo de este software puede resultar complicado dadas las innumerables variables de búsqueda y ordenación permitidas, pero debe recordarse que se va a utilizar como una herramienta de apoyo al aprendizaje de LFE. Por tanto, las actividades que se programen con su uso deberán ser sencillas y efectivas, de modo que, tras una primera toma de contacto en la que el alumno comprenda qué se pretende hacer con el programa y cómo tiene que hacerlo, pueda trabajar de forma autónoma sin demasiados problemas después de una pequeña práctica.

4. Aplicación práctica de la metodología en el aula

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Para esta puesta en práctica hemos decidido no limitarnos a ningún par de lenguas, dado que podría utilizarse cualquiera, sino que haremos referencia a la lengua materna (LM) y la lengua extranjera (LE) de los alumnos. Hemos dividido la propuesta en 4 fases:

4.1. Fase previa

Esta fase es aquella en la que se sientan las bases para el empleo de la metodología en el aula. Se divide, a su vez, en dos partes:

4.1.1. Compilación del corpus

Esta tarea corresponderá al docente. En función del diseño de su asignatura, el tiempo y el nivel de sus alumnos, será el momento de determinar si se compila exclusivamente un corpus comparable en la LE o un corpus dividido en dos subcorpus, uno de textos en LE y otro en LM. Siempre es recomendable compilar ambos, no sólo por si finalmente se dispone de tiempo en clase, sino también para que el docente vaya construyendo su propio conocimiento experto al trabajar sobre ellos. Independientemente de la decisión que se tome, será necesario establecer los géneros que se van a incluir en los subcorpus. Nosotros apostaremos por los más representativos, que permitan obtener una visión global del dominio de especialidad y que pertenezcan a las distintas áreas en que el dominio de especialidad se divide. Así pues, si por ejemplo estuviéramos aplicando esta metodología a un curso de lengua para los negocios, deberíamos buscar esa heterogeneidad incluyendo textos pertenecientes a las distintas áreas de ese dominio de especialidad: derecho (contrato de distribución), economía (informe macroeconómico), finanzas (letra de cambio) y comercio (correspondencia comercial) (Román, 2012). Si, por ejemplo, se tratara de un curso de inglés para medicina, deberíamos incluir textos de comunicación entre los profesionales (notas clínicas), de divulgación (folletos de salud pública) y comunicaciones «familiares» (diario de laboratorio) (López, 2000).

Si optamos por el comparable dividido en dos subcorpus sería necesario buscar los textos correspondientes en la LM, que suelen existir en su mayoría dada la actual globalización del mundo profesional. Además, gracias a la proliferación de estudios sobre los géneros textuales especializados muchos textos se pueden encontrar sin excesiva dificultad. Si el docente tuviera dificultades para encontrar textos, el corpus podría limitarse a unos pocos géneros que se fueran ampliando con ayuda de otros aportados por los estudiantes (si, por ejemplo, trabajan en ese dominio de especialidad).

4.1.2. Introducción a los alumnos

En esta fase, ya dentro del curso en sí, la labor del docente será presentar a los alumnos el corpus y explicarles la metodología que se va a seguir con su análisis. Esta introducción irá inexorablemente acompañada de una explicación paso a paso del uso del programa informático. Para que puedan familiarizarse con ella, en primer lugar se les enseñará a cargar el corpus en el programa para, sobre él, explicarles el funcionamiento de las distintas herramientas seleccionadas como primera aproximación, animándoles a realizar una búsqueda de prueba para cada una de ellas ya sobre el corpus. Sería conveniente entregar a los alumnos un manual paso a paso del uso de cada herramienta tras la demostración y, si se dispone de tiempo, dejar a los alumnos practicar el resto de la sesión.

4.2. Análisis del corpus en LE

En esta parte se comenzaría el trabajo con el corpus en LE. Lo ideal a partir de esta fase sería dedicar una parte de la clase al análisis de corpus y, otra, a las actividades complementarias, incluso alternar una

sesión completa de análisis de corpus con una siguiente sesión de actividades relacionadas con la temática trabajada. Los alumnos podrán en esta fase comenzar a detectar y aprender los términos más utilizados en el dominio de especialidad para construir su «glosario mental», forma en que hemos denominado a la relación interiorizada de los elementos léxicos más significativos del campo en cuestión, junto con los conceptos que determinan y sus patrones de uso. Los términos que componen ese glosario los podrán y necesitarán implementar en el resto de actividades simultáneas fuera del trabajo con corpus. Dichas actividades irán, preferentemente, ligadas a los textos que se estén trabajando en cada momento.

4.2.1. Extracción de términos clave

Para la construcción del mencionado «glosario mental» es de vital importancia determinar cuáles son las palabras clave del dominio de especialidad, tarea que puede resultar prácticamente imposible para un aprendiz inexperto por la falta de contexto y la amplitud léxica y conceptual que puede llegar a tener un dominio de especialidad, además de las restricciones temporales que marquen la adquisición de su aprendizaje. Ante esta tesitura, podemos encontrar en el análisis a través de corpus un gran aliado en esta tarea, pues, como apunta Flowerdew (2001: 75), «the great power of the corpus-based word list is in that the course designer can be sure that the words selected are the most useful». No obstante, dado que nuestro interés es explorar la terminología propia de los géneros especializados, antes de comenzar la extracción de esta lista sería recomendable introducir una «stoplist» genérica para cribar resultados más rápidamente. Para elaborarla se realizaría género a género una «Wordlist» ordenada por frecuencia de aparición para detectar las denominadas «high frequency words» (Kennedy, 1998: 67), palabras generales como preposiciones o artículos que no son representativas del dominio de especialidad. Estas serán la base de nuestra «stoplist», que podremos ir modificando para afinar más la búsqueda según analicemos cada género en particular. El docente puede entregársela hecha a los alumnos, pero sería muy interesante que pudieran elaborarla ellos mismos, pues así podrían implementar ese mismo proceso cuando manejen el corpus de forma autónoma en el futuro. Una vez la tengamos podríamos proceder al análisis de cada género por separado. En un primer acercamiento los alumnos elaborarían un listado de palabras de dicho género tras haber cargado la «stoplist» y así obtendrían, por frecuencia, los términos más representativos de cada uno. No obstante, sería recomendable establecer un mínimo de apariciones de un término y en un número mínimo de textos para asegurarse de que es realmente representativo del género en cuestión, criterio que dependerá del volumen del corpus con que trabajemos.

Todo este proceso de extracción conviene realizarlo en dos fases: en una primera se buscarían unidades terminológicas monolexemáticas. Una vez obtenido el listado definitivo, se pasaría a detectar mediante la herramienta «Clusters» las asociaciones frecuentes de esos términos con otras unidades, con lo que obtendríamos las unidades terminológicas polilexemáticas.

4.2.2. Elaboración del glosario

La extracción de los términos representativos en la LE no es útil por sí sola, pues los alumnos necesitan conocer también su traducción a su LM y, por tanto, el concepto subyacente, lo que les permitirá elaborar un glosario. Una vez obtenido el término en LE los alumnos deben buscar en un diccionario especializado monolingüe en la LE el concepto, es decir, la definición de dicho término. Aquellos con un mayor nivel de conocimiento experto en el dominio de especialidad podrán deducir cuál es el término equivalente en la LM, mientras que los que no puedan buscarán directamente el equivalente en español en un recurso

bilingüe y comprobarán en diccionarios monolingües especializados en LE y en LM que se trata del mismo concepto. Estas búsquedas permitirán aprender durante el proceso y, a la vez, asegurarnos de que se trata de términos propios del dominio de especialidad en cuestión. Para que el glosario sea lo más eficaz posible se puede dividir en apartados por género textual o realizar un solo apartado por orden alfabético añadiendo etiquetas que establezcan en qué género se utiliza cada término.

Si consideramos la convivencia de esta metodología con las otras actividades empleadas en la enseñanza de LFE, la primera parte de esta fase podría servir de apoyo, por ejemplo, a la realización de estudios de caso sencillos que tengan relación con la temática del género (por ejemplo sobre la historia clínica de un paciente o los estados financieros de una empresa) o combinarse con la realización de tareas en las que deban utilizar los términos clave de cada género que hayan encontrado. Posteriormente, tras la segunda parte de esta fase, los alumnos podrán enfrentarse a actividades más complejas, pues ya disponen de un mapa mental de la terminología de cada género. Podría, por ejemplo, comenzarse a realizar actividades de presentación oral o de simulación global (por ejemplo en la Junta General de una empresa o la revelación del diagnóstico a un paciente).

4.3. Análisis contrastivo

Para profundizar en el conocimiento de la LFE estudiada, en esta fase se procedería al análisis contrastivo de los subcorpus en LE y en LM.

4.3.1. Comparación de terminología

En un primer ejercicio podría repetirse el proceso de obtención de la «Wordlist» de términos clave para observar si coinciden con los conceptos y equivalentes que obtuvimos en el análisis del corpus en LE. Así determinaríamos si un término o expresión se utiliza con la misma frecuencia en ambas lenguas y, si no, podríamos intentar determinar cuál se utiliza en su lugar si obtuvimos alguno con un significado similar. La herramienta «Concordance Plot» nos permitiría en este caso observar frecuencia y distribución de los términos por texto.

4.3.2. Comparación de macroestructura

Una de las utilidades de poder contrastar géneros textuales en distintas lenguas es que se puede comparar si la macroestructura es equivalente en ambas o si, por el contrario, existen variaciones entre lenguas o no coincide, tanto en contenidos como en forma. Por ejemplo, ¿encontramos las mismas cláusulas en un contrato de distribución en LE y LM? ¿Las partes de dicho contrato se distribuyen de la misma manera? (encabezado, mayúsculas, títulos, etc.). Esto puede resultar extremadamente útil a la hora de comprender, redactar o traducir dichos documentos entre las dos lenguas de trabajo. Mediante la herramienta «Concordance» podemos observar en contexto un término o frase concretos (por ejemplo, el título de una cláusula en un contrato o de un apartado del informe anual) en todos los textos en que aparezca y seleccionar el que nos interese para que se nos muestre el texto en que aparece en su totalidad y así comparar si siempre encontramos los mismos apartados en los mismos lugares.

4.3.3. Comparación sintáctico-gramatical

La más compleja de las posibilidades que ofrece el análisis de corpus es la comparación de elementos sintáctico-gramaticales. Se requiere un nivel elevado de la LE y su análisis está orientado fundamentalmente a la comprensión y redacción textual, por lo que se pospone a la fase más avanzada del aprendizaje. Se podría proceder al estudio de los textos completos de un género concreto en el propio

Dado el nivel de profundidad al que se trabaja en esta fase, el docente podría combinarla con la realización de cualquiera de las actividades distintas a nuestra metodología descritas en la fase anterior, pudiendo aumentar el nivel de dificultad. El alumno ya estaría preparado, por ejemplo, para tareas complejas como la redacción de textos del ámbito profesional en la LE (informe de auditoría o folleto sanitario).

Esta última fase corresponde al alumno. En ella podrá ampliar el corpus con más textos de los géneros que lo componen o bien incluir subcorpus con géneros nuevos para poder analizarlos de igual manera. Puede adelantarse a las fases anteriores si el docente necesitara ayuda para completar el corpus inicial, siendo en este caso el alumno participe de la fase previa al empleo de la metodología. Puede realizarse a lo largo del curso o una vez terminado.

La metodología basada en el uso de corpus aquí propuesta pretende servir como apoyo al aprendizaje de LFE a lo largo de todas sus fases y niveles como complemento a las actividades y metodologías empleadas más habitualmente. Sumar esta metodología, avalada por un amplio número de investigadores, a las ya implementadas permitirá que el alumno no sólo adquiera y practique las habilidades propias de la enseñanza de lenguas (oral, escrita, auditiva y lectora), sino que además podrá adquirir los siguientes conocimientos:

- Como todo método docente, por supuesto, esta propuesta puede tener pros y contras, que dependen fundamentalmente de la idiosincrasia de cada curso, docente o grupo de alumnos. Entre los posibles contras que pueden surgir podemos señalar el hecho de que el uso de las TIC puede ralentizar el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje: no todos los alumnos tienen la misma destreza en el uso de herramientas informáticas, si bien es cierto que la elegida para esta propuesta, así como el conjunto de actividades planteadas, son bastante sencillas. Además, la utilidad de esta metodología es mayor en cursos de extensión media o larga, o en programas con cursos sucesivos, puesto que si el número de horas de que se dispone es muy limitado no daría tiempo a que el alumno indague de forma provechosa en el corpus y su

Sin embargo, la aplicación de esta metodología también cuenta, en nuestra opinión, con una serie de aspectos positivos más numerosos que los negativos, de los que querríamos destacar los siguientes: el uso de herramientas TIC en el aprendizaje añade atractivo para el alumno. Esta herramienta, además, puede almacenarse para su uso continuo y posterior al curso, fomentando así el aprendizaje permanente y el autoaprendizaje, pues a lo largo de toda su implementación el alumno toma parte en su propia formación, lo cual es un aliciente más. Esta autoformación, que además también lo es para el profesor, aparece combinada con el trasvase de conocimientos entre alumno y profesor que, en lugar de realizarse de la forma convencional del segundo al primero, en este caso se produce en ambas direcciones, suponiendo una ventaja para ambos. Por último, pero no menos importante, debemos resaltar que con esta metodología el alumno aprende empleando material de uso en la vida profesional real y no adaptado o creado para el entorno docente, lo que le hará estar más preparado en un futuro.

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PRINCIPIOS DEL APRENDIZAJE DEL CEREBRO Y SU REPERCUSIÓN EN EL PROCESO DE ADQUISICIÓN- ENSEÑANZA DE LA DE LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA EN LA EDUCACIÓN BILINGÜE

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Resumen

Los avances científicos, provenientes de campos como la neurociencia y la psicología cognitiva, de las últimas décadas nos hacen conscientes de la importancia del proceso de aprendizaje de acuerdo a la información recibida desde el cerebro. El objetivo de este estudio es reflexionar sobre los principios del aprendizaje del cerebro y su repercusión en el proceso de adquisición-enseñanza de la competencia oral de la L2 en un contexto de bilingüismo educativo, concretamente en educación primaria.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje del cerebro, bilingüismo educativo, competencia oral de la L2, neurociencia, proceso de adquisición-enseñanza.

Abstract

Scientific advances from fields like neuroscience and cognitive psychology in recent decades make us aware of the importance of the learning process according to information received from the brain. The aim of this study is to reflect on the principles of learning in the brain and its impact on the process of learning and teaching the oral competence of L2 in a context of educational bilingualism, particularly in primary education.

Keywords: brain learning, bilingual education, oral competence of L2, neuroscience, process of learning and teaching.

1. Introducción

La neurociencia constituye uno de los campos de investigación más vibrantes de la ciencia hoy en día (Sylwester, 1995). El cerebro es el órgano más fascinante y complejo del sistema nervioso, es en esta materia gris donde tienen origen nuestros pensamientos y sentimientos. Los avances científicos demuestran que el pensamiento y el sentimiento tienen su base en el cerebro (Belmonte 2007: 59; Greenfield 2007: 8). Según Immordino-Yang y Damasio, (2007), los procesos cognitivos que tienen lugar en las escuelas, como el aprendizaje, la atención, la memoria, así como la toma de decisiones, están profundamente afectados por procesos emocionales:

Recent advances in the neuroscience of emotions are high-lighting connections between cognitive and emotional functions that have the potential to revolutionize our understanding of learning in the context of schools (Immordino-Yang y Damasio, 2007: 3).

Son numerosas las investigaciones realizadas sobre el aprendizaje y su compatibilidad con el cerebro. Jensen (1998: 10) afirma que “estamos en el umbral de una revolución” en la que recientes

investigaciones tienen importantes implicaciones en la enseñanza. Una de las principales contribuciones es la investigación de Sperry (1974) sobre la especialización hemisférica que abrió un horizonte nuevo para posteriores estudios sobre el aprendizaje y su compatibilidad con el cerebro. En base a este descubrimiento, Hart (1983: 318) expuso que la estructura del enfoque tradicional de enseñanza y de aprendizaje era en cierta medida “opuesta al cerebro”. Ella acuñó por primera vez el término “compatible con el cerebro”. Posteriormente Jensen (1997) argumentó que la educación debería ajustarse a la naturaleza del cerebro y no forzar al cerebro a implicarse con pautas establecidas, sin atender a lo que este órgano es o cómo funciona mejor. Según Saavedra (2001: 143), la descripción del hemisferio izquierdo como cerebro analítico, verbal, secuencial y detallista, y del hemisferio derecho como intuitivo, base del lenguaje no verbal, cuna de las emociones y del arte, repercutió en lo que se denominó “estilos de aprendizaje”. Caine y Caine (1997) elaboraron sobre los principios del aprendizaje una síntesis de investigación de muchas disciplinas que sirvieran de fundamento para reflexionar sobre el aprendizaje. Los principios que establecieron fueron los siguientes:

- El cerebro es un complejo sistema adaptativo.
- El cerebro es un cerebro social.
- La búsqueda de significado es innata.
- La búsqueda de significado ocurre a través de “pautas”.
- Las emociones son críticas para la elaboración de pautas.
- Cada cerebro simultáneamente percibe y crea partes y todos.
- El aprendizaje implica tanto una atención focalizada como una atención periférica.
- El aprendizaje siempre implica procesos conscientes e inconscientes.
- Tenemos al menos dos maneras de organizar la memoria.
- El aprendizaje es un proceso de desarrollo.
- El aprendizaje complejo se incrementa por el desafío y se inhibe por la amenaza.
- Cada cerebro está organizado de manera única.

Este artículo se basa en una reflexión sobre la repercusión de los nuevos avances en el campo de la neurociencia y en su aplicación en el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje de la L2 en el contexto escolar bilingüe de educación primaria.

2. El cerebro como sistema adaptativo y social y su repercusión en el proceso de aprendizaje de la L2 en el aula

El cerebro es un complejo sistema adaptativo (Caine y Caine, 1997). Una de las características más poderosas del cerebro es su capacidad para funcionar de muchas maneras simultáneamente, sin embargo, hay propiedades del cerebro que actúan como un sistema total y que no pueden ser entendidas cuando sólo se exploran las partes separadamente (Salas, 2003). Los pensamientos, las emociones, la imaginación operan en la medida en que todo el sistema interactúa e intercambia información del entorno. Este principio es necesario para una enseñanza apropiada en general y en el proceso de adquisición-enseñanza de una L2 en particular. Cuando los niños reciben una educación bi-

plurilingüe logran una mayor comprensión del lenguaje y una manera más efectiva de utilizarlo, no dudan en emplear todos los recursos lingüísticos que tienen a su disposición, ya sea individual o colectivamente. Peal y Lambert (1962:1-3) demostraron que los niños bilingües que hablaban francés e inglés obtenían mejores resultados en las tareas cognitivas. Ellos están más abiertos a la variedad y muestran más flexibilidad a la hora de adaptarse a nuevos sistemas lingüísticos. Asimismo, Hammers y Blanc (1989) o Bialystock *et. al.*, (2005: 40-49) detallan aspectos de las ventajas cognitivas de los niños expuestos al bilingüismo, como la adquisición de una mayor flexibilidad mental y lingüística.

Otro principio que hay que tener en cuenta en el aprendizaje, según Caine y Caine (1997), es que el cerebro es un cerebro social. Al aprender, interviene toda nuestra fisiología, debido a que su estado es flexible, impresionable y receptivo, especialmente durante el primer y segundo año de vida. Según Morgan-Short (2011: 282-299), “el aprendizaje de una lengua cuando se es un niño es natural” y no requiere ningún esfuerzo, por el contrario, el aprendizaje de una lengua cuando se es adulto sí conlleva dificultades. A medida que establecemos relaciones interpersonales e interactuamos en nuestro entorno, el cerebro cambia en respuesta a su compromiso con los demás. Por lo tanto, el aprendizaje está influido considerablemente por la naturaleza de las relaciones sociales. En el aula de lenguas extranjeras, esto es de especial importancia. El tratamiento del error debe ser integrado como parte del aprendizaje para que el alumno no se cree barreras de aprendizaje y pierda el miedo a expresarse en la lengua extranjera. Otro aspecto muy importante es propiciar un ambiente participativo en el aula, haciendo que el alumno se sienta seguro al expresarse en la lengua extranjera y creando una ambiente apropiado para la interacción. En el contexto del aula bilingüe es necesario incluir estrategias que permitan el movimiento físico y el cambio después de largos momentos de escucha pasiva.

3. La búsqueda de significado y sentido en contextos bilingües

La búsqueda de significado es innata. Dotamos de sentido nuestras experiencias. El ser humano enfoca la búsqueda de significado estableciendo metas y valores, desde la necesidad de alimentarse y encontrar seguridad, y lo hace a través de las relaciones sociales. En el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera se produce la búsqueda de significado continuamente. Los alumnos prestarán más atención si les dejamos descubrir lo que significan las cosas. Debemos propiciar que los alumnos tengan experiencias ricas y ofrecerles tiempo para dar sentido a sus reflexiones sobre estas experiencias de forma que obtengan sus hallazgos propios.

The metalinguistic mind enables the person to have specific types of ability to handle “language dynamics” in communication. Essentially, it enables the person to “go beyond the words”, and is closely linked to improved reading skills through phonemic awareness (understanding sounds and symbols), and heightened sensitivity in interpersonal communication (Marsh, 2009: 348).

Este principio en la enseñanza de la comunicación oral es muy utilizado, debido a que hay inmersión lingüística en el aula y los alumnos deben comunicarse y buscar el significado del lenguaje en todo momento permitiéndoles inferir o deducir el lenguaje sin recurrir a la traducción. La búsqueda de significado ocurre a través de patrones. La búsqueda de sentido se produce mediante la organización y clasificación de la información y no a través de pautas aisladas y sin relación. El cerebro es capaz de asimilar una gran cantidad de información cuando esta se produce de manera que pueda ser ordenada

adecuadamente en patrones. Ejemplo de este tipo de enseñanza lo encontramos en el programa bilingüe educativo AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas) basado en el método Content Based Instruction (CBI) que se consolidó en las enseñanzas de las lenguas en los años 80 (Richards y Rodgers, 2001). Este método comparte su objetivo con el enfoque comunicativo que es la comunicación real, así como el intercambio de información. Entre las premisas de AICLE se encuentra por lo tanto la exposición prolongada de la L2, preferiblemente en una modalidad interactiva (Pavesi et al., 2001). La enseñanza bilingüe, que sustenta la enseñanza de contenidos de áreas lingüísticas y no lingüísticas de la lengua extranjera a través de un currículo integrado, se basa en el principio de buscar y observar patrones interrelacionados. El cerebro está programado para recordar más información si un tema está relacionado con cualquier otro diferente. De esta manera, se puede enseñar a través de un patrón haciendo que la enseñanza del idioma a través de la ciencia, la literatura y los estudios sociales sea más significativa. El aprendizaje de la L2 se produce en contextos donde los alumnos infieren el significado de la experiencia empleando la lengua para fines concretos y significativos y comunicativos. García (2009: 315) afirma que este enfoque comunicativo supone una “aportación definitiva para la enseñanza bilingüe”.

4. El cerebro emocional y el proceso de adquisición de la L2

Las emociones y los pensamientos se moldean unos a otros y no pueden separarse, es decir, no cabe separar la emoción de la cognición. El tercer principio del aprendizaje del cerebro formulado por Caine y Caine (1997) se basa en que las emociones son fundamentales para la elaboración de pautas. En la misma línea, Goleman (1995), Damasio (1998), Jensen (2004), Immordino-Yang y Damasio (2007), Haidt y Seder (2009) aseveran que las emociones ayudan a entender la adquisición de hechos significativos en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje y que conducen a una mayor comprensión de los mismos, lo que nos lleva a un aprendizaje más profundo que el de los contenidos. Por lo tanto, un clima emocional apropiado es indispensable para una sana educación. Goleman (1998: 430) subraya la necesidad de “armonizar la emoción y el pensamiento”. El concepto de Inteligencia Emocional ha sido popularizado por Daniel Goleman (1995), pero fueron Mayers y Salovey (1995) quienes acuñaron el término de Inteligencia Emocional (IE), definiéndola como la habilidad de las personas para atender y percibir los sentimientos de forma apropiada y precisa, la capacidad para asimilarlos y comprenderlos de manera adecuada y la destreza para regular y modificar nuestro estado de ánimo o el de los demás.

La IE supone diferentes habilidades, como la habilidad para percibir y expresar correcta y adaptativamente las emociones, la habilidad para comprender las emociones y el conocimiento emocional y la habilidad para utilizar las emociones en el pensamiento y para regular las emociones en uno mismo y en los demás. La Inteligencia Emocional implica diferentes dimensiones:

- Autoconciencia: Es la capacidad de reconocer y entender nuestras propias emociones, cómo nos afectan y el efecto que estas tienen sobre los demás.
- Autocontrol: Es la habilidad de controlar nuestras emociones e impulsos.
- Motivación: Es la capacidad de estar continuamente en un estado de búsqueda y persistencia en la consecución de los objetivos. Esta competencia se manifiesta en las personas que

muestran un gran entusiasmo por su trabajo y por el logro con un alto grado de iniciativa y compromiso y optimismo.

- Empatía: Es la habilidad para entender las necesidades, los sentimientos y responder emocionalmente a los problemas de los demás poniéndose en su lugar.
- Habilidades sociales: Es la destreza en el manejo de las relaciones con los compañeros.

En un contexto en que la lengua extranjera es el vehículo de comunicación, este principio se hace imprescindible. El ambiente creado en el aula debe conducir a una mayor expresión de las emociones. Considerando esta premisa, es recomendable aplicar el concepto de aprendizaje cooperativo. Los alumnos realizan las tareas de manera colectiva lo cual potencia la motivación para “conseguir el logro de su propio aprendizaje y acrecentar los logros de los demás” (Olsen y Kaplan 1992: 8). Este enfoque surge como reacción a los métodos basados en el individualismo, la memorización, la competición, y se basa en las investigaciones de principio de siglo sobre la creatividad, el torbellino de ideas, el trabajo en equipo (Rogers, 1961). El aprendizaje cooperativo promueve la importancia de construir conocimientos dentro del aula a partir de la interacción y la ayuda entre pares en forma sistemática, en que el estudiante debe razonar, pensar, desarrollar habilidades sociales de negociación e intercambio priorizando la reflexión y el análisis.

Asimismo, el aprendizaje cooperativo fomenta la integración, de manera que todos los estudiantes adquieren los objetivos de aprendizaje cada uno dentro de sus posibilidades (Johnson, Johnson y Holubec, 1999). Este proporciona a los estudiantes las experiencias que necesitan para un desarrollo social, psicológico y cognitivo apropiado, permite que el profesor establezca un vínculo positivo y sustituye la estructura organizativa competitiva por una estructura organizativa basada en el trabajo en equipo favoreciendo la motivación, un clima afectivo positivo y la reducción del estrés, presente con frecuencia en el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras. La interdependencia positiva es necesaria en el grupo, es decir, la capacidad de comunicación adecuada para el entendimiento de que el objetivo es la realización de producciones y que estas deben realizarse de forma colectiva. El resultado como grupo será la consecuencia de la investigación individual de los miembros. Johnson y Johnson (1994: 22) señalan la “interdependencia positiva”, que garantiza que los aprendices cooperen entre sí en los equipos, la interacción, las técnicas de comunicación interpersonal, la responsabilidad individual y grupal y el control metacognitivo del grupo, que evalúa las aportaciones, las intervenciones, las estrategias de sus componentes.

Debemos considerar que cada cerebro simultáneamente percibe y crea una idea de las partes y del todo. El cerebro fracciona la información en partes, el lenguaje se localiza en el hemisferio izquierdo, mientras que la entonación y otras características paralingüísticas se localizan en el hemisferio derecho, pero percibe la totalidad al mismo tiempo: ambos hemisferios interactúan en cada actividad en una persona sana. Este principio repercute considerablemente en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras. Las actividades comunicativas en la enseñanza bilingüe se centran en la búsqueda de información, incluyendo varios sentidos (cerebro límbico), así como el dominio de la inteligencia visual-espacial, asociativa, intuitiva y racional, que se sitúan en la neocorteza (Beauport, 1994), citado en Manrique (2012). En definitiva, cada actividad debe realizarse en un contexto específico en el aula, de manera que el alumno obtenga la mayor información posible del objetivo que se desea alcanzar.

Otro principio relevante es que el aprendizaje implica tanto una atención focalizada como una percepción periférica. El cerebro recibe información de lo que está directamente consciente, y también de lo que está alejado del foco de atención, a través de señales periféricas. Estas señales a veces son inconscientes y pueden revelar nuestras actitudes y pensamientos interiores, los cuales pueden tener un efecto considerable.

Attention is an important factor in not only problem-solving, but learning in general. It is said that attention drives memory and learning. The multilingual mind is already involved with separating the language processing frameworks resulting from knowing more than one language. This is especially the case in terms of ambiguity, and different representations created by words. However, it also separates distracting alternatives which might interfere with thought (Marsh, 2009: 345).

En educación infantil y en los primeros cursos de educación primaria, los alumnos utilizan su conocimiento y viven numerosas experiencias de aprendizaje en el aula. En la metodología bilingüe AICLE las estrategias para mantener la atención focalizada y las señales periféricas son extraordinariamente importantes para conseguir una atmósfera apropiada de aprendizaje. La actitud del profesor es muy importante, puesto que los alumnos captan estas señales que pueden influir positiva o negativamente en su motivación, así como la decoración del contexto donde se desarrolla la comunicación de la lengua extranjera, las canciones de fondo a la vez que realizan otras actividades, la exposición de carteles con ilustraciones de aspectos culturales en el aula y pasillos del centro, el uso continuado de *flash-cards* con vocabulario de la lección que se esté aprendiendo en ese momento. Todo lo expuesto puede contribuir a inspirar señales periféricas en nuestros alumnos que les lleven al aprendizaje inconsciente, especialmente si las renovamos de continuo.

El aprendizaje siempre implica procesos conscientes e inconscientes. Aprendemos mucho más de lo que entendemos conscientemente. El aprendizaje a través de una lengua utilizada como herramienta para el pensamiento y la comunicación humana es un valor añadido al proceso de aprendizaje. Esto conduce a una mayor comprensión de cómo la lengua se utiliza para lograr metas en la vida.

The metalinguistic mind enables the person to have specific types of ability to handle “language dynamics” in communication. Essentially, it enables the person to “go beyond the words”, and is closely linked to improved reading skills through phonemic awareness (understanding sounds and symbols), and heightened sensitivity in interpersonal communication (Marsh, 2009: 348).

La mayoría de las señales que se perciben en la periferia entran en el cerebro sin nuestro consentimiento e interactúan con otros niveles de conocimiento. La comprensión, por lo tanto, puede darse pasado un tiempo y no en el tiempo de exposición del contenido en el aula. Los educadores pueden facilitar ese procesamiento inconsciente diseñando apropiadamente el contexto, incorporando actividades metacognitivas, proporcionando actividades para que los alumnos puedan expresar ideas creativas en lengua extranjera.

5. El sistema de memoria y el aprendizaje en contextos de bilingüismo educativo

Tenemos al menos dos maneras de organizar la memoria. Por un lado, poseemos el sistema de memoria para el aprendizaje que se caracteriza por aprender de manera memorística. Se trata de un sistema clasificatorio que no tiene que ver con la imaginación o la creatividad en el que los estudiantes

siguen el proceso que Skinner (1975) denomina “condicionamiento operante”. Este tipo de condicionamiento es una forma de aprender por medio del refuerzo, tanto positivo como negativo. En los contextos de bilingüismo educativo las recompensas, premios y estímulos pueden ser incentivos por los que el alumno reciba reconocimiento y protagonismo, progrese en la materia o refuerce las calificaciones. Esta atención recibida en el aula provoca en ellos un estímulo positivo que los motiva favoreciendo el proceso memorístico.

Por otro lado, poseemos la memoria espacial, que permite registrar experiencias completas, creando nuevas conexiones y fortaleciendo la memoria a largo plazo. Este sistema es muy global, es decir, no se centra en un área en particular y está motivado por la novedad. El aprendizaje significativo ocurre a través de una combinación de ambos enfoques de memoria. Marsh (2009: 349) distingue entre “episodic memory” y “semantic memory”. La primera es utilizada para describir la memoria de sucesos relacionada con episodios como fechas, lugares, sensaciones, sentimientos; la memoria semántica describe un conocimiento más general y se utiliza para interpretar experiencias o sucesos. La emoción desempeña un papel muy importante en la memoria y en la comprensión de la memoria, así como en el razonamiento y en la toma de decisiones (Damasio, 1998). Según Luo, Craik, Moreno y Bialystok (2012), uno de los beneficios del bilingüismo es el desarrollo de una mejor capacidad memorística en los niños. En la enseñanza bilingüe se refuerza la función de la memoria debido a que los alumnos deben utilizar la lengua extranjera para el aprendizaje de áreas no lingüísticas.

El aprendizaje es un proceso de desarrollo según Caine y Caine (1997). El cerebro entiende y recuerda mejor cuando los hechos y las habilidades están fijados en el sistema de memoria espacial natural. El cerebro posee plasticidad y es moldeado por la experiencia de cada persona. Este principio tiene especial relevancia en la adquisición de lenguas extranjeras y en bilingüismo debido a que existen predeterminadas secuencias de desarrollo en el niño, y es el motivo por el que deben ser iniciadas y establecidas en los niños a edades muy tempranas (Salas, 2003).

6. El entorno y el aprendizaje en el contexto escolar

El aprendizaje complejo se incrementa por el desafío y se inhibe por la amenaza. El cerebro aprende de manera óptima haciendo el mayor número de conexiones en un entorno no amenazante y que le estimule a asumir riesgos (Salas, 2003). En la misma línea, Hart (1983) afirma que un ambiente sin amenazas produce mejores resultados en el paradigma enseñanza- aprendizaje. Debido a que el entorno bilingüe educativo tiene lugar en el aula, los educadores debemos conocer que el aprendizaje y el cerebro están conectados y afectados por lo que ocurre en este espacio. En la misma línea, Jensen (2004: 49-65) expone que la influencia del entorno es maleable y propone que los educadores proporcionen un entorno enriquecido mediante “el desarrollo de habilidades de pensamiento, la lectura, la meditación, la resolución de problemas, las artes y las habilidades manuales”. Un estudiante podría estar en estado de amenaza si muestra un sentimiento desanimado o fatigado; no se trata meramente de estar tenso debido a que el aprendizaje puede estar intrínsecamente lleno de tensiones. Esta situación es muy común cuando los estudiantes deben exponer o interactuar en la L2.

Asimismo, Jensen (2006: 452-456) también realza la necesidad de que los educadores conozcan la relación existente entre nutrición y aprendizaje. La nutrición puede repercutir en aspectos que condicionan el proceso de aprendizaje, cuando se ingieren proteínas solas o con carbohidratos, por ejemplo, aumenta la fuerza cerebral, sin embargo cuando los carbohidratos se ingieren solos aumenta la relajación. En el contexto del aprendizaje bilingüe en el aula debemos tener en cuenta que nuestro cerebro está diseñado para tener una atención no continuada, y la atención es uno de los pilares en el proceso de aprendizaje. Para conseguir una mejor atención es necesario que los alumnos se encuentren relajados; podemos emplear técnicas de relajación al principio de la clase con indicaciones breves en lengua extranjera, de manera que puedan revertir el efecto de las hormonas del estrés en el cuerpo.

El reloj de nuestro cuerpo atiende a ciclos de energía-relajación, estos ciclos se ven afectados por la respiración, y los niveles de energía afectan a nuestro aprendizaje. La actividad física puede modificar los ritmos del cerebro. Un descanso con ejercicio físico altera un ciclo bajo, necesitamos espacio para equiparar los tiempos de aprendizaje más productivo con las tareas por realizar (Jensen, 1998: 65-66), los alumnos deben tener espacios para la movilidad, como alternativa al aula podemos buscar un espacio adecuado en los ambientes creados en el centro para desarrollar cierto tipo de actividades. El profesor debe analizar el ritmo natural de los alumnos de manera individual y del grupo en general. Los ritmos con los que trabajamos en la clase son importantes, y el orden en el aula facilita el cambio de ritmo.

El último principio establecido por Caine y Caine (1997) refleja que cada cerebro está organizado de manera única. Todos somos diferentes debido a varios factores como la herencia genética, las experiencias diversas o los entornos distintos. Los alumnos son diferentes y necesitan estar expuestos a una multiplicidad de inputs, estas diferencias se reflejan en los estilos de aprendizaje, los talentos y las inteligencias.

En relación a este fenómeno, Gardner (1983) propone un modelo de escuela inteligente basada en el aprendizaje como una consecuencia del acto de pensar y como comprensión profunda en el que el conocimiento pueda ser llevado a la práctica. Según Gardner (1991,) la escuela tradicional se basa en el desarrollo de conocimientos, olvidando que la información se puede aprender por diferentes canales y cómo los niños deberían aprender en la escuela. En definitiva, Gardner (1983) aporta una nueva visión de inteligencia y la define como la capacidad para resolver problemas y crear productos valorados, al menos en un contexto cultural o en una comunidad determinada. La inteligencia bajo este prisma consiste en un conjunto de habilidades mentales que no sólo se manifiestan de forma independiente, sino que están localizadas en diferentes regiones del cerebro. Asume una perspectiva amplia y pragmática de la inteligencia que va más allá de la perspectiva de la medición de un coeficiente intelectual. En su teoría inicial propone la existencia de siete inteligencias :

- Inteligencia Verbal/Lingüística
- Inteligencia Lógico/Matemática
- Inteligencia Visual/Espacial
- Inteligencia Cinestésica/Corporal
- Inteligencia Musical/Rítmica

- Inteligencia Intrapersonal
- Inteligencia Interpersonal

Posteriormente añade la inteligencia naturalista, la espiritual. Cada inteligencia no existe aisladamente de las otras, Gardner (2011) afirma que todas las tareas, los roles y los productos de nuestra sociedad exigen una combinación de inteligencias, incluso cuando una o más destacan. En definitiva, reconoce muchas y diferentes facetas de la cognición que tienen en cuenta que las personas poseen diferentes potenciales cognitivos que se pueden desarrollar y, por tanto, obtener mayor logro académico en general y en la adquisición de la competencia comunicativa de la L2 en particular.

7. Conclusiones

A modo de conclusión señalamos que el cerebro tiene la capacidad de transformarse, de ir más allá de su forma cada vez que el individuo aprende algo nuevo. Los nuevos avances de la investigación sobre mente, cerebro y educación demuestran que las emociones y el pensamiento, las pasiones y la inteligencia vividas en el aula están estrechamente vinculadas al proceso de aprendizaje. Las conductas escolares son conductas sociales que se reconocen a través de la aceptación, el premio, el dolor y el placer, la tensión, la coherencia y la afinidad. Según Celce- Murcia (2008) y Ellis (1997), en la competencia comunicativa se trabajan las siguientes subcompetencias: lingüística, sociolingüística, estratégica, interaccional, discursiva y formulaica. Debemos tener en cuenta que estas subcompetencias tienen lugar en el contexto bilingüe, en el que el grado de dificultad en el aprendizaje es superior debido a que la L2 es la lengua vehicular en la que se aprenden los contenidos de áreas no lingüísticas. A este respecto, Jensen (2004: 103-117) expone que los educadores debemos tener en cuenta “las condiciones sociales” en el diseño de nuestras clases, para que se produzca un aprendizaje de más calidad en el aula, debido a que estas influyen sobre el cerebro. Asimismo hemos profundizado en la aplicación de los principios de aprendizaje expuestos por Caine y Caine (1997) en educación primaria. Estos principios, basados en investigaciones sobre el aprendizaje y su compatibilidad con el cerebro, repercuten de manera positiva en la enseñanza bilingüe en general y en el proceso de adquisición-enseñanza de la competencia oral de la L2 en un contexto de bilingüismo educativo en particular.

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THE CLIL APPROACH IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A COLLABORATIVE SMALL-SCALE EXPERIENCE (WITH A FOCUS ON MATHEMATICS AND PSYCHOLOGY)

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Abstract

This article presents the interdisciplinary experience carried out at the Faculty of Education of the University of Zaragoza among the Departments of Mathematics, Psychology and English Philology. This small-scale experience is contextualised within the rise of bilingual programmes both in Europe and Spain and, after having noticed a gap in the research carried out in higher education, we propose the study of: i) the students' perceptions before and after receiving the content instruction in English; ii) the specific aspects related to the areas of Didactics of Mathematics and Psychology; iii) a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the differences between the results and task performance in Spanish and in English; iv) the elaboration of some guidelines for future improvement. This study has been interpreted in the light of the current bilingual approach of CLIL, which promotes a holistic teaching-learning process of both language and content.

Key words: CLIL, interdisciplinary, Primary Education, University, Mathematics, Psychology, English Philology

Resumen

Este artículo resume la experiencia interdisciplinar llevada a cabo en la Facultad de Educación de la Universidad de Zaragoza entre los Departamentos de Matemáticas, Psicología y Filología Inglesa. Contextualizamos esta experiencia dentro del auge de las enseñanzas bilingües tanto en Europa como en nuestro país y, tras haber detectado un vacío en las investigaciones llevadas a cabo en los niveles de enseñanza superior, proponemos un estudio de: i) las percepciones de los estudiantes antes y después de recibir esta enseñanza a través del inglés; ii) las especificidades propias de las áreas de Didáctica de las Matemáticas y Psicología; iii) un análisis cuantitativo y cualitativo de las diferencias en los resultados y consecución de tareas en lengua española e inglesa; y iv) la elaboración de unas líneas de mejora para el futuro. Este análisis se ha interpretado desde el enfoque actual de enseñanza bilingüe CLIL, el cual aboga por un proceso holístico de la enseñanza-aprendizaje de lengua y contenido.

Palabras clave: CLIL, interdisciplinar, Educación Primaria, Universidad, Matemáticas, Psicología, Filología Inglesa

1. Introduction

Throughout the last twenty years, Spanish Universities have increasingly offered subjects, modules and even degrees in which content is taught through a foreign language, mainly English. There are a variety of factors that have contributed to this phenomenon (Coyle, 2010: vii-viii), but the most important ones have to do with the key goals of improving graduates' future employability and fostering the internationalisation process of the degrees so that foreign students may be interested in attending courses in our country, together with the aim of enhancing the language communicative skills in the Spanish undergraduate students.

These bilingual programmes may be framed within the so-called CLIL approach which, according to Coyle, has experienced an explosion of interest “in Europe and beyond, as many teachers, learners, parents, researchers and policy-makers have realised the potential of CLIL and interpreted this potential in very different ways” (2010:ix). The adoption of the term CLIL –Content and Language Integrated Learning– took place in 1994 (Marsh, Maljers and Hartiala, 2001) within the European context, and it meant the fusion of elements which had been previously fragmented but which have come to be reunited in the curriculum. CLIL has also been developed as a ground-breaking form of education in response to the demands and expectations of the Knowledge Age, the era of technology and globalization. Yet, it should be pointed out that bilingual programmes are far from new as they have existed in those regions and communities making a dual use of languages for a long time. The novelty of CLIL resides in its strong political basis in the European Union’s vision of a multilingual Europe where people can function using two or three different languages responding, thus, to the increasing demand of multilingual workers. Therefore, the definition of CLIL that will be borne in mind throughout this study is the one coined by Coyle, Hood and Marsh as “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language. That is, in the teaching and learning process, there is a focus not only on content, and not only on the language. Each is interwoven” (2012: 1). Although the CLIL approach has evolved into a variety of methodologies, the key principles that should be taken into consideration have to do with the four Cs model, which proposes a more holistic view of the learning processes. According to this model, by teaching our subjects through a non-native language we should not only consider the specific content of our area but also the communicative strategies developed in the bilingual classroom, the cognitive skills fostered in the students’ learning process, and the cultural aspect highlighted by the fact of introducing a foreign language into the content classroom (7).

In Spain, we have observed a growing social demand for improvement in language standards and, thus, our country has actively developed regional short-, mid- and long-term programmes. In fact, Spain has been a pioneer in the establishment of bilingual programmes in those regions – Catalonia, Galicia and the Basque Country – where two official languages have co-existed for a long time. And these previous experiences have been useful to foster the implementation of the current CLIL programmes in which a foreign language, mostly English, is introduced in the classroom, first thanks to the launch of the MECD and British Council bilingual projects (1996), and then, with the progressive inclusion of bilingualism in mainstream schools, always regulated by the Spanish law. As Dafouz and Núñez have explained, the CLIL programmes in primary and secondary education have been implemented in our country “under the regulations of national and regional educational institutions, such as the Ministerio de Educación, Ciencia y Deportes (Ministry of Education, Science and Sports) or the governments of the Autonomous Communities in Spain” (2009:101). Therefore, Coyle has even argued that “Spain is rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research. The richness of its cultural and linguistic diversity has led to a wide variety of CLIL policies and practices which provide us with many examples of CLIL in different stages of development that are applicable to contexts both within and beyond Spain” (2010: viii). And, in keeping with this, Spanish researchers such as Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster have even claimed that, due to the diverse legislation that Spain applies in the field of education according to the model of autonomous regions, the multifaceted “Spanish CLIL spectrum can serve as a dynamic and realistic model for other countries wanting to foster foreign language learning” (2010: ix). Furthermore,

they assert that in our country “CLIL is consolidating as a trend in the autonomous education systems, which are rapidly attempting to conform to the new demands of our globalised society” (xi).

In the region where this small-scale experience has been carried out, Aragón, this phenomenon has enormously increased in the last few years thanks to the approval of the regional law regulating the implementation in bilingual programmes in 2013 (PIBLEA). According to the Aragonese Department of Education, University, Culture and Sport, in 1999 there were just four schools in Aragón implementing the “Integrated Curriculum Spanish-English”, while in the 2015-2016 academic year, there are 247 educational establishments (kindergartens, schools and high schools) with bilingual programmes. The language chosen in these cases is frequently English, but French and German are also introduced in the content classroom. It is the massive introduction of these programmes into our educational community that has brought to light the need to foster and improve the current and future teacher’s training in both their command of the English language and the so-called CLIL methodology.

Consequently, research on the impact and quality of bilingual programmes has hugely augmented in the last few years, more exactly since the 1990s. Yet, although there exist diverse studies on the result of these CLIL programmes at the level of higher education (Coleman, 2006; Dafouz and Núñez, 2009; Coyle et al., 2012; Fortanet, 2013; Strotzman et al., 2014; Chostelidou et al., 2014), it is quite remarkable that research has mainly focused on the stages of primary and secondary education. Thus, a gap has been identified regarding the research on CLIL at the level of University and adult education. Along with this, the existing studies have not particularly dealt either with the areas of pedagogy, which are essential when we consider that “teachers undertaking CLIL will need to be prepared to develop multiple types of expertise: among others, in the content subject; in a language; in best practice in teaching and learning; in the integration of the previous three; and, in the integration of CLIL within an educational institution” (Marsh et al., 2012: 5), or with the specific programmes developed in the Faculties of Education – in our country or abroad – which become the sites where the future teachers are taught to teach not only content but also language. It is our contention that higher education must provide a forum, like the one offered by our project, in which the educational community can discuss the possibilities and challenges that bilingual education in general and the CLIL approach in particular have recently brought to the fore in our University systems.

2. Context

Taking all these premises into account, the Department of Psychology and Sociology has been offering courses taught in English in the Faculty of Education at the University of Zaragoza since the year 2011, and the Department of English Philology has developed some research and teaching lines dealing with the CLIL approach, and the challenges concerning the introduction of English in the content classroom in diverse contexts and at various educative levels, mainly considering the bilingual legislation recently developed in Aragón. All at once, the Department of Mathematics offered a bilingual subject during the previous academic year (2015-2016) for the first time – which led the teachers involved in these various subjects and departments to share their experiences and find some common lines of action.

Thus, the pilot experience presented in this study is aimed both at monitoring our students’ perceptions before and after attending these bilingual courses and bringing the teachers closer to the specific methodologies that should be applied when teaching mathematics and psychology through a non-native

language – enquiries supported by those many contemporary researchers claiming that innovative measures need to be taken to improve the teachers’ “English language competences and, more specially, to acquire knowledge about structures and vocabulary related to the subjects they teach, classroom language in general” (Pena and Porto, 2008:159).

This project that has been developed responding to some initial needs that arose when implementing these subjects: i) the scarce number of studies about the CLIL approach at the University level and the lack of detailed research on the specific methodology that should be followed to teach content *through* English in higher educative levels; ii) the current and future teachers’ need to improve their training both in the English language and the didactic techniques that should be applied to teach key concepts as well as those linguistic English structures that are directly related to some specific content areas (Mathematics and Psychology); iii) the lecturers’ need to collect and examine some objective data that can allow them to improve their teaching skills within a bilingual atmosphere and adapt the subject content to the level and context of their students. Our project was designed to address two main lines of research: on the one hand, we consider that further study is needed to understand why the students at the Faculty of Education have/not chosen the subjects taught in English. And, on the other hand, more research should be done on these students’ learning and cognitive processes within the CLIL classroom by analysing, for instance, some specific tasks performed in class. This way, the main objectives of this study could be listed as follows: i) to understand the students’ motivations when choosing the bilingual subjects in the Degree in Primary Education at the University of Zaragoza; ii) to compare the CLIL students’ opinions about their learning processes with those of the students following the Spanish-instruction methodology; iii) to analyse to what extent the CLIL approach established in these diverse subjects has influenced the students’ performance in some tasks and their acquisition of content knowledge and subject and language skills.

3. Methodology

It should be noted that both courses taught in English were offered only in *one of the four groups* that our Faculty has for the Degree in Primary Education, specifically in the afternoon shift. This fact introduces a bias in the student’s profile, since most students prefer the morning shift and the vacancies are assigned according to their grades in the previous years. That is to say, afternoon students have usually received lower marks in the past. Considering these aspects, 55 students chose the Psychology course and 24 the Mathematics one, probably due to the fact that the latter was offered for the first time.

The “Mathematics Education: Geometry”¹ course was taught in two weekly sessions of two hours each. One of them was devoted to collaborative activities consisting of solving tasks related to the content that was going to be taught in the subsequent theoretical lectures. This way, the students had to reflect – with the teacher guidance – on certain mathematical and/or didactic issues before being formally exposed to them. The other weekly session was dedicated to whole-group lecturing in order to provide further theoretical explanations of the ideas that had been discussed in the previous practical lesson, as well as solving mathematical problems. It should be noted that in the previous years the students’ results in the subject had been satisfactory (85% passed in the 2014-15 academic year).

¹ Referred to as MEG throughout the article

The course on Developmental Psychology² is also taught in two weekly sessions, a three-hour class and another one of two hours. The methodology used is participative and collaborative; students prepare part of the class themselves from material provided to them and some found by themselves. Sometimes, they are asked to present their work to the rest of the class. Group work activities include discussing case studies, documents they have had to read previously, and videos on developmental issues. Students are also asked to prepare a case study of a child they know to describe the developmental areas and discuss individual differences. As happens in the MEG course, the results have usually been satisfactory in the previous courses.

Regarding the lecturers involved in this pilot experience, the population was represented by two teachers of the Department of Mathematics, one lecturer teaching Psychology, and another one instructing the 4th-year students to apply the CLIL approach in the Infant and Primary Education classroom.

In order to achieve the expected objectives, the methodology applied –with quantitative and qualitative aspects– included the following activities:

a) Quantitative Aspects

a. 1) Students' surveys *before* attending the courses taught in English

During the first week of February, a survey was answered by the four chosen groups of students in Primary Education: groups 3 and 4 in the first year of the Degree, attending the courses on DP in English and Spanish respectively; and groups 3 and 1 in the third year, attending MEG in English and Spanish respectively. The main goal of this initial survey had to do with the detected need to gather some relevant data about the English level and the personal motivation of the students when choosing or declining our CLIL subjects. Moreover, the survey included some questions about the possible uses of the English language in their further teaching careers so as to compile some useful information about the future teachers' perceptions about current bilingual programmes. Subsequently, the teachers held a meeting to analyse the results of the preliminary survey and design the subsequent questionnaire.

a.2) Students' surveys *after* attending the courses taught in English

At the end of the academic year, a survey was answered by the two groups of Primary Education students that had attended our CLIL subjects. On this occasion, the main aim was the collection of data about the possible evolution of the students' English level and their appreciations about the CLIL experience. Furthermore, they had to answer some questions about the possible uses of the English language in their teaching careers so as to assess the possible changes of opinion in comparison to the pre-survey.

a.3) Quantitative comparison of the marks obtained in the exam among the 4 focus groups

With regard to the final exam of MEG, a statistical comparison of the marks of each group was carried out by using SPSS. By performing a T-test, we studied the differences between the mean of the final marks in group 3 with respect to the other groups.

a.4) Quantitative comparison of marks in specific questions of the MEG and DP exams

In addition to this global analysis, in MEG we performed a more detailed examination of the marks of some individual questions of the exam (Problems 2 and 4). And, in this case, we compared groups 1 and 3. In DP, the final exam only represented 50% of the final score. The other 50% was obtained from continuous assignments. These included preparing a class, writing and presenting a case study, as well as

² Referred to as DP throughout the article

reading and discussing texts on developmental psychology. Students were required to attend class and complete all assignments in order to sit for the final exam. The syllabus was different for students who are unable to attend class; in this case the final exam represents 100% of the final score. Thus, for the purposes of our analysis, we decided to analyse one of the tasks corresponding to the continuous assessment, since the exams were slightly different between the Spanish- and English- instructed courses.

b) Qualitative Aspects

b.1) Establishment of common assessment criteria

The group of teachers held a meeting in March in order to set the type of tasks to be piloted with the students and to agree on a common set of criteria for their further assessment.

b.2) Assessment of the oral presentations in MEG: Design of a rubric

One of the tasks of the course included the identification and the oral description of the geometrical elements present in a photograph brought by the students. We asked for permission to record the audio of this activity. Together with this, a rubric was designed to assess the performance of the students. Using this tool, the teachers could assess three audio files corresponding to three students in one MEG group. In order to get a representative sample of the class, we chose those in the 10, 50 and 90 percentiles according to their final marks. The implementation and posterior revision with the group of teachers of this rubric was fruitful to check its suitability and to adjust it to our context and needs with the aim of using it both in future academic activities and research.

b.3) Comparison of written tasks in Mathematics (questions 2 and 4 in the June exam)

Following the same criteria, we chose three students in group 1, in addition to the three students we had already chosen in group 3. In each of the 6 cases, we analysed in detail their answers to two exam questions. These questions were chosen by the researchers according to the writing skills needed to complete them. Specifically, we chose the more and the less demanding ones. This analysis helped us to study to what extent the writing skills in English had some impact on the academic results and the students' acquisition of both geometrical skills and knowledge.

b.4) Comparison of written task assignment in Developmental Psychology

An assignment, which consisted of reading Mary Ainsworth's³ experiment on attachment and answering questions on the theory of attachment and the experiment itself, was done in the two afternoon groups in order to be able to compare the results between the Spanish group and the English group. The theory of attachment had been taught in class previously, and the Spanish text was translated by the professor who teaches the Developmental Psychology course.

b. 5) Teachers' sharing of results and experiences

At different stages of the project the teachers involved met in order to analyse and compare the results, improving the assessment tools and extracting meaningful conclusions for the further development of CLIL subjects in the Faculty of Education, which will be discussed in the next sections. Moreover, the team acted as a panel of experts to select the most meaningful activities to analyse.

4. Results and Discussion

³ See the case study in Canetero, M. J. (2006).

Once all these activities were carried out, the most interesting results could be divided in:

a) Quantitative Aspects

a.1) Students' surveys *before* attending the courses taught through English

- In general terms, it can be observed that the students that chose an English-taught course had a “generic” interest in the language, which is not directly related to their professional performance. Yet the professional interest is higher in the 3rd year (22%) than in 1st year (16%).
- It should be noticed that the percentage of students with an accredited level of English – mainly between B1 and C1 level according to the CEFRL – was lower in the English-taught courses (31%) than in the Spanish ones (35%)
- Most of the students thought that the number of English-taught courses was “scarce” (52 %). 78% considered that the degree should train them to teach different subjects in English in Primary Education, mostly Physical Education, Arts and Crafts, Science and Music since they are the subjects that are being introduced in the classroom at the present moment.
- Most of the morning shift students (not enrolled in the English-taught courses) supported the teaching of subjects in English in Primary Education, and only 32% of them thought their level of English was not good enough; in other words, their level of English was lower than B2. A relevant part of them chose the Spanish-taught course because of the different shift (39%).
- The afternoon shift students, who were not enrolled in the English-taught courses, chose the Spanish-taught course because their priority was passing the course (37%) or they thought their level of English was inferior to the B2 level suggested to take this course (52%).
- Students enrolled in the courses taught in English showed some fears; mainly concerned with speaking in public (DP) and the role of the teacher (MEG).

Therefore, it can be noted that, although most of the students are concerned about the need to learn English, this is not a professional worry, as the majority prioritize graduating over the acquisition of different skills and they are not willing to adapt their schedule according to the subjects taught in English. In this respect, they agree with the fact that the Faculty may offer more CLIL subjects and with their increasing implementation in Primary schools.

a.2) Students' surveys *after* attending the courses taught through English: Comparison

- Some changes were identified in the students' fears after taking the English-taught courses: In MEG, the fear about the exam had increased, but the other anxieties had decreased (especially the fear of not understanding the teacher); while in DP all the distress had decreased considerably; mainly the fear of speaking in public.
- In the post-survey the students were asked about the effect of having received instruction in English on their language level: Both MEG and DP students considered that their most significant improvements had to do with the academic use of the language, the acquisition of concepts and the cognitive processes in English. DP students also included oral and written skills in this group.
- Drawing on their opinions about the effects of taking an English-taught course on their marks:
 - 69% of the MEG students thought that their marks could be lower. Nevertheless, they acknowledged they had learned the same content or even more than the other students, and they pointed out that they had been working in small groups with a positive impact on their learning process.

- 62% of the DP students thought that their marks would be affected by the language used in the learning process, yet others considered that their marks would be even better when taking the course in English. However, in the end, they acknowledged they had learned the same content or even more while increasing their language skills.

- With regard to the overall view of the experience, we asked the students if they would recommend others to take the course. Most of the MEG students would recommend taking the course in English (62%), but they pointed out the need of holding at least a B1+ or B2 level of English at the beginning of the course. In fact, the B2 level is the minimum required by the Aragonese government in order to teach some content subjects through the CLIL methodology in our Primary schools. Once this level had been achieved, they gave value to the development of speaking skills, the improvement in vocabulary acquisition and the general linguistic progress. All the DP students would recommend the course in English (100%). They highlighted their progress in their speaking and listening skills and praised the role of the teacher in relation to the increase of vocabulary and the linguistic progress. In general, they valued the novelty of learning Psychology and English at the same time.

Consequently, it may be observed that, in general terms, even though they might initially think that their results in these subjects were going to be lower, at the end of the academic year the students valued the experience very positively since they had acquired the same concepts while improving their language skills. In the same way, the majority of the students had been able to overcome their initial fears and they would recommend this course to future students.

- Concerning the convenience of teaching more courses in English in Primary school: Before the term started, most of the Spanish-taught courses students that believed that the English subject should be taught in English (46%), whereas most of the students in the English-taught courses thought that all the subjects should be taught in English (32%), or at least one content subject (46%). After this bilingual experience, both English-taught groups remarked on the idea of teaching one or two subjects apart from the language itself (85%), while the rest of them (15%) claimed that every subject should be taught in English.

Thus, the evolution in the students' view of the importance of introducing CLIL subjects in the Primary classrooms is very significant. Drawing on an initial positive opinion about this issue, a quite solid conviction about the positive effects of introducing at least one or two CLIL subjects in our primary schools can be observed – an aspect which differs from the divided opinions present in those students that have not gone through a CLIL experience themselves.

- Lastly, the students in the CLIL courses were asked about the improvements or challenges that they had observed along the experience. The students in the MEG course expressed that:

- The improvements were mainly related to: the use of English for giving instructions, explaining an activity and using specific vocabulary. The disadvantages had to do with the evaluation and feedback in English. Probably, this was due to the fact that the exam was to be taken in a few days later and they felt less secure about their level of English to perform well in the exam as well as to understand the process of assessment itself and comprehend the posterior feedback provided by the teachers.

- The hardest part had to do with the expression of reasoning (3.2 points in a 1-4 scale) and problem solving (3/4). The easiest part was to interact with other students (2.7/4). These figures point out to similar difficulties regardless of language.

- The main disadvantages they found in following the course in English: the students with a lower English level (especially those without a B1 level) complained about some difficulties with the language. However, they were aware of those from the very first day and they voluntarily kept coming to classes every day.

- Advantages in following the course in English: Working in a smaller group and developing social skills. All of them acknowledge the great advantage that the size of the group means.

In consequence, an entry level of English is perceived as necessary by all the students, even though they agree they have improved their language skills through this experience.

The students in DP expressed that:

- Every aspect improved to the same extent (3.2/4) except for the skills needed when explaining an activity (3.3), evaluating (3/4) and giving feedback (3.1/4).

- The hardest aspect in DP had to do with arguing (3.1/4) and solving problems (2.9/4). The easiest part was interaction with their classmates (2.1/4)

- Disadvantages in following the course in English: They did not see any disadvantage. Occasionally, they talked about difficulties in grasping concepts or getting a deep understanding of some specific contents.

- Advantages in following the course in English: Improvement of their English level, and the fact of following a syllabus with more support provided by the teacher.

a. 3) Quantitative comparison of the marks in the MEG exam (4 groups)

We performed a statistical analysis of the results of the exam in the 4 MEG groups. Figure 1 suggests that group 3 had an overall performance similar to group 4, but this was worse than in groups 1 and 2. In order to check this hypothesis we ran the corresponding t-tests.

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	62	5,3284	1,83173
2	62	5,5866	1,49493
3 (English)	18	4,4907	1,86051
4	35	4,8029	2,35303

Figure 1. Descriptive Statistics.

The t-test corroborates the initial hypothesis: Groups 1 and 2 had different means than group 3 (90% and 95% significance, respectively). Thus, it cannot be concluded that the means of groups 3 and 4 were different. Together with this, it cannot be forgotten that the timetable appears to be a relevant factor when it comes to differentiate one group from the other and their respective academic performance. Once this aspect is considered, the fact of having attended the CLIL subject does not seem to imply any difference in their academic performance.

a.4) Quantitative comparison of marks in two questions of the MEG exam (Problems 2, 4)

Along the lines of the global results analyzed in the exams, the students in group 1 obtained better results than those in group 3 in nearly all the questions. The exception is question 3, which showed closely identical results. However, when we performed a statistical test, we observed that questions 2 and 5 displayed better results in the morning group (in Spanish) than in group 3 (English), with a 90%

significance. But that was not the case for the other questions. Even though we would have liked to analyze the reasons for these differences (or lack of thereof) for each question, time constraints forced us to focus on questions 2 and 4: question 2 was mostly based on mathematical content, whereas question 4 had mainly didactic content and, thus, required a longer explanation from the students.

We can say that the results of group 1 (morning, Spanish) were better than those of group 3 (afternoon, English). Nevertheless, when we get an insight into the results of each question, this improvement is mainly concerned with questions 2 and 5 (mostly focused on mathematical content), and not with the questions dealing with the didactic content (question 4), where language proficiency had a bigger role. We relate these differences with the fact that, in general terms, the morning students obtain better marks than the afternoon ones.

b) Qualitative Aspects

b.2) Assessment of oral tasks in Mathematics in English through the rubric in step b.1

The analysis of three specific students (percentiles 10, 50 and 90) showed different performances in the same oral task consisting in describing the geometrical elements in a picture. The results (1-4 scale) were the following:

CATEGORY	P10	P50	P90
Plane geometry	2	2	2
Spatial geometry	1	3	4
Relations between objects or between elements of an object.	2	2	4
Fluency and coherence	1	2	4
Oral skills	1	2	4
Graphical support	1	3	4

Figure 2. Oral tasks evaluation

Figure 2 shows a relevant correlation between the results of the oral activity and the written exam, and these variables are also strongly correlated to the different aspects concerning each student's performance at the level of spoken communication and mathematical knowledge. Thus, the results obtained are coherent and consistent with the initial teacher's assumptions while carrying out this activity as well as with the results obtained by the students in the other assessment activities. This indicates that the rubric designed in step b.1 can be a valid methodological tool to assess this kind of activities.

b.3) Comparison of written tasks in MEG (questions 2 and 4 of the June exam)

In question 2, whose resolution implied an especially low presence of written skills, we could observe the following aspects. In the case of students in percentile 10, both showed the ability to correctly carry out the first step of the answer, but after that they exposed a lack of knowledge about the needed content to perform the task. The students in the English group needed to make up their own symbols to substitute words that they did not know, whereas the students of the Spanish group gave longer explanations, which highlighted the difficulties with certain mathematical concepts.

The students in percentile 50 performed correctly the first task, but the explanations were incorrect. The conceptual errors that they made were different, but they corresponded to similar conceptual levels of

difficulty. The student in the English group showed a slightly better understanding than the student in the Spanish group.

Students in percentile 90 solved the task correctly, but they did not properly justify the steps taken. The student of the English group showed a slightly lower understanding than the one in the Spanish group.

Apart from this specific problematic concept, we cannot observe any difference that could indicate that the language is a significant difficulty in the performance of this activity. This finding would endorse those current researchers in the area of CLIL (Mehisto et al., 2012: 138-171) who claim that, if students are adequately supported during the learning process and if the class is organized around pair and group work providing opportunities for negotiation of meaning, as happens in our case, the use of a non-native language in our content subjects does not imply an obstacle for the students' successful performance of the academic tasks.

In question 4, which required a higher proficiency in written expression, we observed that, in the case of students in percentile 10, the student in the Spanish group did not answer while the student in the English class wrote a barely understandable answer, which could not hide a total ignorance about the content in the first section of that question. The students showed, however, a certain level of knowledge in the second part, but the limitations with the language prevented them from giving an appropriate answer.

Both students in percentile 50 showed some incomplete knowledge of the first section, and some deeper knowledge of the second. Therefore, language did not seem to be a problem in this case either for understanding the question or answering it correctly.

Concerning the students in percentile 90, the student in the English group demonstrated some slightly confusing knowledge in the first part, and a deeper understanding in the second one. The English language, thus, did not seem to be a problem. The student of the Spanish group showed a good command of the content in the first part, but his answer did not match the question in the second one.

In general terms, there was some lack in the comprehension of the content syllabus, which was shown by all students. In this case, the English level of the students could even be an advantage, since the difficulty in writing elaborated explanations forced the students to be brief and focus exclusively on the asked items. Again, this would go in line with some current claims made by those CLIL practitioners who explain that, contrary to the assumed belief that carrying out tasks or even exams in English may imply an additional difficulty for the students' performance and transmission of the knowledge they have acquired, students are forced to use their thinking skills at a higher level in the L2-instructed classroom than in the L1 (Coyle et al., 2012: 30-31, 39; Bialystok et al., 2012; Benmamoun et al., 2013). In this particular case, the students in the English groups had to synthesise the information through a non-native language, which forced them to reflect much more deeply about the new content, develop reasoning skills, order their thoughts in a rigorous way, and even develop some meta-cognitive skills about their own acquisition of mathematical concepts and linguist structures. That is to say, in the end, their learning process was more complete and their expression in English was not a problem when they had to provide reasoned arguments like the ones they had produced in this task.

b.4) Comparing results of written task in Group 3 (English) and Group 4 (Spanish) of DP

The assignment, which required reading a text describing Mary Ainsworth's experiment on attachment, understanding the concepts and answering questions and giving opinions, was analysed in both groups and then compared.

High quality replies contained approximately 40 words and included "technical" vocabulary related to the course as well as a full answer of what was asked. An example of an answer is provided: *Attachment is the preferential affection for someone or something, which usually manifests itself in behaviours designed to achieve or maintain proximity to another person (especially the mother) in a sensory contact privilege, to provide security and emotional support (such as distress, anxiety, fear, sadness or guilt), and resistance to separation (causing anxiety).*

Average replies contained between 20-30 words with more than one sentence used in the answer: *Attachment (or emotional attachment) is a special relationship that the Child provides a small number of people. It is an emotional bond that forms between him and each of these people, a bond that drives him to seek proximity and contact with them over time.*

Low quality replies contained between 10 and 25 words and usually had only one sentence, as may be seen in the following example: *Attachment is an emotional bond/connection between individuals (infant and caregiver=parent, providing the infant with emotional security)*

Students were asked to answer theoretical questions and to give their opinion on some aspects of the experiment. In the Spanish group the tendency was to answer all questions in the same manner, without giving an opinion. In the English group, the answers where an opinion was asked for began with sentences such as: *"From my point of view; In my opinion; I think [that]"*.

On the whole, the bigger part of the work done in English was of average level. Five of them were of high quality and very few were of poor quality regarding content. The work done by the Spanish group was very much influenced by an additional text they were given in class to explain attachment. The overall results of the analysis of the content showed that the replies were more homogeneous and less detailed. The work of the English group proved to be of higher quality and the answers offered a fuller description of what was asked of them. Both groups showed good comprehension skills which enabled them to answer the questions on the text. More diverse content was observed in the students' answers. For example, although more grammatical and spelling errors were found in the English group, the ideas expressed were perfectly understood. Additionally, there was more variation in the answers in this group, compared to the Spanish group where the answers were more homogeneous.

5. Concluding Remarks

Going back to our original questions, we can affirm that, in this minor-scale experience, there have not been considerable differences between the subjects taught in English and Spanish in terms of results and the quality of the learning processes. And the differences that have been identified do not depend on the language of instruction but on the students' general performance (which is generally better in the morning groups) and those students' skills that are not concerned exclusively with the linguistic aspects, such as those related to mathematical knowledge (MEG) or the reasoning capacity required for DP. When

considering our initial objectives, we can conclude that they have been successfully achieved. Concerning the students' initial assumptions, we have been able to identify the students' motivations and fears when choosing the CLIL subjects in the Degree in Primary Education, and it has been concluded that the students' initial fears have been overcome at the end of the course. In keeping with this, we have been able to compare the opinions about the CLIL learning and teaching processes with those of the students choosing Spanish as the main language of instruction and, in general, the students have realized that the use of the L2 in MEG and DP has not had a detrimental effect on their marks, as well as having improved their language skills and their capacity to reflect about their language learning processes.

Moreover, we have managed to examine whether or not the teaching of content related to Mathematics and Psychology has had some influence on the students' performance, and it has been demonstrated that the inclusion of a foreign language into the classroom has not been a decisive factor determining the student's acquisition of concepts and skills. In consequence, these results seem to corroborate the ideas exposed by those CLIL practitioners who claim that if CLIL is rightly introduced – through scaffolding, support, peer and collaborative work – in the classroom it should not impede learning (Cummins 1977; Ting, 2010; Ruiz 2011; Coyle et al. 2012; Spratt 2011); on the contrary, CLIL should enhance the acquisition of subject learning by integrating Cognition in a holistic way and allowing students to exercise their Higher Order Thinking Skills (Bentley 2010: 20-22; Mehisto et al. 2012: 169-70; Hanesova, 2014), such as synthesizing, reasoning, analysing and evaluation among others. In addition to this, this project has also allowed the teachers to reconsider the assessment methodology in their CLIL settings (Dalton Puffer 2007: 205-43; Bentley 2010: 95-6), for instance, creating a new adapted rubric; which demonstrates that one of the first aspects to revise when teaching through a non-native language should be the development of assessment practices that do not imply an added difficulty for the student to demonstrate that the knowledge has been acquired, and which contemplate the diverse learning and thinking process that are simultaneously happening in the CLIL settings.

Along with this, this minor-scale experience has implied an added value by fostering the dialogue and cooperation among the teachers involved in very diverse research and teaching fields – such as those of Mathematics, Psychology, and Second Language Acquisition – demonstrating that interdisciplinarity and cross-curricularity seems to be necessary at the moment when both teachers and students need to integrate new knowledge quickly and in a holistic way, think critically, and move in an increasingly fluid and globalised world where new knowledge is constantly in process (Repko, 2008; Borrego and Newswander, 2010; Doiz et al, 2013). The lecturers involved in this experience have not only expanded their interdisciplinary profiles but they have also seen their teaching CLIL practices improved as well as they have developed more adequate instruments for assessing CLIL tasks, whereas they have been exposed to multifarious pedagogical perspectives while they have been more aware of the students' perceptions, something that has become indispensable at all educational levels and at University since the implementation of the EEES. The learner-centred approach (Nunan 1988; Tudor 1993) has thus become vital, and projects like this one draw on the students' perceptions and assumptions to design and improve the curriculum, in particular, the teaching of both content and a second language.

Yet, some lines of improvement have been identified. Firstly, it would be convenient to offer the CLIL subject in the same time slot as the other subjects, as nowadays the CLIL subjects are taught in the afternoon and this has proved to be a detrimental factor influencing students' choices. Thus, if the number

of students enrolled in the CLIL programmes increased in the next few years, the field of research for our study could be broadened and more significant data could be obtained. Secondly, although it has been mainly concluded that the students' English level has not been a decisive factor in their performance, it would be advisable to establish a minimum entry level of the L2 because if there are students with a very low level of the target language this can slow down the learning rhythm of the class, as the data collected in the post-survey have demonstrated. And finally, it would be very positive to implement more training courses on CLIL pedagogy for current lecturers in our universities so that they may not feel lost when going for innovation in their teaching practices. Considering these limitations, this experience could be transposed to other subjects that are still being taught in Spanish in the Degrees in Education as well as to other educational contexts in our University, since it has been demonstrated that the teaching of content through a non-native language brings an added value to the quality of our teaching programmes and enriches the undergraduates' attainment of competences and skills in terms of Content, Communication, Cognition and Culture.

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LA PRÁCTICA Y FORMACIÓN DOCENTE DEL PROFESORADO DE LENGUA INGLESA EN CASTILLA LA MANCHA

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Resumen

En la actualidad, la enseñanza de idiomas juega un papel muy importante dentro del sistema educativo español. El número de centros con programa de sección bilingüe ha aumentado progresivamente en los últimos años pero ¿está el profesorado preparado para afrontar este cambio? Como señalan Lasagabaster y Ruiz de Zarobe (2010:287) “high-quality teaching has to be a key element if CLIL programmes are to succeed”. Por este motivo, en este trabajo vamos a presentar los resultados de un estudio sobre la situación actual en la que se encuentra el profesorado de AICLE y de lengua extranjera, junto con sus problemas y necesidades a la hora de enseñar en las secciones bilingües y no bilingües en la Comunidad Autónoma de Castilla La Mancha.

Palabras clave: Formación docente, función docente, nivel de lengua inglesa, Castilla la Mancha.

Abstract

Nowadays teaching languages plays an important role in the Spanish educational system. In the last years, the number of schools with bilingual programmes has increased reasonably but, are teachers ready to face this change? As Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010: 287) state, “high-quality teaching has to be a key element if CLIL programmes are to succeed”. For this reason in this paper I am going to show the results of a study about the current situation of both, CLIL teachers and foreign language teachers, together with their problems and necessities when teaching in bilingual and non-bilingual schools in the Autonomous Community of Castilla La Mancha.

Key words: Teacher training, teaching practice, English language level, Castilla la Mancha Autonomous Community.

1. Introducción

La educación en Castilla La Mancha está actualmente regulada por la LOMCE (Ley Orgánica para la mejora de la calidad educativa) que el Congreso de los Diputados aprobó en noviembre de 2013 y publicó en el Boletín Oficial del Estado el 10 de diciembre de 2013 según la cual la educación es un derecho constitucional de los ciudadanos y es obligatoria y gratuita hasta los 16 años de edad.

Una de las debilidades que detecta esta ley al ser implantada es el bajo nivel en lenguas extranjeras en España. En el aprendizaje del primer idioma extranjero, de 14 países europeos, España se sitúa en el puesto número 10 en el Estudio Europeo de Competencia Lingüística (2012). De este modo se concluye que España no obtiene los resultados esperados en inglés si se tiene en cuenta que la enseñanza de esta lengua comienza a una edad más temprana que en la mayoría de países de la Unión Europea. Los peores resultados se obtienen en comprensión oral. En el mismo estudio se señala que el 28% de los españoles

alcanza al menos un nivel B1 (avanzado, usuario independiente). No obstante, la Comisión Europea se plantea fijar en los Objetivos 2020 de Educación y Formación un nuevo indicador que consistiría en que los Estados Miembros dispongan de al menos un 50% de alumnado en el nivel B1 o superior en el primer idioma extranjero¹.

Para la consecución de este propósito, se han incrementado cuantitativa y cualitativamente el limitado número de programas lingüísticos que se puso en marcha en toda España en 1996 con los programas bilingües British-MEC y las Secciones Hispano-Francesas, junto con los programas lingüísticos autonómicos que comenzaron en el año 2005. A su vez, las comunidades autónomas, con el apoyo del Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia, han lanzado programas de formación para que el profesorado, figura clave en el desarrollo de estos programas, actualice sus conocimientos en lenguas extranjeras y su didáctica.

Teniendo en cuenta este marco contextual el objetivo de este artículo es presentar los resultados de un estudio sobre la situación actual en la que se encuentran los docentes de AICLE (aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lengua extranjera) y de lengua extranjera, junto con sus problemas y necesidades a la hora de enseñar en las secciones bilingües y no bilingües de la Comunidad Autónoma de Castilla la Mancha. Para la consecución de este objetivo, este trabajo está estructurado del siguiente modo: en primer lugar, se presentan el origen y la distribución de los programas lingüísticos en Castilla la Mancha. En segundo lugar, se informa sobre la formación del profesorado en esta misma comunidad. Seguidamente se da paso al estudio en sí y para ello se muestra una encuesta realizada al profesorado AICLE y de lengua inglesa. A continuación se analizan los resultados obtenidos en las encuestas y, finalmente, se exponen las conclusiones que hemos alcanzado tras haber completado el trabajo de investigación.

2. Programas lingüísticos en Castilla la Mancha

En Castilla la Mancha comenzaron a desarrollarse 7 programas bilingües en educación primaria y secundaria con el proyecto British-MEC en 1996. Seguidamente, en 2005 esta cifra ascendió a 36 programas con la implantación del plan lingüístico denominado “Secciones Europeas”. Desde el año 2005 hasta la actualidad se ve un aumento progresivo en el número de Secciones Europeas incorporadas en educación primaria y secundaria. En total, para el curso académico 2015/2016 contamos con 605 programas lingüísticos de Secciones Europeas, distribuidos en centros de educación infantil y primaria y en centros de educación secundaria. A continuación, mostramos la tabla 1 en la que podemos apreciar cómo se han ido incorporando los programas a lo largo de los años y como, por ejemplo, el curso académico 2014/2015 fue en el que se produjeron más incorporaciones.

¹ Propuestas para la mejora de la calidad educativa. LOMCE. 10 de diciembre de 2013.

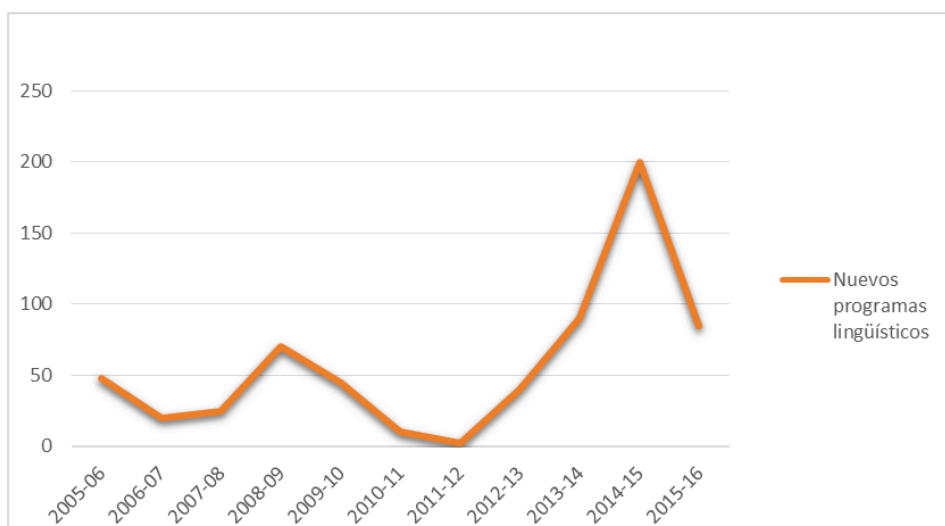


Tabla 1: Incorporación de programas lingüísticos en Castilla la Mancha según el curso académico.

En cuanto a la lengua extranjera implantada en estos 605 programas lingüísticos, podemos señalar que hay 563 programas de inglés, 39 de francés, 1 de italiano y 2 de alemán. En el gráfico 2 que se presenta a continuación se muestra claramente que el idioma que predomina en las Secciones Europeas es el inglés, seguido de la lengua francesa, y cómo las secciones de italiano y de alemán no llegan a representar el 1%.

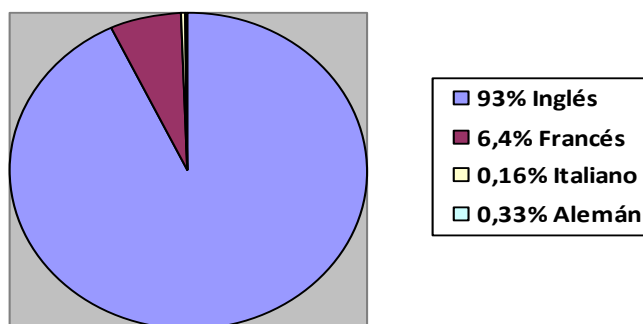


Gráfico 1: Porcentaje de Secciones por idioma. Curso 2015/2016.

Las Secciones Europeas están distribuidas por Castilla La Mancha en torno a las cinco provincias que componen la región. Como podemos apreciar en la figura 3, en la que se muestran todas las Secciones Europeas que se están desarrollando en la región Castellano-Manchega, la zona en la que se concentra el mayor número de secciones es la provincia de Toledo, donde actualmente se están desarrollando 209 programas de inglés y 12 de francés. Seguidamente se encuentra la provincia de Ciudad Real con 141 programas de inglés y 10 de francés. En Albacete, el número de programas de inglés es de 104 y el de

francés de 12. A su vez, esta provincia destaca por su inclusión de dos programas de alemán y uno de italiano. Las provincias de Guadalajara y Cuenca son las que cuentan con menos programas pero, a su vez, son las menos pobladas.



Figura 1: Distribución de los programas lingüísticos según provincias en Castilla La Mancha.

3. Formación del profesorado en Castilla La Mancha

Uno de los factores para garantizar la calidad en el desarrollo de los Programas Lingüísticos que acabamos de mencionar es la formación del profesorado. Este tema ha sido y es objeto de estudio debido a la necesidad de mejora que presenta en el territorio español (García Mayo, 2009; Fernández Cézar et al., 2009; Lasagabaster y Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010). En Castilla La Mancha, en concreto en la provincia de Cuenca, en la investigación llevada a cabo por Fernández Cézar et al. (2013:38), el 74,25% del profesorado de educación primaria de Secciones Europeas encuestado en el año 2013 consideró que necesitaba formación. Partiendo de esta base, a través del estudio que vamos a presentar seguidamente, desarrollado en el curso académico 2015/2016, comprobaremos si en tres años ha cambiado la opinión personal del profesorado acerca de su formación y función docente.

Actualmente son varios los aspectos a los que hay que hacer referencia para impartir enseñanzas bilingües con éxito en Castilla La Mancha. En primer lugar, debemos mencionar la formación inicial del profesorado. El profesorado que imparte contenidos y está en activo no ha tenido que acreditar en ningún momento su nivel de idioma extranjero y esto hace que un pequeño número de docentes se haya interesado por obtener un nivel intermedio en lenguas extranjeras. Además, en las primeras órdenes sobre Secciones Europeas de la administración no aparecía ningún requisito de acreditación de nivel lingüístico para iniciar el programa porque se pretendía que las posibles carencias lingüísticas que presentara el profesorado se solucionasen a través de un buen proyecto de formación permanente. A este respecto, las últimas instrucciones para el curso 2014/2015 y el Decreto 7/2014 sobre Plurilingüismo en Castilla La Mancha exigen al profesorado un nivel B2 en una lengua extranjera. Con el resultado de las encuestas que vamos a presentar seguidamente comprobaremos si esta exigencia se está llevando a cabo con todas las

consecuencias porque, si la administración sólo cuenta con el profesorado acreditado con un nivel B2 (MCERL), es muy probable que no se pueda garantizar la impartición de un mínimo de dos asignaturas (lo estipulado según el Decreto 7/2014 de plurilingüismo) en lengua extranjera y, por lo tanto, que no se pueda continuar con un gran número de Secciones Europeas.

En segundo lugar, la universidad juega un papel muy importante en la formación de los docentes puesto que es allí donde se forma el futuro maestro bilingüe. A este respecto, a pesar de que fue en 2005 cuando aparecieron los Programas de Secciones Europeas y la figura del maestro bilingüe, ha sido recientemente cuando se ha empezado a hacer mención a las enseñanzas bilingües y se ha comenzado a introducir la formación AICLE en los planes de estudios de grado de magisterio en la Universidad de Castilla La Mancha. Prueba de ello es la Facultad de Educación de Cuenca donde la asignatura AICLE, con 6 créditos de carga lectiva, empezó a impartirse en el curso 2012-2013. Sin embargo, en cuanto a la formación general en lengua extranjera, es importante mencionar que actualmente, con los estudios de grado, se requiere que todos los alumnos que cursan la mención de inglés acrediten, al finalizar sus estudios, un nivel B2 (MCERL). A su vez, el resto de alumnos de otras especialidades están obligados a alcanzar, al menos, un nivel B1 (MCERL) en una lengua extranjera. Este nivel de idioma puede que no sea suficiente para impartir enseñanzas bilingües pero es un punto de partida para los maestros de contenidos con el que antes no contábamos.

En tercer lugar, como acabamos de comentar, un buen plan de formación permanente es obligatorio y absolutamente necesario para poder asegurar los niveles de competencia en lengua extranjera por parte del profesorado. De este modo, el Decreto 7/2014, por el que se regula el Plurilingüismo, establece que la Consejería competente en materia de Educación desarrollará un plan de formación que garantice que el personal docente de los centros educativos de Castilla La Mancha pueda alcanzar una competencia oral y escrita suficiente para comunicarse y para desarrollar su actividad profesional en una segunda lengua extranjera, además de una actualización metodológica y pedagógica requerida para enseñar unos determinados contenidos a través de una lengua extranjera. En el siguiente apartado de este estudio mostraremos si el profesorado de lenguas extranjeras aprovecha este plan de formación permanente y, a su vez, si lo considera útil para su práctica docente.

4. Encuestas realizadas al profesorado de Castilla La Mancha:

Para acercarnos a la realidad de lo que está sucediendo en los centros educativos de Castilla La Mancha, a nivel de competencia en comunicación lingüística en lengua inglesa, decidimos preparar una encuesta para conocer la opinión del profesorado de idiomas sobre su práctica y formación docente teniendo en cuenta, como hemos mencionado anteriormente, que el profesor es una figura clave en el desarrollo de la educación y, en concreto, para el funcionamiento de los programas de Secciones Europeas en nuestra comunidad. En este sentido, el documento de McKinsey (2012:21), presentado por M^a Jesús Frigols y David Marsh en el informe de evaluación externa llevado a cabo en Canarias en 2014, afirma que los buenos maestros son esenciales para una educación de calidad.

La encuesta que vamos a presentar seguidamente, para cuya elaboración seguimos las aportaciones de, entre otros, Adelman (1981), quien propone ejemplos prácticos de cuestionarios dirigidos a padres,

docentes o alumnos, fue enviada a 80 centros educativos de infantil, primaria y secundaria de toda la región de Castilla La Mancha. De esos 80 centros, 100 profesores que imparten enseñanzas tradicionales de lengua inglesa, o una asignatura a través de la metodología AICLE, respondieron a ella de manera anónima. El contenido de la misma se centraba en conocer, a través de 9 preguntas de respuesta cerrada, el nivel de idioma extranjero que tienen los docentes, el porcentaje de la clase que imparten en la lengua extranjera, el interés por formarse y la opinión que tienen sobre el funcionamiento de los programas bilingües. Al final de esta encuesta incluimos un apartado de observaciones donde el profesorado podía comentar aspectos relevantes o llamativos sobre cualquier factor relacionado con la enseñanza de idiomas.

ENCUESTA AL PROFESORADO DE INGLÉS

La siguiente encuesta es totalmente anónima y sirve para ayudar a una investigación sobre el bilingüismo en Castilla la Mancha.

1.¿Qué nivel imparte?	Educación infantil y primaria Educación secundaria
2.¿Trabaja en un centro bilingüe?	SI NO
3.¿Cuál es su nivel de lengua inglesa?	A1 A2 B1 B2 C1 C2
4.¿Qué porcentaje de la clase imparte totalmente en inglés?	20% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%
5.¿Si no imparte el 100% de la clase en inglés a qué se debe?	-Los alumnos no tienen el nivel apropiado de inglés -Los alumnos presentan diferentes niveles de inglés -Problemas de disciplina y comportamiento -No me siento preparado para ello
6.¿Le gustaría asistir a un curso de nuevas metodologías y actividades para enseñar inglés?	SI NO
7.¿Cree que sería necesario un curso para refrescar/mejorar su nivel de inglés?	SI NO
8.¿Ha realizado algún curso de inglés o relacionado con la enseñanza de idiomas en el último año?	SI NO
9.¿Cree que el programa bilingüe funciona en su centro?	SI NO

OBSERVACIONES/ COMENTARIOS:

5. Resultados obtenidos en las encuestas

Una vez recopiladas las respuestas de las 100 encuestas vamos a analizar los resultados obtenidos por el profesorado encuestado de manera anónima, examinando cada una de las preguntas propuestas de manera individual.

En la primera pregunta sobre el nivel educativo que imparten los docentes, como podemos apreciar en el gráfico 4, el 50% de los maestros encuestados imparte docencia en educación infantil y primaria y el otro 50% en educación secundaria. En total, de los 100 profesores de lengua inglesa o de AICLE que han sido encuestados en la comunidad de Castilla La Mancha, contamos con 50 de cada nivel educativo. Teniendo en cuenta que actualmente se están desarrollando 563 programas de Secciones Europeas (en lengua inglesa) en nuestra región, este número de profesores representa una cifra que, aunque no es elevada, aporta información muy relevante a la hora de interpretar los resultados del presente estudio.

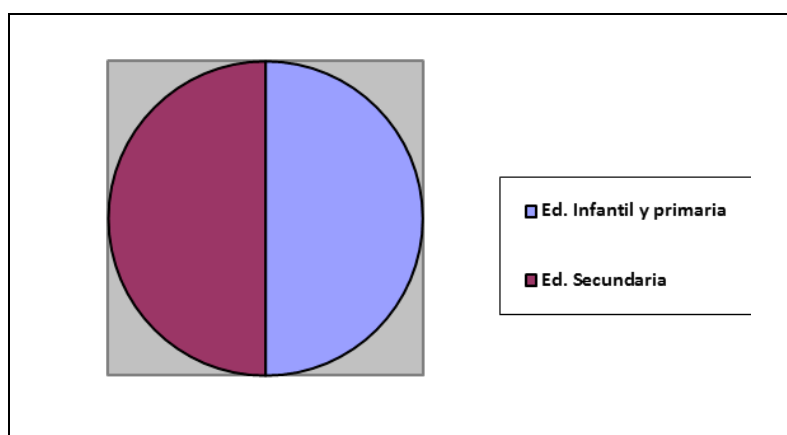


Gráfico 2. Pregunta número 1 del cuestionario: ¿Qué nivel educativo imparte?

En la segunda pregunta, respecto al número de profesores de inglés encuestados que trabajan en centros bilingües y no bilingües, comprobamos en el gráfico 5 que el 32% del profesorado de infantil y primaria trabaja en centros bilingües frente a un 68% que presta sus servicios en centros no bilingües. En cuanto a profesorado de educación secundaria observamos una proporción muy similar: el 30% de profesorado ejerce su labor docente en centros bilingües respecto al 70% de profesorado que imparte docencia en centros no bilingües. Por lo tanto, los resultados evidencian que solamente un tercio de las personas encuestadas trabaja en centros bilingües. Al mismo tiempo, en Castilla La Mancha, el número de profesorado involucrado en las Secciones Bilingües representa, según la información obtenida por la Junta de Comunidades de Castilla La Mancha, un tercio del total del profesorado.

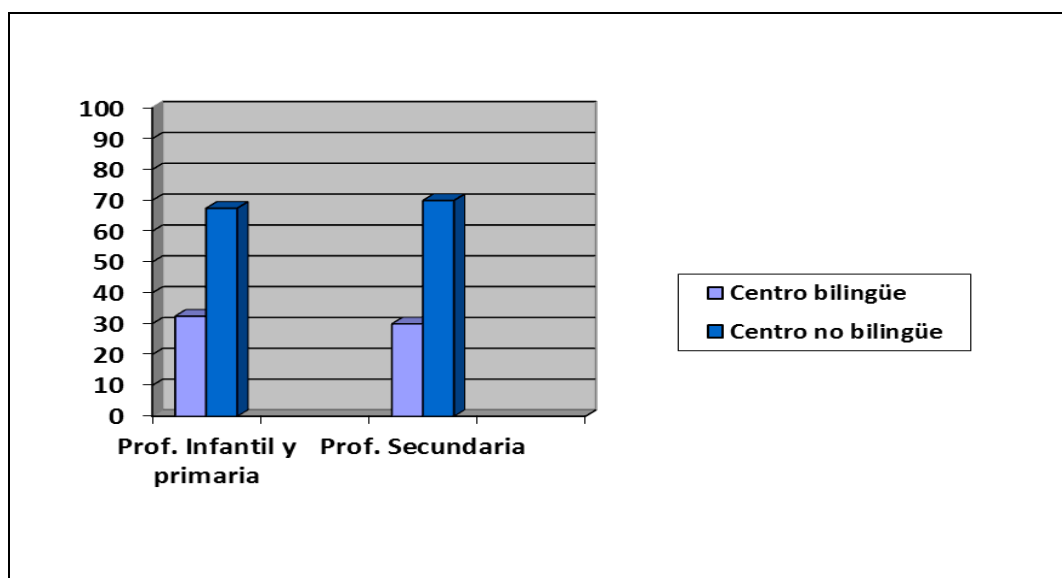


Gráfico 3. Pregunta número 2 del cuestionario: ¿Trabaja en un centro bilingüe?

En la tercera pregunta de la encuesta hemos querido conocer el nivel de lengua inglesa que posee el profesorado. Así, analizando los resultados de las encuestas obtenidas hemos podido comprobar que todos los docentes (tanto en infantil y primaria como en secundaria) poseen un nivel B1 o superior. En el caso de los ejercientes en educación infantil y primaria un 10% de los encuestados afirma tener nivel B1 mientras que el 60% posee un nivel B2 y un 30% un nivel C1. De este modo, observamos que el nivel de inglés que predomina en este nivel educativo de infantil y primaria es el B2 (ver gráfico 6). Sin embargo, en secundaria, los resultados son diferentes, ya que el gráfico 6 nos muestra que predomina el nivel C1 con un 50% del profesorado frente a un 35% que poseen el nivel C2 y un 15% que cuentan con un nivel B2. Obviamente, comprobamos que el nivel de lengua inglesa que presenta el profesorado de educación secundaria es superior al del profesorado de infantil y primaria.

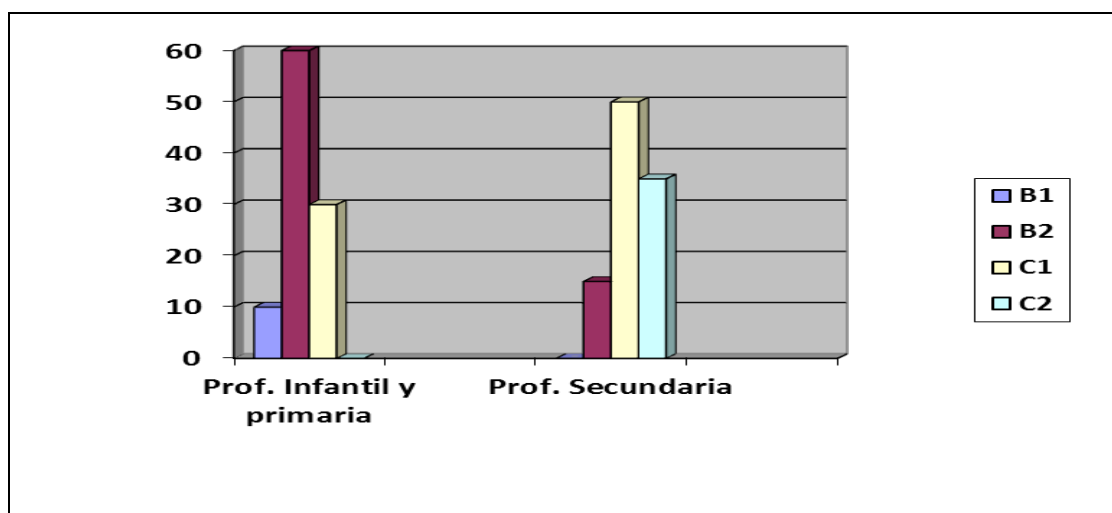


Gráfico 4. Pregunta 3 del cuestionario: ¿Cuál es su nivel de lengua inglesa?

A su vez, no podemos olvidar que la normativa de Plurilingüismo (Decreto 7/2014) obliga al profesorado (tanto del nivel de infantil y primaria como de secundaria) a estar en posesión del título de B2 para poder impartir docencia en los centros con Sección Bilingüe. A este respecto cabe destacar que el 10% del profesorado encuestado, que tiene el título de B1 y trabaja en centros con programas lingüísticos, admite tener intención de seguir avanzando en el idioma para llegar al nivel B2 del MERL aunque no es una tarea fácil debido a la falta de inversión en formación para el profesorado por parte de las autoridades regionales.

En la pregunta número cuatro, cuando hemos preguntado a los docentes sobre el porcentaje de la clase que imparten totalmente en inglés (bien en la clase de AICLE o en la de lengua inglesa), podemos ver, en el gráfico 7, que en educación infantil y primaria el 30% de los encuestados imparten entre un 50% y un 60% de la totalidad de la clase en lengua inglesa seguido del 20% de los encuestados, que imparten un 80% de la clase en inglés. Esto indica que más de la mitad del profesorado imparte entre un 50% y un 80% de la clase en inglés. Además, es destacable que el 14% de los encuestados afirma impartir el 90% de las clases en la lengua extranjera. En educación secundaria el resultado es similar, ya que encontramos que el 47% (un 17% más que en educación infantil y primaria) de docentes imparten entre el 50% y el 60% en lengua inglesa. Sin embargo, en este nivel no hay un número alto de profesores que impartan entre el 70% y el 80% de sus clases en inglés. Solamente el 17% del profesorado afirma impartir el 90% de sus clases en lengua extranjera. Con estos datos podemos llegar a la conclusión de que, a este nivel educativo de educación secundaria, nos encontramos con dos grupos diferenciados. Uno, en el que gran parte del profesorado (un 47%) imparte entre un 50% y un 60% de sus clases en inglés y otro, en el que un 26% afirma impartir entre un 80% y un 90% de su docencia en la lengua extranjera objeto de estudio (en nuestro caso el inglés). Con estos resultados se puede comprobar que en Castilla La Mancha no se cumple la normativa de Plurilingüismo establecida en el Decreto 7/2014, de 22 de enero, que regula los Programas Lingüísticos ya que, para todos los programas (ya sean de iniciación, desarrollo o excelencia) y en todos los niveles educativos, la impartición de un área, específica o troncal, debe de ser completamente en el idioma extranjero elegido por el centro. En nuestra región, como se observa en el gráfico 7, sólo el 6% del profesorado de educación infantil y primaria y el 10% del profesorado de educación secundaria cumplen este requisito. Curiosamente, debemos señalar que este porcentaje de profesorado que usa la lengua inglesa en el 100% de sus clases no imparte docencia en programas bilingües, sino en clases ordinarias de lengua inglesa, dato que refuerza el no cumplimiento de la normativa vigente respecto al programa de Secciones Europeas.

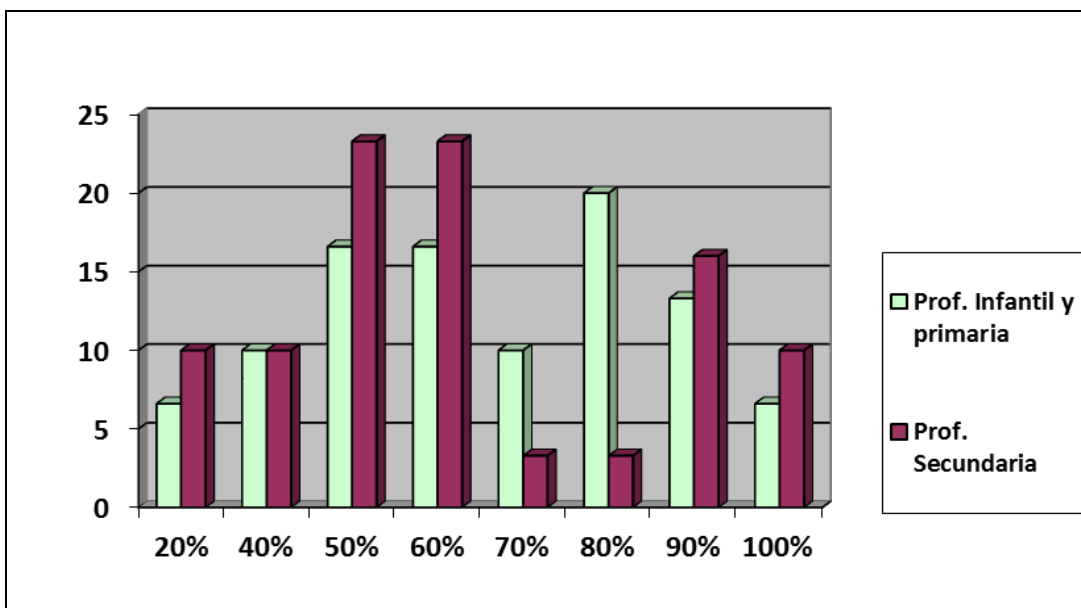


Gráfico 5. Pregunta 4 del cuestionario: ¿Qué porcentaje de la clase imparte totalmente en inglés?

En la pregunta número cinco, respecto a los motivos por los cuales no se imparte el 100% de la clase en lengua inglesa, podemos destacar que tanto en educación infantil y primaria como en educación secundaria los motivos por los que se produce este hecho son los mismos en ambos niveles. Así, como vemos en el gráfico 8, el motivo principal es el número 2 (los alumnos presentan diferentes niveles de inglés), seguido del número 1 (los alumnos no tienen el nivel apropiado de inglés) y del número 3 (problemas de disciplina y comportamiento). El motivo número 4 (no me siento preparado para ello) no es significativo puesto que sólo ha sido marcado por un docente de 100 encuestados.

¿Si no imparte el 100% de la clase en inglés a qué se debe?

- 1. Los alumnos no tienen el nivel apropiado de inglés
- 2. Los alumnos presentan diferentes niveles de inglés
- 3. Problemas de disciplina y comportamiento
- 4. No me siento preparado para ello

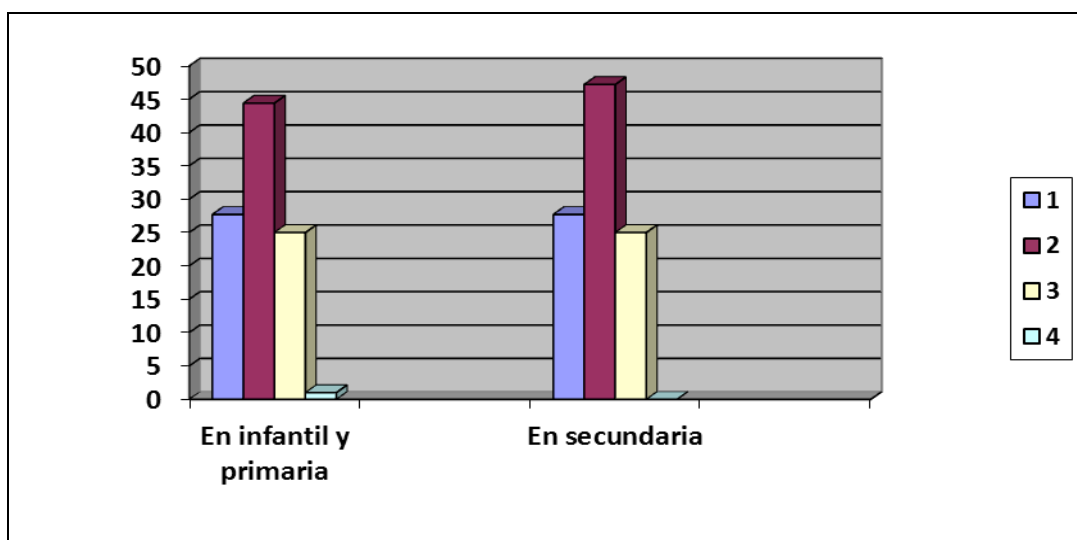


Gráfico 6. Pregunta 5 del cuestionario: Si no imparte el 100% de la clase en inglés ¿a qué se debe?

En la pregunta número seis, como podemos observar en el gráfico número 9, al preguntar a los docentes por su interés en asistir a cursos de nuevas metodologías y actividades en inglés, tanto en educación infantil y primaria como en secundaria, la mayor parte del profesorado está interesado en asistir. En infantil y primaria no desean participar un 10% del profesorado mientras que en secundaria es un 30% el profesorado que muestra su negativa en esta pregunta. Esto demuestra un menor interés hacia cursos de formación metodológica por parte del profesorado de secundaria que de primaria.

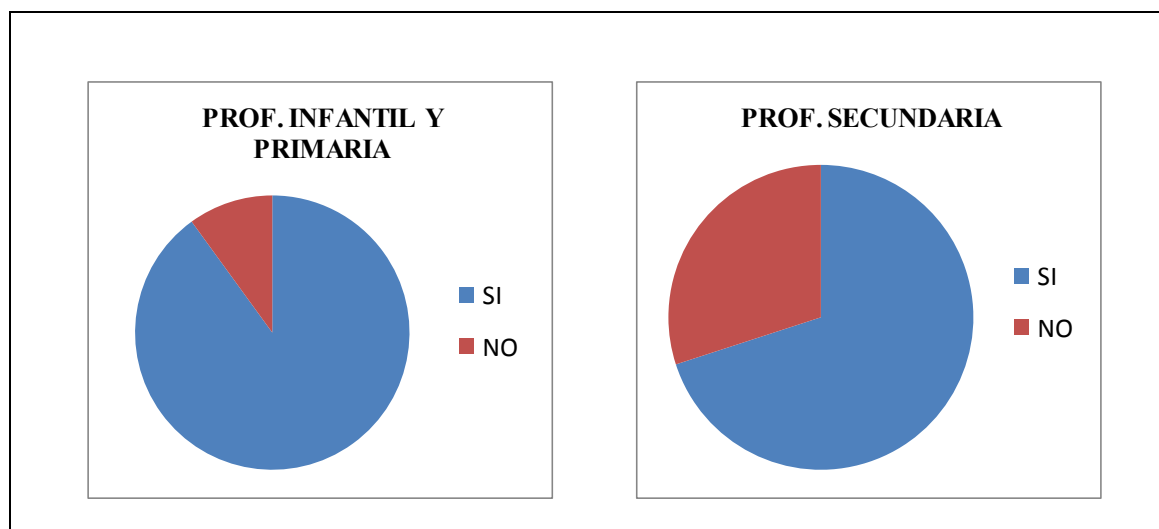


Gráfico 7. Pregunta 6 del cuestionario: ¿Le gustaría asistir a un curso de nuevas metodologías y actividades para enseñar inglés?

En la pregunta número siete le hemos preguntado a los docentes si creen que sería necesario un curso para refrescar/mejorar su nivel de inglés. Al valorar las respuestas obtenidas en las encuestas hemos podido

comprobar que el 97 % del profesorado de infantil y primaria considera imprescindible una mayor formación lingüística en lengua extranjera para mejorar su nivel de idioma, mientras que en educación secundaria los datos recabados son inferiores (un 70% está dispuesto a participar y un 30% no). Estos resultados, que apreciamos en los gráficos 9 y 10, confirman que el interés por reciclarse (tanto en nuevas metodologías como en lengua inglesa) que demuestra el profesorado de educación secundaria es visiblemente menor que el que indican los docentes de educación infantil y primaria. Como señala Travé (2013:393), estos datos nos evidencian que “hay un sector importante del profesorado que no está interesado en reciclarse”.

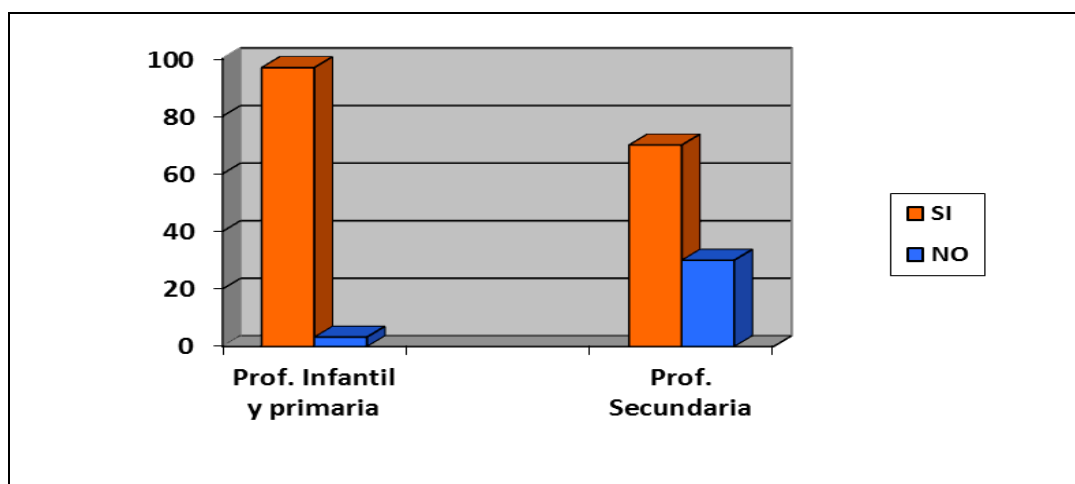


Gráfico 8. Pregunta 7 del cuestionario: ¿Cree que sería necesario un curso para refrescar/mejorar su nivel de inglés?

En la pregunta número ocho, continuando en la línea de formación y reciclaje del profesorado, hemos preguntado si en el último año han hecho algún tipo de curso (online o presencial) de idiomas o relacionado con la enseñanza de los mismos. Como podemos observar en el gráfico 11, en la etapa de educación infantil y primaria un 38% del profesorado los ha realizado. Esta cifra contrasta significativamente con el 8% del profesorado de educación secundaria que ha afirmado haber participado en algún curso este último año. Estas respuestas demuestran que hay algún motivo que impide que el profesorado realice cursos, tanto de metodología como de lengua inglesa, puesto que en la pregunta anterior las respuestas obtenidas indicaban que el profesorado tenía mucho interés en la realización de los mismos. Al final de la encuesta, en el apartado de observaciones, podremos saber si se hace algún tipo de referencia a este aspecto tan llamativo.

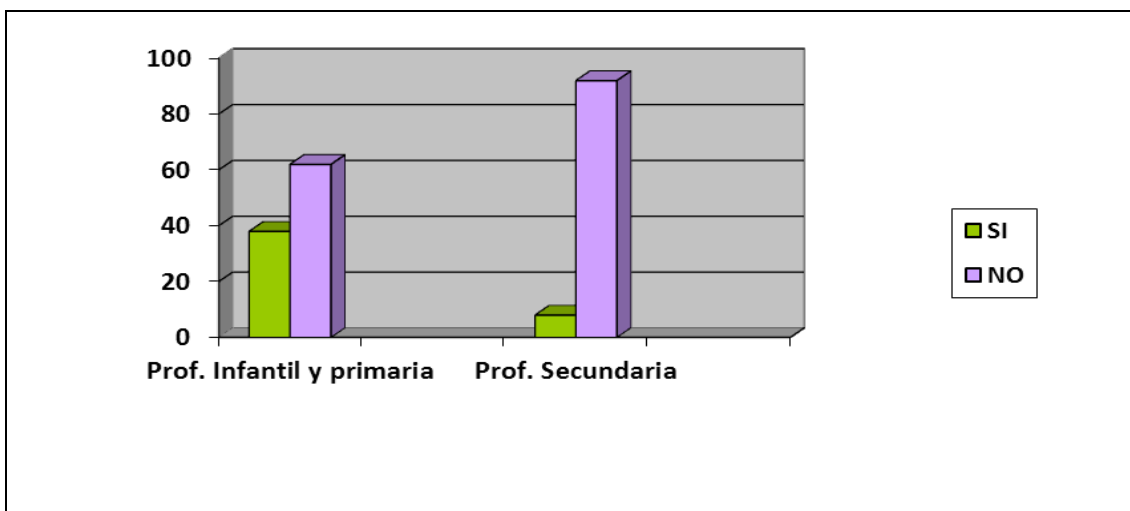


Gráfico 9. Pregunta 8 del cuestionario: ¿Ha realizado algún curso relacionado con la enseñanza de idiomas en el último año?

En la pregunta número nueve, última pregunta de nuestro cuestionario, hemos querido interesarnos por la opinión personal de los docentes respecto al programa bilingüe de su centro (si prestan servicios en un centro bilingüe) o de alguno que conozcan en su entorno cercano. Por ello hemos preguntado si creen que el programa bilingüe funciona en su centro o en los que conoce. Analizando el resultado del gráfico 12 constatamos que en la etapa de infantil y primaria el 75% del profesorado aprecia que el programa bilingüe funciona adecuadamente frente a un 25% que opina lo contrario. En educación secundaria hay un porcentaje de un 60% del profesorado que cree que los programas bilingües funcionan y un 40% que opina lo opuesto.

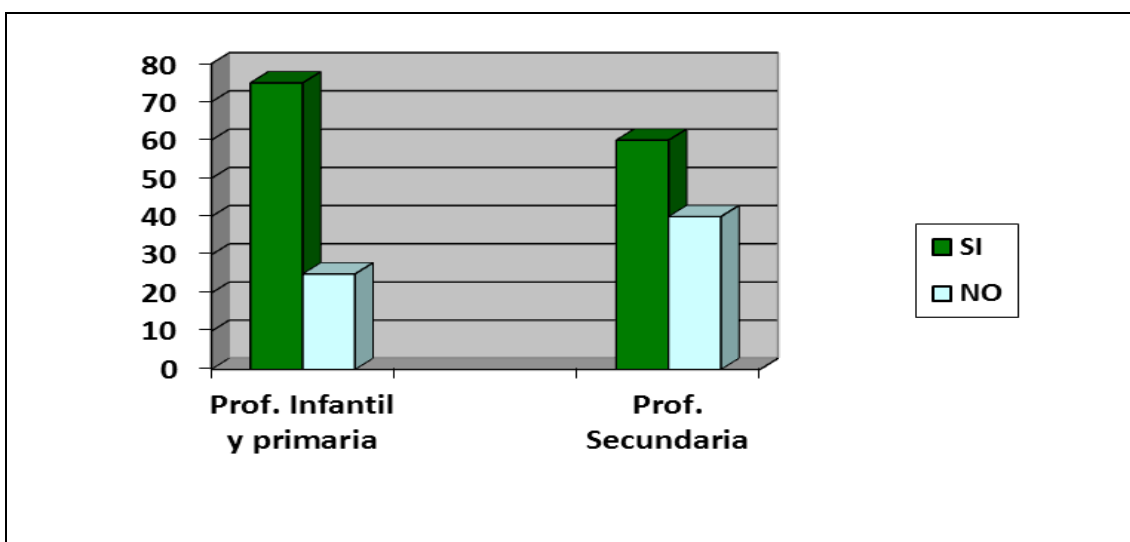


Gráfico 10. Pregunta 9 del cuestionario: ¿Cree que el programa bilingüe funciona en su centro?

Tras recopilar las encuestas, y a nivel privado, debo comentar que mantuve una charla distendida con los compañeros de varios centros educativos, en concreto con los que creen que el programa bilingüe no funciona, ya que quería saber más acerca de su opinión negativa a este respecto. La respuesta de la

mayoría fue muy concreta. Por un lado, indicaban que no les gusta el modo en el que se ha implantado y creen que no han obtenido suficiente información y formación para llevar el programa bilingüe a la práctica. Varios explicaban que en zonas rurales es muy complicado y que, aunque se esfuerzan por lograr buenos resultados, es muy difícil conseguirlo debido al perfil del alumnado, que presenta incluso problemas para afrontar las clases en su lengua materna. Además, la motivación de estos por el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera es baja. También hacían referencia a la escasa y necesaria oferta de formación que les proporcionaba el centro, destacando que los cursos formativos que han realizado han sido online u ofertados por otras instituciones privadas como MacMillan. Todos ellos añadían que, al igual que señalan Ball y Lindsay (2010:180), “los profesores AICLE necesitan reforzar su formación regularmente sobre todo en competencia en comunicación lingüística en lengua extranjera”.

A todo esto hay que añadir un dato muy significativo que aportan los maestros interinos, maestros especializados en una o varias materias que no tienen la plaza en propiedad en un determinado centro y que, dependiendo de las necesidades de la región, son requeridos para cubrir un puesto de maestro por un corto o largo periodo de tiempo. Estos maestros destacan que, debido a la implantación masiva de centros bilingües en la región, se han visto obligados a aprender inglés en poco tiempo para poder conseguir un puesto de trabajo temporal. La mayoría de ellos nos indican que han realizado un curso muy costoso y semipresencial que les ofrece un título de nivel B1 en lengua inglesa, reconocido a nivel nacional, pero no los conocimientos suficientes para poder desenvolverse en el aula en lengua inglesa. Asimismo, con este título el profesorado afirma que puede cubrir puestos de trabajo únicamente en lengua inglesa, ya que en su lengua materna ya no son requeridos. El resultado de esta situación que explica el profesorado interino no es positivo ya que, como ellos confirman, no tienen los conocimientos necesarios para impartir una asignatura en lengua extranjera. Por este motivo, las clases que imparten no ayudan en el desarrollo de la competencia comunicativa en lengua extranjera y la mayor parte de los contenidos son traducidos al español en el aula. Sin embargo, casi todos los maestros encuestados confirman que están haciendo un esfuerzo por intentar ampliar sus conocimientos de lengua extranjera y hacer que sus clases sean más productivas usando la metodología AICLE (que algunos, sorprendentemente, aún desconocen). Con estas apreciaciones estamos totalmente de acuerdo con Laorden y Peñafiel (2010:340) cuando indican que “las carencias formativas del profesorado siguen constituyendo una limitación en los centros bilingües”.

Por otro lado, y centrándonos en el profesorado de secundaria, podemos destacar que afirmaban que el alumnado llegaba al instituto motivado y con un nivel aceptable en lengua inglesa. El problema que ellos aprecian es que los contenidos de las destrezas no lingüísticas como ciencias, historia o música, entre otras, se simplifican por la dificultad que conlleva, tanto para el alumnado como para el profesorado no nativo. Asimismo, manifiestan que no en todos los centros se pueden ofrecer muchas asignaturas en inglés para realizar una continuación eficaz y favorable del programa bilingüe. Sin embargo, todo el profesorado está de acuerdo en que, con los programas bilingües, el alumnado ha mejorado considerablemente su nivel de idioma extranjero.

6. Conclusiones sobre las encuestas al profesorado

Tras haber realizado el análisis de las respuestas obtenidas en las encuestas son varias las conclusiones que se han alcanzado. En primer lugar hemos comprobado que el nivel de idioma extranjero predominante del profesorado de educación infantil y primaria es el B2 del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia mientras que en educación secundaria es el C1. Ahora bien, aunque según el Decreto 7/2014 todos los docentes deberían tener el nivel B2 en lengua extranjera, observamos que hay un notable porcentaje de maestros que imparte docencia en lengua inglesa con un nivel B1 de idioma extranjero.

En segundo lugar, en cuanto al porcentaje de clase que se imparte en lengua inglesa, el profesorado nos indica que en educación infantil y primaria está entre el 50% y el 80% del total de la clase. En educación secundaria es menos, situándose entre un 50% y un 60%. Con estos datos podemos afirmar que en ninguno de los niveles se imparte el 100% de la clase en lengua inglesa, ni siquiera en los centros bilingües. Este punto es altamente destacable debido a que, según la normativa de Plurilingüismo en Castilla La Mancha, en concreto el Decreto 7/2014, el 100% de la asignatura específica o troncal debe impartirse completamente en el idioma extranjero elegido por el centro.

En tercer lugar, haciendo referencia a los motivos principales por los que el profesorado no imparte el 100% de la clase en lengua inglesa vemos que en ambos niveles educativos los docentes nos indican que los alumnos no tienen el nivel apropiado o que entre ellos presentan niveles muy diferentes.

En cuanto a la formación docente se refiere, es evidente que el profesorado de educación infantil y primaria tiene mayor interés que el de secundaria en la realización de cursos de nuevas metodologías, al igual que de refrescar su nivel de lengua inglesa. Sin embargo, también hay un sector importante del profesorado que, como señala Travé (2013), no está interesado en reciclarse. A su vez, es destacable mencionar que en el curso 2014-2015, un mayor porcentaje de profesorado de educación infantil y primaria ha realizado cursos de formación, pero no proporcionados por la Junta de Comunidades de Castilla la Mancha para la que prestan sus servicios sino por otras entidades privadas. Esto parece ser una deficiencia en los programas de formación que ofrece la Junta de Comunidades de Castilla la Mancha.

Sobre el funcionamiento de los programas bilingües, un 75% del profesorado de educación infantil y primaria cree que funciona adecuadamente frente a un 60% del profesorado de secundaria que comparte la misma opinión. Sin embargo, ambos coinciden en que el nivel de idioma de los alumnos (independientemente de que estudien en un centro bilingüe o no) se está incrementando, dato muy positivo a pesar de las deficiencias que venimos mencionando.

Finalmente, es mencionable la percepción del profesorado sobre el modo en el que se ha implantado el AICLE en su centro, ya que la mayoría muestra cierta insatisfacción en este sentido, en parte debido a las razones que hemos comentado anteriormente: la carencia de formación e información, la dificultad para desarrollarlo en zonas rurales, la falta de auxiliares de conversación en su centro con sección bilingüe y la opinión del profesorado interino que reconoce haberse sentido forzado a aprender inglés para poder trabajar en centros bilingües impartiendo, en lengua inglesa, la materia en la que son especialistas.

Con estos datos hemos de señalar que es imprescindible que la comunidad autónoma Castellano Manchega invierta en recursos educativos para la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras y proponga una

formación continua y obligatoria para el profesorado de idiomas ya que, con escasos recursos y sin formación, es muy arriesgado llevar a cabo programas bilingües de manera exitosa y, a su vez, poder incrementar el nivel de competencia en comunicación lingüística en lengua extranjera de los estudiantes de Castilla La Mancha. Dicho esto, es igualmente notable que, a pesar de las deficiencias detectadas, el profesorado considera que los programas bilingües que se están llevando a cabo en la actualidad están contribuyendo a mejorar las destrezas comunicativas en lengua inglesa del alumnado.

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INCORPORATING PROBLEM-ORIENTED POLICING METHODOLOGIES INTO THE SYLLABUS OF AN ENGLISH FOR LAW ENFORCEMENT COURSE

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Abstract:

The emphasis on problem-solving as an effective strategy of community policing stems from innovative work on problem-oriented policing (POP) by the University of Wisconsin Law School, with SARA (Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment) as its most widespread model. The grouping of commonplace units of police business (incidents, complaints, crimes...) into larger units of analysis known as 'problems' allows for the implementation of a case study methodology that proves itself not only useful as an instructional format for trainee officers, but also provides an effective pedagogical tool for the English for Specific Purposes curriculum at the Spanish National Police Academy.

Keywords: ESP; English for Law Enforcement; Problem-Oriented Policing; SARA

Resumen:

La investigación sobre el modelo de Policía Comunitaria Orientada a la Resolución de problemas (*Problem-Oriented Policing*) como estrategia para la colaboración policial nace a partir de un trabajo innovador de la Universidad de Wisconsin Law School sobre acción policial orientada a la resolución de problemas. Su modelo más conocido es el llamado SARA (siglas de *Scanning* (exploración), *Analysis* (análisis), *Response* (respuesta) y *Assessment* (evaluación)). El hecho de agrupar las diferentes actuaciones policiales en unidades de análisis más amplias llamadas *problemas*, permite a los policías en formación aplicar una metodología implementada en los estudios de caso. Dicha metodología es una herramienta útil en cuanto al formato instructivo de los agentes y, a su vez, es una herramienta pedagógica en el curriculum de Inglés para Usos Específicos en la Escuela Nacional de Policía.

Palabras clave: inglés para Usos Específicos; inglés para fuerzas policiales; SARA; Policía Comunitaria Orientada a la Resolución de Problemas.

1. Theoretical background

Policing is a profession based upon solving problems. Traditional policing is incident driven: the police receive a complaint, respond to it and clear the incident, although the underlying conditions are not addressed and therefore more complaints of the same kind are likely to proliferate (Cox, McCamey and Scaramella, 2013). Officers must be proactive and learn to look beyond a particular incident they may be facing at any given moment, to gain a larger perspective of the underlying community problem, which can then be targeted to reduce crime and guide police discretion (Thurman and Jamieson, 2015). Clarke and

Eck defined a problem as “a recurring set of related harmful events in a community that members of the public expect the police to address” (2005, 26).

The emphasis on problem-solving as an effective strategy of community policing stems from innovative work on problem-oriented policing (POP), undertaken by the University of Wisconsin Law School (Goldstein, 1990), and rooted in the theories of environmental criminology and situational crime prevention. SARA, which stands for Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment (Eck and Spelman, 1987), is its most widespread model, and was first used by the Newport News (Virginia) Police Department. The term “problem-oriented policing”, nowadays widely endorsed by American and British police, was conceived and coined in 1979 by the American professor of law Herman Goldstein (after whom the prestigious Herman Goldstein Award for Excellence in Problem-Oriented Policing is named) and, according to Eck (2006), it comprises three core principles: *empirical* (police have to deal with a wide range of problems), *normative* (police have to reduce problems rather than simply respond to incidents and apply the law) and *scientific* (police must take a scientific approach to crime problems) (Braga, 2014: 117).

Research showed that problem-oriented policing and problem-solving techniques could be implemented throughout a police department (Ikerd, 2007: 8). Other law enforcement agencies saw the utility of the strategy and started to design their own models shortly afterwards. Thus, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police adopted the CAPRA acronym for its problem-solving model, which stands for Clients, Acquire/Analyze information, Partnerships, Responses, and Assessment of action taken (More & More, 2012). It goes beyond SARA by incorporating two important components: clients (the citizens whose problems need addressing) and partnerships (working together with the community to solve problems). The model evolved to SCAPRA when the Police Corps in Baltimore added the S for the Safety of the officer, and later to SECAPRA, when the Mid-Atlantic Regional Community Policing Institute located at Johns Hopkins University added Ethics. Officers are encouraged by POP to take a holistic approach and work with citizens and other agencies to find solutions to recurrent problems (Cox, McCamey and Scaramella, 2013). Garner introduced an extension of POP he called solution-oriented policing (SOP), that “places the emphasis on the most important aspect of the police-community interaction: solutions” (2004, 44).

Two problem-solving processes have since been used in the United Kingdom. One, adopted by the Home Office after Paul Eklom’s research, is a development of SARA called the Five I’s for Intelligence, Interventions, Implementation, Involvement, and Impact (Clarke and Eck, 2013). The other, employed by the London Metropolitan Police, involves a long process with the following steps (Cordner, 2007: 1157): identification of the source of the demand; demand; overview of the problem; aim in general; problem; personal aim; research; analysis; options; responses (to negotiate and initiate action plan); evaluation (was the aim met?); review (what went well?); and success (to share good practice).

All these models have proven that following a uniform format enables a systematic review of a problem to achieve well-developed, targeted responses. After these successful experiences, the U.S. Department of Justice established in 1999 the Center for Problem-Oriented Policing to advance the practice of POP in democratic societies. Its web site is currently supported by The School of Criminal Justice, at State University of New York (Albany).

2. Research question

The grouping of commonplace units of police business (e.g., incidents, complaints, crimes) into larger units of analysis known as ‘problems’ (Scott, 2003) allows for the implementation of a case study methodology that proves itself not only useful as an instructional format for trainee law enforcers (Anderson, Krathwohl and Bloom, 2001). Additionally, it provides an effective and innovative pedagogical tool for the EFL curriculum at the Spanish National Police Academy, a Centre adscribed to the University of Salamanca.

3. Method

The ESP syllabus of the second course of the Executive Scale of the Spanish National Police (CEFR B1 level, experienced *subinspectores* in the promotion course, 40 year olds in average) includes target language input focused on case-based reasoning as a problem-solving paradigm. Problem-based learning (PBL) suits student officers well, since it is “active learning, oriented to adults and focused on practice in professional contexts” (Wilkinson, 2008: 58).

English lessons occupy only two hours in the trainee officers’ weekly schedule, and the task-based methodology for such a limited curriculum must necessarily be student-centred, dynamic and practical, closely connected to actual police functions. Further, it must apply a discipline enculturation process by means of strategies such as the use of authentic materials, target situations, role plays, simulations and case studies with clear outcomes and progress perceived by members of the group as well-grounded expectations on their part. Applying these methodologies helps overcome the initial reluctancy of trainee law enforcers to learn a foreign language, since it is commonly perceived as being far from their career and professional practice.

In the course syllabus, case studies are dealt with by students, who in groups identify the topic or ‘problem’ (e.g., bullying, domestic violence, radicalization, burglary, hooliganism, riots, drugs sale near schools, child pornography, sexual slavery), analyse it using POP models, respond to it using their own practical knowledge and authentic police-related materials, and present their conclusions to their classmates. The rest of the class contributes to peers’ presentations, assessing them and providing feedback. A response to a situation is not unique: students discover fresh insights from the experience of colleagues who have tried different approaches to solving a problem that every officer can recognise as familiar, and also see the usefulness of English as a means of real communication.

The three-stage procedure is articulated as follows:

1. At the beginning of the year, there is an initial lockstep lead-in stage where trainee law enforcers activate their prior professional knowledge when the English teacher elicits from them the concepts of incident versus problem. The trainer briefly proposes several average incidents or cases, as short written paragraphs first read out loud and then provided to trainee officers, and students individually suggest the problem behind them. As a follow-up activity, the class watches some film clips and video excerpts of news bulletins taken from TV channels like CNN or BBC, and brainstorms the problems underneath the

actual items depicted or reported. With the visual backup (both images and closed captioning) and their own knowledge of the field, they can easily get the gist of the texts.

Finally, in the same class period, groups of three to five students, in no more than ten lines, compose a real life critical incident they have witnessed or heard about (e.g., a man entered a kindergarten with no apparent reason for being there, which created alarm among parents and teachers). Each group reads its scenario aloud to the rest of the class, and together the students seek to detect the problem/s (in this example, it could be a case of child abuse, child pornography, abduction...). Thus, in a PPP (Presentation – Practice – Production) sequence, the four major skills are integrated in the lesson in a balanced way.

The activity is repeated at least twice in the following class periods until students are familiar with it and a range of different social problems have been identified and discussed. The teacher may suggest a given problem if it is relevant and the students have not focused on it yet. The incidents or cases serve as the framework for learning and are kept in a portfolio as classroom materials to be used again.

2. In the second stage, the trainer gives input on problem-solving methods used by police forces all over the world, hands out instances of cases analysed with a specific method taken from a shortlist of recommended bibliography with online access, and asks the trainee law enforcers, as team work, to retrieve the incidents they composed in the last months and respond to them with a POP model of their choice from the ones introduced by the teacher. Both SARA and SECAPRA are commonly preferred by students since they are simple, versatile and practical models. However, students must be aware that with complex problems the process may not be always linear and follow the separate steps in order: some steps may occur simultaneously, or progressing to the next step may require going back to the previous one to develop it more in depth (Weisburd & Braga, 2006: 134). Finally, the groups present their responses to the rest of the class and there is an “assessment of response” phase as a whole class discussion that is conducted orally to get benchmarking. The trainer’s role is to guide and channel the discussions, to keep them fluent without letting some students dominate while others are reluctant to speak up, and to move them towards a productive conclusion.

3. The third stage is twofold and ongoing throughout the academic year: Groups conduct a search in the internet for case-study police guides, investigate other existing POP models, contact the English-speaking country police forces that mainly employ them to explore strengths and weaknesses, and finally at the end of the course as project work, develop their own problem-solving model, trying to use an acronym to denominate it and designing a template to structure and facilitate the assessment of responses to critical incidents. Models are presented by each group to the whole class and are evaluated by the teacher and the peers. Each group then self-assesses its own model and how well they conducted their explanation. Finally, following a “reaching a consensus” communicative technique, each class chooses the best model of all to be presented to other classes.

When using problem-oriented methodology in the ESP course, it is essential to be aware of the difference between the classroom and real life. As POP exercises are conducted in a classroom environment, the resulting decisions may differ from those made on the spot by law enforcers confronted by stressful circumstances that include community, administration and peer group pressure.

A procedure like this engages and motivates student officers, since it links classroom activities with the real use of language in Law Enforcement environments, both in English-speaking situations and in their own prior professional experience in interactions carried out in Spanish.

Problem-oriented e-folios elaborated by trainee law enforcers can be uploaded online for the perusal of prospective students in the following years, and be exploited as exchange materials for other police training schools all over the world where English is studied as a foreign language.

4. Results

On linguistic terms, incorporating POP methodologies into the ESP syllabus of a police academy provides meaningful input for introducing relevant specific subject matter language, reinforces long-term retention of vocabulary and is an adequate backdrop for carrying out police-related communicative activities that enhance fluency.

Beyond the linguistic benefits derived from it, this approach creates a positive atmosphere in the classroom, as it improves students' motivation, self-awareness and self-confidence, builds relationships, and involves learners effectively in their own learning process. It increases the trainee law enforcers' enjoyment of the topic and hence their desire to communicate in the target language. It encourages broad research and provides relevant input for police professionals, linking the classroom with real life. Besides, it supports both autonomous, self-directed lifelong learning and cooperative team work and strengthens key skills such as content area knowledge acquisition, genre elaboration, critical thinking, reflexive practice, professional judgment, information gathering and analysis, as well as interaction and presentation skills. It is also compatible with our expanding global society, and favours intercultural competence, since student officers get an overview of the social contexts where foreign police forces operate and can establish a comparison between the responses applied to the same problems law enforcers face in different parts of the world, which may vary to accommodate to the characteristics and needs of the community.

5. Conclusions

Problem-oriented methodologies, which have revealed very helpful for community safety and response to crime, are also a highly beneficial resource for the ESP classroom in a law enforcement syllabus and are entitled to find their way into any police academy curriculum. Other ESP areas such as Health Sciences or Law could also benefit from integrating this approach in their foreign language courses.

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