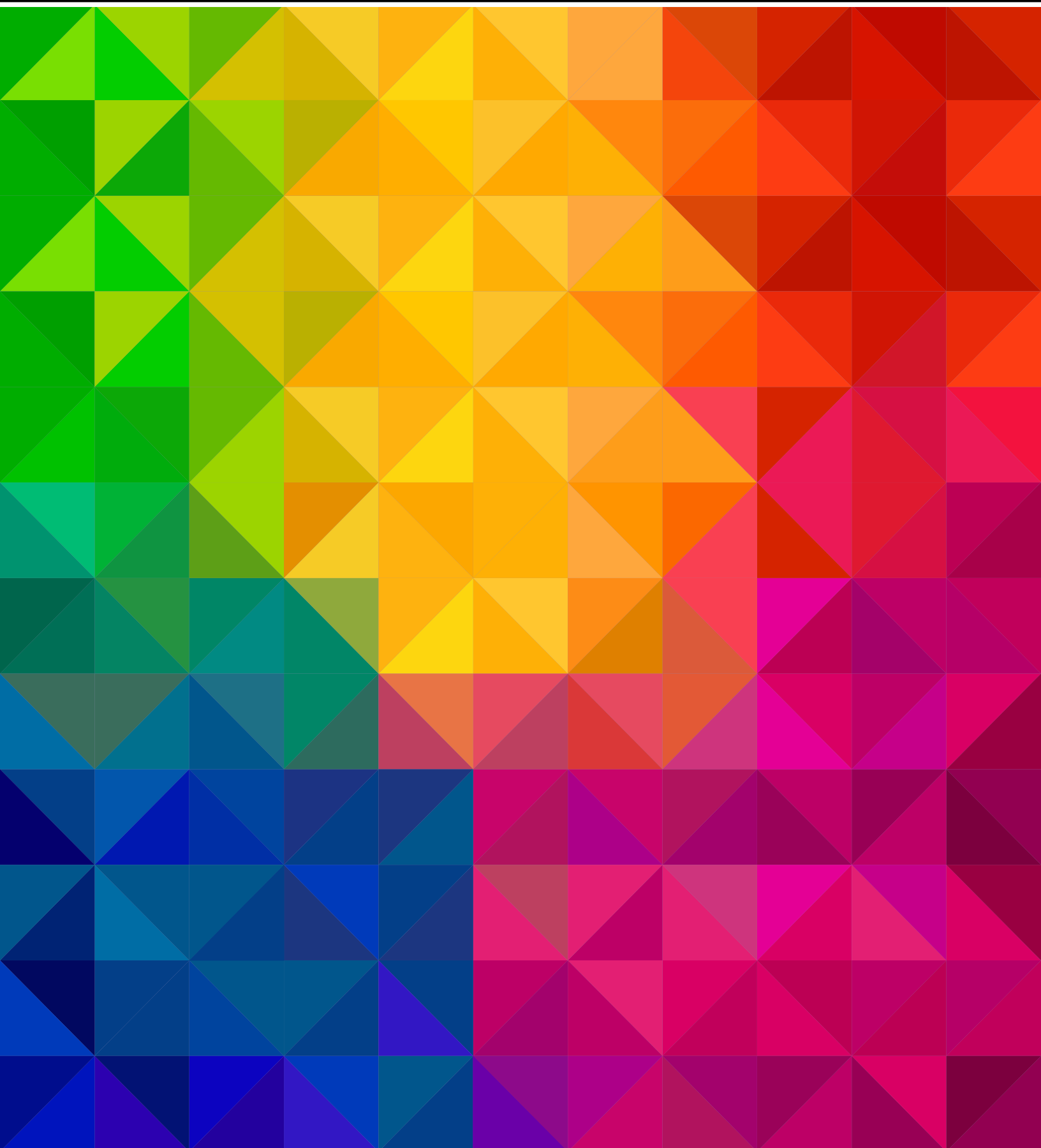


lenguas **En** contexto



José Alfonso Esparza Ortiz
Rector de la BUAP

José Jaime Vázquez López
Secretario General de la BUAP

Celso Pérez Carranza
Director de la Fac. de Lenguas

Eliphelet Rivera Cuayahuitl
Secretario Académico de la Fac. de Lenguas

Rebeca Elena Tapia Carlin
Secretaría de Investigación y
Estudios de Posgrado de la
Fac. de Lenguas

Fernando Édgar Vázquez Rojas
Secretario Administrativo de la Fac. de Lenguas

Hugo Vargas Comsille
Director General de Fomento Editorial de la BUAP

Comité editorial

• Leticia Araceli Salas Serrano, Editora en jefe • Stéphanie Marie Brigitte Voisin, Co editora

Comité de arbitraje

• Mauricio Arango, Universidad de Caldas, Colombia • Marna Broekhoff, American English Institute, University of Oregon, Estados Unidos
• Ramiro Carlos Humberto Caggiano Blanco, Instituto Cervantes São Paulo, Brasil • Teresa Aurora Castineira Benítez, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México • Carmen Contijoch Escontria, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México • Eulices Córdoba Zuñiga, Universidad de la Amazonia, Colombia • Ma. Dolores Corpas Arellano, Consejería de Educación, Junta de Andalucía, España • Francisco Galicia Ortega, Fundación Colegio Americano de Puebla, México • Gloria Ginevra, Universidad del Aconcagua, Argentina • Daniel Ginting, Ma Chung University, Indonesia • Salomé Gómez Pérez, Universidad de Guadalajara, México • Siorella del Rocío Gonzáles Sánchez, Universidad Privada Antenor Orrego, Trujillo, Perú • Georgia Grondin, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de México, México • Ma. Teresa Gullotti Vázquez, Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán, México • Benjamín Gutiérrez Gutiérrez, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México • Katherine Halet, University of Bath, Reino Unido • Jimena Hernández Patiño, Tecnológico de Monterrey, México • Gabriela Ladrón de Guevara de León, Universidad Autónoma de la Ciudad de México, México • Ndeye Bineta Mbodj Diop, Université de Thiès, UFR Sante, Senegal • Luis Meneses Lerín, Université d'Artois, Francia • Erwan Morel, Universidad Veracruzana, México • Rodrigo Olmedo Yúdico Becerril, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México • Caroline Payant, Université du Québec à Montréal, Canada • Gracielle Pereira R., Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Chile • Rosa Pérez, Universidad de Vigo, España • Daniel Rodríguez Vergara, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México • Brenda Mónica Rosas Salas, Universidad Popular Autónoma del Estado de Puebla, México • Eliseo Ruiz Aragón, Universidad Pedagógica Nacional, Unidad Oaxaca, México • Caline Saad, American University of Science and Technology, Líbano • Verónica Sánchez Hernández, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México • Haydée Silva Ochoa, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México • Joaquín Sueiro, Universidad de Vigo, España • Ricardo Velasco Preciado, Universidad Pedagógica Nacional, México • Monica Graciela Vinuesa Mayorga, Universidad Técnica de Ambato, Ecuador • Nico Wiersema, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Monterrey, México • Michael Witten, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México • Azhar Youssef, Technology Development Center TDC, Sohag, Egipto

Comité científico

• Gabriel Hugo Díaz Maggioli, Ministerio de Educación de Uruguay, Uruguay • Rana M. Bilal Anwar, University of Bedfordshire, Reino Unido • Melba Lidia Cárdenas Beltrán, Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Colombia • Daniel Coste, Ecole Normale Supérieure de Lyon, Francia • Louise Mary Greathouse Amador, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México • Jack A. Hardy, Oxford College of Emory University, Estados Unidos • Jean Alain Marie Hennequin Mercier, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México • Natalia Ignatieva, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México • Martha Lengeling, Universidad de Guanajuato, México • Jean-Marc Mangiante, Université d'Artois, Francia • Gillian Moss, Universidad del Norte, Barranquilla, Colombia • Moisés Damián Perales Escudero, Universidad de Quintana Roo, México • Jean-Jacques Richer, Université de Bourgogne, Francia

Revisor de estilo

• Blanca Adriana Téllez Méndez, Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla

Diseñador editorial y gráfico

• Agustín Antonio Huerta Ramírez

Imagen de la portada

"Sinergia" de Agustín Antonio Huerta Ramírez

Webmasters

• Julio Ernesto Méndez Torres • Adi Janai Jiménez Campos

Colaboradora especial en este número

• Elba Méndez García - Introducción

LENGUAS EN CONTEXTO, Año 10, No. 10, agosto 2019 a julio de 2020, es una difusión periódica anual editada por la Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla. Con domicilio en 4 Sur No. 104 Colonia Centro, Puebla Pue., C.P. 72000, teléfono (222) 2295500, Ext. 5826 <http://www.facultaddelenguas.com/lencontexto>, Editor Responsable: Dra. Leticia Araceli Salas Serrano, lenguascontexto@facultaddelenguas.com. Reserva de Derechos al Uso Exclusivo No. 04-2019-021811021300-2003, ISSN: 2007 - 3038. Ambos otorgados por el Instituto Nacional del Derecho de Autor de la Secretaría de Cultura. Responsable de la última actualización de este número, la Facultad de Lenguas de la BUAP, Mtra. Stéphanie Marie Brigitte Voisin, domicilio en 24 Norte No. 2003 Col. Humboldt, Puebla Pue., C.P. 72370 fecha de última modificación, septiembre de 2019.

Las opiniones expresadas por los autores no necesariamente reflejan la postura del editor de la publicación.

Índice

Editorial	2
Leticia Araceli Salas Serrano, <i>Editora-en-jefe</i>	
Presentación	3
Elba Méndez García, <i>Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla</i>	
— ANÁLISIS DEL LENGUAJE —	
Relaciones clausulares y estructuras iterativas como parte de la logogénesis del discurso	5
Daniel Rodríguez-Vergara, <i>Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México</i>	
— ENSEÑANZA, FORMACIÓN Y DESARROLLO DEL PROFESIONAL DE LA ENSEÑANZA DE LENGUAS —	
Textbook vs Whiteboard, Examining the intertextual multimodal relations within the EFL classroom	13
Areli Nailea Flores García & Michael T. Witten, <i>Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla</i>	
Competency-based education through Systematic Approach: Educational Strategy	26
Benjamín Gutiérrez Gutiérrez, Josué Cinto Morales, María Amelia Xique Suárez & Marsha Jane Way Souder, <i>Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla</i>	
Perceptions of English Language Teachers from public high schools in Yucatan, Mexico	33
Ana Cecilia Castillo Loeza, Jesús Enrique Pinto Sosa & Eloísa Alcocer Vázquez, <i>Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán</i>	
Use of video-recordings of classes to stimulate reflection on teaching practice	43
Floricyly Dzay Chulim, <i>Universidad de Quintana Roo</i> ; Nadia Patricia Mejía Rosales & Roxana Cano Vara, <i>Universidad Juárez del Estado de Durango</i>	
Diagnostic d'une formation universitaire d'enseignants de français à l'Université Autonome de Puebla	60
Vincent Summo, Stéphanie Marie Brigitte Voisin & María Eugenia Olivos Pérez, <i>Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla</i>	
— ESTRATEGIAS DE APRENDIZAJE DE LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA —	
From newstelling to news debating: a path to foster EFL argumentation skills	70
Yomaira Angélica Herreño-Contreras, <i>Universidad Santo Tomás, Villavicencio, Colombia</i>	
Online video-based forums: a means for the improvement of suprasegmentals	86
Rodrigo Guerrero Segura, <i>Universidad de Guayaquil</i> & Nicola Wills-Espinosa, <i>Universidad Casa Grande, Ecuador</i>	
Reseña	102
Nathaly Bernal Sandoval, <i>El Colegio de México</i> Balderston, D. y Schwartz, M. (Eds.). (2018). <i>Voces en off. Traducción y literatura latinoamericana</i> . (M. Ravassa y M. Posada, trans.). Bogotá: Ediciones Uniandes.	

Editorial

Los cambios no se detienen y este número de *Lenguas en Contexto* también marca cambios en la estructura editorial de nuestra revista académica. Primero, queremos agradecer y reconocer el trabajo hecho por Stephanie Voisin como editora-en-jefe de *Lenguas en Contexto* de 2017 a la fecha. Seguiremos aprovechando su experiencia y *expertise*, ya que continúa en el Comité Editorial de la Revista. Damos también la bienvenida a Leticia Temoltzin, quién se incorporará al equipo a partir del siguiente ejemplar y sin duda enriquecerá el trabajo editorial.

Es nuestro compromiso seguir avanzando con los tiempos y las demandas de las publicaciones académicas de la actualidad. Para esto refrendamos la misión y visión de *Lenguas en Contexto* como un órgano de difusión que promueve la investigación, la reflexión y la generación de conocimiento sobre el lenguaje entre profesionales del área de la enseñanza de lenguas y la traducción. Reiteramos también nuestra responsabilidad social y académica por una mejora continua.

De igual manera buscamos que *Lenguas en Contexto* sea un espacio de intercambio de ideas que refleje la diversidad de temas y enfoques que el estudio del lenguaje permite. La palabra sigue siendo el instrumento más humano para expresar y compartir experiencias y conocimientos entre instituciones y personas.

Gracias a los esfuerzos del Comité Editorial, *Lenguas en Contexto* se perfila como una revista internacional que refleja la interculturalidad y plurilingüismo de nuestros tiempos. Esperamos que la lectura de este ejemplar sea fuente de reflexión y comunicación entre profesionales del área.

Finalmente, agradecemos la confianza de las autoridades y extendemos una invitación a las sugerencias y el diálogo entre lectores y editores.

Leticia Areceli Salas Serrano
Editora-en-jefe

Presentación

Elba Méndez García

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla

El presente número nos ofrece trabajos provenientes de contextos latinoamericanos, así como del norte, centro y sur de México. Cada uno de estos estudios constituye una valiosa contribución a nuestro campo de estudio, a nuestra labor docente y a nuestra identidad como formadores de docentes.

En un primer apartado, Daniel Rodríguez-Vergara nos revela las combinaciones clausulares por medio de las cuales los textos se forman en *“Relaciones clausulares y estructuras iterativas como parte de la logogénesis del discurso”*. Utiliza para su análisis la tipología gramatical y semántica de los nexos clausulares propuesta por la lingüística sistémico-funcional, el cual pone de manifiesto la naturaleza iterativa del lenguaje y cómo se mantiene el significado en la formación de las estructuras complejas que componen el texto. Este es un trabajo de gran interés para los docentes interesados en enriquecer su conocimiento de la lingüística sistémico-funcional, así como de su potencial para el análisis del discurso en una enorme variedad de posibilidades y contextos.

En seguida se muestran cuatro trabajos sobre la formación y desarrollo del profesional de la enseñanza de lenguas.

En *“Textbook vs whiteboard: Examining the intertextual multimodal relations within the EFL classroom”*, Areli Nailea Flores García y Michael T. Witten develan el impacto del docente de lengua extranjera en el aprendizaje de sus estudiantes al ser un mediador entre ellos y los contenidos pedagógicos e ideológicos presentes en el aula. Para llegar a este resultado, los autores llevan a cabo un análisis multimodal e intertextual de dos herramientas fundamentales para el profesorado de lenguas extranjeras: el libro de texto y el pizarrón blanco. Con este análisis se pone de manifiesto que la interpretación que el docente hace del libro de texto y que plasma para los alumnos en el pizarrón tiene mucho mayor significado del que podría pensarse.

Desde que se encuentra en formación, el futuro docente de lenguas debe atravesar por condiciones de aprendizaje que le permitan desarrollar su poten-

cial creativo, así como la capacidad de interactuar con y adaptarse a una diversidad de elementos y factores a su alrededor. Estas condiciones de aprendizaje, como lo proponen Josué Cinto Morales, María Amelia Xique Suárez y Marsha Jane Way Souder en *“Competency-based education through Systematic Approach: Educational Strategy”*, deben diseñarse teniendo en cuenta el término “competencias” pues éstas, más allá de describir intenciones, promueven resultados visibles. El artículo nos presenta un modelo que promueve el valor del autoconocimiento y el desarrollo de competencias genéricas y laborales por parte del docente en formación. Este modelo se basa en la identificación de problemas y necesidades, así como de metas a corto, mediano y largo plazo. Incluye además la selección de las técnicas y métodos más apropiados, así como un reporte de eficacia y eficiencia de un plan de trabajo.

En *“Perceptions of English Language Teachers from public high schools in Yucatan, Mexico”*, Ana Cecilia Castillo Loeza, Jesús Enrique Pinto Sosa y Eloísa Alcocer Vázquez exploran la formación de los docentes de lenguas en escuelas públicas de nivel preparatoria al sur de México. Los autores, que abordan su investigación desde el marco de la cognición docente (Borg, 2006), analizan las entrevistas con docentes que laboran en preparatorias públicas acerca de su conocimiento de la enseñanza de lenguas, de la manera en que esta cognición se ha desarrollado y si ésta influye de alguna manera en su práctica docente al interior del aula. El análisis de los autores confirma que la formación docente a la que una parte de los profesores entrevistados tuvo acceso influye en gran medida en su práctica docente. A la par, se encuentra que la cognición docente de aquellos que se formaron como docentes y los que no difiere. Sin embargo, ambos grupos parecen coincidir en las dificultades que enfrentan en su labor diaria en las aulas de preparatorias públicas.

Siendo la reflexión un elemento fundamental en la formación del docente de lenguas, en *“Use of video-recordings of classes to stimulate reflection on teaching practice”*, Floricely Dzay Chulim, Nadia Patricia Mejía Rosales y Roxana Cano Vara ofrecen los resultados de su

intervención con docentes en formación (PSTs) que tuvo por objetivo promover la práctica docente reflexiva. En su estudio, las autoras utilizaron entrevistas de recuerdo estimulado con estudiantes de una licenciatura en la enseñanza del inglés en el norte de México. Este recuerdo estimulado se apoyó en las video grabaciones de clases de estos docentes en formación, con lo cual se logró que estos participantes recordaran y describieran de forma más eficiente aquello que ellos hacían al momento de dar sus clases, así como delinear aquello que pasaba por su mente al momento de realizar determinada acción durante su clase. Los resultados identifican que los participantes generan reflexiones de tipo descriptiva, evaluativa y analítica, con lo cual se demuestra que este diseño metodológico puede desencadenar reflexión basada en evidencia que revele al docente en formación los posibles caminos para mejorar su desempeño.

Los autores Vincent Summo, Stéphanie Marie Brigitte Voisin y María Eugenia Olivos Pérez nos ofrecen en *Diagnostic d'une formation universitaire d'enseignants de français à l'Université Autonome de Puebla* el diagnóstico hecho al programa de francés del Centro de Lenguas de la institución. *El artículo ayuda* a reorientar la formación educativa en términos de competencias genéricas o transversales, que ayudarán en la formación de los futuros docentes de francés para el futuro.

El siguiente apartado se enfoca en el desarrollo académico del estudiante de lenguas extranjeras. Ambos trabajos de investigación se centran en el perfeccionamiento de la producción oral de estudiantes de licenciatura de universidades latinoamericanas.

El primer trabajo, *"From newstelling to news debating: a path to foster EFL argumentation skills"*, toma como actores principales a veinte estudiantes de la licenciatura en derecho. Yomaira Angélica Herreño Contreras enmarca su estudio en la utilización de la transmisión de la noticia, el debate y la argumentación en la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera, así como en la utilización de la teoría fundamentada para el análisis de su información. La autora utiliza una encuesta, diarios de sus participantes y una rúbrica para la evaluación del desempeño en un debate para recabar la información a analizar. Por medio de este análisis, la autora puede concluir que la combinación de la utilización de la transmisión de la noticia, el debate y la argumentación en la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera contribuye a la adquisición de terminología legal fundamental para

estos participantes, así como una mayor soltura para las habilidades argumentativas y la interacción social.

El segundo trabajo, *"Online video-based forums: a means for the improvement of suprasegmentals"* analiza la producción oral de estudiantes de la licenciatura en docencia de lenguas extranjeras, concretamente, la producción de elementos suprasegmentales del idioma inglés. Rodrigo Guerrero Segura y Nicola Wills-Espinosa utilizan actividades comunicativas grabadas en video y un foro en línea por medio del que se le proporciona retroalimentación al estudiante sobre su desempeño en estas actividades comunicativas y determinan la utilidad de esta retroalimentación por esta vía para la mejor producción de estos elementos suprasegmentales, así como la opinión de los estudiantes sobre estos foros en línea por medio de los cuales se les proporciona retroalimentación. Si bien la retroalimentación por medio de estos foros es innovadora y bien recibida por parte de los estudiantes y esta contribuye a que regulen su producción oral a fin de cometer menos errores de pronunciación, se percibe una mejora más bien moderada de los elementos suprasegmentales en cuestión, por lo que se sugiere un periodo más largo de práctica para obtener resultados aún más visibles.

Por último, Nathaly Bernal Sandoval nos presenta una reseña de la traducción del libro *"Voces en off. Traducción y literatura latinoamericana"*. Haciendo énfasis en la riqueza del español de Latinoamérica, cuna de cientos de lenguas, Nathaly Bernal Sandoval pone sobre la mesa la muy discutida al interior del gremio de traductores invisibilidad del traductor. Esta invisibilidad parece reducirse en la evidentemente inequitativa distribución de textos presentados en las tres secciones en las que se encuentra dividida esta obra, pues mientras se da cabida a trece ensayos de críticos literarios, únicamente cinco traductores literarios estadounidenses con amplia trayectoria tienen oportunidad de exponer sus reflexiones. Nathaly Bernal Sandoval, sin embargo, elogia la valía y trascendencia de *"Voces en off"* en tanto que presenta la perspectiva de escritores, traductores y críticos involucrados en el proceso de la traducción de literatura latinoamericana al contexto estadounidense.

Deseamos que al igual que nosotros, los lectores disfruten cada uno de los trabajos aquí presentados. Asimismo, esperamos que su lectura abone a su curiosidad cotidiana y a su diario quehacer.

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice*. New York, NY: Continuum

RELACIONES CLAUSULARES Y ESTRUCTURAS ITERATIVAS COMO PARTE DE LA LOGOGÉNESIS DEL DISCURSO

Daniel Rodríguez-Vergara

Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México

danielrv@unam.mx

Resumen

El presente trabajo tiene por objetivo explorar la naturaleza iterativa del lenguaje a través de la descripción de la manera en que las cláusulas forman estructuras complejas cuando se combinan entre sí. Para realizar esta descripción se trae a colación la temática de la tipología gramatical y semántica de los nexos clausulares propuesta por la lingüística sistémico-funcional. Desde la perspectiva de esta teoría, los distintos tipos de significado (ideacional, interpersonal y textual) generan diferentes tipos de estructura (partículas, ondas y campos). Con el análisis de las estructuras iterativas se pretende mostrar que la combinación clausular forma parte de un proceso logogenético en el que los textos se forman de manera dinámica a través de la elección de paradigmas, formando así patrones que se organizan según los significados que se transmiten.

Palabras clave: iteración, complejidad, lingüística sistémico-funcional, relaciones lógico-semánticas, estructuras lingüísticas.

Abstract

This paper has the objective of exploring the iterative nature of language by means of describing the manner in which clauses form complex structures when they are combined among one another. In order to give this account we bring up the topic of grammatical and semantic typology of clause nexuses put forward by systemic functional linguistics. From the perspective of this theory, the different types of meaning (ideational, interpersonal and textual) generate different types of structure (particles,

waves and fields). With the analysis of iterative structures we will try to show that clause combining forms part of a logogenetic process in which texts are formed in a dynamic way through the selection of paradigms, thus forming patterns that are organized according to the meanings to be expressed.

Keywords: iteration, complexity, systemic functional linguistics, logico-semantic relations, linguistic structures.

1. Introducción

A mediados del Siglo XX, el lingüista norteamericano Kenneth Lee Pike (1959) conceptualizó que la estructura del lenguaje puede ser interpretada desde tres puntos de vista: como partículas, como ondas y como campos. El primer punto de vista es el que ha seguido la mayoría de los lingüistas desde los inicios de esta profesión. Se trata de una visualización del lenguaje a manera de partículas, partes o piezas (e. g. piénsese en la tradicional separación de las cláusulas en constituyentes inmediatos o el análisis a manera de diagramas arbóreos de la gramática generativa) que están bien delimitadas y en donde hay líneas claras de separación entre unas y otras.

En el segundo punto de vista, el lenguaje no es estático como las piezas de un rompecabezas, sino dinámico, considerando que consiste en ondas que se extienden en el tiempo-espacio. A diferencia del primer punto de vista, en éste no hay fronteras bien delimitadas entre las distintas unidades de significado. Tal vez la mejor ilustración de esta perspectiva sea a través de la fonología, en donde, bien se sabe, se estudian aspectos suprasegmentales tales como el tono, el cual se extiende sobre varios sonidos vocálicos y consonánticos en un enunciado.

En tercer lugar, la estructura del lenguaje puede pensarse a manera de campo. En ella, un enunciado

Recibido el 30 de abril, 2019- Aceptado el 14 de junio, 2019.

no se considera como compuesto en partes (palabras) ni como una secuencia dinámica de unidades (sonido), sino como un todo que es mayor que la suma de sus partes, así como se sugiere en la psicología de la Gestalt (Kellman, 2000). Desde esta perspectiva, el significado se expresa no sólo mediante lo que se dice sino también mediante lo que no se dice, pero que se podría haber dicho. El lenguaje visto como campo enfatiza la complementariedad de las otras dos visiones, lo que sugiere que el análisis de lenguaje debe ser holístico y no ceñido a una sola perspectiva.

Pike, al realizar esta formulación tripartita, se basó en la física cuántica, en la que el fenómeno de los campos electromagnéticos también puede entenderse como partículas de energía o fotones, o bien como ondas oscilantes que se propagan en el espacio (Costello, 2001). Así que la luz es las tres cosas, partículas, ondas y campos. De la misma manera, Pike sugiere que se necesitan estas tres perspectivas para “aproximarnos más a la manera en que el lenguaje [...] funciona en una comunidad” (Pike, 1959, p. 141).

En 1979, Michael Halliday tomó la idea de Pike para incorporarla a la teoría sistémico-funcional del lenguaje. En esta teoría se considera que existen tres tipos de significado (ideacional, interpersonal y textual), y cada uno de ellos genera estructuras de distinta naturaleza. En primer lugar, el significado ideacional se divide a su vez en dos, significado experiencial y lógico. El primero se usa por los hablantes para representar el mundo a manera de eventos en donde intervienen procesos, participantes y circunstancias. Este tipo de significado genera estructuras configurativas, en donde las unidades de significado están compuestas de constituyentes, y a su vez éstas son constituyentes de otras unidades más grandes. Por ejemplo, tomando las cláusulas como unidades de análisis, éstas contienen un proceso (realizado por un grupo verbal), participantes (realizados por grupos nominales) y circunstancias (realizadas por grupos prepositivos o adverbiales). A su vez, los grupos están compuestos de palabras (e. g. un grupo nominal puede contener deícticos, numerativos, epítetos, etc.).

Por otra parte, el significado lógico se usa por los hablantes para formar secuencias de eventos representados con el significado experiencial. Este tipo de significado genera estructuras iterativas, en donde los elementos se relacionan entre sí a través de sistemas repetitivos. Las estructuras iterativas se hacen latentes en todos los niveles jerárquicos de la gramática, e. g. las oraciones pueden ser simples o complejas, al igual que las cláusulas, los grupos y las palabras. Tratándose de las oraciones, su nivel de complejidad se determina en

primera instancia a través del número de cláusulas que contienen (Halliday, 1989).

Con el significado interpersonal, el lenguaje funciona como recurso destinado a la interacción entre hablantes, en donde se intercambia información, bienes y servicios, actitudes y valoraciones. El significado interpersonal genera estructuras prosódicas en la gramática, en el sentido de que se trata de significados suprasegmentales. Al igual que en las unidades fonológicas, en donde la prosodia es de naturaleza suprasegmental, las unidades gramaticales son capaces de contener una serie de significados de manera indiscreta. Aunque existe una gran variedad de significados interpersonales tales como modalidad, polaridad, modo, honorificación, actitud, etc. (Martin, 2004), un buen ejemplo de la naturaleza prosódica del significado interpersonal son las cláusulas proyectoras (tales como *Yo creo/Yo pienso que...*) las cuales expresan un significado de probabilidad que se extiende en toda la enunciación.

Finalmente, el significado textual tiene un modo de expresión periódico, en el sentido de que organiza la información de acuerdo a diferentes grados de relevancia. Halliday (1985, 1994) considera que las cláusulas, entendidas como mensajes, portan la información temática en la primera posición. Normalmente, la información temática es la que conoce el interlocutor (información dada), mientras que la información remática es la información nueva para el interlocutor (información nueva). En la parte inicial de una cláusula la prominencia textual es alta porque el mensaje comienza con información tópica, es decir, de lo que trata el mensaje. De la misma manera, en la parte final, la prominencia es alta porque el mensaje termina con información nueva, es decir, lo que se dice acerca del tópico; de tal manera que la posición inicial es orientada hacia el locutor, mientras que la posición final es orientada hacia el interlocutor (Martin, 1992).

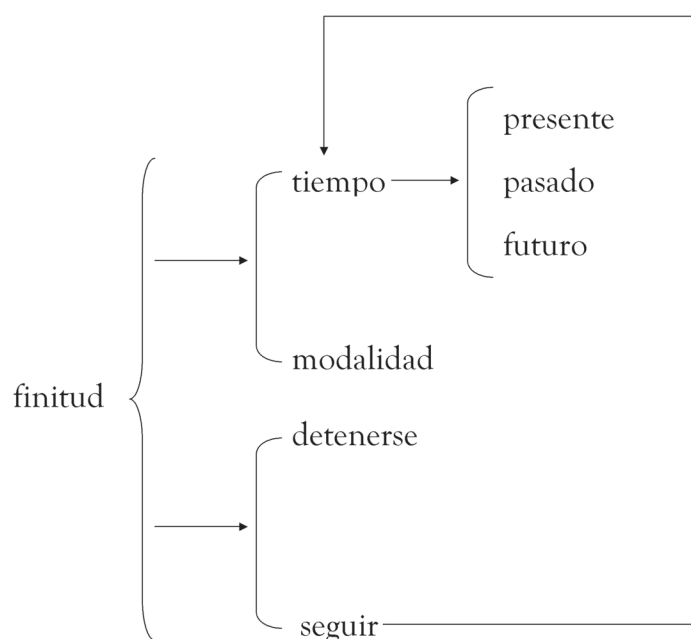
Una vez descritos los tipos de significado reconocidos por la lingüística sistémico-funcional, en este artículo se centrará la atención en el componente lógico del lenguaje. En primer lugar, se verá cómo la iteratividad está presente en la formación de grupos verbales del inglés. En segundo lugar, se explorará la iteratividad en la formación de complejos clausulares en la lengua escrita. Finalmente, se dará cuenta de la manera en que la iteratividad clausular es parte de un proceso dinámico en la formación de textos llamado ‘logogénesis’.

2. La iteratividad en el grupo verbal en inglés

Léxico-gramaticalmente hablando, al combinar cláusulas se forman estructuras iterativas en el sentido de

que los hablantes, cada vez que articulan o escriben una cláusula, tienen la opción de detenerse o de hilar dicha cláusula con otra, y si eligen hilarla, tendrán otra vez la opción de detenerse o de traer a colación una nueva cláusula, y así sucesivamente. Ahora bien, la iteración no es única de los nexos clausulares; otro ámbito donde se le puede observar claramente en funcionamiento es en el sistema de finitud del inglés. La finitud se realiza a través de la morfología inflexiva del verbo (Hyams, 1999), así que mientras que un verbo finito toma uno de los tres tiempos gramaticales (presente, pasado o futuro) o una forma modal, un verbo no finito toma la forma de infinitivo o participio. La Figura 1 representa el sistema de finitud del inglés.

Figura 1. Sistema de finitud del inglés



La Figura 1 se lee de la siguiente manera: al decir o escribir un verbo en inglés, uno tiene la opción de temporalizarlo o modalizarlo, y simultáneamente, uno también tiene la opción de detenerse o seguir; si se sigue, entonces se traerá a colación un nuevo verbo, el cual esta vez sólo puede temporalizarse y no modalizarse; a su vez, este verbo puede conectarse con otro, y éste con otro, y así sucesivamente. Una particularidad del siste-

ma de finitud del inglés es que la modalidad únicamente puede ser elegida en el primer ciclo. A manera de ilustración de la puesta en funcionamiento de este sistema, la Tabla 1 enlista una serie de paradigmas verbales con la elección léxica *do* (hacer) para la tercera persona del singular.

Tabla 1. Paradigmas iterativos del verbo *do*

	CICLO 1	CICLO 2	CICLO 3
TIEMPO	Presente		<i>does</i>
	Presente	Pasado	<i>has done</i>
	Presente	Pasado	Futuro <i>has been going to do</i>
MODALIDAD	Modal		<i>may do</i>
	Modal	Pasado	<i>may have done</i>
	Modal	Pasado	Futuro <i>may have been going to do</i>

La Tabla 1 muestra seis paradigmas del verbo *do* con cero, uno y dos ciclos de iteración. Plum y Cowling (1987) dicen que cuando en el primer ciclo se elige tiempo, hay hasta 36 combinaciones posibles, y cuando en el primer ciclo se elige modalidad, hay hasta 12 combinaciones posibles. En cuanto a los ciclos de iteración, Halliday (1994) menciona que puede haber hasta cinco: *has been going to have been doing*. Cabe aquí señalar que, como Halliday (1991) menciona, el idioma inglés es tipológicamente inusual en el sentido de que otras lenguas no muestran esta característica en la manera en que forman grupos verbales. Por ejemplo, el español se comporta de una manera distinta, por lo cual no es posible describir los grupos verbales en términos de estos niveles de iteración.

3. La iteración en los complejos clausulares

Para entender la manera en que la lingüística sistémico-funcional plantea la combinación clausular, es importante considerar la diferencia que establece Halliday (1989) entre incrustación clausular y complejidad clausular. Por una parte, las cláusulas incrustadas son cláusulas de rango cambiado en el sentido de que funcionan en la estructura de una cláusula matriz o de un grupo nominal o adjetival. A continuación se presentan algunos ejemplos de cláusulas incrustadas que funcionan en la estructura de una cláusula matriz¹:

- (1) [[*Conocer el funcionamiento de éstos*]] *nos puede ayudar a entender algunos fenómenos...* (Otro_09)

¹ Todos los ejemplos de corpus son tomados del estudio de Rodríguez-Vergara (2015).

(2) *...la regla de combinación proclítica requiere [[que la palabra clítica preceda de manera inmediata a la frase verbal...]]* (Outro_7)

Como se puede observar, la convención sistémico-funcional para marcar las cláusulas incrustadas es mediante corchetes. En (1) la cláusula incrustada funciona como sujeto del grupo verbal *nos puede ayudar a entender*; en (2) funciona como el complemento del verbo *requiere*. A continuación se muestran ejemplos de cláusulas incrustadas que funcionan en la estructura de un grupo nominal o adjetival:

- (3) *...el criterio [[mediante el cual el sujeto selecciona sus referencias]]* se vincula con lo “normal”... (Outro_10)
- (4) *los morfemas de flexión forman parte de un conjunto pequeño y muy regular de fragmentos de palabra relativamente fáciles [[de descubrir automáticamente]]* (Outro_2)

En (3) la cláusula incrustada funciona como modificadora del grupo nominal *el criterio*; en (4) funciona como modificadora del grupo adjetival *relativamente fáciles*. A diferencia de las cláusulas sujeto y complemento, las cuales son constituyentes inmediatos de una cláusula,

la, las cláusulas modificadoras son constituyentes inmediatos de un grupo.

Por otra parte, la complejidad clausular se refiere a la combinación de cláusulas de rango estable en una oración, y no a la combinación de cláusulas de rango cambiado. Según Halliday (1994), las cláusulas de rango estable se pueden combinar de manera paratáctica e hipotáctica. En un nexo paratáctico (entendiendo el término ‘nexo’ como un par de cláusulas de rango estable unidas), las cláusulas tienen el mismo estatus gramatical, es decir, una cláusula simplemente subsigue a otra, sin modificarla. No obstante, en un nexo hipotáctico, una cláusula depende de la otra, y por lo tanto, las cláusulas tienen un estatus desigual. Es importante mencionar que al decir que una cláusula ‘depende’ de la otra no significa que esté ‘contenida’ en ella, y he allí la diferencia entre hipotaxis (dependencia) e incrustación (contención).

Además del tipo de taxis, el cual es un criterio sintáctico, Halliday (1994) clasifica los nexos clausulares de acuerdo a su tipo lógico-semántico. Hay dos tipos principales, expansión y proyección. A su vez, la expansión incluye la elaboración, la extensión y el realce, mientras que la proyección incluye la locución y la idea. Cada una de estas categorías puede ser construida de forma paratáctica o hipotáctica en un nexo clausular (véase Tabla 2).

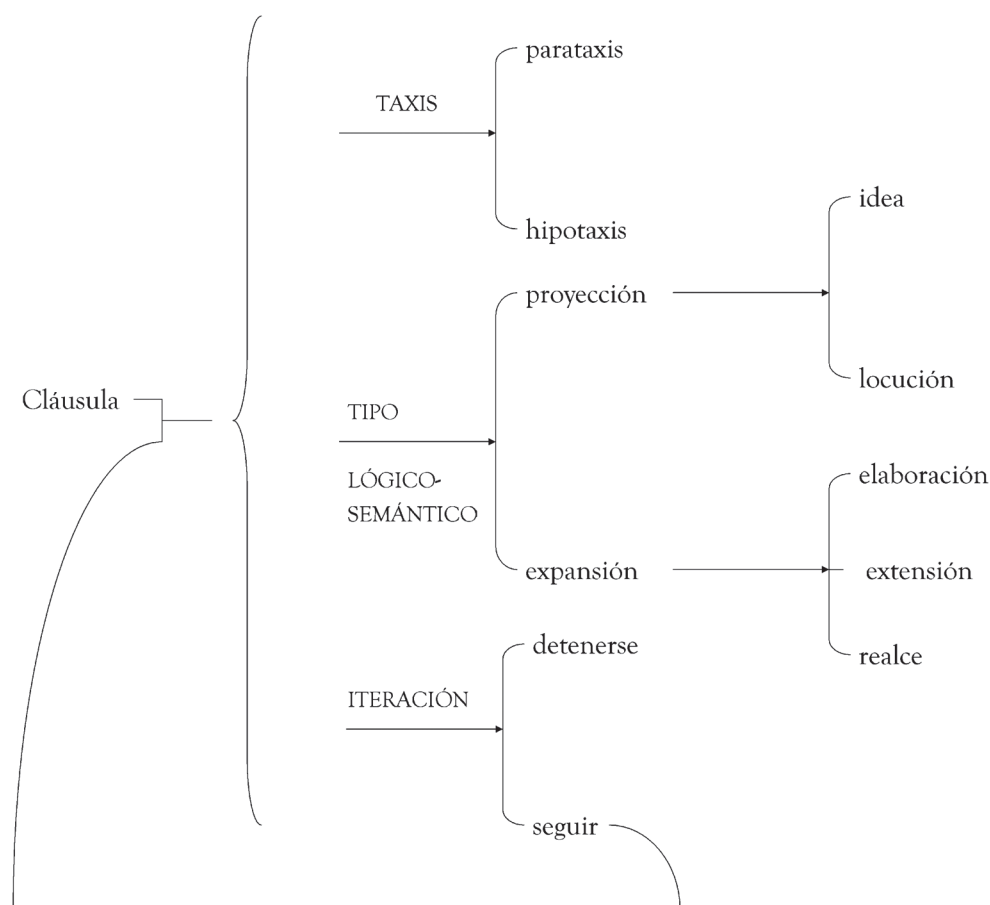
Tabla 2. Ejemplos de tipos de taxis y lógico-semánticos

	Parataxis	Hipotaxis
Elaboración	<i>cada conjunto agrupa palabras que están relacionadas semánticamente;</i> <i> por ejemplo, los conjuntos (caída, descenso, bajada, desplome) y (cuerpo, objeto, cosa, entidad) pudieran asociarse al término Caída Libre</i> (Intro_4)	<i>algunos afijos de tipo derivativo también fueron identificados automáticamente (los direccionales), lo que indica su importancia relativa en el chuj</i> (Outro_2)
Extensión	<i>esta tarea no es nada fácil y no podrá ser resuelta con algunos esfuerzos aislados</i> (Outro_5)	<i>mientras que can y have son auxiliares en inglés, sus contrapartes en español poder y haber no siempre se analizan como tales</i> (Intro_7)
Realce	<i>en los llamados estudios culturales abundan interpretaciones desde el sujeto, análisis de fragmentos y reflexiones personales, pero aun así, he podido constatar en mi experiencia profesional y de manera evidente al tratar de publicar mis trabajos que propuestas de esta naturaleza todavía despiertan recelo</i> (Intro_21)	<i>para evaluar este procedimiento,</i> <i> se comparan los resultados con la información proporcionada por el especialista</i> (Intro_2)
Locución	<i>Al respecto nos dice (AUTOR):</i> <i> “Los proverbios procedentes de todo el mundo son ricos en observaciones acerca de este fenómeno abrumadoramente</i> <i>humano del habla en su forma oral congénita”.</i> (Intro_13)	<i>(AUTOR) menciona que un problema recurrente en la identificación automática de contextos ricos en conocimiento es que en los textos</i> <i>reales los términos no se repiten una y otra vez</i> (Outro_8)

Idea	<i>Habría que preguntarnos entonces,</i> ¿qué es lo que esta literatura “negra” traduce? (Intro_31)	<i>consideramos que una estrategia idónea es el uso en el salón de clases del texto literario (Intro_18)</i>
-------------	---	---

En primer lugar, una cláusula elabora el significado de otra a través de la redefinición, ejemplificación o clarificación. Estas tres funciones quedan perfectamente ejemplificadas a través de las locuciones latinas *i. e.*, *e. g.* y *viz.*, respectivamente. En segundo lugar, una cláusula extiende el significado de otra a través de la adición (*y*), variación (*pero*) y alternativa (*o*). En tercer lugar, una cláusula realza el significado de otra en términos de tiempo, espacio, manera, causa y condición. En cuarto lugar, en los nexos de locución, una cláusula es proyectada por otra que contiene un proceso verbal tal como *decir*, *preguntar*, *pedir*, etc. Finalmente, en los nexos de idea, una cláusula es proyectada por otra que contiene un proceso mental tal como *pensar*, *sentir*, *percibir*, *querer*, etc.

Figura 2. Sistema de combinación clausular



Al igual que el sistema de finitud del inglés, la complejidad clausular se entiende en lingüística sistémico-funcional como un sistema de opciones en donde la iteración equivale al subsistema con las opciones [detenerse] o [seguir], así como se observa en la Figura 2. Sin embargo, los ciclos de iteración en los complejos clausulares pueden llegar a ser mucho más numerosos que los que se observan en el sistema de finitud del inglés.

4. Logogénesis en la formación de complejos clausulares

El lenguaje es más que un sistema de comunicación; es un sistema semológico en el sentido de que no sólo comunica significado, sino que lo crea (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999). Según Halliday y Matthiessen (1999), el significado se crea en tres líneas de desarrollo: en la sociedad (filogénesis), en el individuo (ontogénesis) y en el texto (logogénesis). En primer lugar, la filogénesis se refiere a la historia del sistema lingüístico en la sociedad, en donde “la escala de tiempo es multigeneracional y el modo de génesis es la evolución” (Matthiessen, Teruya y Lam, 2010: 197); la filogénesis es la línea de desarrollo más lenta, ya que los sistemas lingüísticos toman años, décadas o siglos para cambiar. En segundo lugar, la ontogénesis se refiere al aprendizaje del sistema por un individuo, en donde “la escala de tiempo es la vida y el modo de génesis es la madurez” (Matthiessen et al., 2010: 196-7); esta génesis “involucra el acceso al potencial de significado a través de los textos” (Matthiessen, 2006: 47). Esto quiere decir que los individuos, conforme van aprendiendo a comprender y producir textos, van adquiriendo el sistema paulatinamente. No obstante, como menciona Matthiessen (2006), el potencial total de la lengua es una idealización, y

los individuos no llegan a tal grado; el máximo desarrollo lingüístico que tienen los individuos es el de llegar a dominar varios registros en varios contextos situacionales.

Finalmente, la logogénesis se refiere a la creación de un texto por un ser humano, en donde “la escala de tiempo es aquella del texto y el modo de génesis es el de la instanciación” (Matthiessen et al., 2010: 196). La logogénesis es la línea de desarrollo más rápida, ya que los textos se crean de manera relativamente espontánea (dependiendo de si se trata de textos escritos u orales). Las selecciones que hacen los hablantes correspondientes al sistema de combinación clausular son parte de la logogénesis de los textos, es decir, del proceso de creación textual. En este respecto, Matthiessen (2002) compara la manera de hacer estas selecciones con la manera de elegir notas musicales en el solfeo. Este autor dice que, al igual que una partitura muestra las notas seleccionadas en el sistema melódico, también se pueden mostrar los tipos de nexos seleccionados en los sistemas de combinación clausular.

Para ejemplificar el proceso de la logogénesis, se traerá a colación el análisis de la introducción de un artículo de investigación de la revista Estudios de Lingüística Aplicada de la UNAM². El análisis de esta introducción mostró que en ella se encontraba la oración más compleja (en términos de cláusulas de rango estable) en un corpus de 40 introducciones y 40 conclusiones (Rodríguez-Vergara, 2015) de artículos de investigación de revistas de lingüística aplicada. El artículo trata sobre el sistema ortográfico del español y su efecto en el aprendizaje de la escritura; la oración más compleja contiene ocho cláusulas. A continuación se presenta esta oración.

- (5) i Sin embargo, si nos limitamos en un primer acercamiento solamente a las cuatro variables básicas (subsilábicas, submorfémicas y sublexicales) es decir, letras, grafemas, fonemas y sonidos,
 ii para estimar el porcentaje de relaciones unívocas,
 iii podemos ver en los cuadros 1 y 2
 iv que, por una parte, el número de estas relaciones es alta y variable
 v ya que fluctúa de 39% a 83%,
 vi por la otra ^PARTE, su correspondencia no es simétrica
 vii dado que, << como puede observarse en esos mismos cuadros >>.

viii existe un mayor número de relaciones unívocas grafema-letra que letra-grafema (cuadro 1) y de relaciones unívocas grafema-fonema que fonema-grafema (cuadro 2).

En esta oración, cada vez que termina una cláusula y empieza otra, el escritor toma de manera inconsciente decisiones en cuanto al tipo de taxis y el tipo lógico-semántico de los nexos clausulares, y son estas decisiones las que forman patrones secuenciales a manera de partitura musical, así como se presenta en la Figura 3.

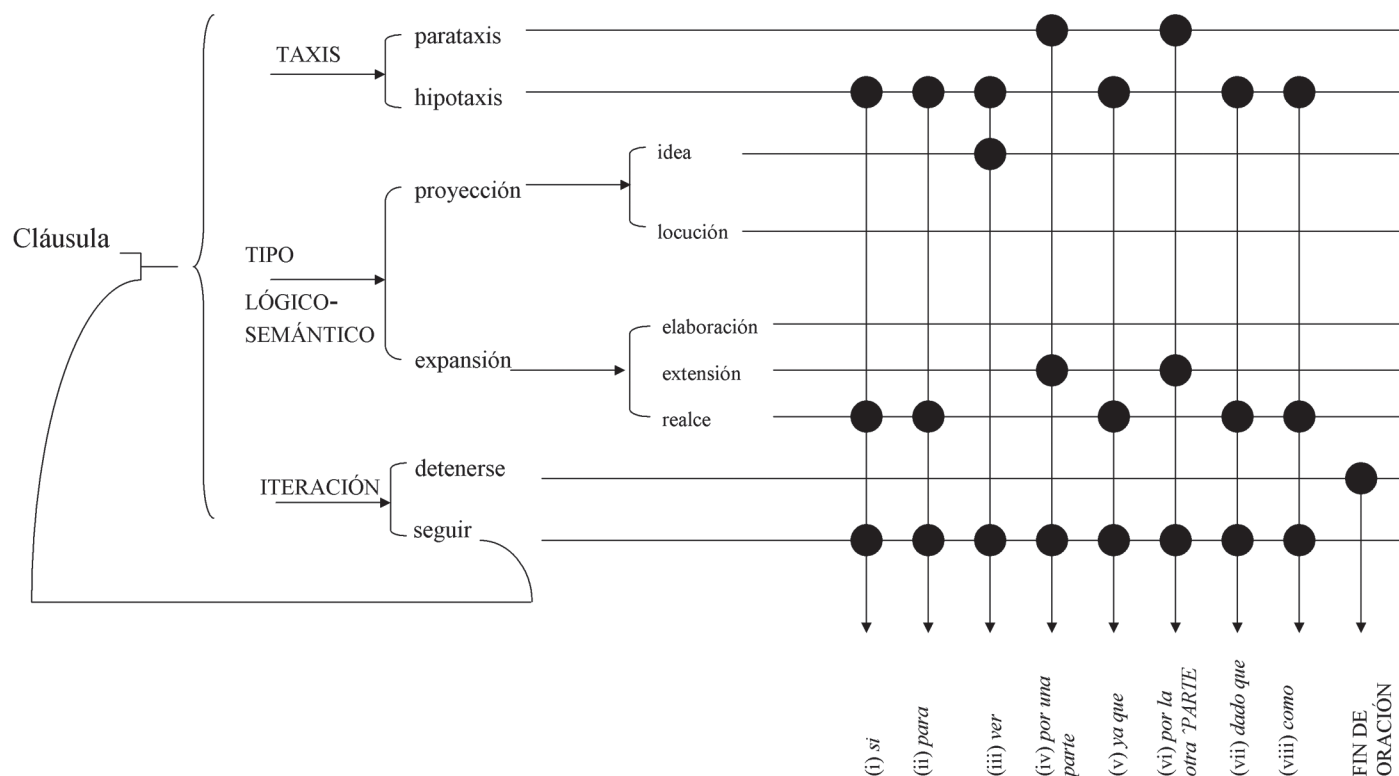
La Figura 3 muestra los tipos de taxis y de relaciones lógico-semánticas elegidos en el desarrollo del texto para cada una de las cláusulas que se interconectan en la oración. Por ejemplo, la cláusula (i) contiene la conjunción *si*, la cual indica un nexo hipotáctico de realce; la cláusula (ii) contiene la conjunción *para*, la cual también indica un nexo hipotáctico de realce; la cláusula (iii) contiene el proceso *ver*, el cual indica un nexo hipotáctico de idea; y así sucesivamente. La figura también muestra que en el subsistema de iteración, cada vez que una cláusula se conecta con otra, la opción elegida es [seguir], mientras que al final de la oración, cuando ya no hay más cláusulas a ser conectadas, la opción elegida es [detenerse].

La logogénesis de los nexos clausulares en ese texto muestra la naturaleza dinámica del lenguaje. Tratóndose de los textos escritos, la dimensión en la que la dinámica se desarrolla es la espacial, mientras que los textos orales tienen una dinámica a través del tiempo (Halliday, 1961). Como dice Halliday (1961, pp. 42), “El lenguaje es actividad estructurada a manera de patrones. En el nivel formal, los patrones tienen una organización significativa”. Por una parte, por ‘actividad’ Halliday se refiere al dinamismo con el que los textos se desenvuelven en el espacio-tiempo; por otra parte, por ‘patrones’ se refiere a la estructuras que toman una u otra forma según los significados que se construyen.

Para regresar a la idea inicial de este trabajo, es necesario mencionar que, desde el enfoque de la lingüística sistémico-funcional, cuando la estructura del lenguaje se ve a manera de partículas, éstas pueden formar configuraciones experienciales (cláusulas compuestas por un proceso, participantes y circunstancias) o iteraciones lógicas (complejos clausulares). No obstante, al igual que Pike, Halliday aboga por una visión trinocular del lenguaje, es decir, una en donde el análisis de cual-

2 Leal, F., Matute, E. y Zarabozo, D. (2005). La transparencia del sistema ortográfico del español de México y su efecto en el aprendizaje de la escritura. *Estudios de Lingüística Aplicada*, 42, 127-145.

Figura 3. Elecciones del sistema de complejidad clausal en un texto



quier fragmento discursivo involucre la consideración de estructuras a manera de partículas (significado ideacional), ondas (significado interpersonal) y campos (significado textual). A fin de cuentas, el lenguaje siempre es multifuncional, i. e., en el discurso siempre están involucrados distintos tipos de significado que no se pueden pasar por alto si se pretende lograr un análisis cuyo resultado logre más que simples comentarios superficiales.

5. Conclusión

En este trabajo, se ha visto la manera en que opera el lenguaje desde la perspectiva de la iteración. Las estructuras iterativas son una manera de representar el lenguaje. De manera casi exclusiva, los lingüistas estamos acostumbrados a analizar el lenguaje en términos de configuraciones, así como se hace en las representaciones arbóreas del estructuralismo y del generativismo. Esto tal vez se deba a que es la manera más fácil y conveniente de hacerlo. Tomando en cuenta los tipos de significado que postula la lingüística sistémico-funcional, es posible observar que la representación a manera de estructuras configurativas es adecuada para los significados experienciales. Sin embargo, a pesar de que los otros tipos de significado generan diferentes tipos de es-

tructura, hasta ahora las teorías lingüísticas no han sido capaces de abandonar la tendencia configurativa.

La representación del lenguaje a través de estructuras iterativas complementa los análisis que separan los fragmentos lingüísticos en constituyentes inmediatos. Además, nos permite vislumbrar la manera en que se forma la complejidad gramatical, ya se a nivel de palabras, grupos o cláusulas. Hemos observado que a nivel clausal, una manera de determinar la complejidad gramatical de una oración es la cuantificación de las cláusulas de rango estable que se interconectan en su interior, fenómeno que se conoce como 'intrincación gramatical'. Aunque en este artículo no se habló al respecto, también es posible determinar otro tipo de complejidad gramatical en las oraciones, a saber, la incrustación gramatical, que se refiere al número de cláusulas incrustadas en una oración (cf. Rodríguez-Vergara, 2015).

Concebir el lenguaje desde una perspectiva bi- o tripartita contribuye al análisis del proceso de creación de los textos; en términos de Saussure, de la manera en que los paradigmas se vuelven sintagmas, o de la manera en que el potencial se vuelve real. Por lo regular los textos orales se consideran más dinámicos que los textos escritos, los cuales se presentan como productos estáticos. No obstante, en este trabajo hemos mostrado que

incluso un texto escrito del ámbito académico puede ser dinámico por lo menos en la logogénesis de la formación de sus complejos clausulares. Así que será importante realizar más trabajos que se ocupen de los rasgos léxico-gramaticales dinámicos y emergentes que se presentan tanto en la oralidad como en la escritura.

Bibliografía

- Costello, J. R. (2001). Tagmemics and the analysis of non-verbal behavior: Pike and his school. En S. Auroux, E. F. K. Koerner, H. J. Niederehe y K. Versteegh (Eds.), *History of the language sciences*, Vol. 2 (pp. 1966-1985). Berlín: Walter de Gruyter.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1961). Categories of the theory of grammar. En J. Webster (Ed.), *On grammar: collected works of M. A. K. Halliday*, Vol. 1, 2002 (pp. 37-94). Londres: Continuum.
- _____ (1979). Modes of meaning and modes of expression: types of grammatical structure and their determination by different semantic functions. En J. Webster (Ed.), *On grammar: collected works of M. A. K. Halliday*, Vol. 1, 2002 (pp. 196-218). Londres: Continuum.
- _____ (1985/1994). *An introduction to functional grammar*. Londres: Arnold.
- _____ (1989). *Spoken and written language*, 2a. Edición. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- _____ (1991). Towards probabilistic interpretations. En J. Webster (Ed.), *Computational and quantitative studies: collected works of M. A. K. Halliday*, Vol. 6, 2005 (pp. 42-62). Londres: Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K. y Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. (1999). *Constructing experience through meaning: a language-based approach to cognition*. Londres: Continuum.
- Hyams, N. (1999). Underspecification and modularity in early syntax: a formalist perspective on language acquisition. En M. Darnell (Ed.), *Functionalism and formalism in linguistics: general papers* (pp. 387-413). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Kellman, P. J. (2000). An update on Gestalt Psychology. En B. Landau, J. Sabini, J. Jonides & E. L. Newport (Eds.), *Perception, cognition, and language: Essays in honor of Henry and Lila Gleitman* (pp. 157-190). Cambridge: The MIT Press.
- Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: system and structure*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- _____ (2004). Prosodic 'structure': grammar for negotiation. *Ilha do desterro: A journal of English language, literatures in English and cultural studies*, 46, 41-82.
- Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2002). Lexicogrammar in discourse development: logogenetic patterns of wording. En G. Huang y Z. Wang (Eds.), *Discourse and Language Functions* (pp. 2-25). Shanghai: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- _____ (2006). Educating for advanced foreign language capacities: exploring the meaning-making resources of languages systemic-functionally. En H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Advanced language learning: the contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky* (pp. 31-57). Londres: Continuum.
- Matthiessen, C. M. I. M., Teruya, K. y Lam, M. (2010). *Key terms in systemic functional linguistics*. Londres: Continuum.
- Pike, K. L. (1959). Language as particle, wave, and field. En R. M. Brend (Ed.), *Kenneth L. Pike: selected writings, 1972* (pp. 129-143). La Haya: Mouton.
- Plum, G. y Cowling, A. (1987). Social constraints on grammatical variables: tense choice in English. En R. Steele y T. Threadgold (Eds.), *Language topics: essays in honour of Michael Halliday*, Vol. 1. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Rodríguez-Vergara, D. (2015). Relaciones clausulares y discursivas en la escritura académica: análisis funcional de artículos de investigación en español e inglés. Tesis para obtener el grado de Doctor en Lingüística. Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México.

TEXTBOOK VS WHITEBOARD: EXAMINING THE INTERTEXTUAL MULTIMODAL RELATIONS WITHIN THE EFL CLASSROOM

Areli Nailea Flores García

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla
anfg24@hotmail.com

Michael T. Witten

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla
michael.witten@correo.buap.mx

Abstract

The current study attempts to outline the significance of intertextual and multimodal relations established between two important entities within an EFL classroom: the textbook and the whiteboard. The design quality of language textbooks has been considerably improving over time, becoming an avant-garde multimodally arranged classroom tool (Breen & Candlin, 1987; van Leeuwen, 2005). However, the effectiveness of such resources strongly relies on teachers' interpretations and mediation of the content onto the whiteboard. The visual relation established between the content of the textbook regularly presents a certain level of consistency with the organization of the textual-graphic information displayed on the whiteboard by the teacher. These relations may play a major role in facilitating language learning if the information presented is to assist students' intertextual connections by outlining a successful fusion between textual input and meaning (Lemke, 2004; Kress, 2010). Therefore, the following study presents excerpts of a Multimodal Discourse Analysis from a larger study in an attempt to raise awareness among language educators about the impact that intertextual and multimodal relations have on students' language learning. The results of the investigation suggest that the role of the teacher as mediator of both ideological and pedagogical contents may be more significant than previously believed within the field of English Language Teaching.

Keywords: multimodality, intertextuality, discourse, textbook, whiteboard.

Resumen

El presente estudio intenta delinear la importancia de las relaciones intertextuales y multimodales establecidas entre dos de las entidades más importantes dentro del aula de inglés: el libro de texto y el pizarrón. La calidad del diseño de los libros de idiomas ha mejorado considerablemente con el tiempo y se ha convertido en una herramienta de clase vanguardista y de naturaleza multimodal (Breen & Candlin, 1987; van Leeuwen, 2005). Sin embargo, la efectividad de este recurso se basa en gran medida en las interpretaciones y la mediación del maestro plasmando dicho contenido en el pizarrón. La relación visual establecida entre el contenido del libro de texto frecuentemente presenta cierto nivel de coherencia con la organización de la información textual - gráfica mostrada por el maestro sobre el pizarrón. Estas relaciones desempeñan un papel importante dentro del aprendizaje de idiomas ya que la información mostrada puede facilitar las conexiones intertextuales de los estudiantes y resultar en una incorporación exitosa entre forma y significado (Lemke, 2004; Kress, 2010). Es por lo anterior que el siguiente estudio presenta extractos de un Análisis Multimodal del Discurso más extenso para elevar la conciencia entre los educadores de idiomas sobre el impacto que tienen las relaciones intertextuales y multimodales en el aprendizaje de los estudiantes. Los resultados del estudio sugieren que el papel del profesor en mediar los contenidos ideológicos y pedagógicos del libro de texto es significativo y merece más atención de lo que se creía anteriormente.

Palabras claves: multimodalidad, intertextualidad, discurso, libro de texto, pizarrón.

Recibido el 27 de abril, 2019 - Aceptado el 20 de junio, 2019.

1. Introduction

Language classrooms are by their nature, multimodal-multisemiotic spaces, rich in meaning making resources due to the variety of activities performed there as learners pursue their goals to practice and improve learning outcomes (Manghi, Lagos & Pizarro, 2016). One of the most salient resources is the whiteboard along with multimodal resources such as language learning textbooks (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2005; van Leeuwen, 2005). Textbooks are typically chosen and have been massively utilized for foreign language teaching due to their diversity of design and content as they have become more sophisticated and specialized over time (Breen & Candlin, 1987). Textbook producers are now more critical in terms of the multimodal rhetorical devices that they employ during textbook design such as enumeration, headings, charts, pictures and more (Bhatia, 2004; Ellis & Ellis, 1987). In order to achieve such critical sophistication, experts in linguistics, language teaching, graphic design and editors collaborate behind the production of textbooks. However, little attention has been given to the fact that textbook producers will not be present to aid in the actual use of the textbooks (Curd-Christiansen & Weniger, 2015). Textbook contents normally reach students only through carefully planned lessons after they are interpreted and mediated by the language instructor inside the classroom (Swales, 1995). Teachers select and take advantage of the topics and pedagogic tools contained within the textbook in an attempt to optimize these contents for their learners, often complementing the textbook contents with other classroom resources such as the whiteboard during the mediation process. In fact, textbooks and whiteboards regularly work as a couplet to facilitate students' language learning.

The current work analyzes an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) lesson within an undergraduate program in central Mexico. The Multimodal Discourse Analysis strongly relies on the notion that the link between multimodality, intertextuality and discourse may provide insights and contribute to the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). Therefore, this study attempts to present 1) how the multimodal nature of the textbook can be effectively mediated by the language instructor, 2) how the building of intertextual connections between the textbook and the strategic use of the whiteboard may facilitate students' organization and intake of lesson content and thus, impact learning. The following sections provide the reader with a brief review of the theoretical underpinnings that support this study, providing a discussion of the nature of textbooks, multimodality and visual semiotics, and the notion of intertextuality.

2.0 The nature of textbooks

Studies of textbook discourses have largely supported the view that they are "conservative encapsulations of prevailing paradigms" (Swales, 1995, p. 4) or "repositories of codified knowledge" (Hyland, 1999, p. 4). Bhatia (2004) explains that textbooks display "typical generic characteristics across a wide range of disciplines" and that they all seem to be "driven by their communicative purpose of making established disciplinary knowledge accessible to large sections of uninitiated novice readers" (pp. 31-32). Hyland (1999) emphasizes their role in the socialization of apprentices into a community of practice when explaining that textbooks:

...play a central role in the learners' experience and understanding of a subject by providing a coherently ordered epistemological map of the disciplinary landscape and, through their textual practices, can help convey the norms, values and ideological assumptions of a particular academic culture (p. 3).

Thus, textbooks disseminate not only disciplinary knowledge, but also the dominant ideological values and norms of the discipline. Bhatia (2004) points out that in order to accomplish these communicative goals, textbooks across disciplines often make use of overlapping generic resources that function to guide learners through disciplinary knowledge by frequently employing a variety of rhetorical devices. These devices may include advance labeling, enumeration, description, definition, classification, and section (sub) headings as well as metadiscourse such as summaries and end-of-chapter exercises (Bhatia 1993, 2004; Myers, 1992; Tadros, 1989). Multimodal rhetorical devices such as "charts, diagrams, figures, pictures and so on" are also commonly used in order to represent complex or difficult contents (Bhatia, 2004, p. 34).

2.0.1 The authoring and audiencing of textbooks

Hyland (1994) points out that "any written text involves an interaction between writer and reader" which requires writers to consider "the expected audience and anticipate their background knowledge, processing problems and reactions to the text" (p. 239). Textbooks are typically viewed as displaying an asymmetrical relation between writer and reader "with the writer as the specialist and the reader as the non-initiated apprentice in the discipline" (Bhatia, 2004, p. 33). However, Swales (1995) argues that this view of the textbook author/audience relation is an oversimplification because it over-

looks the role of the specialist audience who evaluates textbooks and mediates their use. Swales (1995, p. 6) rightly concludes that while the “textbook is directly addressed to the student audience, the textbook is constructed for the professional audience.” Thus, it is more appropriate to view textbook production/consumption as involving a triad of author, evaluator/mediator, and consumer rather than the dyad (author and consumer) that is commonly portrayed in the academic literature (Swales, 1995). This observation is important to the current study because EFL textbooks require extensive mediation by classroom teachers (Allwright, 1981; Apple, 1992), which surely plays a role in how the learners interpret the “the vision or theory or ideology” that the textbook author intends to disseminate (Swales, 1995, p. 8).

2.0.2 The (global) EFL textbook

While the EFL textbook will almost certainly display many of the generic features discussed above, it is difficult to find actual research findings on these artifacts that go beyond the analysis of ideological content (Luke, 1991). Hutchinson and Torres (1994) call the lack of supported knowledge about textbooks and their use “lamentable” (p. 326), and it seems as though this state of affairs has not improved much over the years. Nevertheless, within the professional ELT literature the global EFL textbook has been characterized in various ways, most often with a quite negative undertone. For example, Bell and Gower (1998) refer to:

the singing-and-dancing, glitzy (expensive) multi-media package, usually produced in a native-speaker situation but destined for the world with all language in the book (including rubrics) in the target language (p. 117).

Both Littlejohn (1998) and Masuhara (1998) comment on the ever-increasing multimodal complexity of modern EFL textbooks, and Wallace (2006) adds that “the average EFL textbook looks lively: with CDs, a non-linear arrangement of text, a paraphernalia of accessories, it is multimodal text par excellence” (p. 81). In short, EFL textbooks are commonly characterized as decontextualized, multimodal artifacts with serialized formats that are produced in the West (usually the U.S. and Britain) and exported around the world with the explicit purpose of English language teaching, yet they are carriers of insidious cultural messages and serve as ambassadors of a highly idealized international speech community (Gray, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2008; Littlejohn, 1998).

2.0.3 An alternative (positive) view of the global EFL textbook

While the sections above provide a rather critical picture of EFL textbooks, there are scholars who provide an argument for their adoption and (often adapted) use in diverse classroom settings around the world. Allright (1981), in an article that is often interpreted as an attack on textbooks, actually provides a reasonably balanced view of materials. He says that materials development requires a specialized expertise, and that delegating the role of materials development to textbook producers lightens the burden placed on teachers, freeing them to “develop the expertise needed for dealing with practical and fundamental issues in the fostering of language learning in the classroom setting” (Allright, 1981, p. 6). O’Neill (1982), also provides a strong argument for why textbooks are a useful tool in the teacher’s arsenal. He argues that textbooks are economic and attractive, that they lighten the workload of the teacher, and that they allow learners to preview upcoming topics and review past topics (O’Neill, 1982, pp. 106-7). More importantly, O’Neill (1982) claims that textbooks can meet “a common core of needs shared by a variety of groups in different places studying under different conditions at different times” and that “almost all learners at elementary, intermediate and even many advanced levels have to learn the same basic grammatical and functional framework in order to make use of the language in their own particular ways” (O’Neill, 1982, p. 106).

2.1 Multimodality and visual semiotics

Approaches such as multimodality and visual semiotics have been developed to understand how images, text and different communicative modes convey messages according to different purposes. According to Kress (2010), the core unit of semiotics is the sign, which is the fusion of form and meaning. Once two or more people have decoded the same sign, they can connect the same meaning to the same visual patterns in mutual understanding. Language lessons are full of dynamic and open systems of signs and modes closely connected to each other according to context (Jewitt, 2009). This fusion may be present in a variety of communicative modes, and therefore multimodality describes and understands communication and representation beyond language (Jewitt, 2009). The modes employed by participants when interacting may be: 1) embodied, which ‘belong to the human body’ and are real-time actions (e.g. teacher’s gaze, gesture, spoken or body language), 2) disembodied, which ‘do not belong to the human body’ and are frozen actions (e.g. the whiteboard, a piece of writing

or the textbook itself) (Norris, 2004). This study focuses mainly on two disembodied communicative modes: the textbook and the whiteboard, which carry great significance since “these actions are frozen in the material objects themselves and are therefore evident” to classroom participants (Norris, 2004, p. 14). However, the analysis will also focus on the instructor’s embodied communicative modes within the lesson at issue.

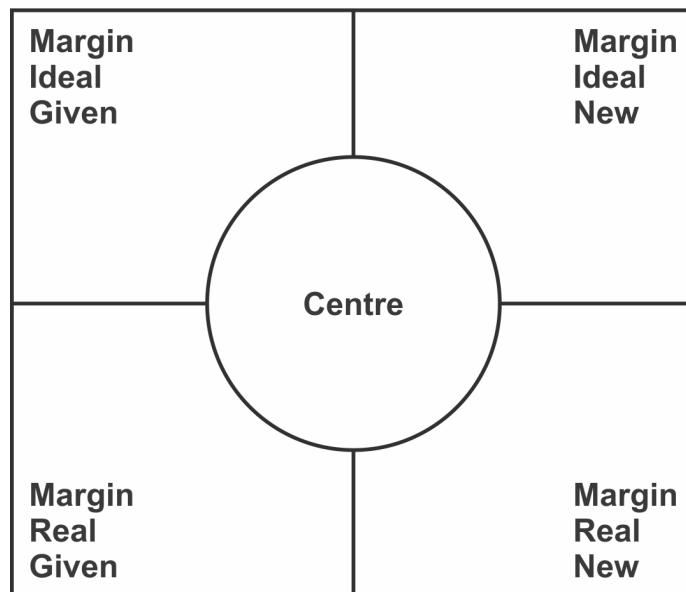
The three foci of analysis, textbook, whiteboard and teacher will be examined using three semiotic systems from Kress and van Leeuwen’s (2006) grammar of visual design framework. These are: 1) the represented participants, 2) the interactive participants and 3) composition, which, according to Scollon and Scollon (2003), are semiotic systems that can demonstrate “how interaction order is visually depicted” (p. 86).

Still shots from the lesson studied will be presented and analyzed according to Kress and van Leeuwen’s (2006) approach. These shots have been chosen according to the amount of activity exemplifying the three semiotic systems: 1) the represented participants are the construction element used in a picture (person, image, text, graph or logo). The representation of the participants in pictures also considers the vectors (directions of gaze or visual depictions) present when one participant looks at another one or points towards a specific space. The first type of semiotic system places special focus on the teacher’s embodied vectors during the lesson recorded.

The second semiotic prompt is the participants’ interactions, which in turn are divided into three areas: a) the producer of the image and the participants represented within it; b) the represented participants within the image; and c) between the represented participants and the viewer/reader (Scollon & Scollon, 2003). This semiotic system will allow us to analyze the visual arrangement of the textbook, which in itself is the most multimodally designed classroom resource. That is to say, the visual items within the textbook layout such as images, colors, tables and text can be analyzed according to the relations items have with one another. Images as a resource for representation, just as language, have particular regularities, which is also the subject of this study. However, language does not have or need angles of vision to achieve visual perspective, nor does it need spatial dispositions of elements to achieve the meanings of syntactic relations. Images, on the other hand, have and need both (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006; Scollon & Scollon, 2003). Therefore, the current analyses will largely rely on the last semiotic system which is composition. The two main disembodied modes studied, the textbook

layout and the whiteboard have been polarized. According to Kress & van Leeuwen (2006), most layouts when polarized, are divided into Given and New (information) and Ideal and Real representations. When the layout makes a significant use of the center by placing one element in the middle and the other elements around it, these are referred to as, Center and Margins respectively. This is graphically shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The dimensions of visual space (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.197).



However, each mode of communication as a semiotic system has rules and regularities (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001 in Norris, 2004). In educational settings, the communicative modes present are shaped by the daily interaction of participants in real time (Jewitt, 2009). Each lesson, the whiteboard starts as an empty canvas and thus, the general layout and/or polarization, graphics, drawings and written text depend completely on the teacher’s criteria and expertise in layout. This may create either negative or positive visual affordances for students to take notes and emulate the teacher’s use of layout or even font color in the case of colored markers being used. Hence, in visual composition we may encounter, on the one hand, the (non) polarization of the whiteboard, which is often orchestrated by instructors through their own selection and configuration of communicative modes during lessons. On the other hand, the visual composition of the textbook, which is configured by its ‘producer(s)’. This means that the polarization and therefore the arrangement of the textbook has been carefully planned and organized, but by a classroom outsider.

The relevance of such a complex relationship between these two disembodied modes and the participants involved, especially the teacher, is the construction of representations of the English language along with other ideational notions. In this study, the use of multimodal analysis within educational contexts attempts to focus and interpret multimodal interactions beyond language itself and its implications on language learning. Multimodality is an appropriate theoretical/methodological framework for the current study since it allows us to realize how students and teachers co-produce notions of ability, inclusion, participation and (at times) resistance to the use of semiotic resources at their disposal (Norris, 2004).

2.2 Multimodal interactions

Multimodal analysis grants considerable attention to the notion of context and interaction because both language and visual communication express meanings shaped by cultures in society (Jewitt, 2009; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). Within an ELF lesson, various modes are constitutive of social interaction and identities with interest in habitus and embodiment (Jewitt, 2009; Norris, 2004). The lesson at issue displays a variety of multimodal resources used during interactions since such modes go beyond perceiving interaction as “linguistic-only”. Thus, the interest is in how actors utilize embodied and disembodied modes (Norris, 2004), e. g. how participants use real-time actions, such as gaze, gesture, posture, spoken language, or frozen-actions such as the whiteboard or course book. In addition to these elements, the data in this study will also provide examples of visual design elements such as vectors (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). Vectors are a significant semiotic mode when following certain reading/visual paths which dictate the distribution and relevance of the viewers’ focus, and create the contrast between foreground and background (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006).

In multimodal interaction, the participants involved concern themselves with the contextualization of communication as a primary objective. Teachers and textbooks attempt to contextualize communication in order to achieve successful interaction with learners. According to Norris (2004):

Communicating is interaction if one person conveys a message and another person perceives it. The modes utilized for interacting do not create a communicative moment as an interaction, but rather the process of doing something to or for or with people allows us to understand a communicative moment as an interaction (p. 149).

However, the strategies that people may adopt in order to achieve communication and interaction may vary greatly according to contextual contingencies. There are significant differences between communication practices in the classroom and non-educational settings. For example, while an EFL lesson and casual conversations outside the classroom use an embodied mode such as spoken language, as interlocutors communicate, contextual factors and the available communicative modes always affect their choices when constructing meaning. Talk outside the classroom does not need to follow strictly a communication pattern, such as the Initiation- Response - Feedback (IRF) pattern (van Lier, 2001) because the context does not require such a rigid hierarchical order. This draws attention to the unique nature of classroom talk, and careful attention must be paid to the communicative practices that this context requires and affords (van Lier, 2001). Intertextuality here may serve as a tool to build bridges between the available communicative modes in order to achieve specific learning objectives effectively. The concept of Intertextuality is discussed in further detail below.

2.3 Intertextuality

Simply defined, intertextuality is “the juxtaposition of different texts” (Bloomer & Egan-Roberts, 1993, p. 305). This term and the idea that no text is ever the product of a single speaker is now commonplace (Kamberelis & Scott, 1992). Lemke (2004) makes the point quite eloquently, “Every text, the discourse of every occasion, makes its social meanings against the backgrounds of other texts, and the discourses of other occasions” (p. 3). The concept has remained prevalent because intertextuality is an important meaning making tool within communities of practice. This is because the meanings we make and how we make them “depend on the currency in our communities of other texts we recognize as having certain definite kinds of relationships with one another” (Lemke, 2004, p. 3). As such, texts are inherently dialogic, and according to Fairclough (1992), “the concept of intertextuality points to the productivity of texts, to how texts can transform and restructure prior texts. In short, intertextuality may imbue a text with new voice (Kamberelis & Scott, 1992).

Drawing on Bakhtin’s (1981, 1986) work, Kamberelis & Scott (1992) extrapolate five ways in which Bakhtin claims a voice may be appropriated and transformed. These include: “direct quotation, imitation, stylization, parody and hidden polemic” (p. 370). Direct quotation is a straightforward appropriation of another’s discourse, which is explicitly marked. These appropri-

tion strategies are normally employed when a text producer believes the original utterance to be authoritative, and as such, indispensable to their discursive intentions. Imitation is the complete emulation of another's discourse. It essentially represents a merging of two voices where the appropriator is fully invested in the discourse (Kamberelis & Scott, 1992, p. 371). Stylization represents an appropriation of various aspects of another's discourse in order to create a similar effect, yet maintains a certain distance through various means such as differentiated syntax and/or discursive style. Parody represents an overtly polyphonic discourse. Bakhtin's (1984) description of such texts is succinct, "the second voice, once having made its home in the other's discourse, clashes hostilely with its primordial host and forces him to serve directly opposing aims. Discourse becomes an arena of battle between two voices" (p. 193). Hidden polemic utterances allow a text producer to recontextualize the utterance of another so that the meanings are altered by the new context. In doing so, the appropriator actively influences the original utterance (Kamberelis & Scott, p. 372).

Lemke (2004), claims that intertextuality allows meanings to be communicated through particular texts or modes that depend on the existence of other texts/modes, which are recognized as having certain relationships with one another. That is, meanings are made through the relations between two texts or modes; meanings that cannot be linked within a single text (Lemke, 2004). In addition, Kamberelis and Scott (1992) outline the various interpretations the concept of "text" has within intertextuality:

from a semiotic point of view, any meaningful artifact may be viewed as a text...there are many kinds of texts (e.g., smiles, road signs, paintings, films, dance productions, novels)...Language almost always occurs as a text, and not as isolated words and sentences. Texts are produced in specific social situations and for specific purposes (p. 361).

From this point of view, intertextual analysis becomes a suitable approach to closely study teaching competence and communication management. Lemke (2004) points out that in current educational research, data is presented in the form of texts, such as transcripts, images, the use of body language among other embodied and disembodied modes. Therefore, the intertextual and multimodal connections this study concerns itself with are mainly between 1) textbook content and the

teacher's embodied language, 2) the textbook and the visual arrangement of the whiteboard, and 3) the teacher's embodied language in relation to whiteboard content. This may give an example of how teachers and students are continuously constructing intertextual relationships. This construction is essential for classroom dynamics, since they are an assembly of cultural ideology, a system for assigning meaning and significance to what is said and done as they define classroom participants and their roles, including the textbook and whiteboard (Bloome & Bailey, 1992 in Gee & Green, 1998).

The use of this type of analysis may also provide us with insights about the influence of context on classroom interaction. The discourses of linguistic or institutional norms and other articulations of power shape and regulate people's use of meaning-making modes and resources (van Leeuwen, 2005). As such, we are presented with questions based on possible hierarchies of power. How does the interaction between teacher and textbook determine the shape of communication about lesson content? Which of these two actors are predominant in shaping meaning making practices within ELT lessons?

Such relationships within educational settings turns communication practices into a complex interactional system. Therefore, van Lier (2001) reminds us that research must be focused holistically but also on the smallest details, and should "allow us not to generalize but to particularize, that is, to adapt our skills, ideas, and strategies to the changing circumstances and the multifarious influences of the context" (p. 90). Close attention must be paid to the macro and micro details of classrooms (participants' intentions and purposes; lesson dynamics and the artifacts managed within the space), which make communication in classrooms far distinct from non-educational settings.

3.0 Methodology

This study adopts as its methodological framework, an ethnographic classroom analysis since it required the observation of an authentic EFL lesson. The term ethnography "refers to a range of diverse and ever-changing research approaches originating in anthropological and sociological research...[whose purpose] is to come to a deeper understanding of how individuals view and participate in their own social and cultural worlds" (Harklau, 2005, p. 179). An approach to Multimodal Classroom Discourse Analysis would optimally involve longitudinal, ethnographic study, which is what Gee and Green (1998) call "the ideal case" (p. 149). However, they go on to claim that "it is possible to examine a 'slice of life' from this perspective to obtain an emic perspective on social

participation” (p. 149) within a given classroom. This “slice of life” approach was adopted for the current study as a single lesson is the object of analysis; however, such an approach to ethnography carries with it certain limitations. Watson-Gegeo’s (1988) observations are worth quoting at length:

one of the hallmarks of ethnographic method is intensive, detailed observation of a setting over a long period of time. Ideally an ethnographer observing a university-level ESL class, for example, would observe all class meetings for the entire semester, conduct interviews with a sample of the student and teacher, and observe the students in other settings, if possible (p. 583).

Furthermore,

One of the greatest weaknesses in many published studies is their reliance on a few anecdotes used to support the researcher’s theoretical point of view or conclusions...when illustrative examples are presented in an ethnographic report, they should be the result of a systematic selection of representative examples, in which both variation and central tendency or typicality in the data are reflected. Anything less caricatures rather than characterizes what the ethnographer has observed and recorded (Watson-Gegeo, p. 585).

Watson-Gegeo (1988) makes an important point here, and the “slice of life” approach to ethnography clearly does not meet the quality criteria presented above. Recognizing this limitation, the study does not make strong claims or generalizations about the central tendencies of the classroom culture under investigation. On the contrary, while recognizing that lessons take place within classroom cultures, the study is only concerned with the happenings confined to the lesson under investigation. As such, the study explores that which is *possible* within a lesson, *not* that which is probable.

The selection of data was contingent on the researcher’s ability to observe and video record textbook materials in use. The classroom teacher requested the right to choose which lesson would be video recorded. This being the case, the classroom teacher played an important role in determining what data was available for analysis. Apart from these considerations, specific data samples selected for analysis in this study (among all data available yet not addressed) were primarily chosen

because the data corresponded to the aims of the study, namely, the analysis of how teachers use the whiteboard to mediate textbook contents. Technical considerations also played a part in data selection as large sections of audio/video were unclear or inaudible.

The current study also uses discourse analysis, intertextuality and multimodality as approaches to analyze the lesson at issue. Sections 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 above necessarily combine theoretical and methodological issues and make explicit how these theoretical frameworks are applied methodologically during the study at hand. Multimodal Classroom Discourse Analysis provides tools for analyzing and describing the full repertoire of semiotic resources that participants use to communicate or participate in particular social situations (Goffman, 1964; Jewitt, 2009). As such, a methodological framework employing multimodal interaction analysis, intertextuality and visual semiotics provides an appropriate basis to analyze the classroom events under investigation.

3.1 Research context

The data were collected at the Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla (BUAP) which is a public institution that offers teacher education programs. The student population at the university is quite heterogeneous, consisting of learners with diverse sociocultural backgrounds (socioeconomic, rural/urban, educational, indigenous heritage, among others). This university is considered autonomous because it is not overtly regulated by outside institutions, and it is responsible for establishing its own institutional and educational policies. Within the BUAP, the *Facultad de Lenguas* offers a Bachelor’s Program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. According to the official curriculum of the BA program in ELT, the general aim is to educate competent teachers. Upon graduation, learners are expected to be bilingual teachers of English with a solid understanding of English-speaking cultures, and with a sound base in linguistics and ELT methodology.

The data for this study were collected during an EFL lesson. There were 30 students (20 female and 10 male students) in the group, whose ages ranged between twenty to twenty seven years of age. They were enrolled in the EFL course level V and their current level of English was B1 within the Common European Framework. The learners represent a diverse population with: rural/urban backgrounds and multiple motivations for learning English. The lesson was recorded with a mini-DV camera from its opening to its closing. In addition, field notes were taken to complement the analyses of the footage. Specific data samples were selected from different phas-

es of the lesson based on the amount of multimodal and intertextual manifestations. The current article provides only sample analyses due to space constraints, and the conclusions drawn are not meant to be generalizable. They are meant only to demonstrate the large amount of multimodal intertextuality that is present within language learning classrooms and raise awareness of the possible influence that the phenomenon may have on learning and teaching practices.

4.0 Analysis and key findings

4.1 Affordances of multimodal/intertextual interaction

In this section, a series of communicative modes throughout the EFL lesson under investigation are analyzed. The following image and transcript analyses describe how the EFL teacher tends to use embodied and disembodied modes to reinforce her language instruction. The selection and presentation of data examines the following

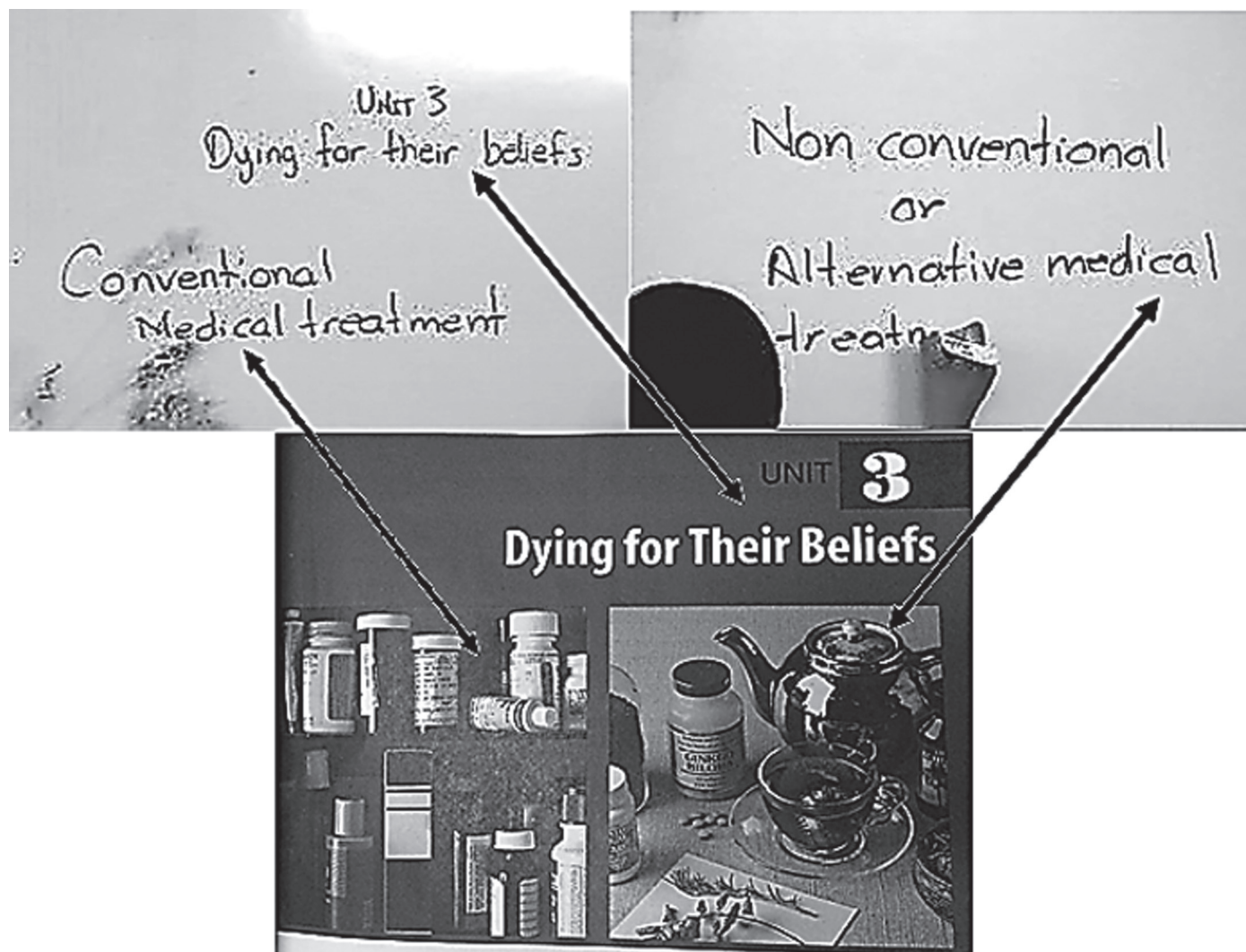
types of multimodal intertextuality 1) textbook content and the teacher’s spoken language, 2) the influence that textbook layout and textual organization influences the teacher’s constructions of whiteboard representations, and 3) the teacher’s embodied language in relation to the whiteboard content. All of these connections will be textually and visually displayed throughout this analysis.

Table 1 shows how the teacher’s linguistic utterances, textbook content and the use of the whiteboard realize an intertextual move (Lemke, 2004). In Line 9 of Table 1, the instructor attempts to create a link between previous class content (Unit 2) with the introduction of the new unit title (“Dying for their beliefs – Unit 3) as an intertextual transition, which in turn is simultaneously written on the board (see Figure 2). As such, the new textbook unit also introduced verbally acts as an intertext between the writing on the whiteboard and the textbook unit cover page (Lemke, 2004).

Table 1
Teacher’s introduction of the new textbook unit (Intertextual transition). T= teacher, S+#= one student participating, SS= several students participating.

Line	Speaker	Text	Observations
5	T	That he writes every week?	
6	SS	Yes	
7	T	Mhm...and did the priest believe that?	
8	SS	No	
9	T	What did he say?... I don’t know why you come to church, and then the priest believed that Frankie wrote to his daughter. Ok, well ... that was unit two. We talked about “dreams never die” but today we are going to start a new unit and that is “ Dying for their beliefs ”. Why are we presenting that? “Dying for their beliefs”?	Teacher points at the board where the title of the new text-book unit is (written on the board at the opening of the class).

Figure 2. Teacher's strategic use of whiteboard to reinforce textbook meanings.



This sophisticated visual input, which constructs elaborate intertextual connections between the whiteboard and the textbook, may have a positive impact on student language learning at different levels. First, it mediates the complex and artificial visual arrangements (e.g. pictures and typefaces) from the textbook into relatable information handwritten onto the whiteboard. The teacher's strategic selection of these semiotic modes simplifies the content, allowing students to construct their own intertextual connections during note taking. The teacher's composition strategies of the whiteboard is noteworthy. The intertextual strategies used by the teacher as she mirrors the polarized unit title and cover page during her whiteboard design is salient (see Figures 3 and 4). She strategically divides the macro space of the whiteboard and emulates where the textbook demar-

cates the given/new and ideal/real regions of the text (see Figure 4) (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006).

As shown in Figure 3 and 4 the textbook and the teacher place the title of the unit and the representation of 'conventional medical treatment' and 'nonconventional medical treatment' within the ideal region of the polarized text (Scollon & Scollon, 2003). Although the textbook displays images, the instructor reconstructs this visual information into a textual title for both types of medical treatments onto the board (see Fig. 2). It is significant that both the teacher and the textbook place 'conventional medical treatment' within the region of the text where we normally find 'given information' (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). This arrangement categorizes conventional medicine as the most recognized method to cure or solve health problems. Placing this information

Figure 3. The composition of the textbook displays the polarization of the images on the unit cover page.



Figure 4. The composition of the textbook displays the polarization of the images on the unit cover page.



in the given region constructs conventional medicine as socially acceptable, scientific, and mainstream. The images that accompany 'conventional medical treatment' enhance this construction by displaying traditional containers of prescription drugs with official labels inside a medicine cabinet. It is an image that is immensely relatable to Mexican students (see Fig. 3).

The opposing image represents 'nonconventional medical treatment' by placing it in the New region of the text. It is worth noticing that the teacher seems to be reinforcing the textbook's visual construction of what 'conventional' and 'nonconventional' medicine is and how it should be perceived as she mirrors the textbook's construction of this meaning on the whiteboard. According to Kress and van Leeuwen (2005), this arrangement categorizes alternative medicine as problematic or contestable. The image depicting 'nonconventional medical treatment' in the textbook presents a variety of visual examples of alternative medicine, none of which appear particularly scientific or mainstream. For instance, a salient cluster is created by the tea pot, cup of tea and the white bottle labeled 'Ginkgo Biloba', which dominates a considerable amount of space within the picture (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2005; 2006). The spout of the teapot creates a vector/visual reading path that draws the reader to the white bottle and thematic association leads the reader to include the cup of tea in the cluster (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). From there, a variety of reading paths are available to the readers/viewers, allowing them to browse through and consider the meanings of the suspicious herbs and odd shaped pills. While Mexican students are open to the notion of homeopathic medicine, the ideological construction of the image seemed to be effective as one student commented in class, "well, you certainly aren't going to drink tea if you have cancer." Again, the fact that both the textbook and the teacher constructed notion of 'conventional' and 'nonconventional' medicine in a multimodal, intertextual tandem reinforces the ideological stance of the text, possibly making it difficult for students to resist.

The final level of analysis focuses on the relation between the teacher's embodied modes and the whiteboard. These intertextual meanings are successfully conveyed through the use of the instructor's stage performance (Goffman, 1981), which takes place in the most salient semiotic area of the classroom, in front of the whiteboard. During the lesson under analysis, this space is used to establish joint-focus among the teacher and students by employing a variety of multimodal resources. The instructor first makes use of spoken language, providing the students with content descriptions of the lesson. Secondly, the teacher directs the students' gaze with a deictic action towards the whiteboard, creating a vector with her index finger that points out to the viewers where she desires them to focus attention. The learners' gaze follows the motion of her hand to the information previously written on the whiteboard (see Figure 5). In doing this, she creates a connection between the textbook contents, the teachers mediated representations of this content on the whiteboard and the teacher herself through the embodied gesture (see Figure 2 and Figure 5). Here we see the culmination of multimodal intertextuality in both embodied and disembodied form, which creates powerful meanings within the language classroom. It is a meaning making strategy that is ubiquitous within classrooms around the world, and its effectiveness is undoubtedly enhanced by the asymmetrical nature of the classroom affording it with highly persuasive properties (Breen, 2001).

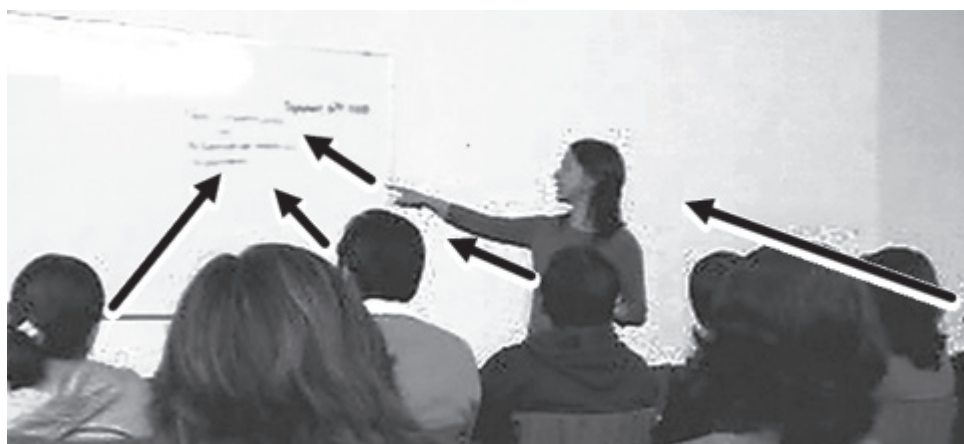
To conclude, the sample analysis above demonstrated that multimodal intertextuality is a meaning making strategy that is managed effectively by the teachers in this lesson, even if she most probably employing the strategy largely instinctively and largely unaware of its highly persuasive nature. The data showed that both, textbooks

and the whiteboard are very meaningful tools within classrooms. The analyses provided evidence that spoken language (although perceived as the primary mode in interactional events) along with embodied prompts and the use of artifacts have a significant effect on learning outcomes and classroom events (Norris, 2004). The use of these teaching resources may function to students' advantage, but we should note that teachers should be cautious with such highly persuasive meaning making resources as they present potentially culturally insensitive ideological representations from global textbooks to students. That said, in the postmodern era of ICT, perhaps the seeming traditional whiteboard in tandem with textbooks merit renewed attention when considering the powerful intertextual, multimodal resources it affords to the teacher. When teachers mediate textbooks effectively with the whiteboard, learning opportunities are created.

5. Conclusion

Based on the theoretical framework presented, this study focused on key concepts which are instrumental in language learning. As previously mentioned, generalizations for EFL lessons cannot be drawn from this study as teaching contexts and classroom cultures vary greatly (Breen, 2001). In different moments during the lesson, both embodied and disembodied modes were joined intertextually and multimodally in order to create powerful and persuasive meanings. We hope to draw attention to this meaning making strategy that is ubiquitous in classrooms around the world during a time when more advanced technologies seem to be gaining prevalence in educational settings. The data shows that multimodal intertextuality provides teachers with a powerful resource that, when used effectively and thoughtfully, affords maximized learning opportunities.

Figure 5. The teacher directs students' gaze with a deictic action towards the whiteboard.



References

- Allwright, R. (1981). What do we want teaching materials for? *ELT Journal*, 36(1), 5-18.
- Apple, M. (1992). The text and cultural politics. *Educational Researcher*, 21(7), 4-19.
- Bell, J. & Gower, R. (1998). Writing course materials for the world: a great compromise. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 116-129). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bhatia, V. K. (1999). Integrating products, processes, processes and participants in professional writing. In. Candlin, C. N. & Hyland, K. (Eds.). *Writing: Texts, processes and practices* (pp. 21-39). London: Longman.
- Bhatia, V. K. (2004). *Worlds of written discourse. A genre-based view*. London: Continuum.
- Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analysing genre: Language use in professional settings*. London: Longman.
- Bakhtin, M. (1981). *The dialogical imagination*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1984). Problems of Dostoevsky's poetics. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1986). *Speech genres and other late essays*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Bloom, D. & Egan-Robertson, A. (1993). The social construction of intertextuality in classroom reading and writing lessons. *Reading Research Quarterly* 28(4) 304-333.
- Breen, M. (2001). The social context for language learning: A neglected situation. In C.N. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English Language Teaching in its Social Context* (pp. 122-144). Routledge: New York.
- Breen, M. and C. Candlin. (1987). 'Which materials? A consumer's and designer's guide' in L. Sheldon (ed.). *ELT Textbooks and Materials: Problems in Evaluation and Development*. ELT Documents 126. London: Modern English Publications.
- Curdtt-Christiansen, X. L., & Weninger, C. (2015). Ideology and the politics of language text books. In X. L. Curdtt-Christiansen, & C. Weninger (Eds.), *Language, Ideology and Education: The Politics of Textbooks in Language Education* (pp. 1-8). Abingdon, U. K.: Routledge.
- Ellis, R. (1997). The empirical evaluation of language teaching materials. *ELT Journal*, 51, 36-42
- Ellis, M. & Ellis, P. (1987). "Learning by design: Some design criteria for EFL coursebooks". In L. Sheldon (ed.) *ELT Textbooks and Materials: Problems in Evaluation and Development*. ELT Documents 126. London: Modern English Publications, pp. 90-9.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). Intertextuality in critical discourse analysis. *Linguistics and Education* 4(1) 269-293.
- Gee, J.P. & Green, J.L. (1998). Discourse analysis, learning and social practice: A methodological study. *Review of Research in Education*.
- Goffman, E. (1964). *The neglected situation*. *American Anthropologist* 66(6), 133-136.
- Goffman, E. (1981). *Forms of Talk*. University of Pennsylvania Press: Philadelphia.
- Gray, J. (2002). The global coursebook in English language teaching. In D. Block & D. Cameron (Eds.), *Globalization and language teaching* (pp. 151-167). London: Routledge.
- Harklau, L. (2005). Ethnography and ethnographic research on second language teaching and learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, (pp. 179-194) Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Hutchinson, T. & Torres, E. (1994). The textbook as agent of change. *ELT Journal*, 48(4), 315-328.
- Hyland, K. (1994). Hedging in academic writing and EAP textbooks. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13(3), 239-256.
- Hyland, K. (1999). Talking to students: Metadiscourse in introductory coursebooks. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18(1), 3-26.
- Jewitt, C. (2009). An introduction to multimodality. In Jewitt, C. (ed.). *The Routledge handbook of multimodal analysis* (Ch. 1, pp. 14-27). London: Routledge.
- Kamberelis, G. & Scott, K. D. (1992). Other people's voices: The coarticulation of text subjectivities. *Linguistics and Education*.
- Kress, G. (2010). *Multimodality: A social semiotic approach to contemporary communication*. (Ch. 5, pp. 80-102). London: Routledge.
- Kress, G. & van Leeuwen, T. (2005). Front pages: (the critical) analysis of newspaper layout. In. Bell, A. & Garret, P. (eds.), *Approaches to media discourse* (pp. 186-219). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Kress, G. & van Leeuwen, T. (2006). *Reading Images. The grammar of visual design* (2nd Ed.). London: Routledge.

- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2008). *Cultural globalization and language education*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Lemke, J. L. (2004). Intertextuality and educational research. In Bloom, D. & Stuart-Faris, N. (Eds.) (2004). *Uses of intertextuality in classroom and educational research*. (pp. 3-15). Connecticut: Information Age Publishing.
- Littlejohn, A. (1998). The analysis of language teaching materials: inside the Trojan Horse. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 190-215). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Luke, A. (1991). Critical research on textbooks and literacy. *Australian Journal of Reading*, 14(2), 88-95.
- Manghi, D, Lagos, P & Pizarro, D. (2016). *Literatura y lingüística* 34(1), 197-220.
- Masuhara, H. (1998). What do teachers really want from coursebooks? In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 239-260). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M., (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Myers, G. (1992). Textbooks and the sociology of scientific knowledge. *English for Specific Purposes*, 11(1), 3-17.
- Norris, S. (2004). *Analyzing multimodal interaction: A methodological framework*. New York: Routledge.
- O'Neill, R. (1982). Why use textbooks. *ELT Journal*, 36(2), 104-111.
- Scollon, R. & Scollon, S. W. (2003). *Discourses in Place: Language in the Material World*. London: Routledge.
- Swales, J. (1995). The role of the textbook in EAP writing research. *English for Specific Purposes*, 14(1), 3-18.
- Tadros, A. (1989). Predictive categories in university textbooks. *English for Specific Purposes*, 8(1), 17-31.
- van Leeuwen, T. (2005). Multimodality, Genre and Design in S. Norris and R. Jones, (Eds.), *Handbook of mediated discourse analysis*. London: Routledge.
- van Lier, L. (2001). Constraints and resources in classroom talk. In C.N. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English Language Teaching in its Social Context* (pp. 90-107). Routledge: New York.
- Wallace, C. (2006). The text, dead or alive: Expanding textual repertoires in the adult ESOL classroom. *Linguistics and Education*, 17(1), 74-90.
- Watson-Gegeo, K.A. (1988). Ethnography in ESL: Defining the essentials. *TESOL Quarterly* 22(4), 575-592.

COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION THROUGH SYSTEMATIC APPROACH: EDUCATIONAL STRATEGY

Benjamín Gutiérrez Gutiérrez

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla
tutorbenjamin@hotmail.com

Josué Cinto Morales

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla
jcinto2001@yahoo.co.uk

María Amelia Xique Suárez

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla
amelia.xique@correo.buap.mx

Marsha Jane Way Souder

Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla
marshaway@hotmail.com

Abstract

Education in competencies must include some conditions that constitute scaffolding to facilitate professionals' learning and training to trigger the creative potential, based on the need to reflect, experiment, adapt, accommodate, diagnose and make decisions; interacting with all the elements of the environment to achieve common goals. According to Auner, Guralnick and Uhomoibhi (2016), it is essential to understand that just as the term "objective" involves intention, the term "competencies" implies results. Likewise, the results will be functional and efficient by developing a series of competencies and skills that allow the construction of new knowledge schemes, theoretical and practical talking. Therefore, this article presents a model which enhances self-knowledge values and promotes both generic and labor competencies. The main aim is the production, perception and reflection of current social problems to create strategies and better manage resources. Based on a systematic approach (Kaufman, 2015; Steiner, 2014), intended to identify problems and needs, it regards short, medium and long-term goals, a selection of methods and suitable techniques, assessment, an efficacy report (summative level) and efficiency (formative level) attained as crucial components of a work plan.

Keywords: scaffolding, training, competences, planning, strategies, needs.

Resumen

La educación en competencias debe incluir algunas condiciones que constituyen el andamiaje para facilitar a los profesionales el aprendizaje y la formación para desencadenar el potencial creativo, basándose en la reflexión, experimentación, adaptación, acomodación, diagnóstico y toma de decisiones, interactuando con el entorno. Según Auner, Guralnick y Uhomoibhi (2016), así como el término "objetivo" implica intención, el término "competencias" implica resultados. Entonces, los resultados deben ser considerados como consecuencia de una excelente planificación, donde se reflejarán todas las actividades relacionadas con el desarrollo de competencias. Por lo tanto, este artículo presenta un modelo, cuyo objetivo es la producción, percepción y reflexión de los problemas sociales actuales para crear estrategias y gestionar mejor los recursos. Este enfoque realza valores del autoconocimiento y promueve el desarrollo de competencias genéricas y laborales a través de herramientas multidisciplinarias y colaborativas. La propuesta se sustenta en el enfoque sistemático (Kaufman, 2015; Steiner, 2014), el cual promueve la capacidad de identificar problemas y necesidades, y conlleva un plan de trabajo que considera objetivos a corto, medio y largo plazo, una selección de métodos y técnicas adecuadas y, por tanto, evaluación y reporte de eficacia (nivel sumativo) y eficiencia (nivel formativo) alcanzadas.

Palabras clave: andamiaje, formación, competencias, planeación, estrategias, necesidades.

Recibido el 30 de abril, 2019- Aceptado el 5 de julio, 2019.

Introduction

Currently, globalization and its resulting major socio-economic changes pose a great challenge on those nations that seek social development and economic competitiveness. According to international institutions such as UNESCO-OREALC (2010), OIT (2018), OECD (2010) ANUIES (2000), human creativity and the capacities to perceive and solve problems must be developed if these nations expect to successfully face this global evolution. Thus, since the end of the twentieth century, the development and improvement of the quality of education have become significant challenges, emphasizing that humans are the raw material to be advanced through the apprehension of knowledge and its implementation in practice for the development of their capacities, abilities, skills and values (UNESCO-OREALC, 2010).

Educational institutions will accomplish human development by working together with the Governments of modern States, through the diagnosis, evaluation and solution of real social problems, students and future professionals play an active part in their own training and learning process. Academic and professional global standards, which attempt to delineate the most outstanding features necessary to be functional and efficient in the labor field have been documented. Then, expectations have defined the way in which education should be improved to achieve such human development, in other words, to go from ideology to praxis.

In this line, constructivism accounts for the process in which human beings develop mental, emotional, and physical abilities. This theory explains such phenomenon within the pedagogical and educational domains so that it is widely accepted as a pedagogical model for social intervention. The pedagogical model brings together theoretical principles produced by different personalities from the fields of psychology, sociology and education at different times. So, incorporating the work of great theorists such as Piaget, Vygotsky, Bruner, Skinner and, recently, Cesar Coll, constructivism describes the process whereby individuals build their knowledge and ways of thinking, by doing concrete tasks, creating interaction with their innate abilities and experimenting within a social milieu (Didriksson, 2008). That is, knowledge is built from the experiences, through social interaction and the mental processes which in turn allow the adjustment of the new knowledge as part of one's own reality (Voronin, Nikolaeva, Sysoenko & Yashayev, (2014). According to the above, in this new era, and in the shadow of globalization, neoliberalism and the society of knowledge, education must be constituted by precepts.

These axioms should guide men to their self-consciousness and externalization of their being to others, either in their area of work or social performance, by ratifying their constant commitment to the improvement of their society; where theory and practice are linked for the benefit of the least well-off. Accordingly, in 2011, at the Educational Regional Report, sponsored by UNESCO-OREALC, the emphasis was on the need to promote lifelong learning and the building of competencies as fundamental elements in the integral formation of future graduates of universities and higher education institutions, not only in Mexico but throughout the world. Thus, the comprehensive training of future graduates demands to focus our attention on the development of competencies and the generation of relevant and integrative processes between knowledge and its use in solving problems.

Delors (1996) identifies links between human development and its social impact, establishing four lines of knowledge, known as the four pillars of education, which are based on the constructivist theory. An analysis of these pillars is of extreme importance in order to understand educational policies and their realization in pedagogy. These four pillars of knowledge are: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together (share) and learning to be. Firstly, learning to know implies that the individual will develop and identify strategies and resources for search, selection and deepening of the information that will be helpful in life. Secondly, learning to do means that knowledge is neither just storing information nor just putting it into practice. Knowledge must rather be conceived as a competency that allows the individual to be skilled and competitive to cope with a large number of situations, working with others for the solution of the problems that the social, labor and professional contexts present every day. That is, people must be equipped so that they can turn knowledge into innovations. Thirdly, learning to live together develops a competency which facilitates the understanding with others to address conflicts and openness to the interdependence, pluralism, mutual understanding and peace, exalting the human capabilities of interaction and putting into practice their moral and ethical values for a healthy living with their similar in order to facilitate the achievement of common well-being. Education seeks a radical change into more functional, collegiate, multidisciplinary and collaborative learning which strengthens work collaboration and educational institutions. Finally, the last pillar, learning to be, promotes autonomy, judgment and responsibility to project our personality more effectively, which reflected in others enhances a sense of the development of features such as memory,

reasoning, and the skills to communicate with each other. Therefore, humans must forge their way to function productively in the context that surrounds them.

The above analysis facilitates a space for reflection about the kind of education to be searched, the quality standards and the evaluation of the scope. Although this is not a very easy task since there should be synchronization between those who provide the policies and those who implement them, management improvement in the quality of education must not only respond to economic but humanistic and social reasons. In short, this means a total transformation of the global educational systems towards the formation of a complete human being, competent to deal with the challenges of mobility and work but sensitive and responsible with the sustainable development of the environment.

In Mexico, the National Association of Universities and Institutions of Higher Education (ANUIES 2000) responds to these changes by summarizing its educational policies in four main principles:

- The close relationship that must exist between educational institutions and the productive sector at regional, national or international levels.
- An educational system that is consistent with the national goals and the productive sector.
- Consistency and coordination between the different educational levels of education by competencies.
- Detection of the needs that the productive sector has in order to be competent and competitive.

The consideration of these principles implies that education must be relevant and functional, rather than a pure academic requirement. Within this framework, the provision of feedback plays a crucial role, not only for the individual being educated but also for plans and programs of study, i.e. the formative process must be more consistent with the local and global contexts to significantly respond to social needs and contribute to solving current national, regional and international issues.

Besides, UNESCO-OREALC (2011), Murgaray and Ocegueda, (1998) and CISS (2008) recommend higher education institutions to commit to the sustainable development of their communities and vulnerable groups to comply with the principle of equity in the diversification of educational modalities. The consequence of such a commitment is that universities should change their ways of organizing and integrating substantive activities: linking, extension, education and research (BUAP, 2007). Universities, then, ought to promote learning by doing, that is, service-learning, defined as "...a teaching and

learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility and strengthen communities" (McClam, Diambra, Burton, Fuss & Fudge, 2008, p. 237; quoted in Douglas, 2017)). The learning opportunities which emerge from such activity create "an educational experience that brings course content to life by applying classroom theories, concepts, and skills within a community" (Scott, 2008; quoted in Byers & Gray 2012, p. 257).

Experience, conceived as an essential condition, from an epistemological point of view, as a representation of learning and the process of gaining new knowledge for adult education and lifelong learning, must be situated with a specific context and accompanied by constructivist conditions such as opportunities to collaborate with others in the design and accomplishment of social projects. Accordingly, university students must address actual situations to design impact projects that cooperate in the abatement of poverty and increase labor of marginalized groups. This exposure to real social problems will, in turn, contribute to the development of values, stimulate creativeness for the evaluation of situations, design and implementation of educational and productive projects. This participation will generate educational opportunities as well as responses to social needs and stimulate the development of critical thinking skills. In sum, education should provide tools for life, involving substantial functions of universities which should no longer just transmit knowledge but enable individuals, including community, to be socially productive.

Education in competencies helps the subject identify what they produce, recognize the process followed, and the methodologies that orchestrate the construction of such processes. However, the incorporation of these social impact projects requires a well-founded methodology, which includes elements, procedures and evaluation mechanisms, to fulfill the professional training of students, in terms of competencies, and social problems that affect vulnerable groups and productive, educational, and governmental sectors.

Hence, such projects should include several conditions that constitute the scaffolding to facilitate the learning of professionals in training. Learning, as a social process, takes place in sociohistorical contexts, where the learners engage with peers and more experienced participants (Vygotsky, 1978). Scaffolding refers to the specific support which enables learners to achieve far beyond what they could accomplish individually, determined by their zones of proximal development" (Vy-

gotsky, 1978) Scaffolding is intended to maximize the potential the learner has for development; by increasing the quantity and the quality of what the learner can achieve with assistance from others. Therefore, the ZPD is defined as: “the distance between the actual developmental levels as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers”. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86) Accordingly, collaborative design and evaluation of projects, scaffolded within the ZPD determined by contextual factors, triggers the creative potential, based on the need to reflect, experiment, adapt, accommodate, diagnose and make decisions interacting with all the elements of the environment and favoring teamwork to achieve common goals.

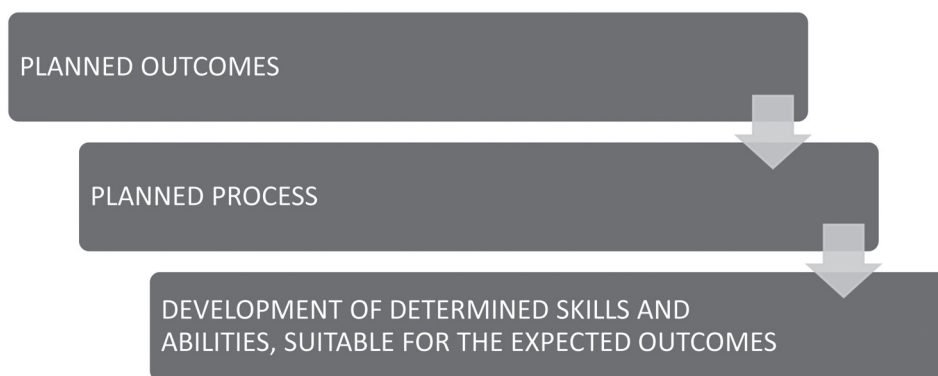
The analysis of the problem of higher education, especially of the BA in ELT program in the Faculty of languages BUAP, led to the implementation of strategic guidelines for the design of impact projects in 2008. Coherence and comprehensiveness were the principles to develop collaborative project evaluation mechanisms, which allow having more tangible and consistent processes to help at any time to evaluate and re-evaluate conditions, problems and scope. Impact project implementation has proved to be the best strategy for the consolidation and development of social linking and extension mechanisms, between the institutions of higher education, and the development and consolidation of communities on the solution of real problems. Thus, the model proposed in this paper, resulting from the actual implementation of social projects in different communities, tries to amalgamate service learning, situated learning, project-based learning, experiential learning within the boundaries of critical humanism and socio-cultural constructivism.

To sum up, the development of socially committed and competent professionals, who can manage their learning processes in conditions that demand to move from theory to practice, led to the systematization of processes and procedures into an amalgamated approach which integrates product and process evaluation that is summative and formative aspects, where results must be wholly observable and measurable.

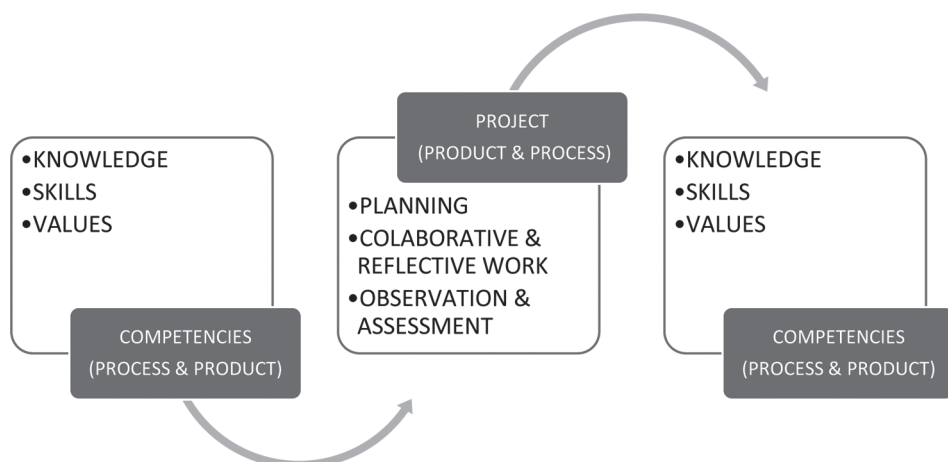
Accordingly, the model pays particular attention to students' performance, focusing on learning outcomes to demonstrate the apprehension or appropriation of knowledge and the development of skills and values with indisputable evidence. This performance is linked, on the one hand, to the cognitive structure of those who operate and produce the project and with the criteria or standards of those who evaluate and interpret it. The result of this performance or intentions is a carefully planned project, which not only concerns the project itself but issues of own self-knowledge and the development of the society or the environment. As this product must meet the quality requirements in terms of the criteria previously established as part of a consensus, then, the results must also be functional and efficient. It will be true, however, only if a series of competencies and skills that allow the construction of new knowledge schemes in both theoretical and practical dimensions is developed.

Based on the argumentation above and the consideration that it is essential to understand that just as the term “objective” involves intention, the term “competencies” implies results (Auner, Guralnick & Uhomoibhi, 2016), the results should be considered as the consequence of systematic planning, where all activities relating to the development of competencies and performance will be reflected. At this point, the effort and commitment of the students will be part of their professional development. From the perspective of Ganem-Alarcon (2019), the performance may be measured as follows, see Figure 1.

Figure 1: Model to measure accomplishment.



As it can be seen, the results will depend on planning which requires thorough collaborative and reflective work. This kind of work involves the development of specific skills, selected in accordance with the result to be achieved. Then, the performance is the cutting edge in the development of competencies, as shown in the following diagram, see Figure 2.

Figure 2: Model of construction and outcomes.

According to the model, performance appraisal or assessment will be made taking into account not only knowledge but also the way it is applied. That is, assessment should be an inclusive developing experience which allows students to expand their strengths. It is a process of multiple dimensions and an integral part of learning, which involves observation and judgment of performance based on objective criteria. The self-assessment and feedback, of both the student and teacher, are intended to know their achievements so that they can significantly improve, and value judgments based on evidence verification (Argudín, 2018).

Students must be offered the opportunity to extend and demonstrate the competencies they build. The students are active participants in their self-assessment and co-evaluation in order to see the level of progress so as to determine if the goals have been achieved. All this is addressed to display the students' ability according to the criteria and objectives previously established, give feedback to the student, and especially to give them the chance to play an active in the assessment process Ganem-Alarcón (2019).

According to Argudín, (2018) and Ganem-Alarcón (2019), self-evaluation shall be construed as the individual capacity to judge their achievements to a particular task, i.e., the students must be able to describe how and when something is to be accomplished, the extent to which the objectives are attained and situate their standards with respect to other participants so as to determine what can be improved. This type of activity must be taught and practiced so that students become evaluators; without forgetting that one of the principles is that approaches and strategies must be consistent with the values, the assumptions and the educational principles that underlie the curriculum. In order to assess a project, it is necessary to:

- a. Define criteria to evaluate performance;
- b. Define individual expected results;
- c. Gather evidence of individual or group performance;
- d. Compare evidence to previously-established specific outcomes;
- e. Make judgments about the individual and group achievements;
- f. Make judgments of value (competent or not competent);
- g. Prepare a development plan for problem areas;
- h. Assess the outcome or final product.

Stemmer, Woolfolk and Hoy (2012) and Rositas, (2008) mention that among the assessment tools that allow you to assess the development of skills or competencies we find:

- Portfolio which allows students to have evidence of their own development in such a complete way that they can recognize the skills that have been developed. The portfolios can include: blogs, personal resumes, evidence of academic ability (lectures and writings) presented in a real way.
- Extra-curricular activities and documents can record the development of vocational training and the professional experience. Such documents reveal the extra-curricular activities in which students have been involved during their training in order to take account of skills construction such as leadership, morality and ethics, community participation (development of impact projects) and responsible citizenship.
- Preliminary and final examinations allow you to compare the beginning and end of the training process. This will allow making a balance on competencies and compare them in order to trace back the developmental process –since inability to perform till the ability to skillfully solve troublesome situations.

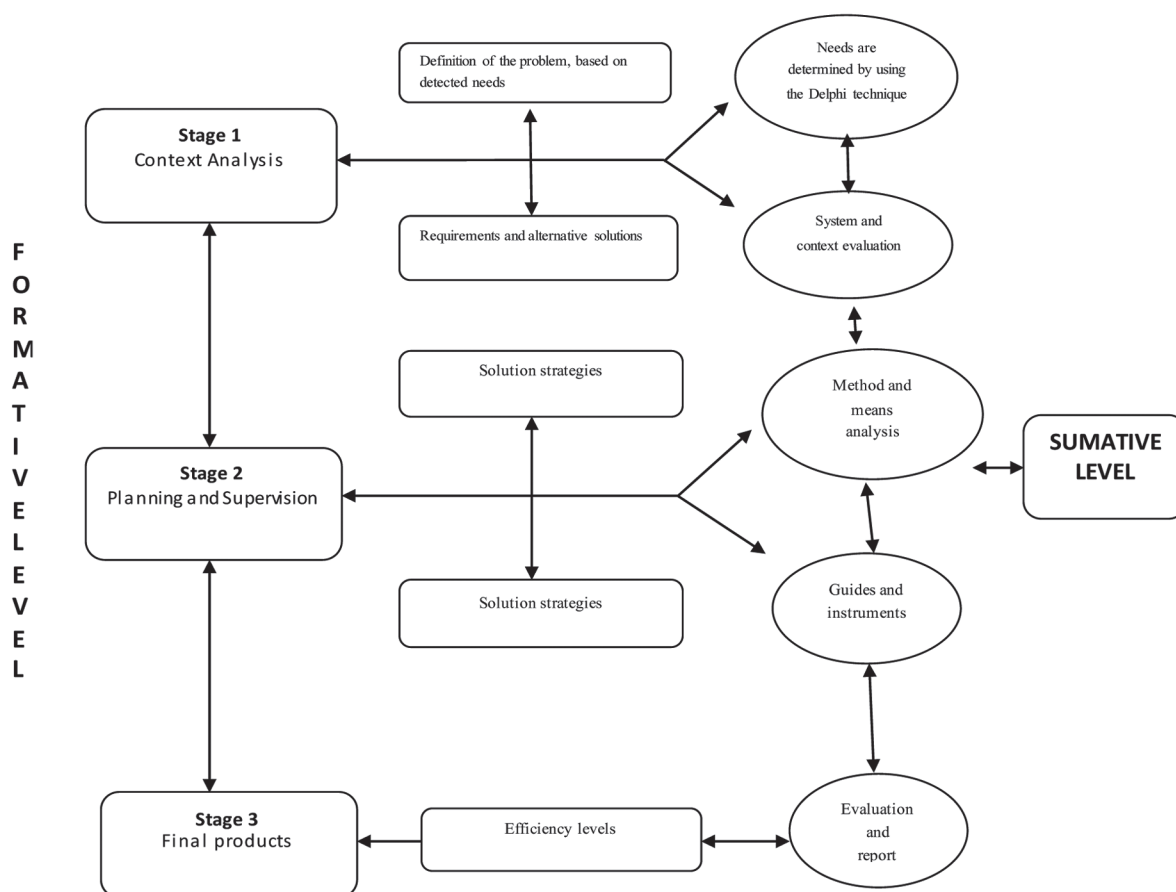
Then, the systematic approach (Kaufman, 2015; García Sánchez, 2012) is ideal for this type of assessment. It is understood as the ability to identify problems and needs, and it entails a work plan which considers short, medium and long-term goals, a selection of methods and suitable techniques and, therefore, assessment

and report of the levels of efficacy (summative level) and efficiency (formative level) attained. This type of process allows giving a clear and relevant solution to real problems, taking into consideration the close relationship that exists between the process and the desired product through a logical guide which requires the identification of all elements involved in the process and context. Another big advantage of this type of vision is a higher development of the students' logical thinking, analysis, autonomy and sensitivity, which will have a significant impact on the development of both generic and professional competencies and these will, in turn, contribute to generating more competent and competitive professionals.

This type of approach, by its nature, permits a constant assessment to objectively rethink and correct possible errors within a teaching-learning process (Kaufman 2015 and Steiner, 2014). In this way, the model adapted to the educational context that concerns us (Figure 1), has two levels. On the one hand, the first level is formative and therefore taken into account since the origin of the project until the final results; it is possible

to make corrections and reassessments at any stage or moment. The second level, on the other hand, will be a summative type and will culminate when the efficiency level reached is reported, i.e. the achievements and real impact of the project. In addition, the paradigm consists of three stages: exploration, implementation and evaluation. The first stage consists of determining the problem to be solved based on an analysis using the Cyphert technique (Keeney, Mckenna & Hasson, 2010), which identifies the current state of a context and makes a projection of a new desired situation in order to categorize likely solutions to the problems observed, in other words, execute case studies. Goals and actions as well as the requirements and alternative solutions to problems that the context demands are dealt with in the second stage with the intention of selecting methods, techniques, materials and strategies, considering their counterparts. Finally, in the third stage, it is possible to periodically and systematically assess and report the level of efficiency and effectiveness achieved, employing portfolios, recordings, conferences and publications, among many others, see figure 3.

Figure3: System model and elements of impact projects.



This type of model is more appropriate to assess conditions and contexts, from the perspective of the participants in the problematic situation (Chiavenato 2017; Rositas, 2008), in order to determine the changes and level of intervention necessary to generate a solution or acceptable level of improvement within a specific community.

Conclusion

Summarizing, we can establish that the human development of professional people can be comprehensively integrating if theory and practice are linked in a more functional way, taking into account the knowledge and ways of thinking for problem-solving. This, however, must generate interaction with others, making human development feasible and reflecting it on social and economic contributions and development. On the other hand, this model enhances self-knowledge values by means of the use and promotion of both generic and labor competencies. The main aim is in the production, perception and reflection of current social problems so as to create strategies and better manage resources, in other words, do more with fewer assets through multidisciplinary and collaborative tools. Finally, if constructivism is based on integrating social humanism, this implies greater social participation and consistent, high-quality, tangible products that help us demonstrate the importance of the area of social sciences and Humanities for the benefit of human development.

Referencias

- ANUIES (2000). *Acciones de Transformaciones de las Universidades Públicas Mexicanas*. México
- Argudín, M.L. (2018). *Educación y Competencias*. Trillas: México
- Auner, M. E; Guralnick, D. & Uhomoihi, J. (2016). *Interactive collaborative learning*. USA: Springer.
- BUAP (2007). *Fundamentos Modelo Universitario Miner-va*. Puebla: BUAP.
- Byers, L. G., & Gray, K. (2012). *The meaning of service learning in an MSW course*. Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 32(3), 257-267.
- Chiavenato, I. (2017). *Planeación estratégica*. USA: McGraw-Hill Latam.
- Delors, J. (1996). *Los cuatro pilares de la educación: La educación encierra un tesoro*. USA: UNESCO Recuperado de: www.unesco.org/education/pdf/DELORS_S.PDF
- Didriksson, A. (2008). Contexto Global y Regional. En: Declaración de la Conferencia Regional de la Educación Superior En América Latina Y El Caribe. Colombia. IESALC-UNESCO. Recuperado de: www.iesalc.unesco.org.ve

- Douglas Jr. V. (2017). Service-learning as a Useful Supplement to Intensive English Programs. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(6), 1090-1099.
- Ganem-Alarcon, G. (2019). *Piaget y Vygotsky en el aula: El constructivismo como alternativa de trabajo docente*. México: Limusa.
- García Sánchez, E. (2012). *Planeación estratégica: Teoría y Práctica*. México: Trillas
- Kaufman, R. A. (2015). *Planificación de Sistemas Educativos*. México: Trillas
- Keeney, S; McKenna, H. & Hasson, F. (2010). *The Delphi Technique in Nursing and Health Research*. UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Mungaray L. A. & J. M. Ocegueda H. (1998). *El Servicio Social y la Educación Superior Frente a la Pobreza Extrema en México*. ANUIES.
- OCDE (2010). Acuerdo de cooperación México-OCDE para mejorar la calidad de la educación de las escuelas mexicanas. México: OCDE. Recuperado de: <https://www.oecd.org/education/school/46216786.pdf>
- OIT (2018). Las condiciones de empleo del personal de la enseñanza superior. Ginebra. OIT Recuperado de: www.ilo.org/sector/Resources/publications/WCMS_638343/lang-es/index.htm
- Rositas, M. C. (2008). XXV Congreso Nacional de Servicio Social: Diseño, Gestión, Implementación y Evaluación de Servicio Social. Chihuahua: Memorias.
- Steiner, G. A. (2014). *Planeación estratégica. Lo que todo director debe saber*. México: Grupo Editorial Patria.
- Voronin, V. V., Nikolaeva, Y.V., Sysoenko, A. N. & Yashayev, V.A., (2014). *Development of Communicative Competence of a Manager by means of Acmeological Training*. Russia: Lulu Publishing House.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Woolfolk, A. & Hoy, W. K. (2012). *Instructional leadership: A research-based guide to learning in schools*. (The Allyn and Bacon educational leadership). USA: Kindle UNESCO- OREALC (2011). Informe regional sobre la educación para todos en América Latina y el Caribe. Santiago de Chile: UNESCO.

PERCEPTIONS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS FROM PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS IN YUCATÁN, MEXICO

Ana Cecilia Castillo Loeza

Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán, México
ana.castillo@correo.uady.mx

Jesús Enrique Pinto Sosa

Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán, México
psosa@correo.uady.mx

Eloísa Alcocer Vázquez

Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán, México
eloisa.alcocer@correo.uady.mx

Abstract

This article investigates teachers' cognition and perceptions in English Language Teaching (ELT) from Yucatán, Mexico in order to explore and understand the situation of teachers who work in the public education system. The aim was to identify their knowledge about ELT, the way they develop their cognition and how it has influenced their classroom practice in order to improve their English language practice in Yucatan. A qualitative approach was used, with an oral interview to teachers from public high schools. The interview focused on perceptions and language cognition about teaching. Two groups of teachers were identified: those with a degree in ELT, and those with teaching experience but without a degree in ELT or a related area. It was found that the teacher education they received influenced their classroom practices; cognition from the participants was different in each group, and the training required for their teaching practice also varied between the two groups. All teachers presented similarities regarding the difficulties they faced while teaching English in public high schools in Yucatan.

Keywords: English Language Teaching, Teacher's Cognition, teacher education, Public High School.

Resumen

Este artículo investigó la cognición y percepciones de los profesores de inglés en Yucatán, México, con el fin de explorar y entender cuál es la situación de los profesores que laboran en el sistema de educación pública. Se buscó identificar su conocimiento acerca de la enseñanza del idioma inglés, la manera en cómo desarrollan su cognición y

cómo influye en su práctica educativa con la finalidad de mejorar la enseñanza de los profesores de inglés en Yucatán. Se utilizó un enfoque cualitativo mediante entrevistas a los profesores de preparatorias estatales públicas. La entrevista se enfocó en las percepciones y la cognición de los profesores sobre enseñanza del idioma. Se identificaron dos grupos de profesores: los que tienen formación en enseñanza de lenguas y los que tienen formación en otra área. Se identificó que la formación que reciben sobre enseñanza de lenguas influye en su práctica educativa; que la cognición de los participantes es diferente en cada grupo, y que las necesidades de preparación que requieren para enseñar inglés varían entre ambos grupos. Los profesores de ambos grupos presentan semejanzas en cuanto a las dificultades que tienen mientras enseñan inglés en preparatorias públicas de Yucatán.

Palabras clave: Enseñanza del idioma inglés, cognición de profesores, formación de profesores, preparatorias públicas.

Introduction

The importance of learning English has grown due to the needs of the XXI century. Speaking this language allows students to communicate and develop tools to communicate with other people in and outside the country, and to cope with different professional and academic challenges. Nowadays, English is an indispensable tool in order to participate in a global society and the acquisition of new knowledge and life skills (Padilla González & Espinoza Calderón, 2014).

Recibido el 30 de abril, 2019- Aceptado el 15 de junio, 2019.

English is considered a Lingua Franca (ELF), which allows people to inhabit a globalized world, to improve international communication, and to contribute to society in different situations (Castro, 2012). ELF operates in different sectors such as economy, business, education, politics and entertainment (Hernández Fernández, 2012). For that reason, in order to help students acquire English language proficiency, it is necessary to have teachers that are well prepared to teach the language under certain circumstances. In that case, attention must be paid to the professionals in this area so that they can use their knowledge to teach English effectively in public schools. Since they use the target language to teach the subject, they need specific characteristics and training that are different from teachers in any other subject.

Several authors (Bhowmik, 2015; Ramirez-Romero, 2012; Pamplón & Cota, 2012) investigated the elements that are part of language teaching, one of those elements they have in common is the teacher as an integral part of the learning process. Therefore, this study focused on teachers, their characteristics, knowledge and to what extent those aspects have been adapted over the years to address student needs, innovations in teaching methods, and educational reforms. Accordingly, it must be said that language proficiency is just one of the aspects of appropriate training for English teachers. Also, they are required to have training on how to teach the language (Phillipson, 1992; cited in Bhowmik, 2015).

English as Lingua Franca is constantly challenging new shapes and designs of teaching languages. Therefore, teachers need opportunities to improve and update their abilities to teach English; in other words, they must have professional development (Cárdenas, González & Álvarez, 2012). Díaz-Maggioli (2003) mentioned that professional development for teachers is necessary because of educational reforms and new challenges teachers continually face. Focus on the relationship between the way teachers teach, student success, and the need to set teaching objectives according to the student needs, must also include the ability to help students develop the linguistic and cultural competence from the language they learn.

Teachers play a fundamental role in language teaching, as they are the facilitators during the process of learning and teaching. However, in Mexico, results from research called “Sorry, *el aprendizaje de inglés en México*” (O’Donoghue, 2015) showed that: a) almost half of the teachers that are in charge of teaching English do not have the appropriate level that is even expected of their own students, b) one out of four teachers has not received any kind of professional training, and the ones

who have received it appeared to have lower results than expected, and c) 97% of students in basic education do not get the language proficiency established on the curriculum corresponding to level B1 in the Common European Framework. Those findings are significant because it appeared that language teachers in Public Schools did not have adequate training to teach it. In addition, the Public Mexican educational system has been in recent discussions on the importance of teaching English and looking for an appropriate Educational model. In 2017, the Mexican government established the English language learning in public schools as mandatory from Pre-K to High School (SEP, 2017). As part of that educational reform, teachers would be required to master one level of English Language above their students’ level. In the beginning of 2019, the national press rapidly spread the news from Esteban Moctezuma Barragán, Secretary of State for Education, regarding research on using electronic platforms to teach English language, in which teachers were not asked to master the language (Alemán & Vicenteño, 2019). In summary, the debate about teaching English in the Public System in Mexico is not over. Therefore, it is crucial to observe how teachers in this educational system are living the process of teaching, learning, and adapting to new challenges.

Context

The research focused on the case of the state of Yucatan, Mexico in order to explore the situation of English Language teachers about their perceptions of professional and cognition development. The study was carried out in high schools with English teachers in Yucatan. In total, there are 11 schools, but due to the convenience sample, the research was limited to nine schools in the city of Merida. The investigation was divided in two stages. The first stage followed a quantitative approach to identify sociodemographic information and characteristics of the teachers such as teacher education, professional development, and language proficiency while the second stage was focused on the teachers’ perceptions and language cognition with a qualitative approach as described below.

Consequently, the crux of this investigation rests on the issue of creating current knowledge oriented to English teacher training and professional development, in order to understand what individual teachers know about language teaching, what they do, and why they do it. With this aim, the investigation was created based on the framework “Pedagogical Content Knowledge” (Shulman, 1986, 1987) which refers to the combination between the content subject and pedagogy, or in other words the different forms in which the subject is represented and makes

this comprehensible for others. In addition, consideration was also given to “Teacher’s Cognition” by Woods, 1996 (in Cárdenas, González & Álvarez, 2012), which specifically studies cognition among language teachers; it focuses on what teachers think, know, and believe, as well as what they do in the classroom. According to Borg (2003) there are four different kinds of cognition:

- Schooling
- Professional coursework
- Contextual factors
- Classroom practice

This is the precedent used in the research in order to understand what and how teachers and their knowledge are studied or investigated. In this sense, we can see that teachers have cognition that they can acquire in different moments in their lives.

Professionalization of ELT in Yucatan

To have a clear understanding of the situation of ELT in Yucatan, this section describes what has been done over the years related to professionalization of English teachers in the state. ELT training as a university degree is a recent phenomenon in Yucatan as table 1 presents. For that reason, it is common to find teachers in schools that have experience teaching the language but do not hold a degree in ELT.

The first public school was the *Escuela Normal Superior* (ENSY for its initials in Spanish) opened in 1971. ENSY offers a bachelor’s degree in High School education and a major in English language education. Every year, 35 student teachers enter the bachelor’s program. Even when all of them graduated there would still not be enough of them to cover the demand of the schools in Yucatan.

Afterwards, the Autonomous University of Yucatan (UADY) created a bachelor’s degree in English Language Teaching (ELT) in 2005. However, the institution has important precedents as table 2 presents. In this case, the situation is similar to ENSY; every year 35 students enter to the bachelor’s program. Aside from public higher education, there are private universities that offer programs related to modern languages, but none of them are focused specifically on English language teaching, as seen in table 3.

As a result of this situation, the number of English teachers with a degree in ELT is very low compared to the increasing demand for English teachers in Yucatan schools. This is the main reason why we can find such a low level of professionalization of ELT in Yucatan. On one

hand, there are English language teachers with a degree and preparation in different areas of study. They still have specific needs in furthering their knowledge in ELT. As a result, they might seek professional development or certification to teach English, as nowadays they are facing a different context than they did in the past. On the other hand, they have been working with colleagues with a degree in ELT, and they notice the difference in training and knowledge among their colleagues.

This study will help present the different needs of these two groups of teachers as they face the changing reality and current demands of language education while identifying what they know and what their needs are related to ELT in public schools in Yucatan, as well as how they have developed their knowledge.

Method

An exploratory qualitative research approach was used in order to gather information about 27 participants’ perceptions and teacher cognition in public high schools about specific topics, such as sociodemographic information, teacher education specific to language teaching, perceptions regarding an ideal classroom, curriculum, teaching and learning, and professional development in Yucatán, Mexico. The purpose was to understand what they actually do in the classroom while teaching English as a Second Language.

The interview was conducted only with the teachers who accepted to be interviewed during the first stage of the investigation, in which the information collected was about sociodemographic data, professionalization, proficiency level of English, and professional development. 4 out of 27 teachers from different public high schools participated in the qualitative stage in which delved further into information related to teacher knowledge. The four cases are described below:

- Ana has a degree in English Language teaching from UADY and started working in 2012. Currently, she works teaching English to high school and university students.
- Bruno has a degree in accounting. He started teaching English because it was an opportunity for him, and he knows the language. Currently he teaches English in a public high school
- Cristina is an English teacher with a degree from ENSY with major in English; she teaches English in high school.
- Daniela has a degree in English Language Teaching from UADY. Currently, she works in a high school teaching English.

The interview was created based on Pinto-Sosa (2010) focusing on Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) perceptions among statistics teachers. The interview was adapted to explore the PCK from English language teachers from High Schools in Yucatan.

The different sections in the interview include general information, description of the context, ideal classroom, conceptions about teaching, syllabus and teaching, conceptions about students learning, training and professional development. The four interviews were recorded, and the data analysis was through discursive tables and then an inter-case analysis which allowed us to extent the knowledge and conceptions each teacher has and their possible attributions.

Findings

The research investigated what English teachers know and how they use that knowledge by considering teacher's cognition. The results revealed that they have different perceptions of language teaching and learning, and these differences are related to their teacher Education and prior knowledge. Results are described below according to the dimensions of knowledge.

a) Teacher education and prior knowledge

The participant teachers have different degrees and initial training. Ana and Daniela both have a degree in English Language Teaching from UADY and both had the desire to become language teachers because they liked, enjoyed and they were good at it. On the other hand, Cristina and Bruno became English teachers for different reasons but not the same as Ana and Daniela. Despite this fact, Cristina and Bruno have taken some language and training courses to continue with their professional development, but they do not have a certificate for language teaching. The knowledge of teaching Ana, Daniela and Cristina acquired was during university, which is different as Bruno who has a degree in public accounting.

b) Teacher's competence

In this category Ana, Cristina y Daniela consider that a fundamental competence a teacher must have is to master the content of the subject, or in other words, master the language being this the goal students require. Also, Daniela mentioned that the teacher must have a structure of the class while Ana and Cristina consider that a teacher must be updated and have empathy with their students in order to support and guide them during the process of learning. However, Bruno considers a teacher's competence is to be in contact with the language and to master the ability of listening.

c) Teacher's perceptions

Related to the perceptions they have about teaching, Ana and Daniela mentioned that they teach English using the communicative approach, the four abilities (reading, writing, listening and speaking), and try to integrate grammar and vocabulary, which is the ideal when teaching a language. In addition, both teachers provide activities, exercises and examples based on real life situations to their students. All these things were important for Ana and Daniela and with that information they demonstrated the knowledge they have about teaching a language. On the other hand, Bruno mentioned he teaches English using a method in which he pretends that students live and think in English. Neither Bruno nor Cristina talked about aspects related to the communicative approach and the language abilities.

Ana and Daniela's cognition about language teaching has an influence in what they transmit to their students. The fact that they present real life situations provide a significance for the students, it enables them to acquire certain conceptions about the language and they realized that language can be used in daily situations. About the way they usually teach English we identified is different in the four cases, however, Ana, Bruno and Daniela demonstrated similarities related to how they explain and do the practice. Ana differs from the rest because in her classes the first thing she does is to make a review from last class and then evaluates the practice, while Bruno, Cristina and Daniela don't mention aspects related to evaluation and feedback. Cristina said that she uses activities in which students need to translate and make writing repetitions, which is less significant and not very common nowadays. In fact, Cristina shows old techniques of language teaching. In the table 4 it can be seen a comparison among the cases to better understand their perceptions about teaching and learning.

d) Curriculum

About the content they teach, Ana, Bruno, Cristina y Daniela agree on the way they choose what to teach. This is according to the established by the *Dirección Estatal de Educación Media Superior* (administrative offices), which means that they only need to make decisions about the way they teach and strategies they use in the classroom. In addition, the professors also agree on making emphasis in teaching grammar and vocabulary more than the other abilities. Even though teachers such as Ana and Daniela are aware of the importance of teaching the linguistic abilities, they con-

firm that there is very little time in the class to focus on all the abilities.

Another aspect that calls attention is that Cristina takes into consideration the context in which the school is located, this is because she says that students from each school belong to a different context according to where the school is located in the city of Merida, Yucatan and she thinks it is important to have this in mind while teachers plan their lessons.

e) Difficulties

Ana, Cristina and Daniela mentioned the group size as a difficulty in the English Language Teaching, the three of them have between 45 to 50 students in each classroom and the ideal classroom should have between 20 or 25 per group. Besides, Ana and Cristina mentioned that even though the group size, they have multilevel groups referred to proficiency in the language which is more complicated at the moment they teach the language. Another difficulty Ana and Bruno identified is the lack of material they have in the institution. As language teachers there are specific materials teachers need such as recorders, speakers, technological equipment, a projector, etc.

Cristina mentioned that the location of the schools is a factor that influences their teaching because students from the north of the city are not the same as students from the south part of the city. Also, Daniela says that the *enfoque por competencias* is a challenge because as a language teacher she has to use the same structure as a teacher from any other subject, however, her conception about language teaching is that you cannot evaluate English as you evaluate other subjects because the abilities and competences are different.

f) Professional development

The teachers were asked in what way they continue with their professional development and they mentioned different ways. For example, Ana tries to find online free courses about the area, Bruno said that he reinforces the language and Cristina assists to courses when she has the opportunity. Daniela also tries to continue taking courses and reading magazines about ELT and she once assisted to a conference in the same area. However, Ana and Daniela affirm that there are difficulties to continue with professional development such as lack of courses in the state of Yucatan, or they are too expensive. Another thing is that in Yucatan, there isn't a master's degree program related to this area of study.

The participants consider they need further training on different topics. Daniela and Ana, the

ones that have a degree in ELT, would like to receive more information related to High School and how to teach English according to the new reforms and the new educational model in Mexico. In Daniela's cognition about ELT she understands that English language is different from any other subject, so that, it needs to be evaluated in a different way as the rest of the subjects. For that reason, she mentioned that when a person from another area of teaching evaluated her teaching, she doesn't understand why they tell her it's not correct. She teaches according to what she knows about ELT.

Cristina believes that she needs more training about the use of technology in the classroom and how to assess students. In addition, she would like to learn how to handle oral expression in their teaching practice without diverting from the topic she is teaching. So, from Cristina's beliefs she considers that to practice the skill of speaking she needs to change her grammar teaching while it is known that the linguistic abilities are taught as a complement. Therefore, it is evident that Cristina needs to modify that conception of ELT in order to provide a better teaching practice.

Bruno considered that he needs to receive training with an integrated course in which he can be taught about the linguistic abilities. Bruno knows that having language proficiency is not enough to teach the language, which is an advantage because he understands he needs pedagogical knowledge about how to teach a language. The needs Bruno mentioned might be because he hasn't received proper training about teaching English, but something positive is that he is willing to continue with professional development.

Discussion

One of the main findings is that there are two groups identified in this first overview of the situation of language teachers in Yucatan. English teachers from High School in Yucatan are in a transition stage because now there are more schools that prepared them professionally than in the past. With this investigation it was found that there are two groups of teachers: a) the ones who have a degree in ELT and b) the ones who hold a degree in a different area but have experience teaching English.

Teacher's professional knowledge revealed that both groups of teachers present certain differences in their perceptions and language cognition. The findings indicate that the needs for professional development are different according to each group. a) The teacher who does not have a degree in ELT recognize the need to

reinforce the basis and methodology on language teaching, b) Cristina who has a degree from ENSY mentioned that she needs training related to the use of technology in the language classroom which is similar to what Padilla and Espinoza (2014) identified in their study. We can also consider that Cristina needs to update her teaching techniques and strategies as she mentioned she still uses translation, repetition and memorization in her teaching practice, c) on the other hand, both teachers that have a degree from UADY presented needs related to the educational reforms in Mexico, also during the interview both teachers appear to have knowledge about methodology in ELT. It can be inferred that their conceptions are according to what must be done in an ELT classroom.

It was found that teaching English in public High Schools in Yucatan is challenging for teachers. The four cases presented similar difficulties while teaching this language such as teaching groups of 50 students with different proficiency level makes the process of teaching and learning harder. They also agree with the fact that in their teaching practice they pay more attention to the grammar and vocabulary rather than the other linguistic abilities, even though some of the participants are aware of the importance of those abilities.

As Borg (2003) mentioned, teachers create their cognition during professional coursework, schooling, contextual factors and classroom practice, therefore, what they do during the process of teaching is highly related to the training they have received for teaching the language. This is similar to what the participants responded when they mentioned that they acquired most of their knowledge during their teacher education except from Bruno who has just taken some courses.

Conclusion

The investigation shows that in Yucatan the number of people who are currently studying to become English teachers have increased. It is clear to notice that the state is in a changing process due to the growing needs of the society and learning English in Public Schools. It is necessary that teachers not only have a high level of English but also they need to be experts and have knowledge on how to teach it, so that, students are able to achieve the level they require when they finish high school.

The investigation suggests that there are two different types of English teachers in Yucatan and they belong to different contexts of professionalization. Teachers present differences in their cognition and perceptions about language teaching. For example, teachers with ELT degree are aware of using real life situations to teach English and meaningful activities, they also un-

derstand that a student have learned when he/she can use the language to communicate, which is different from what the teacher with a degree in accounting said. For that reason, their needs on further training are different.

Despite the differences the two types of teachers appear to have, certain similarities related to the challenges they face when teaching English in public schools emerge such as teaching in large and multilevel groups, and lack of adequate material and technological equipment to teach English. Also, all the teachers present similarities related to the curriculum, they agree on the decisions they make about the content to teach, the evaluation, and they pay more attention to teaching grammar and vocabulary. The four teachers continue with their professional development on their own; they look for free online course and try practicing the language in different ways.

Language teachers require different kinds of training than teachers of other subjects, for that reason, they are expected to receive continuous professional development in specific topics related to English Language Teaching and also related to the new educational reforms in Mexico. Furthermore, this article can be concluded with the fact that English teachers from this subsystem have different needs of professional development according to the teacher education they have. In this sense, the ones who have a degree in ELT need training on aspects related to the educational reforms and how to teach English in high school according to the Mexican language policy. On the other hand, the ones who do not hold a degree in ELT consider they need training on how to teach the different linguistic abilities.

Suggestions for further research

This article concludes that there is evidence on the need to expand the investigation about English teachers from public schools in Yucatan with more participants who work in Public High School. Based on the conclusions, it is also important to take into consideration more participants apart from the teachers, such as administrative staff and students with the objective of understanding public policies oriented to teaching and learning languages and to have an agreement in order to contribute to get a better education in Yucatan.

A recommendation for trainee teachers is that the characteristics of public education should be discussed in order to prepare student them to work in public schools where there are big groups and different contexts. It is also recommended to promote the participation and assistance to different academic events for language teach-

ers and promote collaboration with their colleagues to contribute with their professional development.

It is also recommended to promote teacher-training and professional development courses for teachers from public schools, and they should focus on teachers' needs and depending on the teacher education they have received so far. For that reason, it is recommended to design a course based on their needs having in mind that there are two different groups of English teachers in Yucatan.

References

- Alemán, V. & Vicenteño, D. (01/28/2019). Maestros enseñarán inglés sin saber hablarlo: SEP. Excelsior. Retrieved from <https://www.excelsior.com.mx/nacional/maestros-ensenaran-ingles-sin-saber-hablarlo-sep/1293074>
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2015). World Englishes and English Language Teaching: A pragmatic and humanistic approach. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, 17(1), 142-157. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2015.1.a10>
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *White Rose*, 36(2), 81-109.
- Castro Oliva, M. G. (2012). *La Globalización y el pacto del idioma Inglés: el caso de México y España*. II Simposio de becarios y exbecarios del CONACyT.
- Cárdenas, M. L., González, A. & Álvarez, J. A. (2012). El desarrollo profesional de los docentes de inglés en ejercicio: algunas consideraciones conceptuales para Colombia. *Revista Folios*, (31), 49-67.
- Díaz- Maggioli, G. (2003). *Professional development for language teachers*. ERIC Digest.
- Hernández-Fernández, J. (12/01/2018). La (triste) situación de los maestros de inglés en el sistema público mexicano. Retrieved from *Educación Futura*: <http://www.educacionfutura.org/la-triste-situacion-de-los-maestros-de-ingles-en-el-sistema-publico-mexicano/?platform=hootsuite>.
- O'Donoghue, J. (Coord.) (2015). Sorry. El aprendizaje del inglés en México. Mexicanos primero: México, D.F. Retrieved from: Mexicanos Primero: <http://www.mexicanosprimero.org/images/stories/sorry/Sorry-digital-ok.pdf>.
- Ramírez Romero, J. L., Pamplón Irigoyen, E. N., & Cota Grijalva, S. (2012). Problemática de la enseñanza del inglés en las primarias públicas de México: una primera lectura cualitativa. *Revista Iberoamericana de Educación*, 60 (2), 1-12.
- Padilla González, L., & Espinoza Calderón, L. (2015). La práctica docente del profesor de inglés en secundaria: Un estudio de casos en escuelas públicas. *Sinéctica*, (44), 1-18.
- Pinto Sosa, J. E. (2010). Conocimiento didáctico del contenido sobre la representación de datos estadísticos: Estudios de casos con profesores de estadística en carreras de psicología y educación. *Tesis doctoral*. Universidad de Salamanca.
- SEP (2017). Dirección General de Bachillerato. Retrieved from Secretaría de Educación Pública: <https://www.dgb.sep.gob.mx/informacion-academica/programas-de-estudio/3erSEMESTRE/Ingl%C3%A9s%20III.pdf>
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Research*, 15(2), 4-14.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-22.
- Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching: Beliefs, decision-making and classroom practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix

Guide questions for the semi-structured interview

Cuénteme algo de usted, por ejemplo, ¿qué formación tiene?, ¿dónde estudió?, ¿dónde trabaja?, ¿qué asignaturas imparte?, etc.

¿Cómo es que se interesó por enseñar y en ser profesor de inglés?, ¿cómo llegó a ser profesor?, ¿es profesor de otras asignaturas? y ¿por qué enseñar inglés?

¿Se siente satisfecho enseñando esta materia?

¿En qué se considera experto y conocedor de la enseñanza del idioma inglés?, ¿puede compartirme algunos ejemplos?

En su institución ¿existe algún modelo o enfoque teórico que señale la forma como se debe enseñar una asignatura? Si es así, ¿cuál es? Puede describirlo por favor. ¿Cómo influye en su práctica docente? y ¿cómo influye al enseñar inglés?

¿Cómo considera que sería la enseñanza ideal de una clase de inglés en bachillerato? ¿Por qué? ¿Qué se conseguiría? (ej. ambiente, tamaño de clases, didáctica, adquisición de conocimiento, interacción, uso de tecnología)

Seis cosas que se le vienen a la mente cuando piensa acerca de “enseñar el idioma inglés”.

Si tuviera que completar esta frase, ¿cómo la completaría? “Mi método o estrategia de enseñanza del inglés consiste en ...”

Describa la dinámica habitual de su clase de inglés.

¿Qué aspectos del contenido de la materia de inglés enfatiza en su programa? ¿por qué?, ¿puede ejemplificar por favor? (ej. habilidades lingüísticas, sistemas del lenguaje, otros) *NOTA: evitar dar pistas*

Comente algunas competencias como profesor de inglés que usted considera esenciales durante la práctica de enseñar.

¿Cómo determina qué contenidos son importantes para la materia de inglés?

Cuando selecciona material de trabajo para los alumnos, ¿qué proceso sigue habitualmente para elegir lo que va a utilizar? ¿Qué características busca que tengan? Ponga ejemplos y justifíquelo.

¿Diseña o elabora material de su autoría para trabajar con sus alumnos? Si es así, ¿qué proceso sigue habitualmente para su elaboración?, ¿su finalidad?, ¿qué características busca que tengan? Ponga ejemplos y justifíquelo.

¿Qué actividades utiliza para evaluar el aprendizaje de sus estudiantes? ¿puede ejemplificar por favor?

¿Qué significa para usted aprender inglés?

¿Cómo se da cuenta de que el alumno ha aprendido o adquirido el conocimiento o dominio del idioma inglés que se espera?

¿A qué le da mayor importancia en cuanto a lo realizado por el alumno?

¿Cómo crees que puede aprenderse mejor el idioma inglés?, es decir, ¿cuál consideras que es la mejor vía para aprender inglés?

¿Puede describir algunas de sus estrategias que han ayudado a formarse o actualizarse como profesor de inglés?

¿De qué manera continua su desarrollo como profesor de inglés?

¿En qué considera usted que necesita recibir formación o actualización hablando de didáctica para mejorar su práctica educativa?

Appendix A

Table 1
Timeline of the development of Language Teaching in Yucatan.

University school	Year	Objective
ENSY	1971	Degree in High School education with major in English
Tecnología Turística total	2002	Degree in Modern Languages
UADY	2005	Degree in English Language Teaching
UVY	2005	Degree in Languages
CEUM	2007	Degree in English Language

Appendix B

Table 2
Timeline of the development of English Language Teaching in UADY.

Año	Development
1977	Language Center from University of Yucatan (CIUDY)
1984	Foreign Language Department (DELEX)
1990	Specialization in Teaching English (EELEDI) at UADY
1992	Self-access center in the School of Education at UADY
1990	Language coordination (CODI) at UADY
2003 - 2004	Teaching English Training Program at UADY
2005	Degree in English Language Teaching (LEII) at UADY

Appendix C

Table 3
Private schools with degrees related to languages in Yucatan.

University school	Year	Objective
Tecnología Turística total	2002	Degree in Modern Languages
CEUM	2007	Degree in English Language
UVY	2005	Degree in Languages

Appendix D

Table 4
Language and teaching cognition from the participants

Teacher	Learning	Teaching	A normal class
Ana	The use of language in the classroom, task-based learning (activities and projects)	<i>Method:</i> communicative (teaching the linguistic abilities) <i>Rol of the teacher:</i> create real life situations, conduct, give feedback <i>Material:</i> recording, laptop, flashcards with vocabulary	1. Greetings 2. Review 3. Explanation 4. Practice 5. Evaluation
Bruno	Oral presentations and creating their own material	<i>Method:</i> experiential learning <i>Papel del profesor:</i> To plan	1. Inducción 2. Explicación 3. Trabajo individual 4. Trabajo colaborativo 5. Socializar resultados
Cristina	Practice exercises	<i>Rol of the teacher:</i> conduct, give feedback <i>Activities:</i> exercises, writing repetition, translation,	1. Explanation 2. Practice with exercises
Daniela	Use of language in the classroom	<i>Method:</i> integrate linguistic abilities with the grammar and vocabulary <i>Activities:</i> the use of real-life situations	1. Review of last class 2. Introduction to the new topic 3. Explanation

USE OF VIDEO-RECORDINGS OF CLASSES TO STIMULATE REFLECTION ON TEACHING PRACTICE

Florically Dzay Chulim

Universidad de Quintana Roo
flordzay@uqroo.edu.mx

Nadia Patrica Mejía Rosales

Universidad Juárez del Estado de Durango
nadiamejia@ujed.mx

Roxana Cano Vara

Universidad Juárez del Estado de Durango
rcano@ujed.mx

Abstract

This article presents the results of a research study at a University in northwest Mexico, with a group of pre-service teachers (PSTs) of the English Language Teaching major. The intervention aimed at promoting reflective practice by using video recordings of PSTs' classes, applying the Stimulated Recall strategy suggested by some researchers (e.g. Baecher & Connor, 2016; Orlova, 2009; Dörnyei, 2007; Gass & Mackey, 2000). Generally, a stimulus is used as a support for the recall, such as 'watching the respondent's own task performance on video' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.149). Accordingly, the underlying idea is that some tangible reminder of an experience stimulates recall to an extent that the participants can retrieve and then articulate what they were thinking and doing during the event (Baecher & Connor, 2016; Gass & Mackey 2000, cited in Dörnyei, 2007). Participants' reflections were classified into three types: descriptive, evaluative and analytical, based on a classification of levels of reflection (Dzay Chulim, 2015; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Ward & McCotter, 2004). Results of a qualitative analysis of data show that the use of video recordings allowed the participants to trigger reflection based on evidence, and to observe their own performance as teachers in order to seek for improvement.

Keywords: Reflection, video-recording, stimulated recall, pre-service teachers, teaching practice, reflective practice.

Resumen

El presente artículo muestra los resultados de un trabajo de investigación realizado en una Universidad del noroeste de México, con un grupo de estudiantes de la licenciatura en Lengua Inglesa en entrenamiento para ser profesores, de la licenciatura en docencia de lengua inglesa. El propósito de la intervención fue promover la práctica reflexiva con el uso de grabaciones de clases de los participantes, utilizando la estrategia de Stimulated Recall sugerida en algunas investigaciones (ver por ejemplo a Baecher y Connor, 2016; Orlova, 2009; Dörnyei, 2007; Gass y Mackey, 2000). Un estímulo es generalmente utilizado como apoyo para generar un recuerdo, por ejemplo verse a uno mismo en video realizando una actividad (Dörnyei, 2007). La idea es contar con un elemento tangible de una experiencia que provoque un recuerdo, a tal grado que el participante pueda rescatar dicha experiencia para entonces articular lo que estaba pensando o realizando durante el evento grabado (Baecher y Connor, 2016; Gass y Mackey 2000, cited in Dörnyei 2007). Las reflexiones de los participantes se clasificaron en tres tipos: descriptivas, evaluativas y analíticas, basándose en otras clasificaciones sugeridas por varios autores (por ejemplo: Dzay Chulim, 2015; Hatton y Smith, 1995; Jay y Johnson, 2002; Ward y McCotter, 2004). Los resultados del análisis cualitativo de los datos muestran que el uso del video permitió a los participantes activar la reflexión apoyada en evidencias y observar su propio desempeño docente, con la finalidad de mejorar.

Palabras clave: Reflexión, grabaciones en video, stimulated recall, profesores en pre-servicio, práctica docente, práctica reflexiva.

Recibido el 28 de abril, 2019- Aceptado el 5 de julio, 2019.

Introduction

Reflective practice (hereafter RP) has been widely acknowledged as a key element in the process of professional development of both in-service and pre-service teachers (PSTs) (Calderhead, 1989; Ghaye & Ghaye, 1998; Moon, 2005; Pollard et al., 2008; Gou, 2013; Farrell, 2015; Zalipour, 2015). There are some studies (for instance Orlova, 2009; Larrivee, 2008; Coffey, 2014; Zalipour, 2015) that support the idea that “reflection and practice nurture each other in numerous ways in the context of teaching” (Zalipour, 2015, p. 3).

There exist various definitions that endeavor to capture the nature of reflection. Most of these definitions describe reflection as a process of critically thinking and enquiring into knowledge, what we believe, our actions, and theories involved in teaching. Some descriptions advise considering the analysis of the context (economic, social, political, ethical, and moral), which will lead to learning, growing, and developing through actions taken as a result of the reflective process. Boud et al. (1985) define reflection as ‘an important human activity’ in which people recall their experiences, think about them, give serious consideration and assess them. Boud et al. (1985, p. 19) state that it ‘it is this working with experience that is important in learning’. These authors state that the unconscious processes involved in thinking about experiences are not sufficient to increase our learning awareness (Underhill 1992; Gebhard 1999). Rather, ‘it is only when we bring our ideas to our consciousness that we can evaluate them and begin to make choices about what we will and will not do’ (Boud et al., 1985, p.19). Dewey (1933), Reid (1993), Osterman (1990) and Loughran (2002) emphasize that reflection is not just thinking about something, but mindfully analyzing and evaluating beliefs, actions and knowledge. Moon (1999) and Jarvis (2001) describe it as a solving-problem and a learning opportunity. Zwozdiak-Myers (2012) and Korthagen (2001) see reflection as an occasion to structure and restructure beliefs and knowledge. Brandt (2008), Korthagen (2001), Mezirow (1990), Boud et al. (1985), and Boyd & Fales (1983) pay special attention to reflection on experience, prompted by the experience itself.

Schön (1983, 1987, p. 28) presents some important concepts in the field of RP. One of them is *knowing in action* or *intelligent action*, which suggests that many experienced teachers respond efficiently in particular situations and cannot necessarily articulate what they know, but use that knowledge and past experiences as a frame for action. This form of *knowing in action* is aligned to *reflection in action* (Schön, 1983, p. 49), which is the re-

flection that happens at the moment of the class, when the teacher resolves an emerging problem. The teacher uses the experience and knowledge to seek choices in the classroom in response to the students’ needs. Nonetheless, as Zwozdiak-Myers (2012, p. 39) indicates, “Schön recognizes that many professionals find it difficult to reflect on practice [...]”. Accepting the struggle that some professionals face when attempting to reflect *in action*, Schön proposes *reflection on action* which takes place after the teaching session and represents a more careful and conscious process. For the purpose of the present study, Schön’s framework of *reflecting-in-action* and *reflecting-on-action* will be used for analysis and interpretation of data.

According to Bolton (2010), RP allows teachers to explore and experience in their own teaching context, to compare their work with others, and to value others’ opinions and perceptions of what they do in the classroom. Furthermore, through RP teachers analyze the impact of their teaching performance. Other authors (e.g. Wallace, 1991; Murphy, 2001; Bailey, Curtis & Nunan, 2001; Pettis, 2002; Scrivener, 2005;) also highlight the importance of reflecting and indicate that being reflective is a crucial aspect in adopting teaching strategies and improving our performance, as well as developing a deeper understanding of teaching and self-evaluating our teaching abilities. When teachers seek for improvement and professional development, it becomes necessary for them to participate in group or pair discussions and class demonstrations. Teachers are recommended to attend workshops, seminars, conferences, courses, as well as to conduct class observations and reflect upon their teaching practice, among other activities (Tarrant, 2013; Thompson & Thompson, 2008).

Despite the importance that has been highlighted by the authors previously mentioned, some in-service and pre-service teachers find it difficult to carry RP out. This can be due to the complexity and different variables involved in reflection; for instance, the lack of guidance in the process of reflection, lack of strategies and tools to support reflection, lack of time to reflect, and low levels of reflection. As stated by Zuber-Skerritt (1989), teachers usually fall into the habit of just thinking in a superficial way about their teaching, without clear guidelines, and that superficial reflection “does not help to address genuine concerns that arise from their teaching environment and hence does not bring about any meaningful action to rectify or improve teaching at all.” (Kwan & Simpson, 2010, p. 417).

It is our purpose, then, to promote reflection by making pre-service teachers aware of the importance of

taking mindful considerations of the aspects influencing their practice; the main goal should be to encourage learning and effectiveness through reflection on their teaching practice and experience, as well as on their environment, in order to take action. It is necessary to increase responsibility over their own professional development because ‘the outcomes of reflection include learning and action, empowerment and emancipation’ (Moon, 1999, p. 65).

Theoretical framework

Use of videos

When teaching a class, there can be many things happening simultaneously that the teachers or PSTs cannot capture at the moment and which cannot be recalled later for analysis. Therefore, it is recommended to video record PSTs’ classes in order for them to engage in post-conference reflection with the teacher or with other student-teachers (Fadde et al., 2009). Sherin & vanEs (2005), Kong et al. (2009), Orlova (2009), and Coffey (2014), suggest that video recordings can supply PSTs with more detailed and trustworthy information and evidence that are grounded in the actual records (not usually observed in detail during the class), rather than uncertain recollections for the analysis and evaluation of their teaching performance, from an observer’s perspective (Kong et al., 2009). As Day (1990) declares, the use of videos enables PSTs to base their reflection on what actually happened during the class. It allows the participants to see and hear themselves as their students perceive them, see and listen to them. By having an observer’s perspective, PSTs can better understand what happens in class. This provides them with more precise and enriched material to reflect on (Knill & Samuels, 2011). Furthermore, Chinnery (2006), Whitehead & Fitzgerald (2006) and Orlova (2009) declare that observing, analyzing, and discussing classroom performance is enhanced and facilitated by the use of videotaping because it allows trainees to ‘notice and respond to both strong and weak aspects of their teaching [...] re-examine it many times [...] and it has a well-known motivating effect’ (Orlova, 2009, p. 31).

As acknowledged by some researchers (e.g. Lee & Wu, 2006; Rhine & Bryant, 2007; Samuels & Betts, 2007; Ramírez Castillo, 2016), a video recording provides time to revisit, to think further, and to expand initial views. Studies by researchers such as Robinson & Kelley (2007) and Freese (1999) show that student teachers demonstrate significant growth in the levels of reflective thoughts after browsing video recordings of lessons in teaching practice. “The use of videos is thus considered to be helpful in enhancing the depth and quality of self-

reflection by student teachers” (Kong et al., 2009, p. 546). Kong et al. (2009, p. 547) state that, through the use of video, PSTs can “construct applicable knowledge about classroom instruction, develop reflective practices on their teaching work, and take responsibility for their own learning”. According to the latter, videos help PSTs increase the level and quality of self-reflection. In Knill & Samuels’s (2011) words, video-recordings enhance and support PSTs’ critical reflection and facilitate dialogue with others. In her study, Orlova attested that students typically show an increased self-awareness and a sense of continuity regarding reflection for professional development.

Stimulated recall

Stimulated recall (SR) is considered an introspective strategy that takes place following the event of study in order to help the participants retrieve relevant thoughts. Normally, a stimulus is used as a support for the recall; for instance, “watching the respondent’s own task performance on video, listening to a recording of what the person has said, or showing the person a written work that he/she has produced” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 149). The essential idea is that some tangible reminder of an event provokes recall, to an extent that teachers can retrieve and then express what they were thinking or doing during the occurrence (Gass & Mackey, 2000, cited in Dörnyei, 2007). The SR is usually done in collaboration with an interviewer or researcher; however, the cooperation of peers is also very helpful (Orlova 2009).

According to Dörnyei (2007, citing Færch & Kasper, 1987; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Mackey & Gass, 2005), in order to stimulate recall we need to consider watching a video rather than only listening to a recording, or merely looking at a transcript. We should try to keep an interval between the task and the retrospective interview; we should not prompt the participants into any pointless aspect that might interfere with their response; and we should promote participants’ involvement as much as possible (for instance, ask them to pause the video when they remember something that might be useful or at critical points).

Methodology

This research was conducted using a qualitative approach because it aimed at exploring, analysing and interpreting an issue using the voices of the participants in context (Creswell, 2013). According to Creswell (2013, p.48), only by talking to people and making sure to allow them to express their stories on their own accord without the influence of what the researcher might have

read in the literature, we can comprehend the complexity of the issue studied. Additionally, this choice stems from the consideration that interpretative research methods give researchers exclusive insight into participants' interpretations of their contexts and realities (Johnson, 2006) what allowed us to better understand the nature and characteristics of the participants' reflective process. As Richards (2003, p.8) states, QR is mainly a 'person-centred enterprise'.

Research question

The research question that guided this study was:

What are the effects of using video stimulated recall in the PSTs' reflecting process?

The research question investigates the effects of the intervention in terms of: the topics the PSTs reflect on; the manner (process) in which the PSTs reflected upon their teaching practice; and signs of reflection development or improvement in the level of reflection.

Context

The English Language Teaching major at the University where the study took place, is a four-year program aimed at producing language teachers who are able to teach English in various educational levels. The program includes three teaching practice modules during the second, third and fourth year respectively. During the first practice module, PSTs conduct a series of microteaching exercises where they teach a specific topic or focus on a specific skill; these sessions take place in the classroom where some PSTs act as teachers, others as students and others as observers. Besides this, students visit different schools to observe English classes delivered by in-service teachers and are asked to write reflections on what they observe.

In the second module, PSTs engage in collaborative teaching to teach a group of students who attend classes at the language center; during this stage, PSTs are in charge of planning, delivering and evaluating the lessons and are supervised by experienced teachers who provide them with feedback after each teaching session and ask them to reflect on their practice. Additionally, during this time, PSTs conduct a research project aimed at exploring or improving an aspect of their teaching practice.

In the third practice module, PSTs teach a complete English course in any educational institution and level they choose. In this context, they are observed by experienced tutors three or four times during the semes-

ter and receive feedback about their performance. PSTs are asked to deliver weekly reflections on their teaching practice and they meet once a week with the module coordinator to share their doubts, ideas, experiences, etc.

Participants

The participants in this study were pre-service teachers (PSTs) from the English Language Teaching Major at a University in northwest Mexico who had been previously invited and who volunteered to participate. The PSTs were taking either the second or the third teaching practice module; therefore, their videos and reflections correspond to episodes when they were teaching a lesson to students of English in different institutions. The PSTs that answered the initial questionnaire were 8 students. The participants that decided to remain in the study and participate on the VSRs were 6 (4 from 6th semester and 2 from 8th semester). All the PSTs who participated in the VSRs answered the final questionnaire.

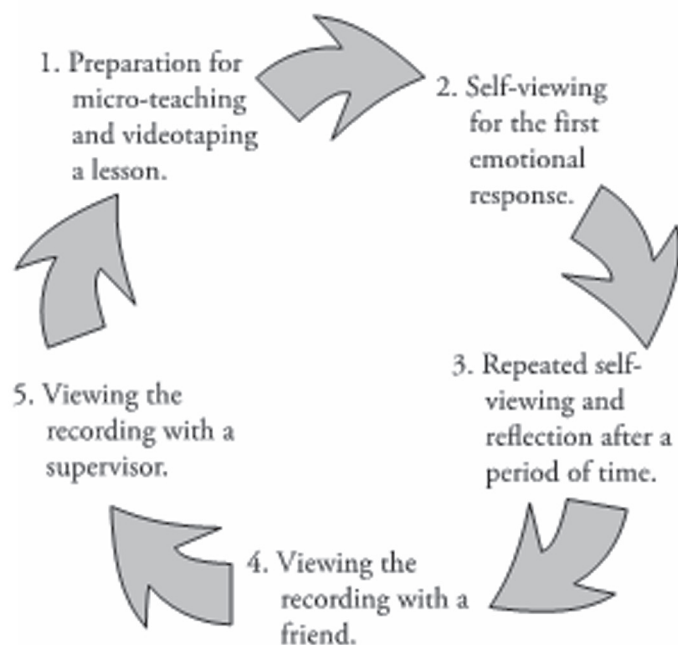
Data collection process

The participants were presented with a tool (teaching practice video recordings) and Stimulated Recall (SR) strategies through the use of video and reflective questioning. Additionally, an initial questionnaire which aimed at obtaining data that allowed the researchers to find out the participants' opinions about the Video Stimulated Recall (VSR) and reflective practice was applied. In order to triangulate data, the participants were asked to answer a final questionnaire in order to learn about their perceptions of the use of the video.

Stimulated recall in this study was carried out by using video recordings of PSTs' teaching practices who agreed to be recorded. Participants were given the choice to do it individually or in collaboration with a peer, before having a reflective session with one of the researchers. Individual recall was carried out only with the help of the researcher. Cooperative or collaborative recall involved the help of PSTs' peers. The collaborative stimulated recall was following some of the steps suggested by Orlova's (2009) (see Figure 1. Note: instead of 'preparation for micro teaching', in this study we refer to 'preparation for a class'): steps 1, 2, and 5 (Steps 3 and 4 were optional). According to Orlova (2009, p. 32), the self-viewing steps she proposes are carefully designed to reduce PSTs' anxiety while watching themselves in the video.

According to Orlova (2009), it is necessary to consider one or two self-viewing (steps two and three) because the first time the PSTs watch themselves in the video they focus more on how they are acting instead of

Figure 1: Five steps for recording and viewing a lesson (Orlova, 2009, p. 32).



on their class and students. She states that a primary focus of trainees concerns their ego. Orlova (2009) indicates that once PSTs nervousness and excitement of being videoed fade away, they start viewing themselves with a certain degree of detachment and are able to focus their attention to some aspects of their teaching practice they can reflect on and increase their self-awareness. Orlova's idea is supported by Sydnor (2016), who carried out a study that revealed that the participants (PSTs) moved from concentrating on themselves to focusing on their students' actions. After that, Sydnor (2016) indicates that the PSTs started expressing ideas of possible solutions to improve their practice. Additionally, the participants in the study started expressing aspects related to the process of teaching, as well as to the management of the classroom and their students' engagement.

The participants in this study carried out video recordings of the classes which they were doing as part of their teaching practice class immersion. Later on, the participants watched the video recordings with a mentor-researcher in order to stimulate reflection. The VSR sessions were carried out mostly one to one. During these, the researchers guided the participants using reflective questions: a list of guiding questions that were aimed at helping them identify and reflect on the different aspects involved in their teaching practice which would hopefully help them improve their reflective skills and thus their teaching practice. Although the

participants used a list of reflective questions as a guide (see Appendix 1) the researchers kept the VSRs flexible and open to privilege the participants' interpretations of their own practice, thus the participants were told to feel free to discuss what they considered important or what they wanted to highlight. Finally, at the end of the whole process, a final questionnaire (see Appendix 2) was applied with the purpose of learning more about how the PSTs participating in this research felt and reacted to the RS and the use of the video.

In this study, after self-viewing, the PSTs were given the option of watching the video with a friend or a peer (step four). Working with a friend and engaging in follow-up discussions raise PSTs' self-esteem and "helps them either accept or reject the suggestions made during the analyses" (Orlova, 2009, p. 33). Our goal was to make them reflect on their class with someone else's help (collaborative reflection), but also for them to get feedback from a peer, and (probably) to listen to a different perspective or opinion about their teaching practice. The following step (five) was viewing the recording with a supervisor (one of the researchers in this case) for the PSTs to sum up the positive aspects of the class and to suggest possible or concrete solutions, looking for improvement. We planned to ask further questions when necessary, so the PSTs would feel they have support during the process of reflection and learn about aspects they could focus their reflection on during their teaching practice.

The resulting data from the VSRs was then transcribed and analyzed. In order to enhance reliability, the three researchers had a joint session in which they identified and defined the levels of reflection and in which codes were identified and then proceed to independently carry out the analysis of data from two participants each.

Analysis and discussion

Reflective Sessions

Based on the emerging data, the findings in this study were categorized into three main themes related to the level of reflection or the type of comments the participants made during the reflective sessions (RS):

- **Descriptive** comments refer to statements in which the participants focus on depicting what is happening in the video, as well as indicating who their students were, and some of the students' characteristics (e.g. age, behavior).
- **Evaluative** interventions or comments are those in which the participants evaluate different ele-

ments of their class. They also approve or criticize their performance and what went well or wrong.

- **Analytic** interventions denote comments in which the participants elaborated on some of the decisions made. For example, they indicated the reasons why they decided to do specific activities and how those activities turned out.

In some instances, the participants explain the possible causes of some problems emerged and indicate the process to solve the critical incident.

Additionally, a categorization of the focus of reflection was identified from data. Table 1 shows the various topics the participants approached during the RS.

Table 1. Focus of attention.

Activities & materials	Teachers	Students
Type of activities done in class (not boring act.) Type of material used. Use of authentic material Variety Use of movies (to motivate) Materials selection, according to ss likes, level Possible solutions to problems encountered	Teaching style & routine Preference of activities and materials to be used in class Decision bases on personal likes and learning experience Centering on students Teaching strategies, Methods and techniques used in class (Communicative language learning, error correction) Approach to explain a topic Use of humor... creating a good environment Evaluating decisions Believes: To practice to learn Identifying areas of opportunity/Improving as a teacher How (she) reflects on teaching Feelings about being recorded	Students' level Students' improvement Students' response to activities, materials and teacher's style or approach Students' learning styles and personality Materials selection, according to ss likes, level
Classroom management	Cognitive and metacognitive Skills development	
Voice Movements Sitting arrangement Use of L2/avoiding L1 Use of Body language and gestures (to explain something) Timing Monitoring Lesson planning Maintaining Ss motivation Providing feedback	Advantages of listening Vocabulary and listening strategies Developing and integrating more language skills Use of videos and games to reinforce learning / vocabulary Activating knowledge Relating words with images or expressions Use of music to lower Ss stress Use of video in class Using questions to trigger participation Error correction strategy	

The quotes exposed in this section provide examples of commentaries that fit into the three levels of reflection (or type of comments) and show how the various topics were addressed by the participants. The instances will serve to analyze the level and process of reflection in which the participants were immersed.

In most of the reflective sessions (RS) the participants started with a description of the students and their class, usually prompted by the interviewer. It might be worth saying that, even though we (the researchers) aimed at observing the effects of the use of the video and at promoting higher levels of reflection, we made the decision to start the RS with descriptive questions in order to have a scaffolded process (eliciting easy reflection at the beginning of the session). As Larrivee (2008, p. 344) suggests, 'it is important for teachers to progress through the [different] levels of reflective practice to ultimately become critically reflective teachers who pose the important questions of practice'. The scaffolding strategy was carried out with the purpose of also making the participants feel comfortable and gain confidence progressively, to later articulate and elaborate their ideas based on the video. It is also important to mention that, despite the fact that we (the researchers) had a list of guiding questions (see Appendix 1), the participants were told to feel free to talk about everything they needed or wanted to.

After providing general description of their students, the PSTs participating in the study continued with a description of what they were doing in the video. Interestingly, sometimes, the PSTs used the video not only to recall what they did in that specific class (from the video) but to trigger reflection on previous classes or teaching experience. Sometimes, they used the video as an excuse to explain decisions made or explain their personal approach to teaching. This reveals an attempt to reach higher levels of reflection and represents what Schön (1987) defines as reflection-on-action, referring to the reflection that takes place after an event or teaching session. T states that this becomes a deliberate and more conscious process. An illustration of this is A's comment:

There we were playing [pointing to an excerpt on the video]. I generally like to start my classes with a game; mainly when I notice that my students don't want to do anything in class: They say such things as 'Oh, I'm lazy today' or 'Oh, no, that again!' I have perceived that, for example, in previous classes, if you start immediately with the topic of the class, like immediately, the students are not as engaged as when I do something to

wake them up and make them think in a fun way. Thus, that's why I like to include some games at the beginning of the class... to motivate them. (RS-A1-40)

As previously mentioned, the video in this study not only helped to prompt reflection on the classes recorded. This also provided the PSTs with an opportunity to focus on diverse aspects of their teaching practice. For instance, problems they face(d), personal characteristics or teaching styles, students' personality, types of activities and materials, and so on. The PSTs had the possibility of discussing these and other elements of their teaching practice (see Table 1) from different perspectives, with very distinguishing characteristics that helped us define the three levels of reflection or type of commentary, defined at the beginning of this section: Descriptive, Evaluative, and Analytic.

The following quotes intend to provide examples of these three types of commentaries. In some cases, it can be observed that the classification of these examples are well delineated, but other times the participants make comments that fit into one or two classifications. This means that in one turn they started, for instance, with a description of the class and then continued with an evaluative or analytic statement.

Examples of having a Descriptive level were the most frequent. For instance, mostly at the beginning of the RS, the participants made descriptive comments such as:

I was a bit stressed because I was supposed to have the class started five minutes ago and the students were just there doing nothing. And I was like: Noooo! Fortunately, V helped me check students' homework while I was trying to fix my computer. (RS-K2-12)

In this occasion, K describes a problem with her laptop during the class while conducting an activity with the students. This is also a good representation of how the participants' emotions are involved during their teaching practice and how they try to deal with those situations. Hayes (2008) claims that the process of becoming a teacher is intricate and may be loaded with pressures and concerns. This is probably why it was not surprising to find similar outcomes in another study conducted in the Universidad Juárez del Estado de Durango, with PSTs of a Bachelor Degree in ELT. In the study, Cano Vara et al. (2013, p. 97) found that "the participants show a highly empathic, emotional and personal side

of the practice, mentioning in different instances their emotional reactions to different situations”. Even though Cano Vara et al. did not mention in their report whether the PSTs focused on positive and/or negative feelings, it can be interpreted that the focus was more on negative emotions since the researchers mentioned ‘contextual constraints’ (pg. 97) that the PSTs faced and which triggered reflection. This is in agreement with Numrich (1996) who observes that, at the beginning of the teaching practice, student teachers typically report ongoing frustrations with a number of issues, such as class time, giving clear instructions, class disruption and other critical incidents.

During the RS it was also very common to hear participants describing activities and/or materials they were doing/using in the class videoed:

They had a lot of fun in this class because they had some “money” [referring to fake notes especially brought for the class]. (RS-N1-184)

I try to bring plenty of materials. I almost always bring material for them [the students]. Erm... This was a conversation that they had to do and then... I always do the same... I ask them: ‘let me see... what did he/she buy? Was it expensive or cheap?’... And I make them say their opinion for them to pay attention to what is happening in each of the teams formed for the activity. (RS-N1-194)

N and A (see first quote in this section), as some other participants, coincided in using appealing materials and activities with their students. Apparently, most PSTs being part of this study were concerned about including tasks that their students enjoy. After some minutes of starting the RS, most participants reported that they usually ask their students about the type of things they would like to do in the classroom to learn English. This illustrates that, as the session progressed, they began to report about students’ needs and learning styles, and the use of various approaches to teach and ensure learning. That is, they changed from a teacher-centered to a student-centered approach. F and A provide good examples of this:

I don’t remember if it was this class or the previous one that I asked one student... for example, ‘J, What are you supposed to do here? They know!’ (RS-K2-150)

Well, what I do is... I mean... to ask students for examples that they know or about things they

like... I don’t know... I teach them the structure of a sentence, or how to write a sentence correctly, and I ask them: ‘Well, is this clear? No? yes? Let’s see. Give me an example’. I don’t know... For example, if we are reviewing present continuous I ask them about something they did yesterday and I change the tense to what they ‘are doing’ right now... as if they were really doing that activity at the moment. I provide them with some examples related to them. (RS-A1-48)

In both cases, the PSTs show their concerns about students’ learning and comprehension of a specific topic or instruction. Interestingly, in most of the cases, the participants did not elaborate or offer more insight and maintained a more descriptive or evaluative reflection. This has been observed in different studies conducted in various contexts (e.g. Jay & Johnson, 2002; Ward & McCotter, 2004; Lee, 2008; Larrivee, 2008; Watts & Lawson, 2009; Kwan & Simpson, 2010). These researchers concluded that PSTs do not generally analyze or reflect deeply upon their performance during their practicum; rather, they simply describe the progression of the class or plan, the activities and materials included, and the kind of students they work with, remaining at a descriptive level of reflection with no consideration of a better understanding of the incident under consideration, the social and political factors affecting the class, the context, as well as ethical implications (Jay & Johnson, 2002; Ward & McCotter, 2004). As Watts & Lawson (2009, p. 610) indicate, “beginning teachers find difficulty in evaluating their lessons effectively; their emphasis remains descriptive rather than analytical, and superficial rather than critical”.

Kwan & Simpson (2010) emphasize that reflection usually begins with a lack of a structured approach of the process of reflection. This might not enable pre-service teachers to turn from superficial level into a critical one. Seemingly, usually PSTs do not know how to reflect, or they do not engage in a deeper and critical analysis of their practicum and their students’ needs and processes of learning. Having this in mind, in this intervention we tried to consider and include follow-up questions to prompt further reflection upon the videos. Sometimes, it was necessary to ask the participants to elaborate their thoughts.

What was evident during the RS is that the use of the video made the PSTs observe things they didn’t notice while they were teaching, what allowed us to support our follow-up questions on what we were watching. The video also allowed them to reflect on more aspects

of their class and performance. Frequently, a descriptive or an evaluative commentary led to a more analytic level (or at least, an attempt to be analytic in some instances). That is the case of F who declared:

I try to keep in mind the students' reaction... For example, if I take visuals and I see a reaction from the students -if they like it or not, then I decide on whether I continue using them [visuals] or not. For example, I have observed that they like touchable material... they are more enthusiastic about it... also with the music. I feel they like it and this makes them feel good. (RS-F1-56)

This quote exemplifies how F is evaluating students' response to materials. Clearly, this is also an illustration of reflection-in-action and reflection-for-action suggested by Schön (1987) and Killian & Todnem (1991). This also reveals an attempt to a deeper analysis of the effects of the material used. That is, F goes from an evaluative to an analytic commentary.

Reflection-on-action, reflection-in-action, and reflection-for-action were perceived in some PSTs' comments. For example, both A and D:

Here [on the video] we are doing the warm-up in which they had to guess who the character was. As they were describing the physical characteristics of the persons, one of the classmates had to guess who it was. That's what they were doing. While some of them were describing, he [referring to the student in front of the class on the video] had to guess the character... but I noted that the others were not telling him clear descriptions, so I had to tell them clearer information... I had to provide examples. (RS-A1-08)

The truth is that I noticed that they had a lower level than they were supposed to have and I felt it was a huge responsibility for me... because they don't have the level I was told or the knowledge they are supposed to have... that made me think about the problems they may face if they don't know English to present an exam [English certification] or to communicate in real life... when travelling to an English speaking country or wherever they need to use the language... Well, they won't be able to understand, right? So, I have given myself the task of providing them with a bit more tools for them to defend themselves [to be able to communicate accurately]. (RS-D1-06)

In the former quote, A started by describing the activity, responding to a direct question from the researcher (what were you doing there, in one extract of the video?). Moreover, A decided to justify the fact that she was making use of her Teacher Talking Time (TTT) rather than allowing the students to develop their speaking skill. This action she made, and expressed during the RS as something that she had noticed during the class, makes evident that she was constantly aware of what her students were doing, noticing problems and looking for a solution. That is, she was reflecting-in-action, which led her to do something to solve the problem (reflecting-for-action). In the latter quote, D was making an evaluation of students' level of English. This triggered a need to revise the pros and cons of the situation and made him feel he was the one who had to implement a solution (taking responsibility of students' learning). One more time, a good example of PSTs engaging in a process of reflecting-on and for-action.

According to Dewey (1910), Hatton & Smith (1995), Rogers (2002) and Thorsen & DeVore (2013), reflection *on* and *for* action represent cognitive activities that some reflective practitioners use to analyze and evaluate events. This is with the purpose of having a positive effect on education. Most frequently, PSTs trial activities and strategies, evaluate results and take new actions in order to improve their teaching practice and students learning. Schön (1983, 1987) defines reflection *in*-action as the reflection that takes place at the moment of the event. According to Zwozdiak-Myers (2012), reflecting-in-action is somehow difficult, thus teachers usually reflect *on* action. Notwithstanding this alleged difficulty, data from this study shows evidence of the PSTs reflecting upon specific situations in order to mend "on the spot" and make decisions at the moment (Griffiths and Tann, 1992, p. 78).

As previously stated and exposed, the PSTs usually started with a description or an evaluation of what was happening on their video. Sometimes, this allowed them to focus on indicating the reasons they had in order to include an activity or material or to justify a decision made. That is, they expressed more analytic commentaries. In some instances, the PSTs expressed that they intervened and did something to help their students' learning process or to improve their practice. This is in accordance to Dewey's (1910) categorization of five phases of thinking involved in the process of reflection: identifying and understanding the complexity of a problem, generating suggestions or ideas (based on previous observation), reasoning, hypothesizing, and testing. Some of these processes were evident in the current re-

search. Usually, the participants' included only an analysis or at least a concerted effort to comprehend why an event happened. After that, only some of the PSTs expressed that they figured out possible solutions, trialed or examined new activities, and (very limited number of participants) evaluated results. Thorsen and DeVore (2013) states that this process is borne out by Bloom's taxonomy which contemplates the application of cognitive processes to the understanding of RP (Thorsen and DeVore, 2013, p. 92, adapted from Krathwohl, 2002):

- *Remember* (recognizing and recalling),
- *Understand* (interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, explaining),
- *Apply* (executing, implementing),
- *Analyze* (differentiating, organizing, attributing),
- *Evaluate* (checking, critiquing), and
- *Create* (generating, planning, producing).

Up to this point, some examples of how a description or an evaluation of an incident leads to an attempt to further analysis have been presented. However, it is important to mention that most of the comments made by the PSTs during the RS, focused more on descriptions of the class and students, and on the mere evaluation of activities, use of materials, and strategies, without further or deeper analysis of the class.

Use of video recording

As it has been previously mentioned, the participants in this study were asked to respond to a final questionnaire (FQ) (see Appendix 2). This instrument was implemented with the purpose of learning more about how the PSTs participating in this research felt and reacted to the RS and the use of the video. It is worth saying that during the RS, the PSTs were asked on how they felt by being recorded. All of them responded that they were nervous at the beginning of the class but after some minutes they forgot about the camera. Take A's comment as an example:

At the beginning, yes... I, I was not sure what I was teaching [giggles]. It was... I mean, it was a good experience but I was nervous... I battled a little but... Then, here [pointing to the video] I notice that I'm more confident, mainly with the students... the way I create rapport, my interaction with them... it's like I interact more easily with the students. (RS-A1-20)

As reported by the participants in this research, when we asked them in the FQ about how they felt while

they were reflecting on their class videoed, the outcomes were positive. For instance, N says that she felt "it was a great opportunity to observe the development of my class" (FQ-N6). K reports that it was a good feeling because "I was able to see how I teach my classes and what I need to improve, for example to speak louder and clearer" (FQ-K6). D expresses that he felt "with more freedom to express certain aspects of my teaching, compared to my written reflections which could be misunderstood [by the reader]" (FQ-D6). When answering this question, the PSTs had the opportunity not only to acknowledge the advantage of using the video and how it helped them identify areas of opportunity, but also to compare both their written and spoken reflection, even though they were later directly asked about those aspect in the FQ.

Question number seven in the questionnaire required participants' opinion on how helpful the use of the video was to support their reflection. D indicates that the video was "an observable evidence that allowed me actually see my own performance in the classroom" (FQ-D7). This is similar to K's answer: "to notice what I do in class". N went further by saying that the video 'allowed me think about my activities and the decisions behind, as well as evaluate which activities were effective' (FQ-N7).

These answers are in agreement with what is exposed by various researchers (e.g. Day, 1990; Sherin & vanEs, 2005; Chinnery, 2006; Whitehead & Fitzgerald, 2006; Kong et al., 2009; Orlova, 2009; and Coffey, 2014) who agree that video recording can provide PSTs with more tangible and observable details and trustworthy information. The video allows them to see and hear themselves and understand their teaching practice. This was also reported as an advantage of the use of video to support reflection, as stated by D, N and K in a previous question (five):

The advantage is that it is an audiovisual evidence of mistakes, strengths and weaknesses of our teaching. (FQ-D5)

It helps us find areas of opportunity for our teaching development. (FQ-N5)

One of the advantages is that we can see what we do in class from a different perspective. I was able to observe things that I didn't notice while I was teaching! (GQ-K5)

As for the outcomes of the use of the video, in terms of generating improvement on teaching practice, the PSTs indicated that they noticed a positive result. For example, A reflects that she is now "more conscious of students' needs" (FQ-A8); N replies that based on what

she reflected during the RS she is “including [in subsequent classes] activities that I noticed in the video that worked well” (FQ-N8). D also relates what he learned from his reflection and experience in the study: “It helped me a lot. Now I try to incorporate a more eclectic and holistic methodology in my classes” (FQ-D8).

Participants reporting how the use of the video to elicit reflection was useful, coincides with a research carried out by Akbari (2010). Akbari’s study presents data confirming that PSTs reflection process helped them identify areas of opportunity and improve as teachers. Underhill (1999) states that practitioners receive benefits from reflection by improving their teaching abilities and, alongside, becoming aware of their own performance.

There is evidence (e.g. Ward & McCotter, 2004; Maarof, 2007; Lee, 2008; Larrivee, 2008; Orlova, 2009; Xu, 2009; Fat’hi & Behzadpour, 2011) of the significance of initiating reflection when students are being educated to become teachers. The early introduction of reflection helps student teachers to better understand and develop their work, as well as to react, examine, and evaluate what they need to consider in their teaching practice (Dzay Chulim, 2015). Reflecting will allow them to think of necessary changes to improve methodology, strategies, materials, activities, beliefs at that initial stage of their profession. According to Moon (1999, p. 73), “Schön’s book on educating the reflective practitioner implies that the skills of reflective practice are to be initiated within the context of initial training”.

Conclusions

The aim of this study was to evaluate the use of video recordings of PSTs’ classes to promote reflective practice, applying the Stimulated Recall (SR) strategy. The usefulness of conducting Stimulated Recall (SR) was palpable since it was possible to observe that PSTs were able to reflect at three different levels: descriptive, evaluative and analytic at different moments of the SR sessions. It was possible to notice that, frequently, the reflection statements produced by the PSTs belonged to more than one category and that descriptive comments were sometimes followed by evaluative ones.

We could also observe that the prompts used by the researchers to stimulate the PSTs’ reflections had a positive impact on their reflection since descriptive statements were produced after a prompt asking for description and analytical ones came after a prompt promoting reasoning. Therefore, it can be concluded that when using SR as a reflection tool, prompts and questions should be selected consciously and carefully since they will have an impact on the quality of the PSTs’ reflections; it is also

important that the interlocutors accompany the PSTs in their reflection process are trained so they promote and not hinder the reflection process.

In terms of the quality of the PSTs’ reflections we could see that descriptive statements had an important role to contextualize the recorded situation giving the PSTs the opportunity to specify or highlight some of their students’ characteristics or some environmental features that might not have been obvious for an observer. Besides that, we could notice that in several cases analytic remarks followed evaluative ones. Evaluative reflection was the most common type of reflection represented during the study. This might indicate an attempt to a higher level of reflection; hence the need of considering the PSTs to be exposed to more opportunities for reflecting in order for them to mature their process of reflection.

If we could find a simile to represent the reflection process followed by the participants, we would refer to, as previously mentioned in the Analysis section, Dewey’s (1910) categorization of phases of thinking, Bloom’s taxonomy presented by Thorsen and DeVore (2013), and Piaget’s stages of cognitive development (2002). The latter states that information is mainly obtained through the senses at early stages, then it is followed by concrete operations where the use of logic becomes usual to solve common problems and to conclude with the development of abstract and theoretical reasoning. In the reflection process the PSTs first referred to what they saw, listened to, felt, etc., and presented such ideas in descriptive reflections; after that, they used classification of actions or practices to determine which ones had been successful and which ones had not and presented those ideas through evaluative reflections. Only on few occasions were the PSTs able to express analytic remarks in which their theoretical knowledge was manifested. This analogy helps us illustrate our belief about the need of a certain degree of maturity in the PSTs to engage in reflection processes in which evaluative and analytic statements are produced; moreover, we think that continuous practice of reflection activities would positively impact on the quality of the PSTs’ reflection.

Additionally, we could observe that the participants were able to incorporate aspects of what they have learnt in their theoretical subjects to their teaching practice. Although the participants were not able to describe these theoretical aspects explicitly by using the correct terminology, it was clear that they could relate them to some of their actions in practice and that they could describe them in their own words.

Nonetheless, the results from this study should be interpreted with caution and a number of limitations

should be borne in mind. Firstly, it must be acknowledged that even though the original research design contemplated having the participants record videos from at least three of their classes, most of them could only record one, due to time constraints. Thus, the participants might not have been given enough opportunity to shift their attention focus from themselves to their students and the class itself (Orlova, 2009).

References

- Akbari, R. (2010). L2 Teacher characteristics as predictors of students' academic achievement. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second language*, 13 (4), 1–22.
- Baecher, L., & Connor, D. (2016). Video as a tool in teacher learning. *The New Educator*, 12(1), 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1547688X.2015.1066912>
- Bailey, K.M., Curtis, A., & Nunan, D. (2001). *Pursuing professional development: the self as source*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Bolton, G. (2010). *Reflective practice, writing and professional development* (Third edition). London: Sage.
- Boud, D., Keogh, R., & Walker, D. (1985). *Reflection: turning experience into learning*. New York: Nichols Publishing Company.
- Boyd E. & Fales A. (1983) Reflective learning: key to learning from experience. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology* 23, 99–117.
- Brandt, C. (2008). Integrating feedback and reflection in teacher preparation. *ELT Journal*, 62 (1), 37–46.
- Calderhead, J. (1989). Reflective teaching and teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher education*, 5 (1), 43–51.
- Cano Vara, R., Mejía-Morales, N.P. & Durán-Howard, K.G. (2013). What do future teachers reflect about? An exploration of student teachers' journals. *Red de Cuerpos Académicos en Lenguas Extranjeras*, 1 (2), 86–100.
- Chinnery, G. (2006). Emerging technologies: Going to the MALL: Mobile assisted language learning. *Language Learning and Technology*, 10 (1), 9–16.
- Clandinin, D.J. (1989). Developing rhythm in teaching: the narrative study of a beginning teacher's personal practical knowledge of classrooms. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 19 (2), 121–141.
- Coffey, A. M. (2014). Using video to develop skills in reflection in teacher education students. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(9), 85–97. <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2014v39n9.7>
- Creswell, J.W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (Third edition). USA: SAGE.
- Day, C. (1985). Professional learning and researcher intervention: An action research perspective. *British Educational Research Journal*, 11 (2), 133–151.
- Day, R.R. (1990). Teacher observation in second language teacher education. In J.C. Richards and D. Nunan (Eds.) (1990). *Second language teacher education*, (pp. 43–61). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Dewey, J. (1910) *How we think*. USA: D.C Heath and Co. Publishers.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. DC Heath.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in Applied Linguistics*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Dzay Chulim, F. (2015). *Pre-service Teachers Reflecting on their Teaching Practice: An Action Research Study in a Mexican Context*. University of Warwick, Centre for Applied Linguistics. University of Warwick. Tesis no publicada.
- Fadde, P.J., Aud, S. and Gilbert, S. (2009). Incorporating a video-editing Activity in a reflective teaching course for preservice teachers. *Action in Teacher Education*, 31 (1), 75–86.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2015). *Contemplation and Reflection*. In *Promoting Teacher Reflection in Second Language Education. A Framework for TESOL Professionals* (pp. 6–21). New York: Routledge.
- Fat'hi, J. & Behzadpour, F. (2011). Beyond Method: The rise of reflective teaching. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 1 (2), 241–251.
- Færch, C. & Kasper, G. (eds.) (1987). *Introspection in second language research*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Freese, A.R. (1999). The role of reflection on pre-service teachers' development in the context of a professional school. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15 (8), 895–909.

- Gass, S.M. & Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gebhard, J. (1999). Problem posing and solving through action research. In J. Gebhard and R. Oprandy (Eds.), *Language teaching awareness: A guide to exploring beliefs and practices*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ghaye, T. & Ghaye, K. (1998). *Teaching and learning through critical reflective practice*. London: Routledge David Fulton Press.
- Griffiths, M. & Tann, S. (1991). Ripples in the reflection. *BERA dialogues*, 5, 82–101.
- Griffiths, M., & Tann, S. (1992). Using reflective practice to link personal and public theories. *Journal of Education for teaching*, 18(1), 69–84.
- Hatton, N. & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 11 (1), 33–49.
- Hayes, D (2008). Occupational socialization in the first year of teaching: perspectives from Thailand. In T.S.C. Farrell (Ed), *Novice language teachers, insights and perspectives for the first year* (pp. 57–72). Equinox Publishing Ltd.
- Jarvis, S. (2001). Research in TESOL: sunset or a new dawn? *TESOL Research Interest Section Newsletter*, 8 (2), 1–7.
- Jay, J.K. & Johnson, K.L (2002). Capturing complexity: a typology of reflective practice for teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 18, 73–85.
- Johnson, K.E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for L2 teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40 (1), 235–257.
- Killian, J.P. & Todnem, G.R. (1991). A Personal process for personal theory building. *Educational Leadership*, 48 (6), 14–16.
- Knill, M. & Samuels, M. (2011). The contribution of audio recording using portable digital voice recorders to the development of reflective practice with trainee teachers in a Further Education setting. *Teaching in lifelong learning: a journal to inform and improve practice*, 3 (2), 49–59.
- Kong, S.H., Shroff, R.H., & Hung, H.K. (2009) A web enabled video system for self reflection by student teachers using a guiding Framework. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 25 (4), 544–558.
- Korthagen, F.A.J. (Ed.) (2001). *Linking practice and theory: The pedagogy of realistic teacher education*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Krathwohl, D.R. (2002). A revision of Bloom's taxonomy: An overview. *Theory into Practice*, 4 (41), 212–218.
- Kwan, T. & Simpson, R. (2010). Becoming a critical reflective teacher: To face the challenge of education reform in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Art and Sciences*, 3 (11), 416–437.
- Larrivee, B. (2008). Development of a tool to assess teacher's level of reflective practice. *Reflective Practice*, 9 (3), 341–360.
- Lee, G., & Wu, C. (2006). Enhancing the teaching experience of pre-service teachers through the use of videos in web-based computer-mediated communication. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 43 (4), 369–380.
- Lee, I. (2008). Fostering pre-service reflection through response journals. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 35 (1), 117–139.
- Loughran, J.J. (2002). Effective reflective practice: In search of meaning in learning about teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53 (1), 33–43.
- Maarof, N. (2007). Telling his or her story through reflective journals. *International Education Journal*, 8 (1), 205–220.
- Mackey, A. & Gass, S.M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Mann, S. (2008). Teachers' use of metaphor in making sense of the first year of teaching. In T.S.C Farrell (Ed.) *Novice language teachers: Insights and perspectives for the first year*, (pp. 11–28). Equinox Publishing Ltd
- Mezirow J. (1990). *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass.
- Moon, J.A. (1999). *Reflection in learning and professional development: Theory and practice*. London and New York: Routledge Farmer.
- Moon, J.A. (2005). *We Seek it Here: A new perspective on the elusive activity of critical thinking: A theoretical and practical approach*. Higher Education academy: University of Bristol.
- Munby, H. & Russell, T. (1989) Metaphor in the study of teachers' professional knowledge. In A. Oberg and G. McCutcheon, special issue of *Theory into Practice*, 29 (3).

- Munby, H. and Russell, T. (1990). Metaphor in the study of teachers' professional knowledge. *Theory into Practice*, 29 (2), 116–121.
- Murphy, J.M. (2001). Reflective teaching in ELT. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed.) (pp. 499–514). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle
- Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30, 131–153.
- Orlova, N. (2009). Video recording as a stimulus for reflection in pre-service EFL teacher training. *English Teaching Forum*, 47 (2) 30–35.
- Osterman, K. (1990). Reflective practice a new agenda for education. *Education and Urban Society*, 22 (2), 133–153.
- Pettis, J. (2002). Developing our professional competence: Some reflections. In J.C. Richards and W. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 393–403). USA: CUP.
- Piaget, J. (2002). *Judgement and reasoning in the child*. Routledge.
- Pollard, A., Anderson, J., Maddock, M., Swaffield, S., Warin, J. and Warwick, P. (2008). *Reflective teaching (Third edition)*. London: Continuum.
- Ramírez Castillo, H. M. (2016). *Aprendizaje Basado en Problemas (ABP) como estrategia para mejorar mi práctica como docente del inglés*. Universidad Autónoma del Estado de México.
- Reid, B. (1993). But we're doing it already! Exploring a response to the concept of reflective practice in order to improve its facilitation. *Nurse Education Today*, 13 (4), 305–309.
- Rhine, S. & Bryant, J. (2007). Enhancing pre-service teachers' reflective practice with digital video-based dialogue. *Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives*, 8 (3), 345–358.
- Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Robinson, L. & Kelley, B. (2007). Developing reflective thought in preservice educators: Utilizing role-plays and digital video. *Journal of Special Education Technology*, 22 (2), 31–43.
- Rogers, C. (2002). Defining reflection: Another look at John Dewey and reflective thinking. *Teachers College Record*, 104 (4), 842–866.
- Samuels, M. & Betts, J. (2007). Crossing the threshold from description to deconstruction and reconstruction: Using self-assessment to deepen reflection. *Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives*, 8 (2), 269–283.
- Sherin, M. G., & van Es, E. A. (2005). Using video to support teachers' ability to notice classroom interactions. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 13(3), 475–491.
- Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. England: Ashgate.
- Schön, D. (1987) *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a design for teaching and learning in the professionals*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sydnor, J. (2016). Using Video to Enhance Reflective Practice: Student Teachers' Dialogic Examination of Their Own Teaching. *The New Educator*, 12(1), 67–84. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1547688X.2015.1113346>
- Scrivener, J. (2005). *Learning teaching: The essential guide to English language teaching*. UK: MacMillan Books for Teachers.
- Taibi, H. (2015). *Reflective Teaching as a Form of Continuous Professional Development : Case of EFL University Teachers*. University of Tlemcen. Retrieved from <http://dspace.univ-tlemcen.dz/bitstream/112/7853/1/taibi-hanane.pdf>
- Tarrant, P. (2013). *Reflective practice and professional development*. London: Sage.
- Thompson, S. & Thompson, N. (2008). *The critically reflective practitioner*. NY: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Thorsen, C.A. & Devore, S. (2013). Analyzing reflection on/for action: A new approach. *Reflective Practice: International and multidisciplinary Perspectives*, 14 (1), 88–103.
- Tobin, K. (1990) Changing metaphors and beliefs: a master switch for teaching? *Theory into Practice*, 29 (2), pp. 121–127.
- Underhill, A. (1992). The role of groups in developing teacher self-awareness. *ELT Journal*, 46 (1), 71–80.
- Underhill, A. (1999). Continuous professional development. *IATEFL ISSUES*, 17-17.
- Wallace, M.J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: a reflective approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Ward, J.R. & McCotter, S. (2004). Reflection as a visible outcome for preservice teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20 (2004), 243–257.
- Watts, M. & Lawson, M. (2009). Using a meta-analysis activity to make critical reflection explicit in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25 (2009), 609–616.
- Whitehead, J., Fitzgerald, B. (2006). Professional learning through a generative approach to mentoring: Lesson from a training school partnership and their wider implications. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 32 (1), 37–52.
- Xu, Q. (2009). Reflective teaching –an effective path for EFL teacher’s Professional Development. *Canadian Social Science*, 5 (2), 35–40.
- Zalipour, A. (2015). *Reflective Practice*. Waikato: The University of Waikato. Retrieved from https://www.waikato.ac.nz/__data/assets/pdf_file/0006/360861/Reflective-Practice-June-2015.pdf
- Zuber-Skerritt, O. (1989). Action research for change and development. Paper presented at the International Symposium on *Action Research in Higher Education, Government, and Industry*, 20–23 March, Brisbane, Australia.
- Zwozdiak-Myers, P. (2012). *The teacher’s reflective practice handbook: Becoming an extended professional through capturing evidence-informed practice*. London and New York: Routledge.

Appendix 1: Guiding questions

Se recomienda que esta primera reflexión (basada en video-grabaciones de clases) sea individual. El idioma que se utilice es el que el participante elija para su mayor comodidad y mejor expresión, no necesariamente el inglés.

Es importante grabar esta sesión ya sea en video o solamente audio, pues los datos que emerjan son los que se utilizarán para el análisis correspondiente. En cualquiera de las dos opciones, el audio deberá ser lo más claro posible.

Durante la reflexión, no es necesario ver la clase o el video completo. Es importante que se le pida al participante que seleccione, si así lo desea, extractos del video en los que quiera enfatizar algo. En caso de que el participante no tome una decisión sobre qué ver, el investigador elegirá (al azar) partes del video, para promover la reflexión.

Pasos a seguir:

- Dar la bienvenida al participante, agradecerle su tiempo y participación, así como explicarle nuevamente sobre el anonimato y confidencialidad.
- Recalcar al participante que no es nuestra intención juzgar lo que haga o diga en el video o durante la reflexión. Recordarles que esta actividad no influye de ninguna manera en su calificación de su materia de práctica o ninguna otra que esté llevando con alguno de los investigadores.
- Explicar al participante que tanto él como el investigador verán su video juntos y que deberá expresar en voz alta todas las ideas que vengan a su mente mientras observa el video. Si el investigador nota que el participante no hace comentarios o hace muy pocos, deberá hacer preguntas, tales como:
 - ¿Cómo te sentiste?
 - Basado en el video, ¿Qué te llama la atención de tu clase/tus estudiantes/ti (como maestra)?
 - ¿Qué estabas haciendo ahí (según imágenes del video)?
 - ¿Qué estabas pensando?
 - ¿Qué sucedió?
 - ¿Por qué hiciste ____ /Qué te llevó a hacer ____?
 - ¿Por qué crees que sucedió?
 - ¿Notaste en ese momento que estaba sucediendo algo?
 - ¿Cómo te sentiste cuando ____? (puede ser algo positivo o no)
 - ¿Cómo lo resolviste?
 - ¿Cómo crees que se sintieron tus alumnos?
 - Ahora que ves el video de tu clase, ¿piensas que hay algo que te gustaría haber hecho diferente? ¿Qué cosa? ¿Por qué? ¿Qué hubieses hecho en vez de ____?
 - Veo que estuviste monitoreando a tus estudiantes mientras trabajaban en la actividad, ¿Por qué hiciste eso?
 - Antes de introducir el tema noté que usaste (‘eliciting’) para obtener ideas de tus estudiantes, ¿Por qué te pareció que eso era importante?
 - ¿Qué hacían los alumnos mientras tú dabas instrucciones/escribías en la pizarra?
 - ¿Qué observas en el video que no habías notado antes?
 - ¿Cómo relacionas lo que hiciste con lo que has aprendido en tus clases?
 - ¿Hay algo que piensas que debes mejorar en tus próximas clases? ¿Qué? ¿Cómo lo lograrás? ¿Por qué crees que funcionará?
- Una vez que se haya terminado de ver el video, se le pregunta al participante si hay algo que desee agregar o preguntar (no necesariamente sobre el video sino sobre su práctica en general) y se le agradece nuevamente su tiempo y participación. Así mismo, se le recuerda hacer la segunda grabación y reflexión.

Es importante considerar preguntas de seguimiento, dependiendo de lo que el participante exprese (esta es solamente una guía). No necesariamente se tienen que hacer todas las preguntas mencionadas arriba, pues más bien dependerá de lo que vaya surgiendo en la reflexión. Lo que debe buscarse implícitamente es que el participante vaya notando cosas de su práctica que hasta el momento no haya notado, que haga un análisis más consciente de lo que sucede en su clase y las consecuencias (positivas o negativas) que haya. Asimismo, se busca que el participante vaya generando ideas de cosas que podría hacer o dejar de hacer en sus clases futuras, de tal manera que mejore su práctica (idealmente).

Appendix 2: Questions in the Final questionnaire

El siguiente cuestionario es el último paso de tu participación en el proyecto de investigación sobre la reflexión basada en video.

Por favor responde las siguientes preguntas relacionadas con tu participación en el proyecto antes mencionado. Te pedimos respuestas proporcionando la información solicitada desde tu punto de vista personal. Te recordamos que esta información será utilizada con fines meramente académicos y tus datos personales no serán compartidos públicamente.

1. Comparando las reflexiones escritas que hiciste en clase con la reflexión basada en el video, ¿cuál prefieres? ¿por qué?
2. ¿Sobre qué aspectos reflexionabas en la reflexión escrita?
3. ¿Sobre qué aspectos reflexionabas en la reflexión basada en video?
4. ¿Crees que hay alguna diferencia entre la reflexión escrita y la reflexión basada en video? Si tu respuesta es afirmativa. ¿Cuáles son dichas diferencias y por qué crees que existen?
5. Desde tu punto de vista, ¿cuáles son las ventajas y desventajas del uso del video para la reflexión?
6. ¿Cómo te sentiste al reflexionar con el uso del video?
7. ¿De qué manera crees que te ayudó reflexionar con el uso del video?
8. ¿Crees que mejoraste algún aspecto de tu práctica docente después de hacer la reflexión basada en video? ¿En qué sentido?
9. Si tuvieras oportunidad en tu vida profesional, ¿volverías a grabar en video tu clase para reflexionar en ella posteriormente? ¿Por qué?
10. Si tuvieras la oportunidad de participar nuevamente en este estudio, ¿qué sugerirías para mejorarlo?

DIAGNOSTIC D'UNE FORMATION UNIVERSITAIRE D'ENSEIGNANTS DE FRANÇAIS À L'UNIVERSITÉ AUTONOME DE PUEBLA

Vincent Summo

Facultad de Lenguas de la BUAP
summopico@yahoo.fr

Stéphanie Marie Brigitte Voisin

Facultad de Lenguas de la BUAP
stephanievoisin2002@yahoo.fr

Maria Eugenia Olivos Pérez

Facultad de Lenguas de la BUAP
olivos1maria@gmail.com

Résumé

Cet article présente le diagnostic d'une formation éducative renouvelée mise en place en 2009, la Licence en Enseignement du Français de l'Université Autonome de Puebla (BUAP), Mexique, circonscrite à la Faculté de Langues, à dix ans de sa création. Ce diagnostic, effectué sur la base d'un questionnaire appliqué à des étudiants de français appartenant à diverses filières vise à déterminer les besoins des apprenants en matière d'apprentissage de la langue cible. Les étudiants enquêtés apprennent le français au Centre de Langues de la Faculté de Langues et appartiennent à des carrières différentes de la même université, raison pour laquelle les intérêts qui les motivent à apprendre cette langue sont divers. Les informations collectées devraient nous amener à réorienter la formation éducative de la Licence en Enseignement du Français en termes de compétences génériques ou transversales pour optimiser la formation des futurs enseignants de Français Langue Étrangère lors de la révision curriculaire prévue pour 2020.

Mots clé : formation d'enseignants, diagnostic de formation, besoins d'apprentissage, compétences génériques ou transversales.

Resumen

Este artículo presenta el diagnóstico de una formación educativa reformada, iniciada en 2009: la Licenciatura en la Enseñanza del Francés de la Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México, circunscrita a la Facultad de Lenguas, a diez años de su implementación. Dicho diagnóstico se elaboró con base en un cuestionario que se aplicó a estudiantes de francés provenientes de distintas carreras y busca determinar las necesidades de los alumnos relacionadas con el aprendizaje de la lengua meta. Los estudiantes sujetos de este estudio forman parte del Centro de Lenguas de la misma Facultad de Lenguas y pertenecen a carreras diferentes de la misma universidad, por tanto los intereses que los motivan a aprender la lengua son diversos. Los datos recolectados deberían ayudarnos a reorientar la formación educativa en términos de competencias genéricas o transversales, para optimizar la formación de los futuros docentes de francés durante la revisión curricular prevista para el 2020.

Palabras clave: formación docente, diagnóstico de una formación, necesidades de aprendizaje, competencias genéricas o transversales.

Recibido el 30 de abril, 2019- Aceptado el 5 de julio, 2019.

Introduction

Au moment d'envisager la création d'une formation éducative, il est primordial de mettre en œuvre un processus permettant de donner vie au projet et d'en assurer la pérennité. Diagnostic et suivi s'imposent donc comme deux moments importants de la vie d'un projet éducatif, le diagnostic - d'un caractère relativement statique - donnant une image de la réalité à un moment spécifique alors que le suivi - plus dynamique - favorise une analyse de l'évolution du projet pour, éventuellement, en rectifier l'orientation.

Notre recherche a pour objectif ultime de parachever la conception d'une formation de futurs enseignants de FLE en opérant les modifications requises après analyse des discours d'apprenants de français révélant leurs besoins d'apprentissage.

1. Cadre théorique

1.1 Les objectifs de formation

Selon le Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche français¹, les objectifs de formation de niveau licence peuvent être décrits en termes de compétences à acquérir, celles-ci ayant trait, premièrement, aux disciplines nécessaires au développement professionnel, deuxièmement, aux ressources transversales ou génériques dont l'apprenant doit se doter pour être capable de poursuivre sa formation tout au long de sa vie : acquisition de l'autonomie et d'une méthode de travail universitaire, capacités d'analyse et de synthèse, aptitudes à l'expression écrite et orale en maîtrisant le vocabulaire de la discipline ; capacités relationnelles ; langues vivantes étrangères ; informatique et bureautique, etc. Troisièmement, il s'agit des compétences préprofessionnelles relatives à l'expérience acquise en milieu formatif (sensibilisation aux champs professionnels correspondant à la formation, contextualisation des acquis, stages, projets personnels et professionnels, entre autres).

La formation de Licence en Enseignement du Français de la BUAP s'appuie sur les fondements philosophico-éducatifs dont le modèle académique (le *Modelo Universitario Minerva*, MUM, 2009) est le document prescriptif qui mentionne que la formation universitaire doit favoriser, entre autres choses, la formation intégrale de l'individu et qu'elle doit être en relation constante avec la réalité sociale et professionnelle.

Cette formation intégrale y est définie comme l'orientation consistant à promouvoir l'autonomie de l'individu, à travers la reconnaissance de sa capacité à s'auto-diriger et à organiser son apprentissage. Pour ce faire, il est primordial de promouvoir la réflexion critique, la créativité, l'esprit d'analyse ainsi que les attitudes et

les habiletés nécessaires à l'amélioration de la qualité de vie². Il s'agit donc bien de développer des compétences génériques nécessaires pour pouvoir intégrer la sphère socio-économique.

La relation naturelle entre système éducatif et société est un élément clé de la fonction sociale de l'institution. Cet élément implique une relation profonde qui se traduit par une véritable intégration dans la société à travers l'ouverture et le partage d'espaces qui promeuvent l'apprentissage, la créativité, la réflexion, le débat sur des thèmes d'intérêts ainsi que le développement individuel et collectif³. Cette vision de l'université se traduit donc à travers la création de moments de formation qui faciliteront aux apprenants l'intégration sur le marché du travail (dans notre cas il s'agit de matières telles que Service Social, Expériences Enseignantes et Stage professionnel) et donc le développement des compétences préprofessionnelles.

Les compétences disciplinaires sont issues de l'objectif de formation de futurs enseignants de Français Langue Etrangère. La maquette d'étude prévoit ainsi une incursion dans des domaines tels que la linguistique, l'enseignement, la recherche, la culture et la langue française.

La conception de l'institution BUAP quant à la formation des apprenants est cohérente avec cette perspective de formation universitaire centrée sur des compétences disciplinaires, génériques et préprofessionnelles que le Ministère de l'Education Nationale française préconise.

Il nous paraît alors opportun de considérer ces trois dimensions au moment de décrire ce qui pourrait être considéré comme le référentiel de compétences d'une formation de futur enseignant de Français Langue Etrangère.

1.2 Analyse de Besoins

Selon Roegiers, Wouters et Gerard, « l'analyse des besoins est une démarche d'évaluation, essentielle pour tout système engagé dans un projet de formation : s'il veut faire aboutir son projet de formation, il doit établir les priorités et produire des objectifs de formation pertinents » (Roegiers et al., 1992, p.2).

Ces auteurs soulignent que les besoins doivent avoir deux fonctions : la régulation, focalisée sur l'exigence de savoir s'ils sont adéquats à la formation visée et la prévision, dont l'objectif est de tenter de prévoir l'impact de la formation en fonction des évolutions potentielles de type socio-professionnel, politique, etc. (ibid, p.2). Pour Hutchinson et Waters (1987, p.54), les besoins pourraient être classés en deux grandes catégories : les besoins de la situation cible et les besoins d'apprentis-

sage. Les premiers renvoient à ce que l'apprenant aura besoin de faire avec la langue apprise. Ils sont constitués, en premier lieu, par les *demandes* correspondant aux exigences langagières de la situation cible ; par exemple, pour un étudiant candidat à un échange scolaire, la capacité de comprendre des exposés en français. En deuxième lieu, ces besoins se rapportent aux *connaissances antérieures* ou aux *déficiences* des apprenants qui entraînent l'identification des besoins langagiers qui devront réellement être pris en considération pour interagir de manière efficace dans la situation cible. En dernier lieu, ils sont issus des *désirs* ou *intérêts* des apprenants qui ne correspondent pas systématiquement à la perception des experts chargés d'élaborer le cursus. Quant aux besoins d'apprentissage, ils portent sur ce que l'apprenant a besoin de faire pour apprendre.

Widdowson (1981) et Brindley (1994) signalent que le terme de besoin admet deux grandes orientations, la première focalisée sur le produit, c'est-à-dire la compétence communicative que l'apprenant devra maîtriser pour interagir dans une situation de communication déterminée et la deuxième, orientée vers le processus, s'attellant à identifier ce que l'apprenant devra faire pour acquérir la nouvelle langue.

Pour Nunan (1988) cette dichotomie qui apparaît au moment d'analyser les différents besoins à prendre en considération pour l'enseignement apprentissage d'une seconde langue, se traduit par des *besoins objectifs* liés aux exigences inhérentes aux situations de communication dans lesquelles l'apprenant devra utiliser la langue, et par des *besoins subjectifs* relatifs aux aprioris de l'apprenant comme individu confronté à une situation d'apprentissage particulière.

Nous estimons que les deux orientations sont complémentaires, le défi consistant alors à trouver un équilibre entre les deux afin de concevoir un cursus favorisant un apprentissage efficace qui réponde aux demandes de communication et d'apprentissage des apprenants. Toutefois, dans cet article, nous nous centrerons essentiellement sur les besoins d'apprentissage.

2. L'instrument

L'instrument que nous avons choisi d'appliquer est issu d'un travail réalisé par Moreno (2004) et orienté vers les besoins d'apprentissage de l'anglais d'étudiants en philologie. Ce questionnaire, adapté au contexte de l'enseignement du français au Mexique, a été appliqué à 202 étudiants de divers cursus apprenant le français de manière facultative. Les disciplines scolaires concernées relevaient des domaines de la santé, des sciences humaines, des sciences appliquées et de l'économie et

l'administration. Cet échantillon est constitué d'individus ayant commencé leurs études universitaires 3 ans auparavant (d'un cursus qui comporte de 4 à 5 années d'études) et il est aléatoire car les questionnaires ont été appliqués aux apprenants de français langue étrangère indépendamment de leur discipline d'étude.

Cet outil est composé de plusieurs sections organisées comme suit : section 1 : informations personnelles, section 2 : motivation et attitude envers le français, section 3 : formation antérieure en français, section 4 : usage habituel du français, section 5 : usage potentiel du français et la section 6 relative aux besoins ressentis par les apprenants pour entreprendre un apprentissage efficace en langue française.

3. Résultats

Au vu des faibles variations des réponses données par les étudiants des différents cursus, nous avons considéré pertinent de regrouper toutes les informations. Nous commenterons globalement certains résultats et nous présenterons au lecteur des tableaux donnant accès à une information plus détaillée sur les besoins d'apprentissage, lorsque cela s'avèrera nécessaire.

3.1. Les demandes

Elles s'orientent vers le Français sur Objectif Spécifique et le Français sur Objectif Universitaire du fait qu'il existe un grand nombre d'institutions de second cycle (universités, instituts technologiques) donnant la possibilité d'aller étudier dans un pays francophone, et aussi car la grande majorité des formations qui offrent le français comme option sont de type technique : Licence en gastronomie, en commerce international, et diverses filières technologiques.

Rappelons qu'au niveau institutionnel, la langue étrangère est un élément transversal de la formation universitaire car elle est vue comme un moyen d'accès à des mondes et à des manières de penser et de vivre différents, et elle favorise ainsi le développement des individus aux niveaux personnel, social, voire professionnel. Il est donc pertinent d'envisager le français comme une langue d'intérêt favorable à la formation intégrale de l'individu, élément sous-jacent de la philosophie éducative de la BUAP.

3.2. Les connaissances préalables en français

Rares sont les étudiants qui ont une connaissance préalable du français. L'enquête nous révèle que, pour la grande majorité des enquêtés (90%), la langue française est apprise en commençant le cursus universitaire car elle est offerte par l'institution. Seuls 10% de notre

échantillon ont eu l'opportunité de l'apprendre avant de commencer leurs études universitaires. Le français étant donc une matière optionnelle au niveau du premier cycle scolaire, nous constatons que la connaissance de la langue française est d'un niveau très faible voire inexistant lors de l'entrée des apprenants dans le second cycle.

3.3. Motivation, intérêts et désir (section2)

3.3.1 La motivation

Les données disponibles nous permettent d'observer que le goût pour la langue et la culture françaises demeure primordial (*J'aime la langue française* : 91%), de même que la possibilité de voyager dans un pays francophone (72%). En dehors de ces motifs personnels, force est de constater qu'au niveau professionnel le français n'est que peu attrayant pour les enquêtés (*Le français m'ouvre des perspectives professionnelles dans mon pays* : 11,9%) et, même si pour certains la possibilité de participer à un programme de mobilité estudiantine est entrevue, peu nombreux sont ceux qui envisagent d'utiliser le français dans leur vie professionnelle. Ainsi, il est aisé de comprendre que l'utilisation du français comme moyen d'accès aux connaissances disciplinaires non linguistiques reste peu prisee.

3.3.2. Les intérêts

Selon les enquêtés, le français est une langue dont l'utilité est essentiellement d'ordre personnel et qui plus est secondaire, cette langue leur permettant de réaliser des activités éloignées des domaines disciplinaire et professionnel (*Activités éloignées de mes études* : 71,3%).

3.3.3. Les désirs

Vis-à-vis de l'usage potentiel du français, pour la grande majorité des enquêtés, le français est perçu comme une langue permettant de faire des activités de compréhension, de production et d'interaction orales très générales et uniquement liées au contexte de la classe (*faire et comprendre des présentations orales* : 90,1% ; *comprendre des documents audiovisuels* : 96%).

Même si la tendance est similaire pour les activités écrites, il semble exister une certaine appréhension attachée à ces dernières, les pourcentages nous montrant des chiffres plus faibles (aux alentours de 60%). Nous pouvons toutefois souligner l'intérêt pour l'activité de traduction (84,7%), la prise de notes (85,6%) et la compréhension de textes relevant du domaine d'étude (75,2%) et d'articles de recherche (79,2%).

Le type de texte à produire semble de peu d'importance pour les enquêtés mais nous pouvons cependant remarquer que les productions écrites ou orales mettant en jeu la description, la narration et l'opinion sont légè-

ment préférées (respectivement : 87,1% ; 87,6% et 87,1%) aux textes comparatifs (80,2%), argumentatifs (établissement des causes et conséquences d'un fait déterminé : 79,7%) et à l'exposé (80,7%). L'importance accordée à l'activité de production semble se devoir à la rigueur et à la complexité du discours, à l'intention de celui-ci et aux connaissances du monde que l'auteur possède. En effet, réaliser un texte argumentatif, par exemple, implique une connaissance assez profonde du thème abordé qui permet à l'auteur d'exprimer des idées variées et pertinentes. En outre, l'intention de convaincre qui est inhérente à ce type de texte oblige l'auteur à un travail pragmatique relativement complexe. Enfin, la structure de l'argumentation astreint à l'élaboration d'un plan rigoureux qui donnera toute sa cohérence au discours.

En ce qui concerne l'objectif d'enseignement de la langue, les désirs des enquêtés sont orientés principalement vers le français général (99,5%), le Français sur Objectif Universitaire (FOU) (95%), et le Français sur Objectif Spécifique (FOS). Concernant ce dernier, sont prisés les domaines en relation avec la formation suivie : Français Scientifique/Technique (91,9%), Français des Humanités (49,2%), Français du Tourisme (78,2%), Français de la Santé (55%) et Français des Affaires (71,3%).

Pour résumer cette première section, nous pouvons dire que la motivation corollaire à l'apprentissage du français est essentiellement d'ordre personnel dans le sens où ni les perspectives professionnelles ni la possibilité d'étudier à l'étranger ne sont fortement représentées. En ce qui concerne les intérêts, la langue française n'est envisagée que comme instrument d'accès à des connaissances d'intérêt personnel et non comme le moteur du développement de compétences langagières. Enfin, les réponses données soulignent le désir d'apprendre la langue pour des besoins généraux et professionnels, le souhait de faire divers types d'activités à l'oral et, dans une moindre mesure, à l'écrit.

3.4. Les besoins d'apprentissage

3.4.1. Les besoins d'apprentissage ressentis quant à l'usage habituel du français

L'apprentissage de la langue française tel qu'il a été contextualisé plus haut (étudiants de langue étrangère facultative) pose l'usage du français comme relativement faible et orienté spécifiquement vers les activités éloignées des études (tableau 1). Il est intéressant de remarquer que la langue étrangère comme axe transversal est essentiellement perçue comme un élément présent dans la classe de français à travers des activités de type FOS. Très peu d'enquêtés considèrent important l'usage de la langue étrangère dans les matières inhérentes à leur formation.

Tableau 1. Usage habituel du français.

	Oui	Non
Activités éloignées de mes études (télévision, radio, chansons, films, etc.).	67,8%	36,2%
Utilisation d'Internet.	43,35%	56,65%
Activités professionnelles.	26,6%	73,4%
En classe, dans les matières permettant d'interagir et de comprendre des textes en français relatifs à mon domaine d'étude.	28,75%	71,25%
Pour des travaux de classe relatifs aux matières de mon programme d'étude.	36,5%	63,5%
Pour des travaux dans la classe de français relatifs aux matières de mon programme d'étude (lectures, présentations, etc.).	70,4%	29,6%

En ce qui a trait à l'importance accordée aux différents travaux écrits réalisés par les enquêtés (tableau 2), nous pouvons observer que, dans le domaine de l'activité de réception écrite, le manuel d'étude demeure une source prépondérante (87,10%), ce qui pourrait indiquer que les apprenants considèrent le manuel comme l'outil privilégié d'accès à la connaissance ou que l'enseignant l'utilise comme source documentaire privilégiée. En outre, il semble que les enquêtés aient une préférence quant aux thèmes abordés lors des activités de compréhens-

sion. En effet, le domaine d'étude et celui de la recherche sont plus prisés que celui de la presse (respectivement : 73,3% ; 72,2% contre 60,9%).

Quant aux activités de production écrite, la traduction et la prise de notes sont considérées comme importantes par beaucoup d'enquêtés (respectivement : 82,7% et 83,2%), ainsi que les écrits formels (CV, demande d'emploi) et les devoirs donnés par l'enseignant (74,3% et 75,2%).

Tableau 2. Importance des travaux écrits en français.

	Oui	Non
Relatifs à l'activité de réception écrite		
Lire la presse	60,9%	39,1%
Lire des manuels d'étude	87,1%	12,9%
Lire des textes relatifs à mon domaine d'étude	73,3%	26,7%
Lire des articles de recherche	77,2%	22,8%
Relatifs à l'activité de production écrite		
Lire et faire de la correspondance (courrier électronique, fax, courrier ordinaire)	61,9%	38,1%
Ecrire des lettres de demande d'emploi et des curriculum vitae.	74,3%	25,7%
Faire des résumés	67,8%	32,2%
Faire des commentaires critiques	66,8%	33,2%
Faire des dictées	64,3%	35,7%
Faire des traductions	82,7%	17,3%
Prendre des notes	83,2%	16,8%
Corriger des textes en français écrits par d'autres personnes	55%	45%
Rédiger des travaux à rendre au professeur	75,2%	24,8%

La notion de correction se réfère à la capacité d'un individu à estimer, apprécier ou évaluer mais aussi à accepter d'être évalué par ces pairs, par un supérieur pour éviter une sanction, résoudre un problème, etc. Ces comportements classés comme d'ordre supérieur dans différentes taxonomies (Bloom, 1956 ; Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) ne sont, bien sûr, pas faciles à provoquer. D'ailleurs, dans notre enquête, nombreux sont ceux qui y accordent peu d'importance, considérant que cet agir fait partie du rôle de l'enseignant ou n'étant pas conscients de la portée de ce processus métacognitif sur l'apprentissage.

Dans le même ordre d'idées, il semble que les activités de production qui font appel à des degrés élevés d'activités cognitives (résumer, critiquer) soient également vues comme moins importantes et dissociées d'un usage habituel de la langue étrangère. Pour ce qui est du thème de la traduction, selon notre propre expérience la traduction est vue, par les apprenants, comme une activité d'ordre linguistique qui s'apparente à un processus de transformation grammaticale et lexicale n'envisageant que très peu les axes sociolinguistique et pragmatique. Ainsi la traduction est-elle réduite à un travail tronqué n'engageant que très peu la réflexion cognitive.

3.4.2. Les besoins d'apprentissage ressentis quant à l'organisation de l'apprentissage de la langue

Le travail en petit groupe et en binôme est plus apprécié que les activités en groupe classe ou individuelles (respectivement : 72,7% ; 75,25% contre 62,4% et 69,3%).

Il semblerait que les apprenants aient des difficultés à accepter le travail en grand groupe. Nous pourrions trouver différentes explications à ce phénomène : trop grande hétérogénéité des groupes qui rend la collaboration compliquée, trop grand nombre d'étudiants donnant le sentiment à l'individu de ne pas avoir de poids dans le travail du groupe, problèmes relationnels qui en découlent, entre autres choses.

Quant à l'organisation du temps d'étude, certaines démarches sont particulièrement appréciées par les apprenants : l'étude suivie hebdomadaire (70,7%), la révision de ce qui a été vu pendant la classe antérieure (72,3%), ainsi que la réalisation du travail obligatoire (75,9%). Au contraire, l'étude avant la classe, la préparation du travail pour la classe suivante et l'étude avant l'examen sont peu appréciées (respectivement 49,25%, 34,35% et 22%).

Ces données suggèrent que les activités obligatoires ainsi que le travail au fil des unités sont pré-

pondérants dans la perception de la réussite des apprenants : parvenir à apprendre mieux la langue c'est faire les activités imposées et étudier de manière continue (probablement en classe). Réaliser des activités non imposées et préparatoires à l'action dans la classe est vu comme beaucoup moins efficace, l'organisation des études tournant autour de ce que l'enseignant fait et impose, non autour des besoins que l'apprenant pourrait éventuellement avoir pour apprendre de manière plus efficace.

3.4.3. Besoins d'apprentissage ressentis quant à la manière d'apprendre la langue

En ce qui concerne le type d'activités que les apprenants perçoivent comme bénéfiques à l'apprentissage de la langue (tableau 3), tout ce qui a trait à la pratique en classe : appliquer des contenus vus en classe, résoudre des tâches et des problèmes, lire, écouter, parler et écrire, est considéré comme le plus efficace (respectivement, 90,25% ; 86,7% ; 89,2% et 90,75% de réponses positives) ; les activités hors classe seraient moins efficaces : utilisation des réseaux sociaux et du centre d'autoapprentissage (respectivement 53,85% et 67,2% de réponses positives). Il ressort que l'apprentissage de la langue est perçu comme rentable s'il est fait en présentiel, dans le cas contraire peu sont les enquêtés qui en considèrent la pertinence.

Dans une moindre mesure, les apprenants accordent du crédit aux activités de type réflexif qui permettent davantage de travailler la conceptualisation du fonctionnement de la langue : déduire la théorie à partir d'exemples (72,3%) ou encore suivre les cheminement proposés par l'enseignant (72,8%).

Les activités d'ordre mnémotechnique sont moins appréciées : écouter, prendre des notes et mémoriser (68,7%), répéter après l'enseignant (70,25%). Enfin, le travail indépendant est perçu comme moins efficace (59,5%).

Dans le tableau 4, nous pouvons observer l'utilité ressentie par les apprenants quant aux activités efficaces en expression orale. Comme il est facile de le comprendre, les activités de reproduction : pratiquer la prononciation, apprendre des chansons et participer à des jeux de rôles (qui dans ce cas reflète le fait que la simulation est préparée et répétée par les apprenants), sont un peu plus prisées que celles qui demandent un travail plus complexe (recherche, sélection et organisation d'informations) pour faire un exposé, participer à un débat, résoudre un problème, etc.

Ce constat confirme la difficulté pour les apprenants de mettre en œuvre des compétences génériques im-

Tableau 3. Activités bénéfiques à l'apprentissage de la langue.

	Oui	Non
En faisant des exercices d'application des contenus présentés par l'enseignant/le manuel	90,25%	9,75%
En déduisant la théorie à partir d'exemples	72,3%	27,7%
En écoutant, en prenant des notes et en mémorisant	68,7%	31,3%
En réalisant des tâches et des exercices	86,7%	13,3%
En recherchant l'information par moi-même	59,5%	40,5%
En suivant les cheminements proposés par l'enseignant	72,8%	27,2%
En lisant, en écrivant, en parlant et en écoutant le plus possible sans me laisser arrêter par des problèmes	89,2%	10,8%
En lisant, en écrivant, en parlant et en écoutant tout en réfléchissant sur ce que je fais	90,75%	9,25%
En répétant après l'enseignant	70,25%	29,75%
En mettant en pratique ce que j'ai vu dans un centre d'autoapprentissage	53,85%	46,15%
En participant à des réseaux sociaux (forums, blogs, plateformes, etc.)	67,2%	36,8%

Tableau 4. Utilité ressentie des activités en expression orale.

	Oui	Non
Mémoriser des conversations ou des dialogues	54,9%	45,1%
Participer à des jeux de rôles	91,8%	8,2%
Faire de la recherche sur un thème et participer à un débat	77,45%	22,55%
Faire un exposé en classe	73,3%	26,7%
Réaliser des tâches de résolution de problèmes en groupes	72,8%	27,2%
Réaliser des tâches d'échanges d'informations en groupes	72,3%	27,7%
Apprendre des listes de phrases toutes faites et de vocabulaire	72,8%	27,2%
Apprendre des chansons	85,1%	15,9%
Pratiquer la prononciation	98,45%	1,55%

pliquant des processus cognitifs quelque peu complexes. En effet, les apprenants de langue étrangère préfèrent des activités d'application, courtes en temps de préparation et de réalisation, aux activités demandant réflexion, organisation des idées, temps, argumentation, etc.

Quant à l'utilité ressentie par les apprenants des activités réalisées en production écrite, le travail à partir de modèles (reproduction) est très apprécié (90,25%), alors que celui plus réflexif de guidage de l'enseignant l'est moins (74,90%). Le travail en équipe arrive à la dernière place (53,3%). La reproduction est décidément considérée comme le moyen le plus efficace d'apprendre.

Avec un pourcentage d'accord de plus de 80 %, des actions telles que la tentative de surpasser les problèmes de compréhension en s'attachant à une compré-

hension générale des informations du document abordé, la planification et l'organisation de l'information à présenter, et la tentative d'analyse des erreurs commises sont des activités considérées comme relativement efficaces.

Si nous nous intéressons à l'efficacité ressentie des stratégies d'apprentissage (Tableau 5), la compréhension des mots à partir d'inférences relatives au contexte, la réflexion sur les difficultés d'apprentissage rencontrées, le contraste entre langue cible et langue maternelle, la mémorisation de règles en vue de leur application, le recours à l'espagnol comme stratégie de compensation pendant la classe ainsi que la prégnance de l'effort de communication face à des erreurs langagières sont des stratégies valides pour les apprenants.

Tableau 5. Efficacité ressentie des manières d'apprendre

	Oui	Non
Peu importe si je ne comprends pas tous les mots d'un texte, j'essaie d'en comprendre le sens général	86,15%	13,85%
J'essaie d'inférer le sens des mots que je ne comprends pas à partir du contexte	74,35%	25,65%
Quand je ne comprends pas un mot, je l'écris sur un papier et plus tard je cherche sa signification dans le dictionnaire (gestion de ressource)	63,2%	36,8%
Je planifie ce que je vais dire avant de m'exprimer à l'oral ou à l'écrit (cognitive)	81%	19%
J'écoute attentivement pour comprendre l'idée générale d'un document	87,7%	12,3%
J'essaie de ne pas recourir à l'espagnol en classe	33,35%	66,65%
Je réfléchis aux difficultés que je rencontre pour apprendre le français	73,35%	26,65%
Je compare les règles du français et de l'espagnol	74,9%	25,1%
J'essaie de déduire des règles du français à travers des hypothèses sur son fonctionnement	64,6%	35,4%
J'aime apprendre une règle pour pouvoir l'appliquer	76,4%	23,6%
Peu importe si je commets des erreurs pour atteindre mon but communicatif	73,35%	26,65%
Quand je commets une erreur, j'essaie de l'analyser pour découvrir la forme correcte	91,8%	8,2%

Finalement, nous pouvons constater que des plans d'action tels que l'activité post-classe (rechercher un mot dans le dictionnaire) et la réflexion sur les règles de fonctionnement de la langue à partir d'exemple sont considérés comme moins pertinents ; l'action de l'apprenant envisage essentiellement le moment de la classe au détriment des opportunités de travail et d'amélioration pré et post classe.

4. Discussion et conclusion

4.1. Intégration du monde scolaire et de l'entreprise

Pour la grande majorité des enquêtés, la motivation et l'intérêt pour apprendre la langue française sont essentiellement d'ordre personnel. La langue n'est que très peu perçue comme un outil au service de la formation professionnelle, que ce soit directement en permettant l'accès à des professions où le français est utile, ou que ce soit indirectement par le biais d'une éventuelle participation à la mobilité scolaire. Or, s'il est vrai que l'impact du français au niveau des débouchés professionnels est très réduit, au Mexique il existe beaucoup de programmes de mobilité académique. Selon la *Secretaria de Relaciones Exteriores* la France est le troisième pays d'accueil des étudiants mexicains, avec une population en 2016-2017 de 2955 étudiants (<https://embamex.sre.gob.mx/francia/index.php/es/inicio/cooperacion>).

Il semblerait que pour de nombreux étudiants le français demeure une langue en relation avec une réalité éloignée, *virtuelle*, dans le sens où cette langue n'est que

très peu liée à la perception de la réalité socioéconomique des apprenants. Si la relation du français avec le monde socioprofessionnel est peu visible pour les apprenants, c'est certainement dû au fait que l'intégration du monde socio-professionnel « français » du Mexique et du domaine scolaire est très peu perceptible, peut être faute de diffusion ou de réels mécanismes impliquant des actions conjointes des universités et des entreprises.

4.2. Vers un enseignement stratégique de l'apprentissage de la langue étrangère

En ce qui a trait au rôle transversal de l'apprentissage de la langue étrangère, ce que ressentent les apprenants permet de vérifier que l'apprentissage de la langue étrangère est un moyen de développer des compétences disciplinaires plutôt que génériques. De manière générale, il ressort de cette étude que les apprenants sont plus enclins au travail n'impliquant aucune responsabilité de leur part et n'engageant pas leur réflexion critique. De ce fait, les activités requérant des processus cognitifs relativement élevés (résumé, compte rendu, argumentation entre autres) sont peu appréciées des apprenants et ressenties comme peu importantes.

Au contraire, les activités relevant d'une démarche de systématisation basée sur l'application simple d'informations vues en classe sont privilégiées. Dans le même ordre d'idées, le travail indépendant est rare et les activités de classe sont ressenties comme les plus importantes pour l'apprentissage. La métacognition est absente de la mé-

thodologie d'apprentissage, l'enseignant étant le centre du savoir et le décideur des contenus.

Ceci nous amène à nous demander comment l'axe transversal « langue étrangère » est opérationnalisé en amont (à partir du curriculum) et en aval par les enseignants. Il serait intéressant de concevoir un enseignement des compétences génériques plus explicite, c'est-à-dire orienté vers l'explicitation, la réalisation et la systématisation des stratégies à mettre en œuvre pour réaliser des tâches langagières et non langagières permettant de résoudre divers problèmes.

Certains auteurs comme Tardif (1997), Saint Pierre (1991) et Cartier (2000) vantent les mérites de l'enseignement explicite de ces stratégies d'apprentissage. Ces auteurs soulignent l'importance d'expliquer concrètement à l'apprenant les stratégies d'apprentissage utiles pour améliorer les mécanismes d'étude. Il serait intéressant de renforcer cette dimension au sein du cursus scolaire en s'engageant vers un véritable enseignement stratégique entendu comme modèle pédagogique orienté vers le développement des apprentissages et leur transfert, à travers un enseignement explicite des moyens mis en œuvre par l'apprenant pour améliorer son apprentissage et développer son autonomie.

4.3. L'apprentissage de la langue comme moteur de l'apprendre ensemble

En relation avec le point antérieur, nous avons pu observer que, pour la grande majorité des apprenants, l'individualisme est le maître mot de l'apprentissage, surtout au moment de parler de réflexion (correction) sur celui-ci. Comme nous pouvions nous y attendre, c'est l'enseignant qui peut permettre la réflexion, non les camarades de classe. Ainsi, les activités de réflexion sur son apprentissage, qu'on pourrait intégrer dans le domaine des connaissances métacognitives sont peu prises.

Encore une fois, est mise en exergue une des failles de l'axe transversal « langue étrangère » : le développement chez les apprenants de la métacognition. L'orientation cognitiviste pourrait permettre de reconsidérer la mise en œuvre de l'action didactique incluant l'enseignement explicite des stratégies métacognitives.

4.4. L'organisation du temps d'étude

Sur ce point, nous pouvons constater que l'action d'apprendre ne considère que très peu l'organisation de l'étude. En effet, les apprenants sont peu enclins à la gestion de l'étude de la langue étrangère. Nous estimons que l'action enseignante devrait tenter de générer chez l'apprenant des habitudes d'étude : gestion du temps, gestion des ressources, gestion de l'espace, etc. Si l'on veut ache-

miner l'apprenant vers l'autonomie, il est en effet primordial de l'habituer à organiser et à gérer le temps consacré à l'étude.

Conclusion

Ce travail de recherche a mis en lumière des éléments à repenser lors de la mise à jour des programmes de matières mais aussi quant aux dynamiques de classe et aux méthodologies mises en œuvre par les enseignants.

Les données recueillies pourraient nous faire penser que les enquêtés ont une vision de l'apprentissage de la langue étrangère qui relève essentiellement du développement de la compétence linguistique et très peu des compétences générales sociolinguistiques, voire pragmatiques, contrairement à ce que préconise et définit le Cadre Européen Commun de Référence pour les Langues (CECRL).

L'usage d'une langue, y compris son apprentissage, comprend les actions accomplies par des gens qui, comme individus et comme acteurs sociaux, développent un ensemble de compétences générales et, notamment, une compétence à communiquer langagièrement (CECRL, 2001, p.15)

En outre, et nous sommes ici de plain-pied dans le domaine de certaines compétences génériques relatives à l'organisation de l'étude, il est manifeste que l'apprenant, passif quant à l'organisation de son apprentissage, adopte une posture d'évitement des responsabilités.

Autre aspect saillant, pour les apprenants l'apprentissage de la langue est significatif s'il passe par la mise en pratique. Sont donc rejetées des activités plus réflexives et indépendantes qui n'impliquent que très peu le groupe classe (centre d'autoapprentissage, réseaux sociaux). Cela nous pousse à croire que, selon les étudiants, la langue demeure une discipline où l'apprentissage de formules et leur application sont des actions incontournables et opératoires. L'apprentissage de compétences génériques demeure très sommaire, toute activité non focalisée sur l'utilisation directe de la langue étant peu efficace.

Les réponses des étudiants interrogés s'entourent d'un certain flou au niveau des besoins ressentis au niveau de la situation cible. Il semblerait que leurs intérêts et leurs désirs soient relativement amples, ce qui pourrait nous garantir une grande liberté au niveau des contenus et des activités langagières à prendre en compte pour la réalisation de futurs programmes d'étude.

Il est temps, selon nous, de considérer la langue étrangère comme un axe transversal en tirant profit de cette discipline pour développer chez l'apprenant des compétences plus générales. En effet, même si la langue est considérée, selon les intentions éducatives, comme un axe transversal de formation pouvant amener l'individu à

développer ses connaissances professionnelles et personnelles, cette mise en perspective de l'outil linguistique ne semble pas recevoir de légitimité. Nous pourrions penser que, même si l'institution met en avant l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère comme élément central de la formation des individus, la réalité est tout autre, la langue demeurant une discipline cloisonnée. Comme cela a été constaté plusieurs fois au cours de cet article, l'enseignement de la langue étrangère est encore trop souvent perçu par les apprenants comme un enseignement disciplinaire que cela soit imputable ou non aux caractéristiques de l'action didactique des enseignants.

Il ressort des informations collectées que la formation de compétences génériques, qui font tant défaut aux étudiants, n'est pas prise en compte dans le contexte éducatif étudié. Nous réitérons alors l'intérêt que pourrait avoir une formation centrée sur l'enseignement stratégique pour pallier les faiblesses dans ce domaine. Ce modèle permettrait de développer chez les apprenants des compétences génériques à partir de l'étude de la langue cible elle-même. Même s'il est évident que cela entraînerait une formation du corps enseignant, nous croyons que cela donnerait toute sa dimension à l'axe transversal « langue étrangère ».

Références

- Anderson, L. & Krathwohl, D.A. (2001). *Taxonomy for learning teaching and assessing: a revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives*. New-York : Longman.
- Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla. (2009). *Fundamentos del Modelo Universitario Minerva*. México: Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla.
- Bloom, B.S. (1956). *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives Handbook: The cognitive domain*. New-York : David McKay.
- Brindley, G. (1994). The Role of Needs Analysis in Adult ESL Programme Design. In *The Second Language Curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cartier, S. (2000). *Enseigner les stratégies d'apprentissage aux élèves du collégial pour que leur français se porte mieux*. Récupéré de [http://](http://correspo.ccdmd.qc.ca/index.php/document/connaître-les-regles-grammaticales-necessaire-mais-insuffisant/enseigner-les-strategies-d'apprentissage-aux-eleves-du-collegial-pour-que-leur-francais-se-porte-mieux/)

correspo.ccdmd.qc.ca/index.php/document/connaître-les-regles-grammaticales-necessaire-mais-insuffisant/enseigner-les-strategies-d'apprentissage-aux-eleves-du-collegial-pour-que-leur-francais-se-porte-mieux/

- Conseil de l'Europe. (2001). *Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues : apprendre, enseigner, évaluer*. Unité des Politiques linguistiques, Strasbourg. Récupéré de <https://rm.coe.int/16802fc3a8>
- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes : A learning-centred approach*. New York : Cambridge University Press.
- Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche. (2011). *Les référentiels de formation : un outil au service de la réussite des étudiants*. Récupéré de http://media.enseignementsup-recherche.gouv.fr/file/Dossier_de_presse_nouvelle_licence_juin_2011/31/0/04-Referentiels_de_formation_183310.pdf.
- Moreno, A. I. (2004). *Análisis de necesidades para el aula de lengua inglesa en Filología Inglesa: un estudio de caso*. Récupéré de <http://hdl.handle.net/10261/12388>
- Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Roegiers, X., Wouters, P. & Gerard, F-M. (1992). Du concept d'analyse des besoins de formation à sa mise en œuvre. *Formation et Technologies - Revue européenne des professionnels de la formation*, Vol. I(2-3), p.32-42.
- Saint Pierre, L. (1991). *L'étude et les stratégies d'apprentissage*. Récupéré de [http://www.cvm.qc.ca/aqpc/Auteurs/Saint-Pierre,%20Lise/Saint-Pierre,%20Lise%20\(05,2\)](http://www.cvm.qc.ca/aqpc/Auteurs/Saint-Pierre,%20Lise/Saint-Pierre,%20Lise%20(05,2))
- Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores. Cooperación académica y científica. <https://embamex.sre.gob.mx/francia/index.php/es/inicio/cooperacion>
- Tardif, J. (1997). *Pour un enseignement stratégique: l'apport de la psychologie cognitive*. Montréal: Les Editions Logiques.
- Widdowson, P. (1981). *ESP Today: a practitioner's guide*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Notes

1 Extrait de http://media.enseignementsup-recherche.gouv.fr/file/Dossier_de_presse_nouvelle_licence_juin_2011/31/0/04-Referentiels_de_formation_183310.pdf.

2 Adapté par les auteurs: "El desarrollo integral consiste entonces en promover la autonomía del individuo, reconociendo su capacidad para auto-dirigirse y organizar su aprendizaje, impulsando el pensamiento analítico, crítico y creativo, así como las actitudes y habilidades para una mejor calidad de vida." (MUM, 2009, p. 90)

3 Adapté par les auteurs: "integración con la sociedad abriendo y compartiendo sus espacios para que, en un ambiente de libertad y respeto, se promuevan el aprendizaje, la creatividad, la reflexión, el debate de los grandes temas ecorregionales, nacionales e internacionales y el desarrollo individual y colectivo." (MUM, 2009, p.50)

FROM NEWSTELLING TO NEWS DEBATING: A PATH TO FOSTER EFL ARGUMENTATION SKILLS

Yomaira Angélica Herreño-Contreras

Universidad Santo Tomás, Villavicencio, Colombia
yomis@outlook.com

Abstract

This article depicts the findings of an action research project intended to describe the impact of news debating founded on newstelling as a pedagogical strategy to enhance argumentation and transcend the common-place news report in EFL. The participants were 20 Law students enrolled in a Legal English course at a Colombian university. The research was theoretically supported on EFL newstelling, debate and argumentation. The data collecting instruments were: students' journals, a survey and a debate rubric. Data analysis was done applying the grounded theory. The results suggest that the embedment of newstelling with debate contributes to students' social engagement, legal vocabulary acquisition and argumentation skills.

Keywords: argumentation skills, debate, newstelling, speaking, TEFL.

Resumen

Este artículo presenta los resultados de una investigación acción orientada a describir el impacto del debate de noticias fundamentado en la narración de noticias como estrategia pedagógica para mejorar las habilidades argumentativas, y trascender el usual reporte de noticias en las clases de inglés. Participaron 20 estudiantes de derecho inscritos en un curso de inglés legal ofrecido en una universidad colombiana. Esta investigación estuvo fundamentada teóricamente en la narración de noticias, el debate y la argumentación en escenarios de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera. Los instrumentos utilizados para recopilar los datos fueron: el diario del estudiante, una encuesta y una rúbrica de debate. El análisis de datos se

realizó aplicando la teoría fundamentada. Los hallazgos sugieren que la integración de la narración de noticias y el debate contribuye al compromiso social de los estudiantes, la adquisición de vocabulario legal y las habilidades argumentativas.

Palabras clave: debate, habilidades argumentativas, habilidad de habla, Inglés como Lengua Extranjera (ILE), narración de noticias.

Introduction

Today, more than ever before, it has become a must for education to respond to social demands. In fact, it is quite necessary a real and in-depth involvement in what is happening outside the frontiers of an educational institution, rather than “educating” behind the backs of the reality. In other words, educating is called to make learners really aware of their surroundings and to nurture a sense of engagement and responsibility in relation to the construction of a better world. In this sense, learners

[...] need to learn how and why to be engaged citizens who think critically—so that they can, for example, analyze news items, identify biases, and vote in an educated way. They need to be able to solve problems so they can propose or review policies to address social challenges. They need to be able to work with others if they are to effectively serve as jurors or participate in political campaigns. They need to be able to communicate effectively orally and in writing so that they can share their opinions publicly, defend their rights, propose new policy, etc. (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012, p. 6)

In other words, students' needs are primarily oriented to taking part of their nearby area's concerns, and their participation should be characterized by aspects

Recibido el 27 de abril, 2019- Aceptado el 3 de julio, 2019.

such as; criticality, analysis, proposition, leadership, co-operation and communication, among others. An alternative to foster critical thinking and social engagement within the English lessons is argumentation, which is conceived as “reason giving in communicative situations by people whose purpose is the justification of acts, beliefs, attitudes, and values” (Freeley & Steinberg, 2000, p. 2).

Thus, a pedagogical proposal was designed bearing in mind relevant features associated with newstelling and debate (news debating) in order to serve a twofold aim. In the first place, the enhancement of EFL argumentation skills at tertiary education. In the second place, the students’ involvement in an approach to learning for life. In most respects, news discourse may be perceived as the spawning ground for generating ideas and opinions, eliciting argumentation and setting own standpoints concerning some current issues. Van Dijk (1988) declares that news tacitly supports overriding beliefs and views, and essentially amounts to assertion as a speech act. However, a piece of news gathers diverse ideas that eventually derive into debatable stances, problem-solving instances and alternative perspectives to tackle determined issues.

As this article is intended to display the insights and findings obtained from the implementation of a pedagogical proposal aimed at developing argumentation skills by utilizing newstelling in association with debate, it provides an account of the systematic review of previous research concerning the development of argumentation skills, as well as newstelling and debate as pedagogical strategies. Besides, it presents the research methodology, the analysis of the collected data and the emerging conclusions.

Statement of the Problem

Along history, education has endeavored to respond to a far greater number of demands placed on it. In Colombia, English has become a concurrent issue which has been the core of various programs as the National Bilingualism Program (2004-2019) and the National English Plan (2015-2025). Nevertheless, at tertiary education apart from the reiterated English learning, it is paramount to inquire into the specific requirements derived from the professional profiles, and to what extent English learning and teaching processes can represent an academic option to foster an integral education.

In this case, law students are supposed to gain knowledge about different law branches, procedures and specific legislations. Besides, they are also required to hone their problem-solving, critical thinking and argumentation skills. Concerning argumentation skills,

it is worth mentioning that from a dialogical perspective legal argumentation is understood as a discussion procedure aimed at defending a legal stance under the grounds of some rationality parameters (Feteris & Kloosterhuis, 2009).

The students’ difficulties with expressing their point of view, defending their stance, counter-arguing, proposing solutions to everyday problems from a legal perspective, and thinking out of the box in relation to controversial current issues constitute the reason for designing and executing pedagogical interventions aimed at fostering their speaking in English along with their argumentation skills.

Bearing in mind the aforementioned assumptions, the guiding question for this study was:

What is the impact of implementing debates accompanied by newstelling as a pedagogical strategy to enhance argumentation skills in law students enrolled in a Legal English course?

Theoretical Framework

The theory which founded this project is correlated with research conducted on the following topics: newstelling, debate and argumentation.

Newstelling

Newstelling provides an ample range of benefits concerning the development of oral skills as it involves students in planning and presenting activities around news facts (Neall, 2007). For instance, reflecting, interpreting, making assumptions, and assuming a posture regarding the implications, forthcoming consequences and decisions around the given news.

In this sense, news as texts hold the meaning which subsequently becomes the core of further discussion. In this regard, White (1998) asserts that

[...]every meaning within a text occurs in a social context where a number of alternative or contrary meanings could have been made, and derives its social meaning and significance from the relationships of divergence or convergence into which it enters with those alternative meanings. (p. 28)

In relation to the use of news reports in EFL, it is quite advisable to permit students to decide on what sort of news they want to read or listen to according to their own interests. The selection process itself may become a crucial stage to engage them as they start querying and

making predictions about the content. Mackenzie (1997) declares that despite the difficulty of the oral report, students get involved in a wide range of activities as content prediction, gist listening, listening for particular details and even discussion on the report's main issue.

Furthermore, students are capable of making the path from reporting news facts to confronting ideas, defending own viewpoints, analyzing facts and eventually proposing solutions. According to Shaw (2004)

No matter what type of open-ended discussion group takes place in a classroom, a newspaper is an integral part. There is always the need to find connections in the reading to the world, to self, and to other texts. All three of these connections can be found in the newspaper on any given day. When taking part in a discussion, students need to bring every possible resource to the forefront. Confirmation, rejection, support and elaboration are all key elements in a meaningful discussion. (p. 8)

As a result, English classes become an ideal scenario to foster argumentation skills as students transcend the initial reading comprehension stage, and take a position in regard to the news content. In the framework of this pedagogical proposal, news constitute the prime basis to lead students to construct more elaborate utterances and communicate their own perspectives on determined issues. Furthermore, at a broader scope they may be encouraged to think critically of their nearby problematic, and take an active role towards their solution.

Debate

The debate has been highly implemented as a pedagogical strategy to foster the argumentative competence in EFL scenarios. It has demonstrated its usefulness at expanding cognitive capacities, and encouraging social engagement. Snider and Schnurer (2006) define debate "as an instructional tool that meets multiple educational objectives" (p. 10). It clearly demands mastery of content, communication and critical thinking skills. Then, when debating students are immersed in a complex and high-order thinking speech act.

In the same line of thought, Nisbett (2003) declares that "debate is an important educational tool for learning analytical thinking skills and for forcing self-conscious reflection" (p. 210). In this sense, it can be inferred that EFL classes enriched by debatable issues tend to overcome commonplaces in educational practic-

es, and are oriented to the achievement of lifelong and lifewide learning.

As part of the results arisen from a research, Fauzan (2016) concludes that debate practice prompted students to improve their language skills so as to construct their arguments, increase their fluency as well as their confidence. Furthermore, Yang and Gamble (2013) assert that "debates encourage evaluation of assumptions, weighing evidence, supporting claims, and reflecting on issues to build both CT and speaking skills" (p. 400). In this sense, students are expected to reflect, judge and consider alternative perspectives.

Argumentation

Toulmin's (2003) argumentation model laid the foundations for further research on this issue. He drew a parallel between arguments features and the judicial process

There must be an initial stage at which the charge or claim is clearly stated, a subsequent phase in which evidence is set out or testimony given in support of the charge or claim, leading on to the final stage at which a verdict is given, and the sentence or other judicial act issuing from the verdict is pronounced. (p. 16)

Based on his foundations, there have been various considerations on the argument composition and its concept, Copi and Cohen (1990) assert that

a proposition by itself is *not* an argument. A proposition is said to be "true" or "false". An argument is a group of propositions of which one, the conclusion is claimed to be true on the basis of other prepositions, the premises, that as asserted as providing grounds or reasons for accepting the conclusion. But not every passage containing several propositions is an argument. (p. 26)

Concerning the argument composition, Freeley and Steinberg (2000) promulgate six constituent elements. According to their insights, an argument comprises: statements denoted as the conclusions to be pursued along the argumentation act; grounds or foundations constitute the notions intended to underpin the statement; guarantees catalogued as the evidence to support the grounds; additional proof to further reinforce the statement; qualifications to forge cohesiveness into the statement; and counter-arguments used to undermine the contradictory statements.

Argumentative competence. The term competence hints at the cluster of knowledge, learnings, skills, aptitudes and attitudes that enable an individual to do a task or cope with specific situations effectively, efficiently and within high standards of performance. With regard to the argumentative competence, Rapanta, Garcia-Mila and Gilabert (2013) state that it refers to “a group of skills [...] manifested in discourse forms, in the use of specific strategies, or as the fulfillment of an argumentation goal in a particular context” (p. 512).

Additionally, Kline (1998) asserts that the argumentative competence encompasses the creation of consensus regarding problematic situations, the advocacy of proposals, the promotion of commitment and the amalgamation of identities. Based on the previous conceptualizations, it is quite relevant to remark that “arguing constitutes the daily sort of speech in the law field due to the control of rationality. Thus, legal argumentation can be regarded as the exercise of practical rationality” (Sanz, 2013, p. 103).

Research Methodology

This research constituted a qualitative study, as it intended to inquire into a phenomenon in a natural setting in order to describe it and interpret it based on the experience and the information gathered (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2007). In this case, it aimed at describing the impact of debate accompanied by newstelling as a pedagogical strategy to enhance argumentation skills, and transcend the commonplace report of news in English lessons.

Thus, it relied on the action research cycle. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), action research is implemented where a problem entailing people, tasks and procedures demands a solution. Regarding the steps immersed in the action research cycle, Burns (2009) indicates four stages: planning, acting, observing and reflecting. In the first one, a plan is devised to tackle a problematic situation. Afterwards, the plan is implemented and the actions conducted are observed. Finally, effects are pondered for further planning, intervention and analysis.

Therefore, in this study students' needs and interests in terms of EFL argumentation skills were identified. Four workshops were designed (Appendix C), aiming to favor reflective learning, problematizing reading, problematizing newstelling and argumentation skills. This first stage also involved the selection of gathering data instruments: students' journals, a survey (Appendix A) and a debate rubric (Appendix B). Afterwards, four workshops were conducted based on the pedagogical route proposed by the researcher (Figure 1), and eventually collected data were categorized and analyzed to present some conclusions.

Setting

This research was conducted at Universidad Santo Tomás (hereafter referred as USTA), a private, catholic and accredited university in Villavicencio, Meta, Colombia. It was founded by the Order of Preachers in 1580. In accordance with its pedagogical model, it is intended to promote students' integral development. Integrality is comprehended in terms of the person's dimensions: being (ser), doing (hacer) and acting (obrar), which orient to the person's growth (Universidad Santo Tomás, 2010). Accordingly,

by means of the constant study, the criticality and the creativity, reality should be known and apprehended, in other words, it is fundamental to **see**, observe, ponder and analyze it in order to **make judgements** on it, and subsequently **act** on it to transform it to the best extent possible. (Universidad Santo Tomás, 2015, p. 30)

In regard to foreign language policies, at USTA the role of English is determined by an agreement (Acuerdo 46, Diciembre 3, 2014) consistent with the National English Plan 2015-2025, which is directed by the Colombian Ministry of Education, and sets the bilingualism goals in Colombia. As part of its guidelines, it encourages the design of flexible curricula adapted to students' needs.

Participants

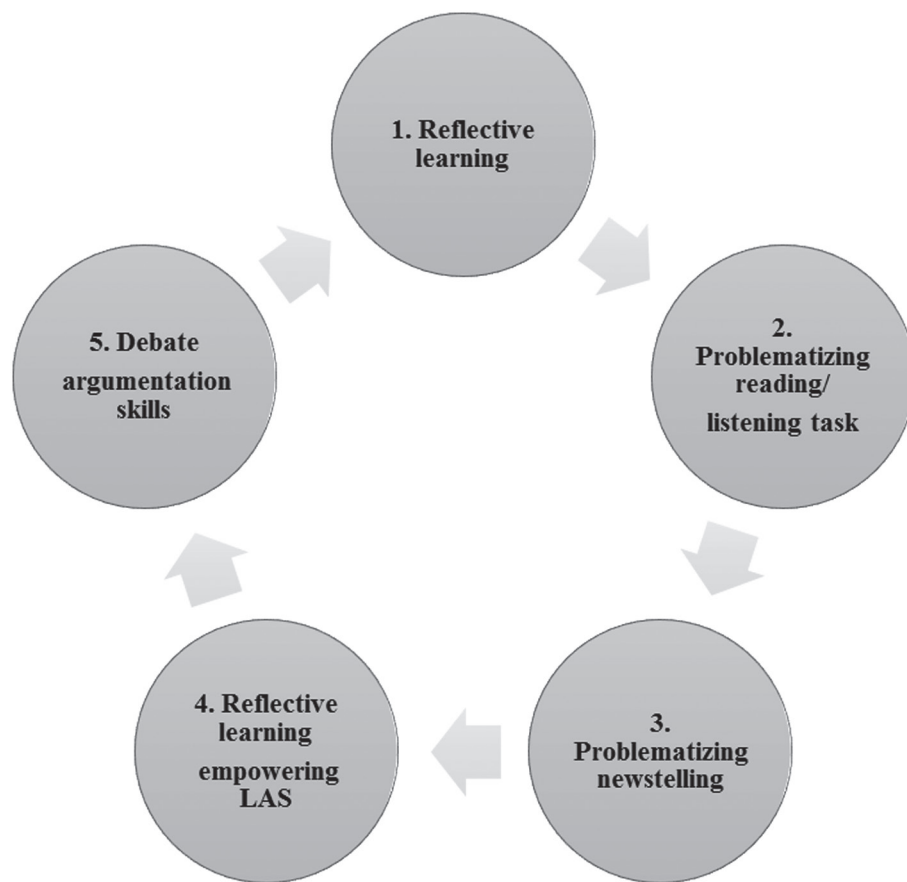
Participants of this study corresponded to Law students enrolled in a Legal English course at USTA in Villavicencio, Colombia. They were 20 students, 15 females and 5 males whose age ranged from 19 to 25 years. As part of the law program educational plan, they had already fulfilled the university's requirements for General English courses -seven levels- and were expected to pursue two Legal English courses under a 2-hour weekly basis each. At the time of this study, their English level was likely to be correlated with B1, based on the University Proficiency Progression chart, adapted from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Accordingly, students were able to

understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc., produce simple connected texts on topics which are familiar or of personal interest and describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 24)

Pedagogical intervention

This study is intended to enhance EFL argumentation skills through debates accompanied by newstelling in order to guide students to overcome mere informative speech acts, and be capable of setting their position, constructing their own criteria, arguing and counter-arguing and making decisions regarding problematizing situations and controversial issues. In this way, the following procedures were carried out during the English classes:

Figure 1. Pedagogical route.



1. *Reflective learning*: students were engaged in activities prior to reading or listening to the selected piece of news. They were usually requested to observe a picture and answer some questions about it as a way to prompt participation and a preliminary discussion on the given topic.

2. *Problematizing reading / listening task*: students read or listened to the piece of news related to the topic discussed in the first stage. They should answer more specific questions and developed activities such as: fill in comparative charts, exemplify, provide extra details, among others.

3. *Problematizing newstelling*: students were encouraged to orally report the facts and main details of the piece of news. They should make reference to the people involved, the venue where the events occurred, how the case developed, and even hypothesized about the motives behind the facts.

4. *Reflective learning: Empowering LAS (Legal Argumentation Skills)*: students discussed questions regarding the role of law in the case (piece of news). Thus, they exchanged their perceptions and opinions on issues such as: the penalization of drug smuggling in China, the foundations of legal decisions by the Colombian Constitutional Court concerning euthanasia, or the physical and psychological consequences of child labor.

5. *Debate*: Finally, they were expected to partake in a debate where they could express their opinion, answer more deeply questions about the effectiveness of law to handle controversial issues, the involvement of multinationals to promote child labor and the concept of dignified death.

Source: Own elaboration

- First, four current pieces of news concerning controversial issues such as: euthanasia, defamation, child labor and drug trafficking, were selected.
- The researcher introduced the project to the students, who showed interest in participating and subsequently signed the consent letter.
- Workshops. Each workshop was designed according to the argumentation cycle proposed by the researcher, and comprised five stages explained as the following:

As it was previously mentioned, the pedagogical route displayed in Figure 1 was undertaken four times in order to determine the impact of debate accompanied by newstelling to enhance argumentation skills. In the framework of this research, newstelling constituted the preparation step to prompt students to discuss the given subject more deeply.

Data collection instruments

Over the course of this research, three collection instruments were used: students' journal, survey and a debate rubric.

Students' journals. Students were requested to keep a journal so that they could register their insights regarding the pedagogical strategies implemented, the class activities they engaged in, and their accomplishments in terms of their EFL argumentation skills. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), action research implies keeping a journal for students to document their considerations about their learning process. In this case, the journal was structured bearing in mind the pedagogical path proposed by the researcher, and students were provided with some questions to prompt them to record their learning experience. Thus, the journal entries gave account of aspects such as: the warming-up activities conducted during the *reflective learning stage*, their performance while they were involved in the *problematizing reading or listening tasks*, their reflections on the topics (news) treated in class, and the development of their EFL argumentation skills over the course of this study.

Survey. At the end of the study, a survey (Appendix A) was conducted to collect students' insights concerning the implementation of both pedagogical strategies: newstelling and debate. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) assert that

Typically, surveys gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions, or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events. (p. 205)

Thus, the survey intended to inquire into aspects such as: students' engagement in news' analysis, the contribution of Legal English classes to the development of oral and written argumentative skills as well as the impact of debates and newstelling as a pedagogical alliance to enhance EFL argumentation skills.

Debate rubric (Appendix B). The students' performance during the debates was assessed by the implementation of a debate rubric. It aimed at examining whether students formulate their arguments in a clear and organized manner as well as inquiring into the strategies displayed to support their ideas, cross-examine, rebut opposite arguments and persuade opponents. According to Jeong (2015), rubrics contribute to the assessment process as it becomes more accurate, transparent and reliable.

Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that students who employ rubrics to appraise argumentation skills tend to produce better arguments (Jonsson & Svingby, 2007), in comparison with those who are not quite acquainted with scoring criteria and methods. In this case, students were aware of the assessment methodology implemented during the debate sessions, and the features of good arguments.

Data analysis

Data analysis was done applying the grounded theory. Punch (1998) asserts that "[...] grounded theory is best defined as a research strategy whose purpose is to generate theory from data. 'Grounded' means that the theory will be generated on the basis of data; the theory will therefore be grounded in data" (p.163). In this research, the data were collected from three instruments: students' journals, a survey (Appendix A) and a debate rubric (Appendix B). The data collected from the three sources were sorted, coded and triangulated. Thus, students' journals were read in-depth in order to trace commonalities, which subsequently were contrasted with the data from the surveys. In this manner, two major concerns were identified as the emerging categories, and linked together with the sub-categories.

Findings

Taking into account the research question and the data collected, two categories and three sub-categories emerged. They are described as the following:

Table 1. Emerging categories and sub-categories.

First category Newstelling as a strategy oriented to foster social engagement	Second category Students' approach to Legal Argumentation in English (debate)
Sub-category 1. Vocabulary acquisition	Sub-category 1. Students' empowerment to perform in real life situations related to their field of study
Sub-category 2. Problematizing newstelling as a trigger for problem-solving	

First category: newstelling as a strategy oriented to foster social engagement

Essentially, this study aimed at implementing debates accompanied by newstelling as a pedagogical alliance to enhance EFL argumentation skills in law students enrolled in a Legal English course. Thus, a pedagogical path was determined to motivate students to take an interest in reading news in English, sharing their insights and discussing on the legal matters related to a given piece of news.

Apart from providing a speaking topic, newstelling serves to foster social engagement. Gil de Zúñiga, Jung and Valenzuela (2012) declare that “learning about what happens around us and in our community, reflecting on it, and discussing about it with others constructively affects the political realm; as well as it facilitates a cohesive community by enabling citizens to engage in civic action” (p. 229). In this regard, one student stated that English classes contributed to gain competences and skills to fully perform in real life situations because “education is not only for now, but it is always useful in different life situations” (Survey, student 12, 27-10-2015). In the same line of thought, another student mentioned that Legal English classes “trained him for real-life cases” (Survey, student 3, 27-10-2015).

The implementation of newstelling in Legal English classes was carried out with a twofold objective: to trigger argumentation, while fostering social engagement. News allowed students to confront their surrounding reality as they were discussing on controversial current issues.

Sub-category 1. Vocabulary acquisition. One of the main constraints students usually face when learning a language concerns the lack of vocabulary. In this case, they should transcend the basic lexicon they managed, and get acquainted with vocabulary related to the topics proposed for the course as euthanasia, child labor, defamation and drug smuggling. Therefore, throughout the development of the pedagogical intervention workshops considered stages to introduce new words and facilitate their comprehension in context. Wang (2010) declares that “the L2 is used unrealistically for the sake of practicing structures, not in order to DO things that the learners wish or need to do in the L2” (p. 282).

Over the course of this study, students were constantly prompted to do things with the new vocabulary and avail themselves of their background knowledge about English and legal matters, as well. They commented that “We could know new terminology that was more related to our career” (Journal Entry # 5 - Student 2). By

the same token, another student expressed in the survey that she felt engaged in the analysis of legal cases because she “could practice the new vocabulary and the new knowledge” (Survey, student 3, 27-10-2015).

In fact, students were aware of their needs and acknowledged that being encouraged to talk about controversial issues and their legal implications demanded them to broaden their range of vocabulary and functional language. One student declared that legal English classes contributed to developing her argumentative skills because “the classes helped to think in English and enrich the vocabulary” (Survey, student 12, 27-10-2015).

As part of the workshop on defamation, one student wrote the following reflection, which evinces the management of vocabulary to express her ideas:

Colombia is a country where freedom of speech is protected thanks to the National Constitution. This right safeguards the transmission of many types of thoughts, opinions and ideas. This is a fundamental right that guarantees the right to information, and the Constitutional Court considers it as a significant liberty in a democracy (Journal Entry # 6 - Student 7).

Thus, reading news and making oral reports on them guided students to become more socially engaged, and provided them with the necessary lexical tools to be capable of expressing their ideas and thoughts. The pieces of news were by no means fictional stuff, but a portrait of the surrounding reality.

Sub-category 2. Problematizing newstelling as a trigger for problem-solving. This study proposed problematizing newstelling as a trigger for nurturing EFL argumentation skills and exposing learners to situations in which they were expected to be problem-solvers. In this sense, news depicted information summarizing key facts related to a problem, and students should approach the issue from a critical perspective. In other words, they should act as critical thinkers. In this regard, Rezaei, Derakhshan and Bagherkazemi (2011) assert that

One of the distinguishing features of critical thinkers is to be able to raise questions and find pertinent answers for them on the basis of reliable evidence. The process of finding contingent resolutions is premised upon thinking critically. To do so successfully, students need to work in pairs and groups to describe the content of discussion, to define the problem, to personalize

the problem, to discuss the problem and its alternative solutions, and finally to evaluate the whole process. (p. 775)

Based on the selected pieces of news, students were able to observe their own surrounding reality from their position as law students. As a result, they did not restrain themselves to give account of their reading comprehension, but they were engaged in brainstorming sessions to analyze the role of law, the legal procedures conducted and the solutions that may have been proposed to effectively respond to the given issue.

In this regard, one of the students perceived the value of analyzing the news as legal cases: "When analyzing cases, we applied the Colombian legal system, vocabulary, points of view and the reality we live in every day" (Survey, student 4, 27-10-2015). Apart from analyzing the events depicted by the pieces of news, students were encouraged to partake in debates. One of them considered debating as a meaningful task, she stated that "with my classmates, I could express my own points of view regarding different cases, it was easier to speak, learn and understand each other" (Survey, student 5, 27-10-2015).

Additionally, students comprehended it was quite necessary to provide solutions to the issues debated, and were aware of the steps they were following to generate alternatives. One of them expressed it as the following: "First, I analyzed a situation, and after I searched legal support to be able to provide solutions and arguments based on law" (Survey, student 6, 27-10-2015).

Students acknowledged the implemented strategies (newstelling and debate) as useful to foster English learning in general: "those activities are examples that English has many ways to be learned, I think that when we reported the news and participated in the debates, we strengthened our English level" (Journal Entry # 10 - Student 15).

Second category: students' approach to Legal Argumentation in English

For law students Legal Argumentation underpins a great deal of their performance as future lawyers. In fact, as part of their course of studies they should enroll in subjects concerned with argumentation and juridical logic. However, their first approach to Legal Argumentation in English takes place as they involve in Legal English classes. At this stage, they are expected to apply their legal knowledge to provide solutions or their own insight regarding current controversial issues. Of 13 students surveyed, 100% indicated that Legal English classes contributed to develop their oral and written argumentative

skills. (Appendix D)

According to Walton (2002)

much legal reasoning, then, is of a kind that fits legal rules to particular cases. Legal reasoning typically takes the form of an inference in which the major premise states a generalization (rule) and the minor premise is a specific statement that fits the circumstances (facts) of the particular case into the scope of the general premise. (p. 4)

Therefore, issues debated (euthanasia, child labor, defamation and drug smuggling) emerge as the focal points for presenting major and minor premises, which subsequently may derive into solutions, explanations and alternatives.

In this sense, English lessons became a significant learning scenario where students were capable of improving their communicative skills in a foreign language, while they were implementing their disciplinary knowledge in law. In this respect, a student emphasized that "Legal English classes helped her to think in English and enrich the vocabulary. In fact, this semester we analyzed legal cases and studied some topics we were discussing in other subjects as well" (Survey, student 12, 27-10-2015).

English lessons in connection with learners' field of study encouraged knowledge transfer and greater involvement in the tasks proposed. Students were prompted to engage in the analysis of news from a legal perspective, which required specific vocabulary learning as well as the assimilation of argumentative devices to display and defend their own standpoint. On this subject, Huang, Eslami and Willson (2012) note that "an output task that induces a higher level of involvement load will lead to better vocabulary gains" (p. 554). In the framework of this research, argumentation based on law constituted the output task.

Sub-category 1. Students' empowerment to perform in real-life situations related to their field of study.

Students' involvement in the Legal English lessons set the path to their own empowerment as future lawyers and active citizens. Lessons provided them with opportunities to apply their knowledge and foster their argumentative skills in English. Of 13 students surveyed, 84,6% indicated that they gained competencies and skills to fully perform in real-life situations (Appendix D). In this regard, one student mentioned that in the English lesson she "talked about legal cases related to the reality" (Survey, student 4, 27-10-2015). In the same vein, another stu-

dent commented that Legal English lessons “contributed to the development of their professional life” (Survey, student 1, 27-10-2015).

English lessons departed from the aim of getting students acquainted of some legal terminology in English (legalese), while they were exchanging views and discussing the aforementioned controversial subjects. Furthermore, news as the lessons’ starting point contributed to the enhancement of argumentative skills in English along with the development of critical reflection. In consequence, students became capable of reading in the context of the given piece of news, reflecting, tracking more information in connection with it, setting and defending their own position, and even suggesting alternative ways to handle the problem.

In regard to critical reflection, Mezirow (2007) declares that

critical reflection is the process of assessing one’s assumptions and presuppositions. Through critical reflection we can change the way we see the content of a problem or see our process of problem-solving. This can result in transforming our meaning scheme or point of view. We may also become critically reflective of the premises upon which the problem is posed, how the problem is framed or defined. Premise reflection can lead to a transformation in our meaning perspective or habit of mind. (p.12)

Thus, students became capable of honing even more their previously acquired analytical, critical and argumentative skills, as they were immersed in learning scenarios which demanded them to apply their prior knowledge concerning legal issues. Primarily, students were prompted to read beyond the facts and obtain a more accurate overview of the legal framework within the given piece of news. As a result of approaching daily news from their perspective as law students, they surpassed the difficulties related to vocabulary and reading comprehension. In this manner, they did not restrain themselves to reading for information, and moved toward reading for critical understanding. On this subject, Huang (2011) states that “being critical is also understood as a way of reading that draws attention away from emphasis on the technicalities of language to meaning making” (p.150).

This is bolstered by the fact that students attained to confront the news’ facts with the reality. In consequence, Legal English lessons outreached the class boundaries and contributed students to gain competencies and skills required in real-life situations. In this sense,

they perceived the value of this work for their professional life: “Education is not only for the moment, it always serves different life situations” (Survey, student 12, 27-10-2015). In fact, students perceived English as a non-essential subject within their professional goals, but along the pedagogical interventions they were also aware of its relevance: “Legal English lessons prepared us for real-life cases” (Survey, student 3, 27-10-2015). Regarding this issue, of 13 students surveyed, 92.3% indicated that the Legal English classes contributed to develop their analysis skills (Appendix D).

Conclusions

This study provides evidence that debate accompanied by newstelling contributes to the enhancement of argumentation skills in English courses at tertiary education. In this case, law students became capable of overcoming difficulties concerning the expression of their viewpoints, stance-taking, defending, problem-solving, counter-arguing and thinking out of the box in relation to controversial current issues. As the learning sessions demanded them to develop additional skills or upgrade their current ones, they did not restrain themselves to the usual report of facts and involved in discussions on the issues debated (euthanasia, child labor, defamation and drug smuggling).

Thus, debate accompanied by newstelling supports a synchronous development of communicative and argumentative competencies. With regard to the former, this project assisted students in expanding their vocabulary so that they could partake in the speaking sessions conducted. Furthermore, they engaged in listening and reading activities (news formats), which contributed to prepare themselves for intervening in discussions and debates.

In connection with the latter, students read beyond the text and confronted its ideas, the surrounding reality and the extra information they gathered from other sources. They inquired about the particular issues treated in class, and augmented their knowledge to critically approach the problematic and provide potential solutions. As a result, they demonstrated a heightened sense of social engagement, as this project contributed to prevent themselves from ignoring current controversial issues, in which law plays a significant role.

Finally, given the positive results of this study, it is recommended that teachers include pedagogical strategies as newstelling and debate in the English classroom as a way to foster the in tandem development of communicative and argumentative competencies.

References

- Burns, A. (2009). Action research in second language teacher education. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 289-297). New York; NY: Cambridge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. New York; NY: Routledge.
- Copi, I., & Cohen, C. (1990). *Introduction to Logic*. New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Retrieved from https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf
- Fauzan, U. (2016). Enhancing speaking ability of EFL students through debate and peer assessment. *EFL Journal*, 1(1), 49-57. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.21462/eflj.v1i1.8>
- Feteris, E., & Kloosterhuis, H. (2009). The Analysis and Evaluation of Legal Argumentation: Approaches from Legal Theory and Argumentation Theory. *Studies in Logic, Grammar and Rhetoric*, 16(29), 307-331.
- Freeley, A., & Steinberg, D. (2000). *Argumentation and debate: Critical thinking for reasoned decision making*. Belmont, Canada: Wadsworth, Thomson Learning.
- Gil de Zúñiga, H., Jung, N., & Valenzuela, S. (2012). Social Media Use for News and Individuals' Social Capital, Civic Engagement and Political Participation. *Journal of Computer-mediated Communication*, 17(3), 319-336. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2012.01574.x>.
- Hancock, B., Ockleford, E., & Windridg, K. (2009). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*. Nottingham; UK: University of Nottingham. The NIHR RDS for the East Midlands.
- Huang, S., Eslami, Z., & Willson, V. (2012). The Effects of Task Involvement Load on L2 Incidental Vocabulary Learning: A Meta-Analytic Study. *The Modern Language Journal*, 96(4), 544-557. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2012.01394.x>.
- Huang, S. (2011). Reading "Further and Beyond the Text": Student Perspectives of Critical Literacy in EFL Reading and Writing. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 55(2), 145-154. doi: 10.1002/JAAL.00017
- Jeong, H. (2015). Rubrics in the classroom: do teachers really follow them? *Language Testing in Asia*, 5(6), 1-14. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-015-0013-5>
- Jonsson, A., & Svingby, G. (2007). The use of scoring rubrics: Reliability, validity and educational consequences. *Educational Research Review*, 2(2), 130-144. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2007.05.002>
- Kline, S. L. (1998) Influence Opportunities and the Development of Argumentation Competencies in Childhood. *Argumentation*, 12(3), 367-386. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007780507894>
- Mackenzie, A. (1997). Using CNN News Video in the EFL Classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 3(2). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Mackenzie-CNN.html>
- Mezirow, J. (2007). Adult Education and Empowerment for Individual and Community Development. In Connolly, B., Fleming, T., McCormack, D., & Ryan, A. (Eds.), *Radical Learning for Liberation 2* (pp. 9-17). Dublin, Ireland: Maynooth Adult and Community Education.
- Neall, S. (January 2007). News telling. *Oral Language*. Northern Ontario Education Leaders. Retrieved from: <http://www.tncdsb.on.ca/new/resources/CUR%20Oral%20Language%20Jan07-newstelling.pdf>
- Nisbett, R. (2003). *The geography of thought*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Punch, K. F. (1998). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches* (1st ed.). London, UK: Thousand Oaks California, New Delhi; India: SAGE Publications.
- Rapanta, Ch., García-Mila, M., & Gilabert, S. (2013). What Is Meant by Argumentative Competence? An Integrative Review of Methods of Analysis and Assessment in Education. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(4), 483-520. doi: 10.3102/0034654313487606
- Rezaei, S., Derakhshan, A., & Bagherkazemi, M. (2011). Critical Thinking in Language Education. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(4), 769-777. doi: 10.4304/jltr.2.4.769-777
- Saavedra, A., & Opfer, V. (2012). *Teaching and Learning 21st Century Skills: Lessons from the Learning Sciences*. Santa Monica, California: RAND Corporation. Retrieved from: <http://asiasociety.org/files/rand-0512report.pdf>

- Sanz, P. (2013). Sobre la Tópica Jurídica en Viehweg. *Revista Telemática de Filosofía del Derecho*, 16, 83-108. Retrieved from: <http://www.rtfed.es/numero16/02-16.pdf>
- Shaw, D. (2004). Thoughtful Literacy Using the Newspaper. Chexley, Maryland: Newspaper in Education Institute. Retrieved from: https://nieonline.com/dispatchnie/downloads/resources/Thoughtful_Literacy.pdf
- Snider, A., & Schnurer, M. (2006). *Many Sides: Debate across the Curriculum*. New York, NY: International Debate Education Association.
- Toulmin, S. (2003). *The Uses of Argument*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Universidad Santo Tomás. (2010). *Modelo Pedagógico Educativo*. Bogotá, Colombia: Departamento de Publicaciones Universidad Santo Tomás. Universidad Santo Tomás. (december 3, 2014). Políticas de adquisición de lengua extranjera. [Acuerdo 46]. Retrieved from: https://www.usta.edu.co/images/documentos/documentos-institucionales/acuerdos/acuerdo_46.pdf
- Universidad Santo Tomás. (2015). *Filosofía y Cultura Institucional. Volumen I*. Bogotá, Colombia: Ediciones USTA.
- van Dijk, T. (1988). *News as discourse*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Walton, D. (2002). *Legal Argumentation and Evidence*. Philadelphia, PA: The Pennsylvania State University.
- Wang, X. (2010). Features of Input of Second Language Acquisition. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(3), 282-284. doi: doi:10.4304/jltr.1.3.282-284
- White, P. (1998). *Telling Media Tales: the news story as rhetoric*. (Doctoral thesis, University of Sydney). Retrieved from: [http://www.prrwhite.info/prrwhite,%201998,%20Telling%20Media%20Tales%20\(unpublished%20PhD\).pdf](http://www.prrwhite.info/prrwhite,%201998,%20Telling%20Media%20Tales%20(unpublished%20PhD).pdf)
- Yang, Y-T. C., & Gamble, J.(2013). Effective and practical critical thinking-enhanced EFL instruction. *ELT Journal*, 67(4), 398-412. doi:10.1093/elt/cct038.

Appendix A

Survey



RESEARCH PROJECT: FOSTERING STUDENT'S LEGAL ARGUMENTATION THROUGH PROBLEMATIZING NEWSTELLING

Dear student,

This survey is aimed at gathering information about your perceptions on the implementation of newstelling pervaded by debate exercises as strategies to foster argumentation. Please, be honest and answer according to your experience.

PROBLEMATIZING NEWSTELLING

1. The Legal English classes contributed to develop your analysis skills especially because you were asked to analyze news and give your point of view as a lawyer.

Yes____ No____ why? _____

2. Were you engaged in the analysis of news presented in class?

Yes____ No____ why? _____

3. What difficulties did you face at reading news in English?

LEGAL ARGUMENTATION SKILLS - DEBATE

4. Legal English classes contributed to develop your oral and written argumentative skills.

Yes____ No____ Why? _____

5. Legal English classes contributed not just to get legal vocabulary, but also to gain competences and skills to fully perform in real life situations.

Yes____ No____ Why? _____

6. The analysis, recreation, and argumentation of legal cases in English classes contributed to apply your knowledge about law.

Yes____ No____ Why? _____

7. Right now, do you feel more confident in taking active role in legal issues debates, stating your point of view, sharing your opinion and expressing your arguments?

Yes____ No____ Why? _____

Name: _____ Date: _____

Appendix B

Debate rubric

Criteria	4	3	2	1	Grade
1. Organization & Clarity: Main arguments and responses are outlined in a clear and orderly way.	Completely clear and orderly presentation	Mostly clear and orderly in all parts	Clear in some parts but not overall	Unclear and disorganized throughout	
2. Use of Argument: Reasons are given to support the resolution	Very strong and persuasive arguments given throughout	Many good arguments given, with only minor problems	Some decent arguments, but some significant problems	Few or no real arguments given, or all arguments given had significant problems	
3. Use of cross-examination and rebuttal: Identification of weakness in Negative team's arguments and ability to defend itself against attack.	Excellent cross-exam and defense against Negative team's objections	Good cross-exam and rebuttals, with only minor slip-ups	Decent cross-exam and/or rebuttals, but with some significant problems	Poor cross-exam or rebuttals, failure to point out problems in Negative team's position or failure to defend itself against attack.	
4. Presentation Style: Tone of voice, clarity of expression, precision of arguments all contribute to keeping audience's attention and persuading them of the team's case.	All style features were used convincingly	Most style features were used convincingly	Few style features were used convincingly	Very few style features were used, none of them convincingly	
TOTAL SCORE					

Taken from: <http://studylib.net/doc/7788566/debate-grading-rubric>

Appendix C

Sample worksheet

WORKSHOP 1

TOPIC: EUTHANASIA

Cycle's stage 1: Reflective learning = pre-reading

1. REFLECT

Look at the following picture and answer some questions.

- a. Who are they?
- b. What are they doing?
- c. What is wrong with them?



Cycle's stage 2: Problematizing reading task

2. READING

Read the piece of news below and do the activities.

A 79-year old Colombian man has become the first person in the country to die legally by euthanasia.

Ovidio Gonzalez was suffering from terminal throat cancer and said he had been suffering unbearable pain. Colombia's Catholic Church has said euthanasia is morally unacceptable and it has threatened to close its hospitals across the country.

Colombia is one of the few countries in the world, and the only one in Latin America, where euthanasia is allowed.

Assisted suicide was approved by the Constitutional Court in the 1990s. But no procedures had been performed because the measure had not been regulated.

It was only in May that the health ministry intervened and issued a set of guidelines for hospitals.

'Less publicity'

Mr Gonzalez died in a clinic in the western city of Pereira, after a legal battle.

His son Julio Cesar is a cartoonist with one of Colombia's top newspapers, El Tiempo.

"My father received the news [that the procedure had been approved] with relief," said Mr Gonzalez, better known by his pen name Matador, or The Killer.

"It is a pity that it had to be like that. My dad deserved to go with less publicity," he added.

Euthanasia is highly controversial in the predominantly Roman Catholic country.

Critics also point out that the measure has not been voted by Congress.

Cycle's stage 3: Problematising news telling

3. SPEAKING

Share with the class specific details about the news.

What is the legal foundation of this decision by the Constitutional Court?

Do you know any other similar cases?



Cycle's stage 4: Reflective Learning = Empowering LAS

Read and reflect about the following statements

Assisted suicide and euthanasia are the same.

Colombia is the only Latin-American country where Euthanasia is allowed.

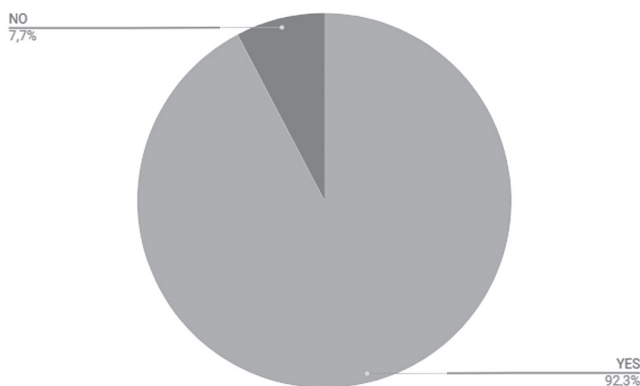
Euthanasia is morally unacceptable.

Cycle's stage 5: Argumentation skills = Debate

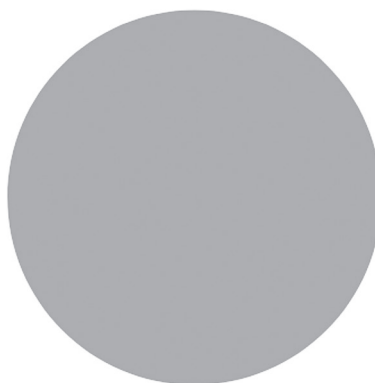
Appendix D

Survey results

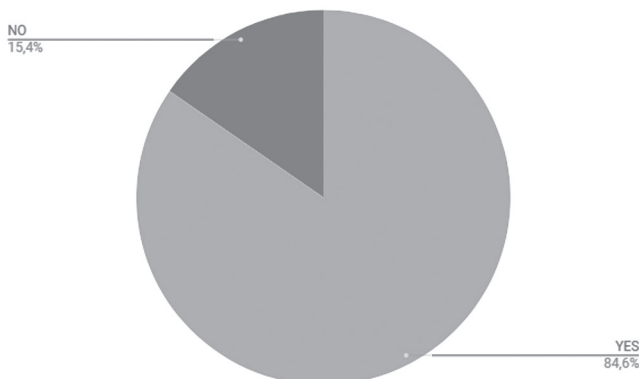
1. The Legal English classes contributed to develop your analysis skills especially because you were asked to analyze cases and give your point of view as a lawyer.



4. Legal English classes contributed to develop your oral and written argumentative skills.



5. Legal English classes contributed not just to get legal vocabulary, but also to gain competences and skills to fully perform in real life situations.



ONLINE DISCUSSION FORUMS: A MEANS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF SUPRASEGMENTALS

Rodrigo Guerrero Segura
Universidad de Guayaquil
rodrigo.guerreros@ug.edu.ec

Nicola Wills-Espinosa
Universidad Casa Grande
nwills@casagrande.edu.ec

Abstract

This article reports the results of action research with mixed methods that involved twenty-eight pre-service teachers. The study addressed three research questions: 1. To what extent would students improve their suprasegmental features of spoken English after participating in communicative activities recorded on video and receiving feedback within an online forum? 2. What suprasegmental feature would evidence better performance after receiving feedback within an online forum? 3. What would the attitudes of students be regarding the use of these discussion forums? Two instruments served to answer these questions: A pretest and post-test and a questionnaire. After analyzing data quantitatively and qualitatively, findings revealed a moderate improvement of the four suprasegmental features of spoken English. However, the features that evidenced better performance were: Sentence stress and word stress. Attitudes were mostly positive too. It is concluded that discussion forums could be a means to improve suprasegmentals. Feedback in the forum allowed them to regulate some pronunciation errors when speaking. Communicative activities recorded on video also reinforced the learning of suprasegmentals and allowed their practice in an innovative way. It is suggested, however, a longer period of time to practice these phonological aspects.

Keywords: Online forums, suprasegmentals, EFL learning, phonology, higher education.

Resumen

Este artículo informa los resultados de una investigación acción con métodos mixtos que involucró a veintiocho docentes en formación. El estudio abordó tres preguntas de investigación: 1. ¿En qué medida los estudiantes mejorarían sus características suprasegmentales del inglés hablado después participar en actividades comunicativas grabadas en video y recibir retroalimentación dentro de un foro en línea? 2. ¿Qué característica suprasegmentaria evidenciaría un mejor desempeño después de recibir retroalimentación dentro de un foro en línea? 3. ¿Cuáles serían las actitudes de los estudiantes con respecto al uso de estos foros de discusión? Dos instrumentos sirvieron para responder estas preguntas: una prueba previa y posterior y un cuestionario. Después del analizar los datos en forma cuantitativa y cualitativa, los hallazgos revelaron una mejora moderada de los cuatro rasgos suprasegmentales del inglés hablado. Sin embargo, los rasgos que evidenciaron un mejor desempeño fueron sentence stress y word stress. Las actitudes fueron mayoritariamente positivas también. Se concluye que los foros de discusión podrían ser un medio para la mejora de los suprasegmentos. La retroalimentación en el foro permitió regular errores de pronunciación al hablar. Las actividades comunicativas grabadas en video también reforzaron el aprendizaje de los suprasegmentos y permitieron su práctica en una forma innovadora. Se sugiere, sin embargo, un periodo de tiempo más largo para la práctica de estos aspectos fonológicos.

Palabras claves: Foros en línea, suprasegmentos, aprendizaje EFL, fonología, educación superior.

Recibido el 30 de abril, 2019- Aceptado el 5 de julio, 2019.

Introduction

An online discussion forum (ODF) is an open space that supports discussion on the internet with the purpose that groups with shared interests interact and exchange ideas, and opinions (Alzahrani, 2017; Andresen, 2009; Baker, 2011). Studies conducted in India, Japan, Australia, France, Oman, and Indonesia showed that text-based online forums contributed to the improvement of reading and writing, the exchange of information, the understanding of specific topics, the discussion of authentic problems, and the development of syntax (Akmal, 2017; Batardière, 2015; Borup, Graham, & Velásquez, 2010; Nielsen, 2013). Participants also showed positive attitudes toward online forums that were developed in written form (Akmal, 2017; Batardière, 2015; Nielsen, 2013). However, more exploration is required on the use of forums aimed at developing other English language skills, but this paper only addressed the use of this strategy as a means to improve the English pronunciation at the suprasegmental level.

On the other hand, research on suprasegmental phonetics, which is responsible for the study of the largest units of connected speech, syllables, words, phrases, and sentences (Finegan, 2008; Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2014), has been addressed in empirical studies and bibliographic reviews. Empirical studies used the explicit learning approach based on exercise and controlled practice to achieve the correct application and production of stress and intonation (Ahmad, 2018), to improve pronunciation (Koike, 2014; Yurtbasi, 2017), to speak accurately in controlled situations and free practice (Nazari & Mirsaeeidi, 2017), and to develop listening (Sawaengmongkon, 2013). Bibliographic reviews focused more on explaining parameters for the improvement of the English pronunciation (Adams-Goerte, 2013; Gilakjani, 2011; Hussain & Sajid, 2015). In this work, the suprasegmental features of spoken English were approached through communicative situations recorded on video. These artifacts were then uploaded to an online forum, so other participants and the teacher would offer feedback to improve pronunciation.

In Ecuador, online forums have been used as a virtual repository to upload assignments and interact with teachers (Alava, 2016), for the development of reading comprehension (Intriago & Barreiro, 2017), or as support for the teaching activity through the creation of an environment for the cooperation and exchange of information (Muñoz, Reliche, & Contreras, 2009). In this context, ODFs were developed in Spanish, in primary or secondary schools. Therefore, this action research focused on twenty-eight pre-service teachers enrolled in

a public university in Ecuador that prepares them to be English instructors after studying eight semesters.

For these participants, the suprasegmental features will be part of their profession since according to the Ecuadorian in-service English Teacher Standards, language instructors must know the components of the English language (phonetics and phonology) as an integrating system (Standard 1. a.1) and also know how to use these interrelated aspects of the language for the development of oral skills (Standard 1.a.2) (Ministry of Education, 2012).

Thus, in this university, specifically in the College of Education, during phonology classes, they learn how to emphasize individual words and sentences, how to alternate stress between content and function words, how to distinguish different intonation patterns and how to transmit this information to their students. After mastering these theoretical aspects, they apply these features in their discourse to develop an acceptable English pronunciation which will serve as a model in the classroom when reading texts, communicating instructions, expressing their ideas orally or communicating with native speakers of the language.

Statement of the problem

Achieving acceptable English pronunciation is not easy because non-native English speakers often use the pronunciation and communication style of their native language when speaking English. This results in a speech with a strong foreign accent (Hassan, 2014). Hansen (2011), indicated that two of the five main problems that affect English pronunciation are: Stressing individual words incorrectly and stressing the wrong words in a sentence. Within this context, a test administered at the beginning of the study, which consisted of recording a two-minute video to explain their objectives and expectations for the course, revealed that these pre-service teachers had problems with the application of suprasegmentals in their speech. They did not emphasize multisyllabic words correctly; their syllables had the same length (syllable-timed rhythm) and a pattern of intonation was recurrent (rising). They also reported that these problems had not been addressed in previous semesters due to the emphasis given to the theoretical part or the lack of means to do so.

Research Questions

It is difficult for a person who is studying to be a teacher of a foreign language, to speak with a native pronunciation, especially when the appropriate means are not used, or feedback is not provided to examine and correct

pronunciation errors when speaking. Therefore, this action research addressed the following questions:

1. To what extent would students improve their suprasegmental features of spoken English after participating in communicative activities recorded on video and receiving feedback within an online forum?
2. What suprasegmental feature would evidence better performance after receiving feedback within an online forum?
3. What would the attitudes of students be regarding the use of these discussion forums?

Review of the Literature

The purpose of the following literature review was to define terms and explore the current state of the research.

Defining Online Discussion Forums

An online discussion forum (ODF) is a type of community where interested participants can discuss, hold conversations, and publish messages of common interest within a particular field (José, Zainol, & Abidin, 2016). Online discussion in a social setting is a suitable medium for the socialization of participants as it promotes the development of communication, improves social skills, and fosters dialogue and collaboration among users (Al-Ibrahim & Al-Khalifa, 2014; Andresen, 2009; Dengler, 2008; Kadagidze, 2014). Students who participate in ODFs create connections between their previous experiences and the new information to develop their reasoning by using their critical thinking and higher order thinking skills (Bada, 2015; McKinley, 2015). ODFs also have a communicative approach, as they motivate their participants to negotiate meanings and practice the target language through interactions (Richards, 2006). Professionals in the field of education often use educational forums when the schedule limits interaction in the classroom (Andresen, 2009; Dengler, 2008; Hartsell & Yuen, 2006; Kadagidze, 2014). ODFs usually serve to promote education, entertainment or to consult specific technical aspects (Singhal & Kalra, 2012).

Forums and Social Constructivism

Constructivism is a scientific and philosophical position that indicates that knowledge and understanding arise through a process of active construction (Mascolo & Fischer, 2004). Social constructivism, on the other hand, is a theory developed by Vygotsky (1978). It states that learning arises from interaction in social and cultural environments (Vygotsky as cited Schreiber & Valle,

2013). Within this context, the online social environment in which video-based forums integrated collaboration, interaction and interpersonal discussion could be considered as an application of the theory of social constructivism. For example, users in addition to presenting their opinions recorded on video offered and received feedback for the improvement of pronunciation. The participants and the instructor watched the videos in the forum to identify problems at the suprasegmental level of pronunciation to provide feedback by using a rubric designed for this purpose. The participants later corrected these aspects to make their speech more clear, concise, and precise.

Research on the Use of Online Forums

Current literature on education and technology has often described the usefulness of text-based online discussion forums in EFL education for the improvement of writing, the development of critical thinking, or as a tool for expressing ideas (Akmal, 2017; Batardière, 2015; José, Zainol, & Abidin, 2016; Nielsen, 2013). On the other hand, few studies have reported results on the integration of videos in online forums (Borup, Graham, & Velásquez, 2010), or have focused on other sub-skills of the English language, such as pronunciation.

Akmal (2017) in Indonesia claimed that text-based forums had a significant influence on the content, organization, vocabulary, syntax, mechanics and writing styles of EFL students and among the six components, grammar received the more substantial improvement. Batardière (2015) in France stated that ODFs offered a real and challenging learning space where EFL students could develop their critical thinking skills and improve their linguistic and intercultural competence based on the discussion of current socio-political issues. José, Zainol, and Abidin (2016) in Oman used ODFs to develop writing in EFL students by exchanging information and feedback. The study also provided information on students' attitudes toward this technology, which were very positive as it facilitated written communication and allowed sharing opinions, perceptions, and feelings. Nielsen (2013) in Japan, reported that most of the EFL students perceived that ODFs were a learning tool that served as a means to express their ideas with their peers and teachers. On the other hand, Borup, Graham, and Velásquez (2010) used videos in ODFs to offer quality instruction and develop asynchronous communication within a flexible EFL learning environment. Their findings revealed that videos were a useful tool to improve immediacy as well as social presence. Students also considered that video communications in ODFs were more

useful in comparison with the text-based interactions because they helped them to get to know their classmates and instructors.

Suprasegmental Features of Spoken English

Suprasegmentals are those characteristics that enrich the speech chain and allow to identify the intentionality, and tonality of the message (Crystal, 2008; Finegan, 2008). EFL students are usually exposed to these features of spoken English through the explicit learning approach to identify and correct errors in pronunciation, and improve accent, diction, and intonation (Ahmad, 2018; Gilakjani, 2011; Hussain & Sajid, 2015; Koike, 2014). Suprasegmentals include word stress, sentence stress, rhythm, and intonation (Finegan, 2008; Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2014; Koike, 2014; Sawaengmongkon, 2013).

Defining word stress. It involves pronouncing the syllable of a multisyllabic word with greater emphasis (strong syllable) than the others (weak syllables) (Crystal, 2008; Mojsin, 2009). Examples: **POL**itics (stress on the first syllable), po**LIT**ical (stress on the second syllable), poli**TIC**ians (stress on the third syllable).

Defining sentence stress. It is the emphasis that is given to certain words within a statement to convey nuances, contrasts, and meanings (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2014; Mojsin, 2009). For example, *I've been **TALK**ing all day **LONG***. In a sentence, content words carry the most essential information within a sentence and allow the understanding of the message. They include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs (Finegan, 2008; Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2014). Function words, on the other hand, help to connect relevant information and are essential for the total understanding of the message, but individually they have little meaning. They include auxiliary verbs, prepositions, articles, conjunctions, and pronouns (Cook, 2000; Lee, et al., 2017).

Defining rhythm. Rhythm is formed due to the recurrence of stressed and unstressed words in a sentence at regular intervals of time (Lacy, 2007; Mojsin, 2009; Roach, 2010). There are two types of rhythm patterns in languages: Stress-timed rhythm, and syllable-timed rhythm (Lacy, 2007; Mojsin, 2009; Roach, 2010).

Stress-timed rhythm. This type of rhythm involves a regular occurrence of stressed syllables that are pronounced with more emphasis and duration (content words). Syllables without stress are pronounced quickly

(function words). This regular appearance of stressed syllables gives the English language its natural lucid rhythm (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2014; McMahon, 2002; Mojsin, 2009; Roach, 2010). For example: *"I am a pro**F**essor of **EN**glish **pho**NOlogy."*

Syllable-timed rhythm. In this type of rhythm, there is an equal regular interval of time between each stressed and unstressed syllable (McMahon, 2002; Mojsin, 2009; Roach, 2010). For example, the English language would sound unnatural and very similar to the speech of a robot speaking with this rhythm according to the same authors.

Defining intonation. It is the melody of language which is formed by rising and falling tones. It is used to communicate intentions or emotions and tells the listener if someone has finished speaking or if there is something else to say (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2014; Mojsin, 2009; Roach, 2010). There are three types of intonation patterns: rising, falling, and non-final. For example: *Do you work? Where do you work? I work in a factory and a library.*

Research on Suprasegmentals

Research on suprasegmentals has been approached from two perspectives: empirical studies and bibliographic reviews. Empirical studies in EFL contexts used the explicit exercise-based learning approach to achieve the correct application of stress and intonation (Ahmad, 2018), improve pronunciation (Koike, 2014; Yurtbasi, 2017), accomplish effective communication in controlled situations and free practice (Nazari & Mirsaeeidi, 2017), and develop listening (Sawaengmongkon, 2013). Suwartono (2014) also introduced suprasegmentals through reflective learning logs and journals

Ahmad (2018), in his qualitative study with Indonesian EFL students, analyzed word stress and rising and falling intonation using exercises with adjectives, nouns, words with prefixes and suffixes, compound words within the context of the readings. Ahmad concluded that his learning approach allowed students to stress words, and to read with correct intonation and appropriate emphasis. However, these aspects were not examined within a communicative context. Koike (2014) examined problems and factors (linguistic interference of L1) that affected the English pronunciation of EFL university students from Japan and determined that explicit suprasegmental instruction on syllable structure, emphasis on words and sentences, rhythm, linking as well as the design of specific instructional materials was also effective.

tive in improving the pronunciation of the students.

Nazari and Mirsaeeidi (2017) investigated the effects of explicit and communicative suprasegmental instruction on the pronunciation of 24 Iranian adult learners studying English as a foreign language at an intermediate level in a language institute in Tehran through controlled reading and description of images. After participating in specific learning activities (analysis of words stress on compound words and intonation), their findings revealed that explicit instruction was meaningful in controlled contexts, but modestly effective in free communicative situations. The communicative pronunciation instruction, on the other hand, was significantly effective in both contexts. The research of Sawaengmongkon (2013) in EFL university students in Thailand, had as a primary goal to investigate the efficacy of lessons designed to teach suprasegments through films. Their findings revealed that the efficiency values were lower (72.98 / 70.68) than the expected value 80/80 attributed to the fact that the students only had a superficial knowledge of the phonological structure and suprasegmental concepts were new for them. The author suggested a more extended period to learn and practice suprasegmentals.

Suwartono (2015) introduced suprasegmentals to EFL students through reflective learning method that included logs and journals which were integrated into communicative and meaningful linguistic activities. His results indicated that the reflective learning method improved the learning process of suprasegmentals considerably. The pronunciation of the majority of the students sounded to some extent more English. The features that improved the most were intonation and stress. Besides, most of the participants gave a positive response to the instruction adopted. Yurtbasi (2017) identified that the primary cause of pronunciation problems faced by Turkish EFL students was due to unawareness of the suprasegmental aspects, specifically stress, intonation, conjuncture, and linking. Yurtbasi suggested that students should be taught (declarative knowledge) general rules to mark the primary and secondary stress, use various forms of intonation to express emotions, practice shorter and longer pauses between significant pieces of thoughts through conjunctures, and consolidate this suprasegmental knowledge through exercises and dialogues.

On the other hand, bibliographic reviews on suprasegmentals focused more on explaining parameters for the improvement of the English pronunciation (Adams-Goerte, 2013; Gilakjani, 2011; Hussain & Sajid, 2015). Adams-Goerte (2013) stated that pronunciation of the second language could be improved with the imple-

mentation of prosodic elements, such as stress, rhythm, intonation within communicative activities that offer opportunities to develop the pronunciation of EFL students. Gilakjani (2011) exposed EFL students to the target language and authentic material since suprasegmentals are not learned through a book, a dictionary, or by presenting individual sounds. Hussain and Sajid (2015) claimed that pronunciation should be seen as something more than the correct production of individual sounds. Pronunciation should be integrated into the communication class of EFL students and linked to auditory comprehension and meaningful practice.

Defining Attitudes, Types of Attitudes, and their Components

Attitudes are evaluations or psychological tendencies that people perform when evaluating objects, ideas, events, or other people (Autio, Jamsek & Gaberšek, 2017; Fazio, 2007). Attitudes are acquired through direct experience with an object, person or situation, or as a consequence of the communications that are continually describing the characteristics, attributes or qualities of an object (Carruthers, 2018; Magyar-Moe, Owens, & Conoley, 2015). For example, watching the advertising of a product on TV repeatedly could generate two things: Changing the channel because it is boring and annoying (negative attitude towards the commercial) or searching the official website to learn more about it (positive attitude towards the commercial).

Type of attitudes. Attitudes can be positive or negative (Carruthers, 2018; Magyar-Moe, Owens, & Conoley, 2015). Positive attitudes imply being predisposed to face and solve problems, as well as seeing things with optimism and hope (Magyar-Moe, Owens, & Conoley, 2015). Negative attitudes are unfavorable dispositions and behaviors that a human being shows temporarily or regularly (Magyar-Moe, Owens, & Conoley, 2015).

Components of attitudes. Attitudes have three components: cognitive, emotional and behavioral (Jain, 2014; Pickens, 2005). The cognitive component is formed by the perceptions and beliefs towards an object, as well as by the information provided by that object (Jain, 2014; Pickens, 2005). The affective component refers to feelings in favor or against a social object (Jain, 2014; Pickens, 2005). The behavioral component is the observable variable of the attitude and evidence of how the person acts towards the object. (Jain, 2014; Pickens, 2005). Identifying the type of attitudes and their components was relevant for this study since it allowed to identify the

emotional state and response of the participants toward the use of video-based forums as a means for suprasegmental improvement.

To conclude, text-based discussion forums have been means that have contributed to the construction of knowledge, interaction and the development of reading and writing skills. Positive attitudes towards the use of forum have been reported as well, but it is still necessary to explore whether online forums could serve as a means to develop other language skills, especially English pronunciation. Regarding suprasegmentals, research has emphasized the benefits of the explicit learning approach based on controlled exercises to improve pronunciation. Bibliographic reviews, on the other hand, have declared the importance of practicing suprasegmentals in the context of communication, but empirical studies in this field are still required. Therefore, in this work, the suprasegmental characteristics of spoken English were addressed through communicative activities recorded on video.

Description of the Procedure

The implementation of the procedure lasted 23 days. The session took place every Thursday in the language laboratory, from September to December 2018 for two hours. The innovation consisted of using an online forum in *Schoology* to provide written feedback to improve the pronunciation of the participants from four perspectives: Word stress, sentence stress, rhythm, and intonation. The phases of the procedure are detailed below:

Phase 1. First, the teacher introduced the objectives, methodology, resources, and evaluation of the intervention. Then, the components of a rubric to evaluate the pronunciation from four perspectives, word stress, sentence sentences, rhythm, and intonation, were explained in detail. The instructor presented the guidelines for the participation in the forum. Tips for recording videos with Android and IOS smartphones were also provided. Discussion forums were created in *Schoology*, a learning management system for educational institutions that allowed users to create, manage, and share content and resources and offered feedback to improve pronunciation (*Schoology*, 2019).

Phase 2. The participants recorded the first two-minute video (pretest) to explain their objectives and expectations for the course. Then, this video was analyzed by the teacher to evaluate the pronunciation of the participants from four perspectives: word stress, sentence stress, rhythm, and intonation and offer feedback. The quality of the videos was also observed.

Phase 3. The teacher introduced the communicative tasks (see Appendix C), videos of two, three and five minutes to answer questions, describe people, give opinions and solve problems based on the topics of Unit 4 - Parties and Festivities around the World, of the book *New American Inside Out* by Kay and Jones (2015). The participants later recorded the videos for the discussion forums in *Schoology*. All these videos were analyzed to examine English pronunciation from four perspectives. There was also qualitative and quantitative feedback in the discussion forum by the students and the teacher.

Phase 4. Students recorded a five-minute video (Post-test) to promote an Ecuadorian festival using a variety of vocabulary and specific language functions. The participants also answered a questionnaire to explore their attitudes regarding the use of these forums. Data from the final video and the questionnaire was only analyzed by the teacher.

Research Methodology

This was action research with a mixed method. Action research generates social change and academic knowledge. It tests practices, ideas, and assumptions, and performs a critical and reflexive analysis of situations (Tomal & Hastert, 2010). A mixed method uses numerical, verbal, textual, visual, and symbolic data to provide a better understanding of the phenomenon under study (Sampieri, Collado, & Lucio, 2014).

Quantitative data were collected through a pre-test and posttest administered to a sample of 28 participants. Quantitative data were entered and codified in an Excel spreadsheet and then transferred to the SPSS program to generate descriptive and inferential statistics.

Qualitative data were collected through a questionnaire administered at the end of the study to a sample of six participants selected by their performance: Low (*two students*), Average (*two students*), and Outstanding (*two students*). The respondents were coded as S1 (Student 1), S2 (Student 2), S3 (Student 3), S4 (Student 4), S5 (Student 5), and S6 (Student 6). The deductive method served to classify and codify categories that concentrated similar concepts or themes (Sampieri, Collado and Lucio, 2014).

Sample and Participants

The selection of the sample was convenience. The twenty-eight participants of this study (twelve men and sixteen women) are pre-service teachers, enrolled in an eight-semester career, at a public university in Guayaquil, Ecuador. The average age of this group was thirty-

three years. According to a proficiency test administered at the beginning of the course, 60% of the participants are in the level A2, 35% in the level B1.1 and only 5% in the level B2.

From a theoretical perspective, for these participants, suprasegmentals are important since these linguistic terms will be part of their teaching profession and they should be able to explain to their students how to emphasize individual words and phrases within sentences to convey the oral message more effectively. They should also know how to alternate stress between content words and function words to create a good rhythm when speaking. They should distinguish the different patterns of intonation to convey their communicative intention as well. From a practical perspective, the acquisition of good English pronunciation is important as it will serve as a model in the classroom when reading texts, communicating instructions, or expressing ideas orally. Their oral discourse will be understood by native speakers more easily since it will reduce the accent of their mother tongue (Spanish) as well.

Instruments

The first instrument, a pretest and a posttest contributed to answering the following research questions: 1. To what extent would students improve their suprasegmental features of spoken English after participating in communicative activities recorded on video and receiving feedback within an online forum? 2. What suprasegmental feature would evidence better performance after receiving feedback within an online forum? A rubric (see Appendix A) served to evaluate the verbal responses of the participants during the pretest and posttest. This instrument was an adaptation of the authors Ma (2015) and Solan and Linardopoulos (2011). The rubric was grouped into four constructs: Word stress, sentence stress, rhythm, and intonation. The first descriptor served to evaluate whether the participants adequately emphasized simple and compound words without causing distraction or lack of communication. The second descriptor examined whether the participants emphasized keywords according to their communicative intention within complex sentences. The third descriptor was used to evaluate whether the speech of the participants was developed easily, fluently, and reasonably quickly, without fillers or unnecessary pauses and to examine the alternation of stress between content and function words. The fourth descriptor was used to evaluate whether the participants used a variety of intonation patterns to reflect their intention in speaking (rising intonation, falling intonation, non-final intonation). The performance indi-

cators ranged from 2 (Needs improvement) to 10 (Excellent work).

To verify the functionality of the adaptation of the rubric, seven experts were recruited to examine their constructs, descriptors, and performance indicators. These evaluators are professionals who work in public universities teaching English to EFL students. Their experience in the field of education averages 15 years. Six of them have a master's degree in English Teaching and one expert has a master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction. The evaluators used a template provided by the researcher to evaluate the rubric using the following scale: 1. Not acceptable; 2. Something acceptable; 3. Acceptable. Although the descriptor 'rhythm' evidenced observations and was modified three times, the instrument was considered acceptable. The rubric was also administered to ten students (pilot test) to find out whether the instrument could effectively evaluate the pronunciation and gather information for the main study. It was determined that the rubric was appropriate for the main study.

The second instrument, a questionnaire (see Appendix B), administered at the end of the study, served to answer the following research question: What would the attitudes of students be regarding the use of these discussion forums? The questionnaire was an adaptation of the works of Balaji and Chakrabarti (2010) and Seethamraju (2014). The instrument consisted of six open questions that explored the participation of the students (question 1), discussion on aspects of pronunciation (question 2), feedback (questions 3 & 4), suprasegmental improvement (question 5), and new learnings (question 6) within an online forum. The participants answered the questionnaire in written form. A panel of the same seven experts provided the validity and reliability of this instrument. They used another template provided by the researcher to examine each questions using the following scale: 1. Not acceptable; 2. Something acceptable; 3. Acceptable. The experts considered the instrument acceptable. Then a pilot test was conducted on a sample of 10 students to verify the degree of adaptation and make the necessary adjustments before its final application.

Data Analysis

Data obtained from the pretest and posttest were entered and codified in an Excel spreadsheet and then transferred to the SPSS program to analyze them quantitatively and generate descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics summarized a set of data obtained quantitatively to have a global view of the information (Sampieri, Collado, & Lucio, 2014). Inferential

statistics included the paired sample *T*-test, a statistical procedure in which each subject was measured twice in order to determine if the difference between the means was statistically significant (Derrick, Toher, & White, 2017). The confidence interval percentage for this test was 95%. The level of significance was ($\alpha = .05$). Data from the *t*-test also served to calculate the effect size ($d = \text{Mean} / \text{Standard deviation}$), a statistical concept that quantitatively measures the difference between the two groups (Durlak, 2009). Cohen proposed that a value of $d = 0.2$ is considered a 'small' effect, a value of $d = 0.5$ a 'medium' effect, and a value of $d = 0.8$ a 'large' effect (Kelley & Preacher, 2012).

Data obtained from the questionnaire administered at the end of the study were analyzed qualitatively. This information was classified and codified into categories that concentrated, concepts or similar topics by using the deductive method and served to answer the third research question (Sampieri, Collado and Lucio, 2014). The main categories that emerged from the analysis of the questions were: Type of attitudes (positive and negative), and components of the attitudes (cognitive, affective and behavioral).

Results of the Study

This section describes quantitative results obtained from a pretest and posttest as well as qualitative data collected through a questionnaire. The results were organized around the research questions.

1. To what extent would students improve their suprasegmental features of spoken English after participating in communicative activities recorded on video and receiving feedback within an online forum?

Data of the pretest and post-test were analyzed and processed to answer this research question. Data of pretest consisted of a two-minute video where the participants had to explain their goals and expectations for the course. Data of the posttest came from the evaluation of a five-minute to promote an Ecuadorian festival. From the 28 students who participated in this study, the results and findings are as shown below.

Table 1. Total result of the four suprasegmental features.

Suprasegmental Features of spoken English	PRETEST			POSTTEST	
	N	M	SD	M	SD
	28	7.27	0.46	8.67	0.40

Note: N= Sample. M= Mean. SD = Standard Deviation.

Table 1 indicates the overall result in which students optimized their suprasegmental features of pronunciation after participating in communicative activities recorded on video and receiving feedback within an online forum. Considering the means, between the initial and final measurement, there was moderate growth of 19%. However, the paired samples *t*-test indicated that the difference between means ($MD = 1.40$, $SD = 0.67$) was statistically significant, $p < .05$, large effect size, $d = 2.0$

2. What suprasegmental feature would evidence better performance after receiving feedback within an online forum?

Data of each construct of the rubric was analyzed again to answer this research question. From the 28 students who participated in this study, the results and findings are as shown below.

Table 2. Results of each suprasegmental feature in detail.

Suprasegmental Features	N	PRETEST		POSTTEST	
		M	SD	M	SD
Word stress		7.23	0.83	8.69	0.62
Sentence stress	28	7.04	0.69	8.75	0.58
Rhythm		7.39	0.84	8.44	0.47
Intonation		7.40	0.71	8.83	0.50

Note: N= Sample. M= Mean. SD = Standard Deviation.

The features that evidence a better performance after receiving feedback within an online forum were 'sentence stress' and 'word stress' (Table 2). Considering the means, sentence stress evidenced a moderate growth of 24% ($M = 8.75$, $SD = 0.58$) whereas word stress 20% ($M = 8.69$, $SD = 0.62$). The paired sample *t*-test indicated that the difference between means for sentence stress and word stress; ($MD = 1.71$), ($MD = 1.46$), was statistically significant, $p < .05$ in both cases.

3. What would the attitudes of students be regarding the use of these discussion forums?

To answer this research question, a questionnaire with six open questions was administered to six students who were selected based on their performance. The responses were grouped according to the types and components of attitudes.

Table 3. Summary of the components of attitudes found in this study.

Items	N	Cognitive Attitudes		Affective Attitudes		Behavioral Attitudes		Total
6	6	Positive Attitudes	23%	Positive Attitudes	34%	Positive Attitudes	25%	82%
		Negative Attitudes	6%	Negative Attitudes	6%	Negative Attitudes	6%	18%
		Total	29%	Total	40%	Total	31%	100%

As seen in table 3, the positive cognitive component of attitudes, which refers to beliefs, thoughts, and attributes associated with an object reached a value of 23%. These are excerpts of what the students said:

“When I watched the videos of my classmates, and I learned that we all have different points of view about the same topic” (S1); “I could learn new linguistic terms on linguistics and phonology. Now, I understand the components of the rubric on suprasegmentals” (S2), (S6); “The topics and answers allowed me to know more about my classmates” (S3); “I found the topics interesting because they allowed me to reflect on different aspects of pronunciation” (S4); “I liked sharing opinions with my classmates, and we all learned from our errors” (S4),(S5); “It was not a problem to understand the feedback because the descriptors and categories of the rubric were explained in detail” (S6).

The positive affective component of attitudes, which refers to feelings or emotions that arise about something reached a value of 34%. These are excerpts of what the students said:

“I liked participating in the video-based forum since it was something innovative. In these forums, we all had to record our opinion on video and then watch this material to comment on everybody’s pronunciation.” (S3), (S4), (S5), (S6); “I liked discussing aspects of English pronunciation in the forum. In the past, nobody had made us notice our mistakes when speaking.” (S1), (S2); “When we used online forums in the past, it was only to answer questions and read the opinion of others. In these forums we could discuss issues on pronunciation” (S3), (S4), (S5), (S6); “Some questions in

the forums were related to the topics of the class while other topics were about personal things and I liked that” (S2), (S5), (S6); “I could interact with others by giving and receiving feedback, and that was something I really enjoyed” (S2), (S3); “At first, I did not want to upload my videos to the forum because I was embarrassed, but later I found it fun because all my friends did it” (S3); “I did not mind that everyone watched my videos since we all learned in that way” (S4); “I liked participating in the forum, and I feel that now I have more confidence to speak in English” (S4), (S5); “The forum and the videos made the participation in class more interactive and fun” (S6).

The positive behavioral component of attitudes, which refers to the tendencies of a person to behave in a particular way towards an object, reached a value of 25%. These are excerpts of what the students said:

“I was able to practice speaking in the video-based forum” (S3), (S4); “The communicative activities and the feedback in the forum helped me make better videos and correct some aspects of my pronunciation, such as stress and intonation. I speak with more fluency now” (S1), (S2), (S4), (S5); “Feedback in the forum allowed me to identify specific problems in my pronunciation based on the theoretical knowledge acquired” (S2), (S3), (S4); “The excellent grades that I received for the videos in the forum were evidence of my progress in the English language” (S6).

Negative attitudes manifested to a lesser degree (18%) could have occurred because some students had limitations with the use of the English language, especially in the production of rhythm and intonation, which resulted in low performance.

Discussion of Results

Regarding the extent to which students improved the four suprasegmental features of spoken English, findings revealed a moderate growth of 19% ($p < .05$, $d = 2.0$). This moderate improvement could be attributed to the limited time (23 days) to practice these features in communicative activities and give feedback, or also due to the complexity to produce them when speaking. Qualitative data obtained from the questionnaire confirmed the problem of time. Some students who showed low performance indicated that *"it was difficult for them to answer some questions due to the limitation in time, and to produce the different intonation patterns."* They also indicated that *"time to rehearse their answers orally before recording the video was not enough for them. They would have liked to have more time to practice and pronounce better."* These moderate results also coincide with those of Nazari and Mirsaeedi (2017), and Sawaengmongkon (2013) Nazari and Mirsaeedi indicated that the practice of suprasegmentals was modestly effective in free communicative contexts. Sawaengmongkon also obtained lower results after introducing the suprasegments through films. He suggested a more extended period to practice suprasegmentals within communicative contexts since communication requires complex thoughts.

A detailed analysis of each suprasegmental feature evidenced that sentence stress, 24% ($M = 8.75$, $SD = 0.58$), and word stress, 20% ($M = 8.69$, $SD = 0.62$), had a better performance. Ahmad (2018) and Koike (2018) also reported improvement of these features. However, they used an explicit learning approach based on explicit instruction of rules and practice through controlled exercises. Despite the limitation of time, the attitudes of the students regarding the use of video-based forums were mostly positive (82%). Participants indicated that video-based forums were *"motivating, innovative and a generator of confidence. They made their participation interactive and fun."* In the past, *"forums were only to answer questions and read the opinion of others but in these forums, participants could discuss issues on pronunciation"* *"The communicative activities and the feedback in the forum allowed to improve stress, stress, rhythm, and intonation."* *"The inclusion of videos in the forum and the immediate feedback also allowed participants to see their progress in the English language and identify pronunciation errors."* These findings coincide with the results of other researchers where their participants also showed positive attitudes towards the online forums used in different multidisciplinary contexts, although developed in written form (Akmal, 2017; Batardière, 2015; Nielsen, 2013).

Conclusions and Implications

After participating in communicative activities recorded on video and receiving feedback within an online forum, these participants achieved a moderate but significant improvement of the four suprasegmental features. The characteristics that showed better performance were 'sentence stress' and 'word stress.' They were able to emphasize individual words and words within sentences to convey messages and their communicative intention, but they still need to practice more. Rhythm and intonation were the most difficult features to master and their improvement, although it was acceptable, also requires more practice. Feedback in the forum allowed participants to regulate some pronunciation errors when speaking. Participants used linguistic terms on suprasegmentals to offer feedback in the forum. Communicative activities recorded on video also reinforced the learning of suprasegmentals and allowed their practice in an innovative way. Recording the participation on video and watching it several times, could also have contributed to the self-regulation of pronunciation in this context.

Regarding the attitudes of these participants towards the use of online video-based forums, these were mostly positive. They were an innovative means to discuss topics related to pronunciation from four different perspectives: word stress, sentence stress, rhythm, and intonation. They also allowed participants to receive and offer comments aimed at improving pronunciation. The participants used a rubric to offer quality feedback in the forum. Positive attitudes were mostly oriented towards participation, discussion of pronunciation, feedback, suprasegmental improvement, and new learning. Conducting this study also contributed to the fulfillment of two of the Ecuadorian in-service English Teacher Standards. It is concluded that discussion forums could be a means to improve suprasegmentals. It is suggested, however, a longer period of time to practice these phonological aspects. The results could have implications for the teaching of phonology at a higher level.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to only 28 Ecuadorian pre-service teachers from a local university in Ecuador. The study lasted only 23 days. The configuration of the study was limited to the university campus. A control group was not used in this study. There was a treatment group only. The participation of the students in the forum was only to give feedback and to improve the suprasegmental aspects of spoken English. This study did not consider whether the demographics of the participants would affect outcomes.

Recommendations

This study addressed the following recommendations: First, it is essential to use a larger sample of participants to generalize results and implement a longer intervention time due to the variety of results in communicative contexts. Second, it is necessary to use a control group to contrast the results and consider the demographics of the participants to run correlations of gender or age. Third, it is necessary to explore the use of forums to develop other sub-speaking skills.

References

- Adams-Goerte, R. (2013). Prosodic elements to improve pronunciation in English language-learners. *Applied Research on the English Language*, 2(2), 117-128. Retrieved from http://are.ui.ac.ir/article_15474_0658d035bd407a803698e369844de91.pdf
- Ahmad, Y. B. (2018). Teaching English pronunciation of suprasegmental features on students of English education. *Global Conference on Teaching, Assessment, and Learning in Education*, 42(1), 1-5. doi: 10.1051/shsconf/20184200048.
- Akmal, R. (2017). Impact of web-based learning on EFL: Using online discussion forum (ODF) To enhance students' writing skill. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 5(8), 1345-1348. Retrieved from <http://www.hrpub.org/download/20170730/UJER7-19509600.pdf>
- Alava, J. (2016). *Implementación de un servidor para foros y repositorio de tareas para una entidad educativa* [Implementation of a server for forums and repository of tasks for an educational entity] (Bachelor thesis). Universidad de Guayaquil, Guayaquil, Ecuador
- Al-Ibrahim, A., & Al-Khalifa, H. S. (2014). Observing online discussions in educational social networks: A case study. *International Conference on Web and Open Access to Learning* (pp. 1-4). Dubai, United Arab Emirates: IEEE Xplore. Retrieved from <https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/7009189>
- Alzahrani, M. G. (2017). The effect of using online discussion forums on students' learning. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 16(1), 164-176. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/2d79/39c69551285de02b1493ee8f6f20a3c53767.pdf>
- Andresen, M. A. (2009). Asynchronous discussion forums: Success factors, outcomes, assessments, and limitations. *Educational Technology & Society*, 12(1), 249-257. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/8d59/7d999d822456df418f9ec9c018af1ebc963f.pdf>
- Autio, O., Jamsek, J., & Gaberšek, M. (2017). Students' attitudes towards craft and technology in the context of Finnish and Slovenian comprehensive schools. *TechneSeries - Research in Sloyd Education and Craft Science A*, 24(1), 17-28. Retrieved from http://pefprints.pef.uni-lj.si/4923/1/Jamsek_Students.pdf
- Bada, S. O. (2015). Constructivism learning theory: A paradigm for teaching and learning. *IOSR Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 5(6), 66-70. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/1c75/083a05630a663371136310a30060a2afe4b1.pdf>
- Baker, D. L. (2011). Designing and orchestrating online discussions. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, 7(3), 401-411. Retrieved from http://jolt.merlot.org/vol7no3/baker_0911.pdf
- Balaji, M. S., & Chakrabarti, D. (2010). Student interactions in online discussion Forum: Empirical research from media richness theory perspective. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, 9(1), 1-22. Retrieved from <http://www.ncolr.org/jiol/issues/pdf/9.1.1.pdf>
- Batardière, M.-T. (2015). Promoting critical thinking in online intercultural communication. *The EUROCALL Review*, 23(1), 3-10. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1055194.pdf>
- Borup, J., Graham, C.R. & Velásquez, A. (2010). The Use of Asynchronous Video Communication to Improve Instructor Immediacy and Social Presence in an Online Course. In D. Gibson & B. Dodge (Eds.), *Proceedings of SITE 2010--Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference* (pp. 337-344). San Diego, CA, USA: Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE). Retrieved from <https://www.learn-techlib.org/primary/p/33358/>
- Carruthers, P. (2018). Implicit versus explicit attitudes: Differing manifestations of the same representational structures. *Review of Philosophy and Psychology*, 9(9), 51-72. doi: 10.1007/s13164-017-0354-3
- Cook, A. (2000). *A guide to speaking and pronouncing colloquial American English* (Second Ed.). Hauppauge, NY: Matrix Press.

- Crystal, D. (2008). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (Sixth Ed.). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Dengler, M. (2008). Classroom active learning complemented by an online discussion forum to teach sustainability. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 32(3), 481- 494. Retrieved from <http://ejournals.library.gatech.edu/ijotel/index.php/ijotel/article/view/22>
- Derrick, B., Toher, D., & White, P. (2017). How to compare the means of two samples that include paired observations and independent observations. *The Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, 13(2), 120-126. doi:10.20982/tqmp.13.2.p120
- Durlak, J. (2009) How to select, calculate, and interpret effect sizes. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, 34(9), 917-28. doi: 10.1093/jpepsy/jsp004
- Fazio, R. H. (2007). Attitudes as object-evaluation associations of varying strength. *Social Cognition*, 25(5), 603-637. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2677817/>
- Finegan, E. (2008). *Language: Its structure and use*. Boston, MA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2014). *An introduction to language*. Boston, MA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.
- Gilakjani, A. P. (2011). A study on the situation of pronunciation instruction in ESL/EFL classrooms. *Journal of Studies in Education*, 1(1), 1-15. doi: 10.5296/jse.v1i1.924
- Hansen, H. [Heather Hansen]. (2014, April 30). *Speak english clearly & confidently - Top 10 tips for pronunciation mastery*. [Video file]. Retrieved from https://youtu.be/puNLT_UFYAA
- Hartsell, T., & Yuen, S.-Y. (2006). Video Streaming in Online Learning. *Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education Journal*, 14(1), 31-43. Retrieved from <https://www.learntechlib.org/primary/p/6152/>.
- Hassan, E. M. (2014). Pronunciation problems: A case study of English language students at Sudan university of science and technology. *English Language and Literature Studies*, 4(4), 31-44. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ells.v4n4p31>.
- Hussain, S., & Sajid, S. (2015). Applications of suprasegmental in EFL classroom: A short Review. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 5(9), 1-7. Retrieved from <http://www.ijsrp.org/research-paper-0915/ijsrp-p4552.pdf>
- Intriago, G., & Barreiro, M. (2017). *Influencia del foro como participación ciudadana en El nivel de comprensión lectora* [Influence of the forum as citizen participation in the level of reading comprehension] (Bachelor thesis). Universidad de Guayaquil, Quevedo, Ecuador
- Jain, V. (2014). 3D model of attitude. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences*, 3(3), 1-12. Retrieved from <http://garph.co.uk/IJARMSS/Mar2014/1.pdf>
- José, J., Zainol, M. J., & Abidin. (2016). A pedagogical perspective on promoting English as a foreign language writing through online forum discussions. *English Language Teaching*, 9(2), 84-101. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/full-text/EJ1087137.pdf>
- Kadagidze, L. (2014). The Role of Forums in Online Instruction. *European Scientific Journal*, 1, 256-263. Retrieved from <https://eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/view/4777/4582>
- Kay, S., & Jones, V. (2015). *New American Inside Out*. Bangkok: MacMillan Publishers Ltd.
- Kelley, K., & Preacher, K. J. (2012). *On effect size*. *Psychological Methods*, 17(2), 137-152. doi:10.1037/a0028086
- Koike, Y. (2014). Explicit pronunciation instruction: Teaching suprasegmentals to Japanese learners of English. JALT2013 Conference Proceedings (pp. 361-374). Japan: JALT Post-conference Publication. Retrieved from <http://jalt-publications.org/proceedings/articles/4013-explicit-pronunciation-instruction-teaching-suprasegmentals-japanese-learn>
- Lacy, P. D. (2007). *The Cambridge handbook of phonology*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Lee, G. G., Lee, H.-Y., Song, J., Kim, B., Kang, S., J. L., & Hwang, H. (2017). Automatic sentence stress feedback for non-native English learners. *Computer Speech and Language*, 41(1), 29-42. doi:<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.csl.2016.04.003>
- Ma, R. (2015). *The role of pronunciation in speaking test ratings*. (Master's thesis, Brigham Young University, Utah, The United States). Retrieved from <https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=5425&context=etd>
- Magyar-Moe, J. L., Owens, R. L., & Conoley, C. W. (2015). Positive psychological interventions in counseling: What every counseling psychologist should know. *The Counseling Psychologist*,

- 43(4), 508–557. Retrieved from <https://www.apa.org/education/ce/positive-psychological-interventions.pdf>
- Mascolo, M. F., & Fischer, K. W. (2004). Constructivist theories. In Hopkins, B., Barre, R. G., Michel, G. F., Rochat, P. (Eds.). *Cambridge encyclopedia of child development*. Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press
- McKinley, J. (2015). Critical argument and writer identity: Social constructivism as a theoretical framework for EFL academic writing. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, 12(3), 184–207. doi:10.1080/15427587.2015.1060558
- McMahon, A. (2002). *An introduction to English phonology*. George Square, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Ministry of Education. (2012). *English teacher standards*. Retrieved from <https://educacion.gob.ec/wp-content/uploads/downloads/2017/02/ESTANDARES-DE-INGLES.pdf>
- Mojsin, L. (2009). *Mastering the American accent*. Los Angeles, California: Barron's
- Muñoz, L., Reliche, L., & Contreras, A. (2009). *Módulo de Chat y Debates - Foros* [Chat Module and Debates - Forums] (Bachelor thesis). Universidad de Guayaquil, Guayaquil, Ecuador
- Nazari, N. S., & Mirsaeeidi, A. S. (2017). The effects of communicative pronunciation instruction on suprasegmental performance in an EFL context. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(10), 860–867. doi:10.17507/tpls.0710.06
- Nielsen, B. (2013). Students' perceptions and learning outcomes of online writing using discussion boards. *The JALT CALL Journal*, 9(2), 131–147. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1107983.pdf>
- Pickens, J. (2005). Attitudes and Perceptions. In N. Borkowski, *Organizational Behavior in Health Care* (pp. 43–76). Ontario, Canada: Jones and Bartlett Publishers, Inc.
- Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. NY, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Roach, P. (2010). *English Phonetics and Phonology*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Sampieri, R. H., Collado, C. F., & Lucio, M. d. (2014). *Metodología de la investigación* [Methodology of the investigation]. México D.F., México: McGraw-Hill.
- Sawaengmongkon, C. (2013). Teaching suprasegmental features of spoken English through films to develop listening achievement of learners. *The 3rd International Conference on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching 2013* (pp. 570–576). Retrieved from http://litu.tu.ac.th/FLLT2013/www.fllt2013.org/private_folder/Proceeding/570.pdf
- Schoology. (2019). All You Need for Teaching and Learning in One Platform. Retrieved from <https://www.schoology.com/>
- Schreiber, L. M., & Valle, B. E. (2013). Social Constructivist Teaching Strategies in the Small Group Classroom. *Small Group Research*, 4(4), 395–411. doi:10.1177/1046496413488422
- Seethamraju, R. (2014). Effectiveness of using online discussion forum for case study analysis. *Education Research International*, 1(1), 1–10. doi:10.1155/2014/589860
- Singhal, A., & Kalra, B. M. (2012). A Literature review of an online discussion forum in e-learning scenario. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Computer Engineering & Technology*, 1(4), 704–708. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/6383/d97bb4c483694aa824e714daead8affcbccd.pdf>
- Solan, A. M., & Linardopoulos, N. (2011). Development, implementation, and evaluation of a grading rubric for online discussions. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, 7(4), 452–464. Retrieved from http://jolt.merlot.org/vol7no4/linardopoulos_1211.pdf
- Suwartono, T. (2015). Enhancing the pronunciation of English suprasegmental features through reflective learning method. *International Journal of Language Education and Culture Review*, 1(1), 87–96. doi:10.21009/IJLECR.011.09
- Tomal, D. R., & Hastert, D. J. (2010). *Action research for educators*. Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Yurtbasi, M. (2017). Correcting English learner's suprasegmental errors. *Global Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 7(4), 126–131. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED579978.pdf>

Appendix A

The Rubric

RUBRIC TO EVALUATE PRONUNCIATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF SUPRASEGMENTALS

Criteria	INDICATORS OF ACHIEVEMENT					SUB TOTAL
	Needs Improvement	Average	Good	Acceptable	Excellent	
	1 - 2	3 - 4	5 - 6	7 - 8	9- 10	
Word Stress	Frequent word-stress misplacement causes miscommunication and annoys listeners	Due to frequent and confusing word stress errors on simple and compound word, context is greatly needed for the listener to understand the intended meaning	Misplacement of word stress happens in a variety of simple and compound words, but meaning is not hindered	Word stress is not always placed correctly, however, the content of the message is understood.	Word stress is always placed appropriately on simple and compound words and causes no distraction or miscommunication	
Sentences Stress	Sentence stress is not used to indicate key words in thought groups. Function words are always stressed.	Sentence stress is rarely used or is frequently misplaced on function words, leading to miscommunication or confusion	Sentence stress is employed, but not always correctly (e.g., function words receive stress inappropriately)	Sentence stress is placed correctly most of the time, but sometimes misplaced on function words	Sentence stress is almost always placed appropriately based on the speaker's communicative intention	
Rhythm	Speech is developed with difficulty. "A lot of fillers" are used when speaking. There are unnecessary pauses. There is no alternation of stress between content and function words. Rhythm is predominantly and strongly syllable-timed and "choppy"	Speech "is not" developed easily, and fluently. "A lot of fillers" are used when speaking which causes "unnecessary pauses." The alternation of stress between content and function words to create stress-timed rhythm "is heavily achieved" when speaking	Speech "is not always" developed easily, and smoothly. There are "unnecessary pauses" and "the use of fillers" when speaking. The alternation of stress between content and function words to create stress-timed rhythm is "achieved with difficulty" and "sounds unnatural"	Speech is developed "almost" easily, smoothly and reasonably quickly. "Some" fillers are used when speaking. There are "some" unnecessary pauses when speaking. "Most of the time" there is alternation of stress between content and function words to create stress-timed rhythm when speaking	Speech is developed easily, fluently, and reasonably quickly. No fillers are used when speaking. There are no unnecessary pauses when speaking. There is alternation of stress between content and function words to create stress-timed rhythm when speaking	
Intonation	Intonation is used inappropriately and interferes with communication or is distracting	Rising and falling intonation patterns are sometimes used appropriately but often impede understanding	Intonation is usually correct but occasionally misleads listeners	Intonation is "most of the time" employed effectively to express emotions, but one pattern is overused	A variety of intonation patterns effectively reflect the speakers' intention (rising intonation, falling intonation, non-final intonation)	
Evaluator's name: _____ Candidate to be evaluated: _____					FINAL GRADE (AVERAGE)	

Appendix B

The Questionnaire

Code: _____ Age: _____ Gender: _____ Ethnicity: _____
 Residence: _____ Employment status: _____
 Marital Status: _____ Language 1: _____ Language 2: _____ Language 3: _____
 Education: _____ Institution: _____ Semester: _____

Objective: To explore the students' attitudes regarding the use of video-based discussion forums

Instructions: Read the questions in this questionnaire carefully. Then answer each question using a pencil or a pen. Be as honest as you can. Your answers will be anonymous.

Question 1. Did you like to participate in the video-based forum? Explain why

Question 2. Did you like to discuss about pronunciation and how to improve it in the video-based forum?

Explain why.

Question 3. Did you enjoy giving and receiving feedback in the video-based forum? Explain why

Question 4. Do you think that feedback in the video-based forum contributed to your suprasegmental improvement? Explain why

Question 5. What suprasegmental feature of your pronunciation do you think improved the most?

Question 6. Did you learn something new by participating in the video-based forum? Explain what.

Appendix C

Description of the Activities Carried out in the Video-based Forum

Artifact	Topics of the video-based forum	Participation
Video 1	Describe your goals and expectations for the course	Individual
Video 2	Describe an international festival from around the world	Pair work
Video 3	Describe an Ecuadorian festival from Guayaquil, Quito, or Cuenca	Pair work
Video 4	Describe what you usually do in your favorite place in Ecuador	Group work
Video 5	Talk about three important people in your life	Group work
Video 6	Describe your last trip to a city in Ecuador	Pair work
Video 7	Describe the photo of an important event in your life	Pair work
Video 8	Describe your favorite kind of party	Pair work
Video 9	Describe how a first experience in your life was	Pair work
Video 10	Promote a festival of one of the major cities in Ecuador	Group work
Video 11	Learning log on video	Individual

Reseña

Nathaly Bernal Sandoval

El Colegio de México
nbernal@colmex.mx

Balderston, D. y Schwartz, M. (Eds.). (2018). *Voces en off. Traducción y literatura latinoamericana*. (M. Ravassa y M. Posada, trads.). Bogotá: Ediciones Uniandes.

El título de este libro recuerda el procedimiento por medio del cual oímos la voz de alguien que no vemos; este procedimiento es usado ampliamente en televisión, teatro, cine y radio. Esta analogía resulta bastante adecuada al hablar de traducción, pues sabemos que la voz que oímos –o que leemos, en el caso de los libros traducidos– le pertenece a alguien de quien solo podemos formarnos una idea teniendo en cuenta la información y la manera en que esta persona se presenta. Esto recuerda, a su vez, al asunto de la invisibilidad del traductor, que en el gremio de los traductores se discute a menudo, y que retomaré más adelante.

En la introducción, Balderston y Schwartz comentan que esta es la primera edición de este libro en español, que publicó *State University of New York Press* originalmente en inglés, en 2002. Sin embargo, más que la traducción del mismo texto, estos autores añaden que es la continuación de una conversación que ha progresado en estos dieciséis años, en tanto la elección de los textos se hizo con base en el mercado hispanoamericano. Así, se integraron nuevos ensayos, pero también se suprimieron cuatro, con el argumento de que son textos de fácil acceso en Latinoamérica: “Las versiones homéricas”, de Borges; “Translate, traduire, tradurre: traducir”, de Cortázar; “Los pobres traductores buenos”, de García Márquez, y “Traducción: literatura y literalidad”, de Paz. Considero que esta es una decisión cuestionable, pues las ideas presentes en estos cuatro ensayos no solo no han perdido vigencia, sino que presentarían un panorama más amplio, en tanto no es posible asegurar que todos los lectores hayan tenido acceso a ellos previamente.

Sea como fuere, la edición en inglés gira en torno a la recepción de la literatura latinoamericana en Estados Unidos –desde su propia perspectiva, pues los textos

traducidos no llevan consigo su contexto¹–, en un espacio que se caracteriza por la diversidad y por la influencia de y sobre otras culturas y literaturas. Con este libro, los compiladores y los editores de Ediciones Uniandes demuestran su interés por reanudar esta discusión en América Latina, en donde estas mismas características definen nuestras interacciones. Advierten así que la conversación sobre traducción sigue vigente, en un ambiente en donde se hablan y se escriben cientos de lenguas, tanto nativas como las que hemos heredado de otros continentes, y en donde la traducción ha jugado un papel central en la evolución de nuestras letras.

Balderston y Schwartz escriben la introducción y un pequeño apartado al final del libro titulado “Los autores”, en donde resumen de manera breve los perfiles de los veintiséis autores que forman parte de esta compilación. Asimismo, presentan el asunto de la traducción en tres secciones, desde el punto de vista de tres grupos: los escritores, los traductores y los críticos. Los títulos de estas secciones son “Escritores comentan la traducción”, “Traducir a América Latina: hablan los traductores” y “Acercamientos críticos”, respectivamente, división que encuentro acertada, pues representan a grandes rasgos los tres actores clave en el proceso editorial.

En la primera sección encontramos ocho ensayos de escritores latinoamericanos, como Ricardo Piglia, Diana Bellesi o Junot Díaz, entre otros. Los temas tratados incluyen el asunto de los escritores bilingües –que en algunos casos usan ambas lenguas en una misma obra– y la autotraducción; las dificultades de la traducción de poesía y toda la traducción en general, pues todos los textos están incrustados en redes culturales; la traducción como trabajo de apropiación, ejercicio de alteridad, acto de servicio y puente para los exiliados; la

1 Para profundizar en la recepción de textos y de traducciones, véase “Las condiciones sociales de la circulación internacional de las ideas”, de Pierre Bourdieu (2002).

traducción como recreación, reescritura, reflejo y como extensión de la actividad primaria que es la lectura, y, por último, la importancia de hacer historia y crítica de traducción, en tanto el registro del estilo y la lengua de cada tiempo son diferentes. Temas todos, por lo demás, harto interesantes.

En la segunda sección, leemos las reflexiones de cinco traductores literarios estadounidenses con amplia trayectoria: Gregory Rabassa, Margaret Sayers Peden, Suzanne Jill Levine, James Hoggard y John Felstiner, todos ellos traductores del español al inglés. Sus ensayos giran principalmente en torno a la traducción de la cultura, puesto que esta ejerce una gran influencia sobre las lenguas. En este sentido, se refieren a la necesidad de observar y conocer ambas culturas, a partir de lo cual se desarrolla la originalidad, la atención y el instinto traductor. Para ejemplificar los asuntos culturales, mencionan la traducción de insultos, humor, idioma local y clichés. Por otra parte, otros temas tratados son la convivencia de la obra propia y la traducida, que termina por convertirse en algo igualmente personal; la curiosidad por los relatos de otros lugares del mundo; aspectos inherentes a la traducción de narrativa, diálogo, teatro, discurso poético y poesía, en donde entran en juego las nociones de sacrificio, pérdida, estilo y espíritu.

Por último, en la tercera sección se presentan trece ensayos de críticos literarios, como Gerald Martin, Vicky Unruh o Florencia Garramuño, entre otros. Algunos de los temas que presentan son el asunto del género en la traducción al inglés de los títulos de las obras de García Márquez; Borges como renovador cultural, a partir del aprendizaje y la experimentación con la literatura en otros idiomas y con la traducción; los retos y las responsabilidades al traducir una novela de María Luisa Puga, que trata de la relación de seis personajes que hablan idiomas diferentes y viven en Kenia, y el creciente interés por reflexionar sobre la traducción en diferentes espacios culturales y académicos, con la diferencia de que el enfoque ha dejado de estar en los aspectos lingüísticos de los textos, para centrarse en los aspectos históricos y culturales.

Sin embargo, en un libro sobre traducción, valdría la pena cuestionar si no es la voz de los propios traductores la que más debería estar presente. Retomo ahora el asunto de la invisibilidad mencionado al inicio de esta reseña, pues es un tema de constante contrariedad, en la cual la mayor inquietud es que a través de la historia se ha apreciado el resultado de la traducción, mas no el agente ni el proceso, razón por la que hay quienes abogan por «la traducción como reescritura», pues con esto se “otorga identidad propia y autonomía

al texto traducido respecto del original” (Castro, 2008, p. 286). Con todo, parece que los traductores siguen exponiendo su voz *en off* únicamente. Esto llama la atención pues esta discusión es común cuando se trata de textos traducidos y no de textos *sobre* traducción. No obstante, en este libro no es posible pasar por alto, si bien no la invisibilidad, sí que los traductores resultan una minoría con respecto a los otros dos grupos.

No es difícil descubrir el contraste entre la segunda y la tercera sección, con cinco y trece ensayos, respectivamente, y transmite el mensaje de que, para los editores, la visión de los críticos es preponderante. Considero que las secciones pudieron haber sido más uniformes y que en un proyecto a futuro podría incluirse la opinión de muchos más traductores, pues estos procesos de autocritica y reflexión podrían ser de gran beneficio para la práctica traductora y el constante desarrollo de nuestra literatura. Con todo, me gustaría insistir en lo valioso que resulta este texto si se quiere hacer un breve recorrido y obtener un panorama amplio, con las visiones de quienes están más involucrados en todo el proceso de la traducción de literatura latinoamericana al contexto estadounidense: escritores, traductores y críticos.

Referencias

- Balderston, D. y Schwartz, M. (Eds.). (2018). *Voces en off. Traducción y literatura latinoamericana*. (M. Ravassa y M. Posada, trads.). Bogotá: Ediciones Uniandes.
- Balderston, D. y Schwartz, M. (Eds.). (2002). *Voice-Overs: Translation and Latin American Literature*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Bourdieu P. (2002). Las condiciones sociales de la circulación internacional de las ideas. *Actas de la investigación en ciencias sociales*. Vol. 145, 3-8.
- Castro, O. (2008). Género y traducción: elementos discursivos para una reescritura feminista. *Lectora: revista de dones i textualitat*, (14), 285-301.

La revista **Lenguas en Contexto** de la Facultad de Lenguas de la Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, México

CONVOCA

A todos los autores e investigadores en la didáctica de lenguas, cultura, lingüística aplicada y traducción, a enviar artículos para su probable publicación en el ejemplar número 18 en forma impresa con ISSN 1870-1671 y el número 11 con ISSN 2007-3038 en su versión digital correspondientes al período agosto 2020 - julio 2021 de nuestra revista a: **lenguasencontexto@facultaddelenguas.com**

Lenguas en Contexto tiene la misión de difundir la investigación, la reflexión y el conocimiento en torno a las lenguas y culturas, su enseñanza/aprendizaje, lingüística aplicada y traducción.

Nuestra revista se encuentra indexada en el sistema Latindex y es una publicación sin fines de lucro. Deseamos promover la generación, aplicación y difusión del conocimiento, abriendo espacios de intercambio y de crítica constructiva, con el fin de participar de manera permanente en la mejora del proceso de enseñanza/aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras así como promover y potencializar la comunicación intercultural.

Todos los artículos son arbitrados bajo la modalidad doble ciego.

Todas las contribuciones deben apegarse a los lineamientos que se encuentran en:

<http://www.facultaddelenguas.com/lencontexto/>

Dichos lineamientos incluyen: cuestiones de formato, tipos de artículos publicables, por lo que se recomienda a los autores seguir la lista de verificación que encuentran en el mismo sitio.

Se aceptan artículos en español, inglés y francés.

Fechas para el envío de contribuciones: del 6 de enero al 30 de abril 2020.

COMITÉ EDITORIAL

Editora en jefe

Leticia Araceli Salas Serrano
aracelisalas@yahoo.com

Co editora

Stéphanie Marie Brigitte Voisin
stephanievoisin2002@yahoo.fr

Co editora

María Leticia Temoltzin Espejel
letytemoltzin@gmail.com

CALL FOR PUBLICATION

Lenguas en Contexto published by the *Facultad de Lenguas* of *Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla* (BUAP) Mexico, invites all teachers, authors and researchers in the fields of teaching and learning languages, applied linguistics and translation to submit their works for their probable publication in the issue no. 18 of the printed version (ISSN 1870-1671) and no. 11 (ISSN 2007-3038) in the digital version of *Lenguas en Contexto* corresponding to the period from August, 2020 to July, 2021.

All contributions must be sent to: lenguasencontexto@facultaddelenguas.com

Lenguas en Contexto has the mission of disseminating research, reflection and knowledge on language and culture, their teaching/learning, their application and their translation.

Lenguas en Contexto is indexed in the Latindex system and it is a non-profit publication. Our wish is to promote the generation, application and dissemination of knowledge, opening spaces for exchange and constructive criticism, so that authors and researchers can permanently participate in the improvement of the teaching / learning process of foreign languages as well as to promote and potentiate intercultural communication

All contributions go through a process of blind-peer review before they are published.

The guidelines (format and kinds of articles) for publication in the journal can be consulted at:

<http://www.facultaddelenguas.com/lencontexto/>

All authors are encouraged to follow the verification list included in order to encourage the quality of their contributions.

Deadline for the submission of contributions: from January 6, 2020 to April, 30th, 2020.

EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

Chief editor: Leticia Araceli Salas Serrano - aracelisalas@yahoo.com

Co editor: Stéphanie Marie Brigitte Voisin - stephanievoisin2002@yahoo.fr

Co editor: María Leticia Temoltzin Espejel - letytemoltzin@gmail.com

APPEL A PUBLICATION

La revue *Lenguas en Contexto* de la *Facultad de Lenguas* de la *Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla* au Mexique lance un appel à contributions pour son numéro 18.

Cet appel, adressé aux auteurs et aux chercheurs dans les domaines de la didactique des langues et des cultures, de la linguistique appliquée et de la traduction ou domaines connexes, les invite à soumettre leurs contributions, pour publication dans le numéro 18 pour la version imprimée (ISSN 1870-1671) correspondant au numéro 11 pour la version électronique (ISSN 2007-3038) à l'adresse électronique suivante :

lenguasencontexto@facultaddelenguas.com

Notre revue, indexée dans le système Latindex, est une publication à but non lucratif.

Elle vise à promouvoir la génération, l'application et la diffusion des connaissances, en ouvrant des espaces d'échange et de critique constructive pouvant mener à l'amélioration constante du processus d'enseignement/apprentissage des langues étrangères et favorisant en même temps la promotion et le renforcement de la communication interculturelle.

Toutes les contributions sont doublement et anonymement évaluées.

Les consignes aux auteurs pour une publication dans la revue sont disponibles sur le site suivant :

<http://www.facultaddelenguas.com/lencontexto/>

Ces consignes comprennent : des aspects liés au format, les types d'articles que nous publions, ainsi qu'une liste de vérification à laquelle nous recommandons vivement aux auteurs de se référer.

Nous acceptons des articles en français, en espagnol et en anglais.

La réception des contributions est fixée du 6 janvier au 30 avril 2020.

ÉQUIPE ÉDITORIALE

Éditrice en chef : Leticia Araceli Salas Serrano - aracelisalas@yahoo.com

Co éditrice : Stéphanie Marie Brigitte Voisin - stephanievoisin2002@yahoo.fr

Co éditrice : María Leticia Temoltzin Espejel - letytemoltzin@gmail.com

