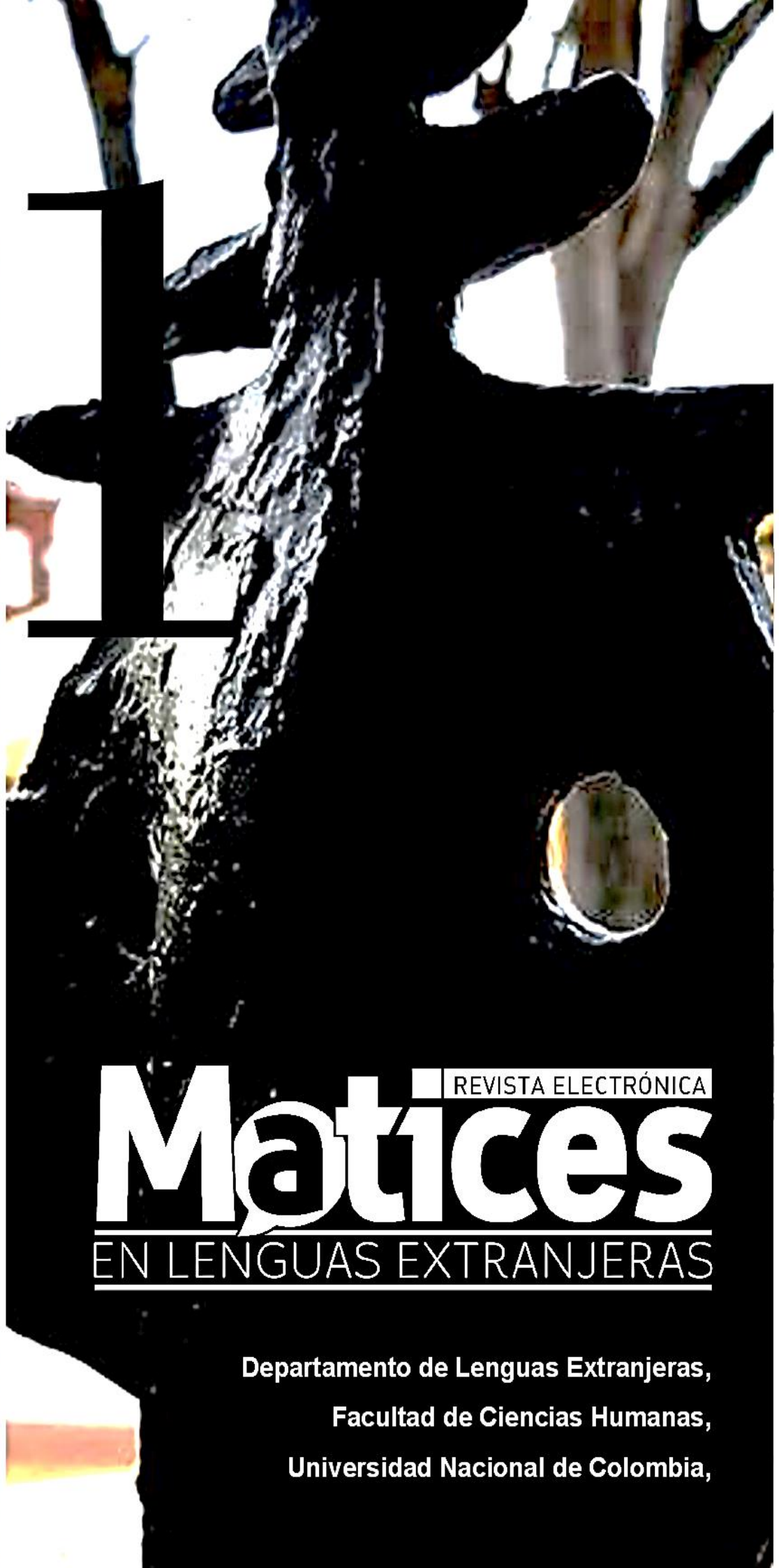


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REVISTA ELECTRÓNICA

Motices

EN LENGUAS EXTRANJERAS

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Departamento de Lenguas Extranjeras
Facultad de Ciencias Humanas
Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Bogotá, Colombia
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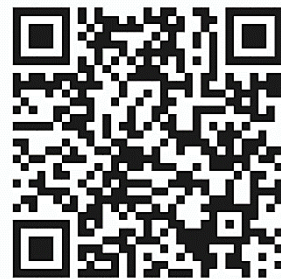


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Editorial (ESP)

Cómo citar este artículo (APA, 6ta ed.): Camargo Gil, M., & Bellanger, V. (2017). Editorial. Matices en Lenguas Extranjeras, 0(11). <https://doi.org/10.15446/male.n11.73610>

Este número presenta ocho artículos académicos y científicos, producto de investigaciones inéditas realizadas en el campo de la enseñanza de lenguas segundas y extranjeras. Algunos de estos trabajos dan cuenta de los factores que inciden en las motivaciones hacia la enseñanza-aprendizaje de un idioma (como segunda lengua o como lengua extranjera), mientras que otros analizan cómo los aspectos sociolingüísticos determinan la integración o alienación cultural de una comunidad, o el grado de comprensión de un idioma en contextos endolingües. Estas contribuciones pueden ser consideradas multilingües y multiculturales ya que están escritas en inglés, francés, español, italiano y portugués.

La primera contribución es un artículo de investigación llevado a cabo en Portugal que presenta una reflexión sobre la formación docente. El objetivo es comprender las razones que llevan a los profesores de Francés Lengua Extranjera de educación Básica y Secundaria a dejar en un segundo plano el desarrollo de la competencia de la producción escrita. Para ello, el autor hizo una investigación mixta en la que se recolectaron datos a través de cuestionarios analizados estadísticamente (en particular análisis no paramétricos) y entrevistas a las que se les aplicó la técnica de análisis de contenido. A partir de un abordaje comprensivo de estos datos, se pudo determinar que los principales factores mencionados por los sujetos remitían a contextos extrínsecos, no dependientes de la acción de los docentes implicados.

El segundo artículo presenta una investigación realizada con estudiantes provenientes de una universidad pública en Colombia. Es de corte cualitativo y empleó la metodología investigación-acción con el propósito de determinar de qué forma el uso de una plataforma virtual educativa y el proceso de escritura en círculo favorecía el desarrollo de la competencia de producción escrita en inglés como segunda lengua en estudiantes de nivel pre-intermedio. El análisis de los datos mostró que la implementación de estos recursos aumentó en los estudiantes el interés, la confianza, el entusiasmo, el dominio y la comprensión de la lengua inglesa. A través de ellos, los estudiantes tuvieron más tiempo para pensar, repensar, revisar, editar e incorporar retroalimentación sobre su producción escrita.

La tercera contribución es un estudio de caso de tipo cualitativo efectuado en una institución de educación superior pública en Estados Unidos. Allí se da cuenta de una experiencia innovadora realizada con estudiantes de pregrado de español como lengua extranjera. El propósito de la investigación era determinar hasta qué punto un estudiante estaría motivado a producir textos escritos utilizando el diario interactivo, la calidad y la cantidad de sus producciones escritas. Para ello el autor empleó el diario interactivo como estrategia pedagógica. Los resultados demostraron que los estudiantes mejoraron

la organización del pensamiento y de sus ideas al escribir en sus diarios. Además, desarrollaron una actitud positiva hacia la escritura en español y utilizaron el diario interactivo para generar temas y producir composiciones más extensas en español.

La siguiente contribución es un reporte de investigación-acción desarrollado en México sobre el aprendizaje basado en tareas. El objetivo era examinar el impacto de auto-videograbaciones de actividades basadas en tareas en el mejoramiento de las habilidades orales en inglés de un grupo de estudiantes de nivel principiante en un centro de educación superior de carácter privado. Los datos recopilados a través del estudio de los vídeos, las entrevistas estructuradas y las reflexiones de los estudiantes permitieron concluir que, al analizar sus redacciones, los estudiantes mejoraron su nivel de vocabulario en inglés, su nivel de autoconfianza, su motivación y su producción oral. Además, proporcionó herramientas a la maestra para darles a los estudiantes una retroalimentación significativa.

El quinto es un artículo de reflexión elaborado en un instituto privado de nivel universitario en Argentina. Su propósito es, en primer, lugar presentar una definición de indirectividad desde una perspectiva estratégico-funcional y multimodal para luego, con base en esta conceptualización, sustentar la pertinencia de su aplicación didáctica en la clase de Español como Lengua Segunda y Extranjera (ELSE). Se trabajó con estudiantes con nivel B2/C1, según el marco de referencia común europeo para el estudio de la lengua española, y se focalizó en la variedad de español rioplatense. Para ello, la autora analizó, desde la perspectiva de artefacto, un corpus conformado de conversaciones extraídas de seis películas argentinas producidas y estrenadas en los últimos quince años. Los resultados evidenciaron que el proceso de significación es indirecto según el grado de interaccionalidad analizado (0,1 y 2) porque se encuentra negociado por condiciones específicas de realización.

La sexta contribución es también un reporte de investigación descriptiva que muestra el análisis de un fonema como determinante de la interacción o alienación cultural. Para ello se examinó la producción del fonema /r/ de los adolescentes anglo-ingleses y punjabí-ingleses bilingües en el oeste de Yorkshire. Los datos se recolectaron en escuelas secundarias urbanas de Bradford y Leeds. Los resultados del estudio demuestran que la preferencia de los hablantes punjabíes hacia los róticos punjabíes o los róticos británicos depende de si se identifican como "británicos asiáticos" integrados culturalmente o como asiáticos alienados. Además, el estudio permite comprender cómo las comunidades que hablan inglés como segunda lengua desarrollan su pronunciación.

El penúltimo artículo es un reporte de caso descriptivo-interpretativo hecho en un establecimiento universitario público en Colombia en un programa de licenciatura en inglés. Se presenta el impacto del contexto de aprendizaje del Inglés como Lengua Extranjera (ILE) basado en contenidos y la pedagogía crítica en relación con el capital cultural de estudiantes que forman parte de un curso de pregrado de ILE cuya duración es de dos semestres. El análisis e interpretación de los datos recopilados a través de entrevistas con los participantes, sus escritos y las observaciones de la docente evidenciaron que su capital cultural aumentó con la enseñanza, en ILE, de la historia del

mundo occidental y de expresiones artísticas relacionadas con este tema, lo cual incidió positivamente en el aumento de su conciencia socio-política.

El último texto es un reporte de caso procedente de Japón en el cual se aplicaron cuestionarios a educandos de primer y segundo año de italiano de la Universidad Kyoto Sangyo para determinar sus percepciones sobre algunos aspectos que los motivaron a estudiar italiano. Los resultados del estudio concluyeron que tanto el entorno institucional y socio-cultural de los alumnos como el aprendizaje activo del idioma influyen en la motivación para aprender el italiano. Además, el estudio arrojó que la conexión de estos tres factores mejoraba la memoria de los saberes de los estudiantes.

Indudablemente, los contenidos de estos artículos provenientes de Asia, Latinoamérica, Europa y Norteamérica contribuirán a una discusión permanente sobre la investigación y reflexión que tiene lugar en el campo de la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras.

Martha I. Camargo Gil

Editora Invitada

Véronique Bellanger

Editora

Editorial (ENG)

Cómo citar este artículo (APA, 6ta ed.): Camargo Gil, M., & Bellanger, V. (2017). Editorial. *Matices en Lenguas Extranjeras*, 0(11). <https://doi.org/10.15446/male.n11.73609>

This issue of *Matices en Lenguas Extranjeras* presents eight academic and scientific articles on unpublished research in the teaching of second and foreign languages. Some of this work takes into account factors that impact motivation in the teaching/learning of a language (as a second language or a foreign language) while other work analyzes how socio-linguistic aspects determine a community's cultural integration or alienation or the degree of language comprehension in endolingual contexts. These contributions can be considered multilingual and multicultural as they are written in English, French, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese.

The first article looks at research done in Portugal on teacher training. The work aims to understand why elementary and secondary school teachers of French as a foreign language underemphasize the development of writing skills. To do so, the author carried out mixed research by collecting data through statistically analyzed questionnaires (in particular, non-parametric analysis) and by interviews to which the content analysis technique was applied. A comprehensive analysis of this data indicates that the main factors mentioned by the subjects referred to extrinsic contexts, not dependent on the action of the teachers involved.

The second article presents research done with students from public universities in Colombia. The research is qualitative and employs action research methodology to determine how the use of an educational virtual platform and writing circles favors the development writing competencies in English as a second language in pre-intermediate level students. An analysis of the data showed that the implementation of these resources increased students' interest, confidence, enthusiasm, mastery and comprehension of English. Through these, the students had more time to think, rethink, review, edit and incorporate feedback on their writing production.

The third article is a qualitative case study done on a public higher education institution in the United States. It looks at an innovative experience carried out with undergraduate students of Spanish as a foreign language. The purpose of the study was to determine to what degree students would be motivated to produce written texts using the interactive diary and the impact on the quality and quantity of their written production. For this, the author used the interactive diary as a pedagogic strategy. The results demonstrated that the students improved the organization of their thinking and of their ideas by writing in their diaries. Additionally, they developed a positive attitude towards writing in Spanish and used the interactive diary to generate topics and produce more extensive compositions in Spanish.

The next article is an action research report carried out in Mexico on task based learning. The purpose was to examine the impact of video self-recordings of task based activities for the improvement of English speaking skills of a group of beginner students at a private upper education institution. The data compiled from the analysis of the videos, the structured interviews and the reflections of students led to the conclusion that students improved their English vocabulary level, their self-confidence, motivation and oral production. Additionally, this provided tools to the teacher to give significant feedback to the students.

The fifth article looks at a private university in Argentina. It aims to first present a definition of indirectness from a strategic-functional and multimodal perspective and then, based on this conceptualization, sustain the relevance of its didactic application in the Spanish as a second and foreign language class. The research was carried out students with B2/C1 level in accordance with the European common reference. For this, the author analyzed from the artifact perspective a corpus of conversations extracted from six Argentine films of the last fifteen years. The results showed the signification process is indirect according to the degree of interactionality analyzed (0,1 and 2) because they are negotiated by specific conditions of realization.

The sixth article is also a descriptive research report analyzing a phoneme as determinant of cultural interaction or alienation. The work looks at the production of the phoneme /r/ of Anglo- English and bilingual Punjabi-English teenagers in West Yorkshire. The data was collected in urban secondary schools in Bradford and Leeds. The results of the study show that Punjabi speakers' preference for Punjabi rhotics or British rhotics depends on whether they identify themselves as culturally integrated "Asian British" or as alienated Asians. Additionally, the study looks at how the communities that speak English as a second language develop pronunciation.

The next to last article is a descriptive-interpretive case report on an undergraduate English program in a public university in Colombia. It presents the impact of the context for learning English as a second language (ESL) based on content and critical pedagogy in relation to the cultural capital of students in the undergraduate ESL course which last two semesters. The analysis and interpretation of the data collected from interviews with the participants, from their writings and from the observations of the teacher show that their cultural capital increased with the teaching in ESL of the history of the western world and of the artistic expressions related with this topic, which positively impacted their socio-political awareness.

The last article is a case report from Japan which applied questionnaires to first and second year students of Italian at the University of Kyoto Sangyo to determine their perceptions on aspects that motivated them to study Italian. The study's results showed that both the institutional and socio-cultural environment of the students as well as the active learning of the language influenced their motivation to learn Italian. Additionally, the study found that the connection of these three factors improved the student's retention of knowledge.

Undoubtedly, the contents of these articles from Asia, Latin America, Europe and North America will contribute to a permanent discussion about the research and reflection that takes place in the field of teaching and learning foreign languages.

Martha I. Camargo Gil

Guest Editor

Véronique Bellanger

Editor

O ensino da escrita em FLE: os contextos oponentes segundo os professores¹

La enseñanza de la escritura en FLE: los contextos divergentes según los profesores

Teaching of Writing in FFL: Opposing Contexts from Teachers' Perspectives

Joaquim Guerra

jguerra@ualg.pt

Centro de Estudos em Ciências da Linguagem, Faculdade de Ciências Humanas e Sociais
Professor Auxiliar, Universidade do Algarve, Campus de Gambelas, Portugal

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Resumo

Este artigo procura entender as razões que levam docentes de Francês Língua Estrangeira (FLE) do Ensino Básico e do Ensino Secundário a secundarizarem o desenvolvimento da competência de produção escrita, através do estudo das representações de professores acerca das suas práticas de ensino da escrita. A partir de uma abordagem compreensiva de análise de dados recolhidos através de entrevistas, poder-se-á entender que as principais dificuldades no ensino da escrita apontadas pelos sujeitos remetem para contextos extrínsecos, não dependentes da ação dos docentes envolvidos. Discutiremos, deste modo, os obstáculos referidos pelos docentes quanto à implementação de práticas de ensino da escrita; quanto às dificuldades observadas nos alunos; e, por fim, as estratégias implementadas para resolver as dificuldades referidas.

Palavras-chave: *representações de professores, Francês Língua Estrangeira (FLE), escrita, ensino da escrita, dificuldades no ensino da escrita*

Resumen

¹ Este artigo tem por base a minha Tese de Doutoramento (Guerra, 2007), nomeadamente os subcapítulos referentes às dificuldades relevadas pelos professores de Francês nas entrevistas semidiretivas conduzidas em 2006. *As boas práticas de ensino da escrita. Representações de professores de FLE acerca das suas práticas de ensino da escrita*, Joaquim Guerra, Universidade do Algarve, orientada pela Professora Doutora Maria de Lurdes Cabral, 2007.

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Este artículo busca comprender las razones que llevan a los profesores de Francés Lengua Extranjera (FLE) de la enseñanza básica y secundaria a relegar a un segundo plano el desarrollo de la competencia de producción escrita, a través del estudio de las reflexiones de profesores acerca de sus prácticas de enseñanza de la escritura. A partir de un abordaje comprensivo de análisis de datos recogidos a través de entrevistas, se encontró que las principales dificultades en la enseñanza de la escritura registradas por los sujetos remiten a contextos extrínsecos, no dependientes de la acción de los docentes implicados. De este modo, discutiremos los obstáculos referidos por los docentes en cuanto a la implementación de prácticas de enseñanza de la escritura, a las dificultades observadas en los alumnos y, finalmente, a las estrategias implementadas para resolver las dificultades referidas.

Palabras clave: *reflexiones de profesores, Francés Lengua Extranjera (FLE), escritura, enseñanza de la escritura, dificultades en la enseñanza de la escritura*

Abstract

This article aims to identify and understand the reasons why teachers of French as a Foreign Language (FFL/FLE) in elementary and secondary education underplay the development of writing competences by studying teachers' reflections about their writing teaching practices. Using a comprehensive approach and drawing on analyses of data collected through interviews, we found that the main difficulties in teaching writing mentioned by the subjects refer to extrinsic contexts independent of actions by the teachers involved. The article discusses the obstacles mentioned by the teachers regarding the implementation of writing teaching practices, regarding the difficulties observed in the students, and finally, the strategies implemented to solve the mentioned difficulties.

Keywords: *teachers' reflections, French as a Foreign Language (FFL/FLE), writing, teaching writing competence, difficulties in teaching of writing*

O conhecimento das práticas e da sua conceitualização dos docentes de Francês Língua Estrangeira (FLE) é pouco conhecida em Portugal. Na verdade, os estudos que reportam aplicações teórico-metodológicas no campo do ensino da escrita enquadram-se na sua grande maioria na área do ensino da Língua Materna (Pereira, 2000) e, mais recentemente, na área do Inglês Língua Estrangeira. Neste sentido, esta investigação adquiriu uma relevância especial por procurar, por um lado, descrever e caracterizar as práticas dos professores de FLE de dois níveis de ensino (3º ciclo do Ensino Básico e Ensino Secundário) e, por outro, relevar o pensamento dos professores acerca das suas práticas, levando-os a destacar e caracterizar o que na sua atuação, na área do ensino da escrita, consideram como a(s) sua(s) melhor(es) prática(s). Apresentamos neste artigo os fatores que segundo os professores dificultam o ensino da escrita, bem como procuram resolvê-los.

Recordamos que em Portugal, os programas de Francês para o Ensino Básico² (EB de ora em diante) são os mesmos desde a sua homologação em 1994, sem qualquer atualização e que o Ensino Secundário³ (ES), cujos programas entraram em vigor em 2001, tem perdido alunos o que provocou a recolocação desses docentes no ensino de outras línguas (Português, nomeadamente), ou optarem por se formarem em ensino do Espanhol.

Representações de professores

Considerámos representação como um sistema de interpretação da realidade que rege as relações desenvolvidas pelos indivíduos no seu contexto social, determinando as suas práticas e os seus comportamentos (Abric, 1994; Malglaive, 1995). O estudo das representações, permite compreender, segundo Moore (2004), como um grupo específico (des)codifica o real em função de fatores contextuais. Funcionam como um guia para a ação; orientam as ações e as relações sociais e profissionais de um indivíduo.

Apesar da importância atribuída ao estudo das representações, o número de investigações sobre representações de professores no domínio da língua estrangeira não é muito vasto, nomeadamente em Portugal, ainda que estudos tenham demonstrado a importância das crenças e opiniões dos professores sobre o ensino de línguas nas suas práticas. Como refere Pajares (1992), “researchers have demonstrated that beliefs influence knowledge acquisition and interpretation, task definition and selection, interpretation of course content, and comprehension monitoring” (p. 328).

Neste sentido, as crenças e representações fornecem um suporte ao professor, auxiliando-o nas tomadas de decisão quer a nível da preparação de aulas quer no decorrer das mesmas.

Escrever: perspetiva teórico-metodológicas

Estabelecer atualmente uma definição única e globalizante da competência de escrever é dificultado pelas características poliédricas que revestem os diferentes olhares sobre a mesma.

Neste sentido, considerámos a definição do ato de escrever de Reuter (1996) como aquela que melhor a sintetizava. Para ele, a escrita corresponde a uma prática social, historicamente construída, implicando a operacionalização geralmente conflituosa de saberes, representações, valores, investimentos pessoais e de operações cognitivas, através da qual um ou vários sujeitos procuram (re)produzir sentido,

² Os programas do EB de 1994 trouxeram as abordagens comunicativas para o contexto do ensino de Francês em Portugal (Portugal. Ministério da Educação, 1994).

³ Os programas do ES ancoraram-se na perspetiva acional defendida pelo *Quadro Europeu Comum de Referência*, bem como a noção de competências comunicativas e interculturais a desenvolver nos alunos (Santos, 2001).

linguisticamente estruturado, com a ajuda de um utensílio, num suporte que conserva duravelmente ou provisoriamente o escrito, num espaço socioinstitucional determinado.

Em termos metodológicos, consideramos (Guerra, 2007) que boas práticas de ensino da escrita devem possuir as características seguintes: (i) ter em conta o contexto ecológico dos sujeitos (professores e alunos), nomeadamente relativamente à sua relação com a escrita (Barré-de Miniac, 2000); (ii) contemplar as diferentes componentes do processo; (iii) os objetivos da tarefa devem ser claros e partilhados com os aprendentes; deve diversificar géneros textuais, contextos comunicativos e destinatários; (iv) as instruções devem ser precisas, tendo por base os objetivos da tarefa, a ou as componente(s) do processo de escrita a desenvolver e os critérios de correção/avaliação; (v) deve promover um questionamento dialético entre o aprendente e o conhecimento, passando igualmente por confrontos no seio de práticas de escrita colaborativa; (vi) o modelo de avaliação deve ser processual, promovendo a participação dos estudantes na elaboração de critérios e na correção/avaliação do seu texto; por fim, (vii) deve recorrer às novas tecnologias, dada a sua cada vez maior influência na vida pessoal e profissional dos indivíduos.

Metodologia

Participantes

Este estudo procurou abarcar todas as escolas do 3º ciclo do Ensino Básico e do Ensino Secundário da região do Algarve. Assim sendo, a amostra inicial consistiu na população total de professores de Francês Língua Estrangeira (FLE) naqueles níveis de ensino, 257 ao todo. Responderam 155 docentes, dos quais 89% são do sexo feminino. São professores relativamente jovens (71% situam-se entre os 25 e os 45 anos) e estão sobretudo colocados em escolas do 3º ciclo. Possuem todos uma licenciatura em línguas e literaturas e são profissionalizados, isto é, todos eles completaram a especialização em ensino.

Procedimentos de recolha de dados

A recolha de dados junto dos professores procedeu-se, numa primeira fase, através de um questionário que procurava caracterizar as práticas de ensino da escrita. Este instrumento foi enviado por correio às escolas, juntamente com instruções detalhadas acerca do seu preenchimento e método para a sua devolução ao investigador. Respondeu, à nossa solicitação, um total de 155 professores, o que equivale a uma taxa de 60,3% de respostas obtidas. Numa segunda fase, e após a estratificação da amostra, realizámos 11 entrevistas semidiretivas (6 no 3º ciclo do Ensino Básico e 5 no Ensino Secundário), através da qual quisemos reforçar a caracterização das práticas dos docentes e destacar o pensamento dos professores acerca do que consideram ser boas práticas de ensino da escrita por eles experienciadas.

Procedimentos de análise de dados

A análise dos dados acompanha a natureza dupla – quantitativa e qualitativa – dos métodos de recolha. Com efeito, o questionário foi analisado através de métodos estatísticos (nomeadamente análises não-paramétricas) e às entrevistas foi aplicada a técnica da análise de conteúdo.

A validade e fidelidade dos métodos de recolha e de análise foram desenvolvidas através de métodos externos ao investigador, o método dos juízes, para além de se procurar a validade interna recorrendo a testes de consistência que conciliavam interações entre a base teórica, as perguntas de investigação e os dados recolhidos pelos instrumentos. A triangulação foi garantida através da aplicação de dois instrumentos diferentes de investigação, bem como recorrendo à análise e sua interação com os programas oficiais que norteiam o ensino do Francês em Portugal.

O nível de confiança, isto é, a consistência das respostas fornecidas, foi obtido, através do teste *Alfa de Cronbach* que superou o índice de referência de 0,80, situando-se em 0,896.

Resultados: os contextos oponentes ao ensino da escrita

No âmbito da entrevista, os professores destacaram, com alguma ênfase, dificuldades manifestadas pelos alunos e por eles encontradas quer relativamente ao desempenho dos estudantes, quer quanto à sua própria prática pedagógica.

Efetuaremos, primeiramente, uma resenha crítica das dificuldades relativas aos alunos, e, em segundo lugar, exporemos aquelas que foram destacadas pelos docentes quanto aos entraves à sua prática. Em terceiro lugar, veremos as estratégias desenvolvidas pelos sujeitos para resolver as dificuldades descritas.

As dificuldades dos alunos

Os professores foram bastante detalhados na descrição das dificuldades dos alunos. O Quadro n.º 1 sintetiza o tipo de dificuldades referenciadas pelos sujeitos e o correspondente número de unidades de registo encontrado.

Como podemos observar, as principais preocupações dos docentes centram-se nas dificuldades dos alunos a nível das várias facetas da competência comunicativa: conhecimentos linguísticos, do mundo e dos contextos comunicativos.

Quadro n.º 1
Dificuldades dos alunos referidas pelos entrevistados

Indicador	Unidades de Registo	
	3º Ciclo	ES
Vocabulares	7	5
Morfossintaxe	10	9
Conhecimento temático	1	—
Interferência LM	1	2
Estruturação textual	1	3
Em seguir instruções	2	—
Uso de materiais auxiliares	3	3
Na Revisão / (co-)correção	1	2
Cumprimento de prazos	—	2
Desmotivação / desinteresse	4	3
Falta de autoestima	1	1
Necessidades educativas especiais	1	—
Transferência de conhecimentos [...]	2	—
Relativas a fatores institucionais / programáticos	—	1

Uma leitura atenta da quantificação das unidades de registo por indicador permite-nos verificar que os conhecimentos vocabulares lacunares e as deficiências a nível morfossintático, bem como na estruturação textual, correspondem às dificuldades dos alunos mais apontadas pelos entrevistados.

Para os professores, a principal preocupação a nível da escrita centra-se na manifesta falta de vocabulário, sem o qual os estudantes não podem sequer tentar redigir um texto. Segundo PEB1⁴:

// Quer dizer na língua estrangeira // o que mais me preocupa é vocabulário do que propriamente aquela estrutura perfeita de um texto em língua materna porque aí o vocabulário não é tanto o problema (Entrevista, abril de 2006).

Esta constatação conduz, inclusive, a que um docente do ES afirme categoricamente, por diversas vezes, que na sua grande maioria os estudantes possuem um vocabulário pobre (SIC).

⁴ Foi construído um código de modo a garantir a confidencialidade dos dados. [PEB] corresponde então a Professo do 3º Ciclo do Ensino Básico e [PES] a Professor do Ensino Secundário, sendo o valor [1] o número de ordem da realização da entrevista.

A esta característica apontada aos estudantes, podemos associar a referência ao fraco conhecimento temático, tendo em conta que para estes professores, este conhecimento corresponde à capacidade de trabalhar em aula o vocabulário ligado ao conteúdo temático em estudo e a uma insegurança bastante acentuada nos seus conhecimentos em momentos de escrita. Parece-nos, então, que as práticas de introdução, de exercitação e de aplicação do vocabulário em aula não estarão a contribuir para um efetivo conhecimento lexical na LE (Língua Estrangeira).

Por seu lado, a falta de segurança no domínio da LE pelos alunos pode igualmente contribuir para as dificuldades observadas a nível vocabular. Com efeito, a cópia do texto base, associada ao receio em escrever diretamente em francês pode ocasionar situações em que os estudantes procuram certificar-se que estão a escrever corretamente as palavras e/ou que preferam inicialmente escrever em português e depois efetuar a tradução para francês.

A cópia do texto base ocorre igualmente a nível morfosintático, tendo os alunos dificuldades em demarcar o seu texto do texto base, como afirma [PEB4]:

Têm dificuldades em demarcar o seu texto do texto base (exemplo: passagem da primeira para a terceira pessoa, recurso a aspas para transcrever excertos do texto lido); nas palavras da professora: “Fazem cola do texto original” (Entrevista, abril de 2006).

Não obstante, as principais dificuldades referenciadas prendem-se com a conjugação verbal, independentemente do nível ensinado, o acordo com o sujeito e a distinção entre pretéritos.

A interligação entre conhecimento gramatical (estrutural) e as situações contextuais de uso são também motivo de preocupação por parte dos docentes. Segundo os sujeitos, os alunos dificilmente transferem os conhecimentos gramaticais declarativos, treinados essencialmente em exercícios estruturais, para momentos de comunicação verbal (escrita ou oral).

|| noto que os alunos têm efetivamente mais dificuldade || na produção escrita do que a tudo o resto. Porque por exemplo || isto é uma coisa muito recente que aconteceu o ano passado || e que acontece mesmo || este ano || Portanto, nós damos os conteúdos, as unidades || quer || conteúdos || linguísticos quer os conteúdos temáticos, eles conhecem vocabulário, ||, papagueiam os conteúdos, depois quando é para aplicação prática, para a produção escrita, eles têm mais dificuldade. Eu costumo dizer: “Vocês não || falam francês com exercícios lacunares, ||” Mas isso eles aplicam perfeitamente || [PEB6] (Entrevista, abril de 2006).

Segundo os respondentes, os alunos demonstram dificuldades em saber utilizar em situações discursivas os conhecimentos adquiridos e exercitados em situações que parecem recorrer predominantemente a exercícios estruturais. Registam problemas na

percepção dos contextos comunicativos nos quais se devem usar determinadas estruturas linguísticas e conhecimentos do mundo. No fundo, parece-nos, igualmente, que se encontram conformados pelo tipo de práticas desenvolvidas, nas quais a resposta a uma pergunta de compreensão é considerado a escrita de um texto e os itens gramaticais são abordados enquanto estruturas isoladas do seu contexto de produção.

Do discurso dos docentes podemos ainda inferir o modo de entendimento da organização das aulas. Com efeito, predomina ainda a estruturação através da unidade didática, quando os programas de Francês, do Ensino Secundário e as Competências Essenciais do 3º ciclo, apontam para uma organização de situações de ensino-aprendizagem sequenciais, organizadas em torno de tarefas comunicativas, numa perspectiva acional defendida pelo *Quadro Europeu Comum de Referência* (Conseil de l'Europe, 2001), onde se interliga a aquisição e o desenvolvimento de conhecimentos e de competências.

Por seu lado, para os docentes do ES a principal interferência da Língua Materna na Língua Estrangeira ocorre na construção sintática, por via da correspondência entre algumas categorias gramaticais (e.g. preposições) e não na dificuldade em traduzir vocábulos ou nos referenciais temáticos.

Apenas dois professores destacaram a falta de conhecimentos dos alunos a nível da construção textual, isto é, na organização temática e discursiva das várias sequências que compõem um texto. Essa constatação poderá também revelar que os próprios sujeitos não trabalham com frequência o modo de organização textual dos vários géneros de texto que exploram nas aulas.

Como verificámos em outro lugar (Guerra, 2008), os docentes utilizam uma denominação genérica, própria de uma vertente de produto na conceção do ensino da escrita – introdução, desenvolvimento e conclusão.

Os textos resumem-se, assim, a “palavras soltas” [PES5], resultado de um trabalho *copy/past* [PES5] (entrevista, abril de 2006), do texto modelo de referência ao texto redigido pelo aluno. Por conseguinte, consideramos natural que o aprendente tenha dificuldade em corrigir o seu trabalho, em realizar uma revisão eficiente no seu e no texto dos seus colegas.

Com efeito, os conhecimentos lacunares a nível lexical, morfossintático e discursivo não permitem ao aluno realizar revisões do seu texto e proceder às consequentes correções. Para além disso, as correções dos textos realizadas pelos alunos ou não são apoiadas por fichas de verificação, ou são efetuadas depois da leitura corretiva prévia do professor, limitando-se as suas competências a nível da identificação dos erros cometidos.

Associa-se a este problema os constrangimentos que resultam da falta de destreza na utilização de materiais auxiliares, como gramáticas e dicionários. Paralelamente, parecem existir igualmente dificuldades na resolução de problemas em trabalho

autónomo, isto é, sem a presença do professor para auxiliar nas dúvidas vocabulares ou sintáticas, como vimos ser prática corrente.

Assim, tendo em conta que “[...] || mais de metade das palavras vão vê-las ao dicionário, mesmo que eles saibam escrever as palavras / ||” [PEB2] (entrevista, abril de 2006), é natural que “[...] ao nível da escrita [haja] muitas dificuldades em trabalho autónomo. Eles precisam || sempre da bengala, da orientação. || É assim nem que seja uma linha” [PES1] (entrevista, abril de 2006). Em nossa opinião, a fraca utilização de materiais auxiliares nas aulas em geral, e nos momentos de escrita em particular, em detrimento do recurso ao professor como detentor de todo o saber necessário, contribuirá grandemente para a falta de autonomia e, conseqüentemente, para a ausência de conhecimento de estratégias de aprendizagem a este nível. A dificuldade em perceber as instruções fornecidas pelo professor pode também ocasionar dificuldades na redação do texto e em trabalhar de forma mais autónoma.

Neste sentido, e perante as dificuldades manifestadas pelos alunos, o cumprimento dos prazos estabelecidos torna-se mais difícil, daí esse constrangimento ter sido indicado como um dos problemas ligados ao desenvolvimento de tarefas de escrita em sala de aula. Tendo em conta que os estudantes de LE despendem mais tempo na resolução de tarefas de escrita, muitos docentes preferem solicitá-las como trabalho de casa, ou então, evitam esses momentos para poder cumprir o programa.

Às dificuldades cognitivas indicadas associam-se fatores psicológicos como a falta de motivação e a falta de autoestima.

“Por falta de confiança || /”, segundo [PEB2] (entrevista, abril de 2006), os alunos (i) não ousam, como observámos atrás, escrever diretamente em língua francesa, correndo o risco de as traduções depois realizadas se encontrarem mais próximas da estrutura sintática portuguesa, ou (ii) procuram os vocábulos todos no dicionário ainda que os conheçam. A falta de autoestima dificulta também a relação com a escrita. Entrar na escrita (Barré-de Miniac, 2000), isto é, começar a escrever, é uma tarefa difícil para muitos adultos, e também para os aprendentes a escreventes. Implica uma predisposição do aprendente para a escrita, uma orientação.

Esta relação pessoal com a escrita obriga, portanto, a uma predisposição favorável pré-construída, no caso da LE ancorada igualmente na relação com a escrita em LM⁵. A orientação para a escrita do aprendente funda-se também na sua percepção da escrita nos seus vários domínios de uso enquanto meio de comunicação prestigiado e nos vários conhecimentos (declarativos, processuais, contextuais) requeridos. Ora, na LE, iniciar um texto é um processo ainda mais dificultado devido à insegurança quanto aos conhecimentos prévios requeridos e quanto à incapacidade para resolver os problemas que surjam durante a escrita, devido às lacunas quanto aos vários tipos de conhecimentos envolvidos.

⁵ Língua Materna.

Para além do mais, muitos alunos parecem não estar motivados para participar nas atividades de aula, dificultando o seu trabalho, o dos colegas e o do professor.

Os docentes confrontam-se, também, com alunos cujas dificuldades são mais difíceis de resolver, como é o caso de estudantes com necessidades educativas especiais. Para estes aprendentes, situações consideradas simples e/ou facilmente ultrapassáveis pelos seus colegas tornam-se verdadeiros desafios a atingir. Estes alunos trazem dificuldades acrescidas aos professores, nomeadamente do EB, que sentem alguma dificuldade em fomentar a integração e o trabalho individualizado especializado.

As dificuldades dos professores

Relativamente ao professor, as dificuldades manifestadas prendem-se essencialmente com questões relativas (i) a condições curriculares e de política educativa, (ii) a fatores metodológicos e, por fim, (iii) a circunstâncias de âmbito pessoal (cf. Quadro n.º 2).

Quadro n.º 2

Principais dificuldades dos professores

Categorias de dificuldades	de	Indicador de análise	Unidades de Registo	
			3º Ciclo	ES
Currículo/Política educativa		Organização curricular / Programas	6	3
		Ligadas a fatores externos / Institucionais	4	1
		Número de alunos por turma	3	2
Metodológicas		Necessidades educativas especiais / Integração	2	—
		Indisciplina	4	—
		Manual escolar	—	4
		Diferenciação pedagógica	—	2
Pessoais		Desmotivação	5	2
		Dúvidas relativas ao conceito de escrita	2	1

Pela ótica dos docentes entrevistados, ainda que possam existir muitos entraves ao processo de ensino-aprendizagem da escrita, nenhum deles parece admitir ter dificuldades reais em processar tarefas de escrita na sala de aula. De facto, a não ser a dúvida manifestada por um docente de cada ciclo de ensino relativamente ao conceito de escrita, as restantes contrariedades são provocadas por outras ordens de razão, não imputáveis diretamente ao professor ainda que sob a sua alçada⁶.

Assim, os docentes atribuem, por exemplo, a “falta de tempo” para a realização de tarefas de escrita à organização curricular e aos programas. A grande maioria não realiza atividades de escrita em virtude “[...] de ter[em] um programa extenso para

⁶ Igualmente Pereira (2000) a esse respeito, ainda que no âmbito da língua materna.

cumprir” [PEB3] (entrevista, abril de 2006), que aparentemente não possibilita a interação entre competências. Em sua opinião, parece que os programas de Francês insistem na componente gramatical da língua, em detrimento de outras competências e da civilização francesa atual, como se o estudo de uma língua se pudesse realizar sem a intervenção da componente cultural que lhe atribui sentido. [PES1] suporta essa ideia ao afirmar que “francês hoje é absolutamente gramatical e desfasado da civilização, digamos, || do francês em si” (entrevista, abril de 2006).

Parece, igualmente, que, relativamente ao 3º ciclo, os respondentes têm algumas dificuldades em conjugar os dois documentos oficiais que organizam o currículo do Francês: as Competências Essenciais e as orientações programáticas:

|| não tenho feito [produção escrita] // || porque / muito sinceramente não sei o que hei-de privilegiar na escola // || / Eu ainda não consegui perceber muito bem, mas acho que este ano sou capaz de perceber. Se tenho de privilegiar a gramática. || a escrita. || [ou] / os conteúdos do Ministério estabeleceu como sendo... que || ser dados naquele nível // porque se for isso nunca conseguiríamos fazer textos escritos em aula, || [PEB2] (Entrevista, abril de 2006).

Deparamos igualmente com a compartimentação do conhecimento, como se os conteúdos temáticos (aqueles que o “Ministério estabeleceu como sendo...”) [PEB2] (entrevista, abril de 2006), os conteúdos gramaticais e as competências de receção e de produção, não pudessem ser trabalhados de forma integrada.

Nota-se uma grande amálgama de teorias subjacentes aos programas e ao ensino de competências, denotando-se, por conseguinte, falta de formação em metodologias, nomeadamente relativas à organização do ensino-aprendizagem em torno das competências.

De acordo com os entrevistados, outros fatores condicionam de forma marcante a sua prática letiva. De entre as várias unidades discursivas retiradas das entrevistas, conjugadas nos indicadores dificuldades relativas à organização curricular / programas e ligadas a fatores externos / institucionais, podemos destacar ordens de razão temporal e de carga letiva no horário do professor associadas ao desempenho burocrático que também é esperado dele.

Com efeito, segundo estes docentes, a carga horária atribuída ao ensino do Francês é diminuta, apenas noventa minutos por semana no caso do 9º (nível III), dificultando a distribuição da focagem no ensino das várias competências de modo sensivelmente uniforme. Neste contexto, para alguns, é natural que se dedique menos tempo à competência de escrita, pois leva mais tempo a desenvolver em aula.

Existe igualmente o receio de não se ter cumprido todos os conteúdos do programa, da mesma forma que os colegas fizeram. As aulas assemelham-se, assim, em nossa opinião, a uma corrida contra o tempo, na qual se deve “dar” o máximo possível

de conteúdos do programa de Francês, esquecendo-se a organização por competências e a interação entre domínios da linguagem e cultura-alvo que permitem desenvolver conteúdos gramaticais, por exemplo, em simultâneo com a aprendizagem da leitura, da escrita ou da produção/compreensão orais.

Os sujeitos destacam também a falta de continuidade no trabalho com os alunos, já que, geralmente, trocam de professor de FLE todos os anos.

Estas mudanças não permitem uma continuidade pedagógica relativa à planificação de conteúdos e de desenvolvimento de competências ao longo de um período alargado no tempo. Obriga, ainda, a longos períodos de adaptação quer para os professores, quer para os estudantes.

A atribuição de turmas e níveis em demasia, aliada ao elevado número de alunos por turma é igualmente apontado pelos sujeitos como um dos principais entraves à dinamização de tarefas de escrita. Esta é, todavia, uma particularidade dos níveis do 3º ciclo do EB. No ES, apenas os docentes que também lecionam em turmas do 3º ciclo estabelecem o número de alunos como uma das suas preocupações diárias.

No ES, pelo contrário, o reduzido número de alunos aporta preocupações relativas à tentativa de compreender o processo de aprendizagem dos alunos, procurando desenvolver metodologias diferentes, diferenciando o trabalho dos alunos, porém nem sempre com os resultados esperados.

Os professores têm alguma dificuldade em gerir conteúdos programáticos de modo diferenciado, principalmente se for relativo a alunos integrados nas necessidades educativas especiais. Falta-lhes, com certeza, não a capacidade humana de acolhimento e acompanhamento desses estudantes, mas antes a preparação técnica para lidar com este tipo de crianças, que lhe permitiria melhor compreender esses alunos, as suas dificuldades e decidir a melhor forma de os ajudar.

Apenas uma docente do EB (PEB6) manifesta as suas preocupações relativamente à indisciplina e ao modo como lida com ela. Os restantes, ainda que alguns tenham abordado o assunto relativamente a dificuldades associadas aos alunos, não revelaram ter problemas em lidar com situações de indisciplina, nem referiram que o comportamento dos alunos lhes pudesse causar dificuldades no desenvolvimento de situações de ensino-aprendizagem.

Por seu lado, um dos professores do ES destacou o papel e a qualidade do manual escolar, como fator de perturbação para o ensino da escrita. Segundo ele, existem demasiados manuais para o mesmo ano/nível e nem todos com a mesma atualização quanto à civilização francesa. Aponta ainda o facto de alguns deles não dinamizarem a escrita.

Os entrevistados, independentemente do nível de ensino, possuem em comum o fator *desmotivação*. Com efeito, três professores destacaram a falta de motivação para o não desenvolvimento de tarefas de escrita, principalmente no âmbito do ensino do

Francês. Existem várias razões, porém, mais uma vez, ainda que possam ser considerados como motivos legítimos, parece-nos que atribuem a desmotivação apenas a condicionantes externas:

Tanto que até já estou a ficar um bocado desanimado e por isso é que estou a tirar um curso em biblioteca porque se calhar vou sair do ensino porque / sinto que estamos a falar para as paredes || língua francesa || eles não querem saber // É uma obrigação / [PEB3] (Entrevista, abril de 2006).

Para além disso, e sem pretender se desculpar, não tem feito mais na área do ensino da escrita porque “andar de casa às costas” condiciona o trabalho do professor (“Não há estabilização”; “Há muita desmotivação”) [PES3] (Entrevista, abril de 2006).

Apenas um sujeito reconhece que não ocorrem mais práticas de escrita nas suas aulas porque ele próprio não pretende (cf. PEB2), acabando por relevar as dificuldades que isso aporta na gestão dos alunos e do seu trabalho.

Modos de resolução das dificuldades manifestadas

Encontrámos no discurso dos professores entrevistados um grande número de processos de superação de dificuldades, como podemos observar no Quadro n.º 3.

Os indicadores com mais registos recaem, principalmente, sobre as principais dificuldades apontadas aos alunos. Assim, estes docentes desenvolvem bastantes atividades de desenvolvimento vocabular ou de análise gramatical, ocorrendo, neste último caso, uma tentativa de explicitação das situações de uso, de aperfeiçoamento de componentes do discurso, embora nem sempre realizadas na sala com o professor.

O recurso a outra língua, na explicação de conteúdos gramaticais, é também um modo de procurar contornar as dificuldades manifestadas pelos alunos.

O conhecimento de vocabulário é normalmente incrementado recorrendo a “fichas de vocabulário” ou a atividades lúdicas. Existe, igualmente, uma certa preocupação em pedir aos alunos que recorram às TIC, de modo a que através das páginas da internet aconselhadas os estudantes leiam e aprendam mais vocabulário sobre o tema em estudo. Não obstante, consideramos oportuno recordar as suas afirmações relativas aos recursos utilizados em aula, dos quais se destacavam o manual escolar e os dicionários, mas principalmente à não existência, isto é, à não construção pelo professor, de fichas de apoio aos momentos de produção escrita. Por conseguinte, parece-nos que as “fichas de vocabulário” referidas surgem noutros momentos da aula, parecendo-nos que não são posteriormente integradas no momento de escrita de forma clara pelos docentes, ou que os estudantes manifestam algumas dificuldades quer no seu manuseamento quer na integração dos termos contidos nas usuais “fichas de vocabulário”.

Quadro n.º 3
Formas de ultrapassar as dificuldades

Categorias de dificuldades	Indicador de análise	Unidades de registo	
		3º Ciclo	ES
Formas de ultrapassar as dificuldades	Maior apoio aos alunos	3	5
	Exercícios de análise gramatical	5	3
	Atividades de desenvolvimento vocabular	5	—
	Atividades para melhoramento da estrutura textual	3	—
	Atividades de tradução / retroversão	2	2
	Atividades de memorização	2	—
	Atividades com texto modelo	—	1
	Atividades de motivação `LCF	—	2
	Diversificação das atividades	—	2
	Continuidade pedagógica	4	—
	Manter a disciplina	3	—
	Portefólio	5	—
	Recurso a outra língua	1	—
	Uso de materiais auxiliares	1	—
	Envolver os alunos nas atividades de programação	—	2
	Ajustamento das condições físicas de trabalho	—	1

A análise macrotextual é igualmente contemplada pelos docentes dos dois ciclos de ensino, principalmente em atividades coletivas, embora possa recair sobre um texto de um aluno em particular. Ocorrem, no entanto, a jusante da tarefa, no momento da correção formal pelo docente, e não a montante, no momento de explicação da tarefa, a qual deveria incluir: género textual, propósitos, destinatários, etc. Paralelamente, encontramos situações de atividades de “reorganização de texto” (PEB6). Porém, apesar de se tratar de análises macrotextuais, estas recaem normalmente no desenvolvimento global do conteúdo e não em questões de sequencialização micro e macro textuais (*e.g.* anáfora, conectores, etc.). Releva-se, deste modo, a competência de compreensão escrita isoladamente, não em conjunto com a competência de produção escrita, nomeadamente em particularidades (encadeamento do conteúdo através dos conectores, por exemplo) que posteriormente poderiam auxiliar a textualização.

A utilização de textos modelo é unicamente referida relativamente à construção em aula de um texto que posteriormente poderá ser “repetido” de forma semelhante em momentos de avaliação:

Vai-se construindo ou pode-se construir um texto || que / || por exemplo quando for testado, || se || o tema for o mesmo, || [tosse] eu tenho a

certeza, aliás já aconteceu várias vezes, que || ou aqueles que fizeram a composição fá-la-ão em função daquele textozinho que fizemos sobre o tema // É aquilo como referência que eles têm, porque eles não têm || capacidade por si próprio de articular qualquer coisa [PES1] (Entrevista, abril de 2006).

A atribuição de um maior apoio individualizado aos alunos é também referenciada pelos sujeitos, nomeadamente do ES. O facto de terem, geralmente, turmas com um número de alunos mais reduzido permite-lhes, com certeza, poder recorrer ao apoio individual na sala de aula com maior facilidade e frequência.

Independentemente do nível de ensino, os professores concordaram em que a possibilidade de apoiar individualmente o aluno enquanto este realiza as tarefas de escrita na sala de aula permite melhorar a aprendizagem. Compreende-se, deste modo, porque os docentes do ES consideraram igualmente positivo o recurso a atividades diversificadas. Para [PES3], a diferenciação pedagógica corresponde também a um meio de defesa para o professor e de motivação para os alunos, mesmo nos níveis do 3º ciclo do EB que leciona.

Parece-nos que o reduzido número de alunos lhes permite sobretudo conduzir o aluno a uma maior participação na programação e nas atividades de aula.

No EB, os docentes utilizam ainda o apoio individualizado para ajudar os alunos com necessidades educativas especiais, contornando desta forma as dificuldades, observadas no ponto anterior, em gerir estas situações de integração de alunos com incapacidades físicas ou psicológicas.

No 3º ciclo do EB, um dos docentes referiu igualmente a utilização do portefólio como estratégia de apoio individual, para melhoramento das aprendizagens a nível da escrita. Relataram, contudo, que a sua implementação se revelou difícil, por, pensamos nós, ser uma prática ainda pouco habitual nas escolas básicas. Ainda assim, esta estratégia tem obtido resultados positivos.

Porém, realçamos o facto de nos parecer que não se fomenta a revisão das produções textuais, nem a rescrita dos textos corrigidos pelo docente. Assim, apesar de se favorecer o uso do portefólio, este segue, em nossa opinião, um tipo de avaliação mais tradicional, de produto, ao invés de ser um pretexto para a operacionalização de um sistema processual de avaliação.

Os sujeitos recorrem ainda à tradução/retroversão sempre que consideram necessário, para apoiar o trabalho dos alunos, ainda que sob prismas diferentes. No 3º ciclo, a tradução/retroversão é essencialmente vista como uma forma de preparação e de ajuda para a escrita em LE. Por seu lado, os professores do ES recorrem a ela quando pretendem ilustrar as construções fráscas mal construídas dos textos produzidos pelo aluno, realçando, em nossa opinião, o ridículo dos significados produzidos.

Em termos de estratégia de sala de aula, encontramos ainda referências a atividades de motivação à língua e cultura francesas, no ES, assim como a manutenção da disciplina no EB, mas que não estão diretamente associadas à resolução de dificuldades na competência escrita.

Os sujeitos do 3º ciclo do EB referiram ainda que uma das formas de resolver o problema das dificuldades na competência escrita seria a continuidade pedagógica, isto é, um mesmo professor continuar com as mesmas turmas de FLE no seu percurso por um determinado ciclo.

Para estes docentes, uma planificação de ciclo permitiria espaçar no tempo a incidência no desenvolvimento das diversas competências, associadas aos conteúdos morfosintáticos e culturais a estudar. Com o tempo, o professor conheceria melhor os diversos ritmos de aprendizagem, assim como os estudantes se familiarizariam com as práticas letivas desenvolvidas.

Para finalizar, o ajustamento das condições de trabalho, referidas por um docente do ES, reporta-se essencialmente ao desenvolvimento de competências orais (de compreensão e produção) consideradas úteis, no sentido em que consolidam, indiretamente, também, a expressão escrita.

Conclusões e observações finais

Os sujeitos mostraram serem detentores de conhecimentos pedagógicos relativos a práticas de atuação no ensino-aprendizagem da escrita mais diversificados do que aqueles que podemos observar quanto à descrição simples das suas práticas habituais (Guerra 2007; 2008). Continuamos, contudo, a registar práticas assistemáticas, desconexas e não estruturadas, isto é, sugerem aquelas atividades no momento em que se apercebem da dificuldade do aluno e raramente são pensadas em momentos de planificação, como formas alternativas de realização ou de apoio à tarefa de escrita (Guerra, 2007).

Parece-nos, igualmente, que eles projetaram nestas atividades de resolução de problemas, as práticas a partir das quais eles gostariam de desenvolver a competência de escrita, mas que surgem apenas pontualmente pelos motivos invocados. Embora a maioria das estratégias pertença a uma visão mais de produto e estruturalista, outras há, como o portefólio, o recurso às TIC ou o apoio individualizado, que reportam a uma noção mais próxima de práticas de ensino da escrita ancoradas numa visão processual. A sua implementação, no entanto, parece carecer de reflexão aprofundada quanto às teorias subjacentes.

Deste modo, parece-nos que os entrevistados possuem um conhecimento alargado sobre o modo de implementação de tarefas de escrita, mas continuam a perpetuar práticas mais tradicionais de ensino-aprendizagem da escrita, remetendo para os alunos e para os contextos educativos os principais motivos para a permanência dessas práticas.

Os resultados obtidos não se terão alterado ao longo dos anos. Com efeito, como referimos, as instruções oficiais que delimitam a atuação dos docentes datam de há praticamente 23 anos no caso do EB. De acordo com um estudo recente (Guerra, 2016), os mesmos encontram-se desfasados metodologicamente dos restantes programas de LE (incluindo os de Francês do ES) e inclusive culturalmente. Por conseguinte, as representações e práticas aferidas dificilmente se terão alterado.

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The Influence of ICT in the Development of Writing Skills through an Online Platform⁷

La influencia de las TIC en el desarrollo de las habilidades de escritura a través de una plataforma en línea

Jesús Andrés López Henao

andreslh@utp.edu.co

B.A in English Language Teaching and M.A in English Didactics

English Language Facilitator at the Institute of Foreign Languages “ILEX”, Universidad Tecnológica de Pereira, Colombia

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to determine the extent to which the support of an online educational platform benefited students' writing skill while carrying out the writing process wheel. The project involved a diagnostic stage carried out for one month, six workshops combining the WPW⁸ and a commercial educational platform to improve the writing skill, and an evaluation stage within an Action Research cycle in a pre-intermediate EFL⁹ course at Universidad Tecnológica de Pereira. The findings report the usefulness of ICT¹⁰ in the EFL classroom as a means of improving students' writing performance, vocabulary, attitudes, and confidence and so improving their language performance.

Key words: *information and communication technologies (ICT), writing process wheel (WPW), confidence, performance*

Resumen

El objetivo de esta investigación fue determinar el grado en el cual el apoyo de una plataforma en línea educativa benefició la habilidad de escritura en los estudiantes

⁷ This article is a product of an action research titled: The Influence of ICT in the Development of the Writing Skills, presented by Jesús Andrés López Henao at Universidad de Caldas to get the Master's degree in English Didactics directed by Professor Odilia Ramirez in 2016.

⁸ Writing process wheel.

⁹ English as a Foreign Language.

¹⁰ Information and Communication Technologies.

mientras seguían el proceso de escritura en círculo. El proyecto implicó una etapa diagnóstica llevada a cabo durante un mes, seis talleres combinando el proceso de escritura en círculo y una plataforma comercial educativa para mejorar la habilidad de escritura y una etapa de evaluación dentro de un ciclo de investigación acción en un curso preintermedio de inglés en la Universidad Tecnológica de Pereira. Las conclusiones reportan la utilidad de las TIC¹¹ en el aula EFL como un medio para mejorar la escritura de los estudiantes, su vocabulario, sus actitudes y su confianza para mejorar su desempeño en la lengua.

Palabras clave: *tecnologías de la información y comunicación, proceso de escritura en círculo, confianza, desempeño*

This paper about the influence of an online platform on writing skill reports on a study carried out in an English course at a foreign languages institute at a public university in Pereira-Risaralda. The participants were selected according to convenience sampling. In order to identify the difficulties in the language setting, a diagnostic stage was carried out in which four data collection instruments were used, namely, a diary, an observation chart, a survey, and a questionnaire. The data were analyzed by using codes, groupings, and categories. The information gathered revealed some problems related to the writing skill.

Among the most relevant problematic areas identified in the diagnostic stage, the following can be mentioned: negative and positive perceptions towards writing, lack of lexis in the L2, lack of writing skills, and lack of exposure to the writing skill. As a matter of fact, the negative perceptions towards writing revealed students' feelings of frustration, anxiety, stress, and lack of self-confidence. Accordingly, the present study revealed the necessity for the implementation of strategies concerning the writing ability in the EFL context. I intend to show readers a research project involving ICT as a means of instruction in the EFL scenario to enhance language skills, namely, writing. The rationale for the project lies in how significant it might be to conduct English classes using ICT to develop students' writing fluency under the paradigm of action research method in the framework of a qualitative study; concerning language, the writing process wheel proposed by Harmer (2011) was the approach in this research proposal. The research question that guided this study was:

To what extent can computer-assisted language learning (CALL) influence the writing skill of A2 learners at a public university?

Theoretical Framework

Nowadays, Information and Communication Technologies appear as a strategy to improve learners' difficulties in order to provide students' growth in the writing skill. In the same fashion, Chang, Chang, Chen & Liou; Fidaoui, Bahous & Bacha; Goldberg,

¹¹ Tecnologías de la información y la comunicación

Russell & Cook; Liou, and Shang (cited in Liu, 2013) agree that “the use of technology has also long been introduced to complement traditional writing classes” (p. 302).

How to regard writing?

Being able to write and read is the ability people associate with literacy. According to Hyland (quoted in Harmer, 2011), people used to see someone as literate if they could manipulate “a set of discrete, value-free technical skills which included decoding and encoding meanings, manipulating writing tools, perceiving shape-sound correspondences, etc. which are acquired through formal education” (p. 323). A person without the skill to write is disqualified in a wide range of social roles (Tribble, 1996). In the past, the lack of this literacy deprived people to achieve personal and professional goals. Nowadays, people live in a globalized world where being competent is a key factor in order to accomplish one’s objectives.

The term writing is defined in several ways; for example, Quintero (2008) states that “it is a sublime moment when words come into our minds and we struggle to connect and put them together to give meaning to the thousands of ideas that are running into our heads” (p. 10). On the other hand, Mitchell (cited in Quintero, 2008) claims that “it is a process of discovering and creating meaning” (p. 39). When writing, a series of processes such as thinking about what to say, how to say it, and how to write, makes students think critically about the process of writing taking into account grammar, vocabulary, coherence, among others aspects gained after language exposure. In the same fashion, Quintero (2008) points out that teachers and students acknowledge the importance of having good writing skills.

Writing as a process

The process of teaching writing can be measured as a writing process. It plays an important role in the main objective of the task and the final outcome, and it is more focused on the creation of meaning. Nowadays, many English teachers plan their classes following a process approach; this pays attention to the various stages that any piece of writing goes through (Harmer, 2011). Similarly, it requires the teachers and learners to follow a series of steps that the author names as Planning, Drafting, Editing and Final version, as represented in figure 1:



Figure 1. The Process Wheel. Writing process cycle developed in this action research. Taken from “The Practice of English Language Teaching” by Harmer, 2011, p. 326. Copyright 2011 by Pearson, Longman.

According to the writing process wheel, students plan their ideas as the first step in the writing wheel moving forward around the circumference. From each of these stages, the learners have the opportunity to:

- (a) Check language use (grammar, vocabulary, linkers)
- (b) check punctuation and layout
- (c) check spelling
- (d) check writing for unnecessary repetition of words and/or information
- (e) decide on the information for each paragraph and the order the paragraphs they should be in
- (f) note down various ideas
- (g) select the best ideas for inclusion
- (h) write a clean copy of the corrected version
- (i) write out a rough version (Harmer, 2011, p. 326).

Additionally, the writing process wheel permits learners to review material backwards and forwards among the stages to produce a good piece of work (Tribble, 1996). Correspondingly, White and Arndt (cited in Harmer, 2011) affirm that “writing is re-writing... re-vision seeing with new eyes” (p. 326). Similarly, the writing process wheel allows learners to move around the circumference to consider at the first or last stage any improvement in their written productions.

The main purpose of the writing process approach is to let students put into practice a good written production bearing in mind the writing process wheel. Consequently, Barnett (1992) points out that “looking at writing as a process also implies understanding writing as a series of drafts and considering the endeavor of writing, that is: prewriting, writing, and rewriting” (p. 18). However, it is necessary to

think how we can encourage our students to write, particularly, using writing strategies in which different kinds of paragraphs can be used such as the ones displayed in figure 2:

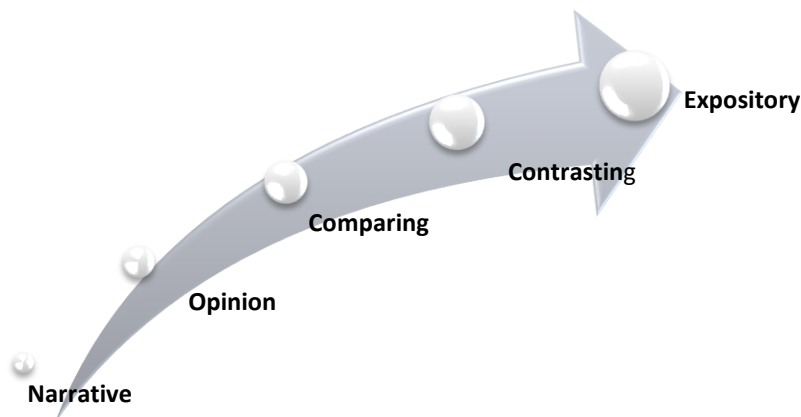


Figure 2. Writing Strategies. Classification of paragraphs developed in this action research.

Each of these paragraphs enhance students' writing ability by being able to describe an issue narrating a person's life, giving an opinion about current situations and trends in the world, comparing and contrasting facts that imply the analysis of reality, explaining in detail a preference through main and supporting ideas to defend one's views of the world. All of these kinds of paragraphs determine students' correct use of lexis, grammar, and content permitting them to gain motivation, self-confidence and building their writing habit in English. Going back to figure 1 about the writing process wheel, the role of each stage is presented in the following sections.

Planning. This stage deals with the use of key words and vocabulary to start writing. According to Harmer (2004), before starting to write or type, participants try and decide what information will be discussed. Particularly, "for some participants this may involve detailed information, for others a few jotted words may be enough" (Harmer, 2004, p. 4). Consequently, when planning, the writer has to think about the purpose of the writing, the audience and the content structure. These three main components will drive the planning to write the drafting stage.

Drafting. "We can refer to the first version of a piece of writing as a draft" (Harmer, 2004, p. 5). The drafting stage connects the ideas from the planning in a whole; particularly, it is the action where the participants convince and show their ability to join words coherently. At this stage, they are able to recycle vocabulary, to use as many resources as they want to enrich their paragraphs, thus enhancing their writing fluency.

Editing. It refers to the process of revision made by the students after receiving feedback from the teacher. The stage of editing implies that the text will be amended as many times as possible in order to produce the final version. According to Harmer (2004) “once writers have produced a draft, they then usually read through what they have written to see where it works and where it doesn’t” (p. 5).

Final version. It deals with the last version students come up with after following teachers’ feedback. At this stage, it is expected that students produce a good written production taking into consideration grammar, content, and vocabulary. Harmer (2004) says that “once writers have edited their draft, making the changes they consider to be necessary, they produce their final version” (p. 5).

Students’ role inside an ICT-supported writing process model

Ministerio de Educación Nacional in Colombia has undertaken several projects concerning the issue of ICT in the classroom aiming to bring technology to every Colombian place by improving the educational process, reducing dropouts, and increasing academic achievement, thus training teachers and citizens in the use of ICT (Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 2012) providing students opportunities to interact with technological sources. For example, Rojas (2011) declares that students improved the writing skill, because “they consider it could be learned by taking advantage of technological resources such as computers, blogs and web pages” (p. 13). The outcomes reported that students feel they had developed writing more than the other language skills because they had been in touch with English through readings, guides, texts, among other items.

Under the approach of ICT, the introduction of tools in the educational system aims to bring new experiences that promote language learning and interaction in the 21st century; that is why El Ministerio de Educación Nacional in Colombia has designed several tools to enhance students’ learning. Consequently, the role of the students within the learning of English process is affected because of circumstances that permit them to create a desire to learn “perhaps the learners love the subject they have chosen, or maybe they are simply interested in seeing what it is like” (Harmer, 2009, p. 20).

Callister and Burbules (cited in Diaz & Jansson, 2011) agree that new technologies not only constitute a set of tools for the service of teaching and learning activities, but they make up an environment, a space, a cyberspace, in which human interactions take place (p. 10, translated). Additionally, computer language teaching programs offer the opportunity to study texts, perform grammar and vocabulary and motivate learners to use the language by interacting in a different scenario. For instance, Diaz and Jansson (2011) point out that in Chile the technological means have been an extraordinary advance in the teaching and learning of languages, particularly with the use of texts accompanied by CD ROM where images, videos, lexicons, information and programs are stored in order to perform all kinds of exercises (p. 10, translated). Thus, students have progressed in each of the skills permitting them to express freely using the vocabulary exposed.

On the other hand, affective factors are those feelings characterized by a large portion of emotional involvement such as *self-confidence*. As stated by Brown (2000) “self-confidence refers to learners’ beliefs that they are indeed capable of accomplishing a task”; he suggests teachers should “sustain self-confidence where it already exists and to build where it doesn’t” (p. 62). Further, Hayes (pointed out in Cushing, 2002) says that:

Motivation and affect play a relevant role at the moment of writing. That is, “a writer’s goals, predispositions, beliefs, and attitudes, and cost benefit influence the way a writer goes about the task of writing and the effort that will be put” (p. 25).

How to conceive ICT?

The ICT have gained more significance in the last two decades. This predominance has evolved in such a manner that they have become an indispensable tool in our daily life, for instance, in our educational environment. On the one hand, according to UNESCO (as cited in García & Marin, 2013):

The term ICT is plural referring to a great many technologies and it is an all-encompassing term that includes the full gamut of electronic tools by means of which we gather, record and store information, and we exchange and distribute information to others (p. 428).

ICT became a priority for educational policies, teaching and learning a foreign language has become an issue of importance in our country. Hence, different efforts have been made with the purpose of keeping up with these current challenges and responding to the actual needs of the inhabitants.

El Ministerio de Educación Nacional in Colombia (2013) says that TIC (Spanish acronym for ICT) is the abbreviation of *Information and Communication Technologies* defined as “the set of resources, tools, equipment’s, IT programs, applications, networks, that allow the compilation, processing, storage, transmission of information as voice, information, text, video and images” (p. 8, translated). The use of these gadgets might enrich the practices in the EFL context by providing meaningful and interesting input to support language learning. Haddad and Draxler (2002) say that “different ICTs have the potential to contribute to different facets of educational development and effective learning: expanding access, promoting efficiency, improving the quality of learning, enhancing the quality of teaching, and improving management systems” (p. 9).

In this way, computer-assisted language teaching and learning enhances teachers’ practices and students’ independence, participation, and motivation towards language learning, that is, it plays an important role in the learning setting.

El Ministerio de Educación Nacional in Colombia (2013) argues that the use of technology in the classroom can contribute to learning in several ways; for example:

(a) to enrich learners' environment using material that calls their interest, (b) to grant major freedom to explore, analyze and build their knowledge, (c) to stimulate their imagination, creativity and critical thinking, (d) to offer updated and proper information, (e) to facilitate a scientific comprehension of the social and natural phenomena, and (f) to enable multisensory learning experiences. (p. 19, translated).

In that sense, facilitators can contribute to teaching and learning by using computers in the classroom in the development of the writing skill. Further, the use of the computer in EFL scenarios has had a great importance for teaching, learning, practicing, and testing purposes among ELT (English Language Teaching) researchers and pedagogues according to Alsied and Pathan (2013).

El Ministerio de Educación Nacional in Colombia (2013) explains that it is necessary to have better educational virtual contents in order to strengthen the processes of training in the use of new technologies since it is an essential element in the process of teachers' training towards language innovation along with the learning of a foreign language, so that people can face the challenges of the 21st century (p. 15). Additionally, the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) (quoted in Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 2013) claims that "the effective use of technology is paramount for teaching and learning in this digital era" (p. 22, translated).

There are a number of reasons for using the computer in the classroom; for instance, testing, working with multimedia content, using authentic material, etc. These advantages might empower teachers' teaching strategies and motivate students towards the language learning itself. The use of the computer in the classroom offers the opportunity for teachers and learners to interact in a meaningful and interesting way, taking into account that "the net generation, today's 'digital natives,' are 'bathed in bits' from birth, clutching remote controls, computer mice, and cell phones from an early age" (Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 69).

Nowadays, computer technology brings a set of advantages to promote and enhance languages skills. For example, it permits learners to develop their language competences by interacting with authentic material in an interesting and meaningful way. Additionally, it is one of the most effective tools to teach writing. For instance, Cunningham (2000) indicated that his students deemed the writing class more productive when they used word processing software, thus 88% of his students asserted that they had improved their writing skill and were more aware on the aspects of grammar, vocabulary and the language structures. Correspondingly, Kasper (stated in Alsied & Pathan, 2013) revealed similar results which highlight the usefulness of the computer towards writing development. Furthermore, studies drawn from Van Leeuwen and Gabriel (as cited in Sandolo, 2010) indicate that "attitudes toward the writing they

did in their classroom were positive; they were enthusiastic writers both on and off the computer” (p. 423).

Today, as mentioned in Álvarez (2012) “with advances in information and communication technologies (ICT), and the constant development of interactive and multimedia dynamics on websites and e-learning platforms, new alternatives can be used to overcome students’ reading and writing problems” (p. 185). The use and potential of blogs, for example, has spread to the university context, including subjects and courses that specifically focus on reading and writing skills. Therefore, it is important to introduce the notion of writing through a platform.

Writing in platform

Allowing students to move away from a paper and pencil towards the use of ICT gives new possibilities of interaction and learning since it modifies traditional ways of communication opening better relationships between teachers and students, mainly because students are more skilled at technology. Hence, it is necessary to take advantage of promoting activities or tasks where students feel comfortable by using tools they know well. Also, it increases students’ current knowledge, expanding their vocabulary and grammar patterns and permitting them to move at their own pace.

In this action research project, the use of a platform worked as a main vehicle for language instruction in order to enhance writing skills by being able to write different kinds of paragraphs helping students to have fewer mistakes concerning the aspects of spelling, tenses, word order, word choice, verb agreement, coherence, organization, among others.

Specifically, the platform used in this research was *Quia*, which is an online educational platform that offers the possibility to design language lessons in an interesting manner where the facilitator can use diverse tools such as challenge board, cloze, columns, hangman, pop-ups, matching, word search, columns, rags to riches, jumbled words, picture perfect, ordered list, and patterns.

In this project, all of the previous tools were used along the implementation process, enhancing students’ writing skills by interacting with each skill. For instance, students were advised to do the activities as they were presented, since each exercise was designed with the main purpose of helping students to gain lexis, grammar and content to develop the planning, drafting, editing and final version. First, some examples were shown as models for students’ final outcomes. Second, students interacted with the tools in order to expose them to the topic and grammar. Thirdly, they moved into the writing process wheel to produce their final product.

Each workshop was designed with the objective of helping students to write different kinds of paragraphs by comparing and contrasting ideas, providing opinion, retelling information, and describing experiences. Each of the mentioned strategies under the use of *Quia* assisted learners to write while interacting with its tools. For

instance, the writing process wheel in each of the workshops permitted students to move step by step to produce a neat and clear piece of work. Each workshop gave students different opportunities to work on grammatical components using the platform and the writing process wheel.

The following figures are some of the exercises used during the research project. Figure 3 provides students information about important sportsmen in the world; they needed to read and guess who the person was, while enhancing the use of the past simple tense. Additionally, it represents a model for student to produce in their final written production. Figure 4 gives students the chance to play by recalling previous information in order to compare and contrast ideas.

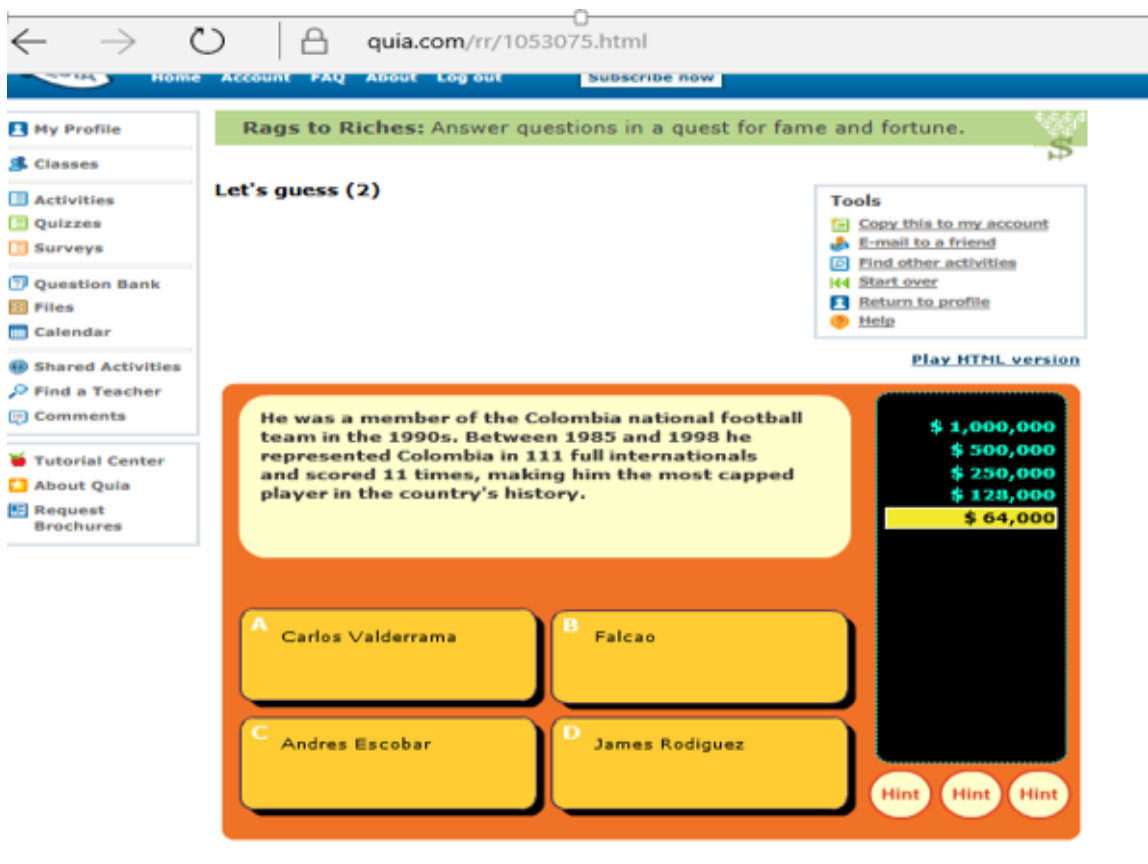


Figure 3. Rags to Riches. Reviewing past simple through famous sportsmen.



Figure 4. Challenge Board. Comparing and contrasting.

Assessing the writing skill

What does it mean to test writing ability? According to Hughes (pointed out in Cushing, 2002) “the best way to test people’s writing ability is to get them to write” (p. 1). Nonetheless, designing a good test of writing contemplates a number of key questions that will let the participants and the teachers know the usefulness of the task.

Principally, when designing a writing test, the first step to consider is what we plan to test for. Similarly, Bachman and Palmer (cited in Cushing, 2002) point out that “when testing in writing the primary purpose is to make inferences about language ability and the second purpose is to make decisions based on those inferences” (p. 40). “It is virtually impossible to comment on what is right or wrong in what a learner has done without conveying some kind of assessment” (Ur, 2003, p. 242). According to Johnson and Johnson (2002) “assessment involves collecting information about the quality or quantity of a change in a student, group, class, school, teacher, or administrator” (p. 2). In the same fashion, Ur (2003) claims that “most of the feedback we give our learners is ongoing correction and assessment with the aim of bringing improvement” (p. 244). In this sense, the role of assessment and correction aims to gather evidence about learners’ progress in order to provide some perfection. Jones (2005) says that “assessment for learning is all about informing learners of their progress to empower them to take the necessary action to improve their performance” (p. 5).

Methodology

The type of study in this research was under the paradigm of qualitative research which is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2008); that is to say, qualitative research is more aligned to people's behaviors. Along with this, this study employed the action research model which aimed to develop the writing competence in the English language. Accordingly, this study passed through phases such as planning, action, reflection and observation as stated by McTaggart (as discussed in Burns, 2010).

In terms of planning, a set of lesson plans were designed in order to help students to progress in the English language considering the linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence, specifically considering the writing skill; each of these lessons focused on enriching students' repertoire and progress in the writing skill; as stated by White and Arndt (1996) "writing is far from being a simple matter of transcribing language into written symbols, it demands conscious intellectual effort, which usually has to be sustained over a considerable period of time" (p. 3).

In accordance with the Action Research model, the reflection stage in each lesson concentrated on the issues of analyzing and writing down the behaviors of the participants that occurred in the learning scenario concerning their writing skill. The instruments designed in order to gather the information during this research were the following: a questionnaire, diaries, observations, lesson reports, and surveys. Consistent with Creswell (2008), the researcher collected the raw data results from three different instruments: the diary, the observation and the questionnaire. Firstly, a questionnaire was given to the students in order to identify their perceptions towards the writing skill considering their experience, interests, aptitudes, and feelings. Secondly, a diary was kept by the teacher to write down those events that occurred in the lesson while under the use of ICT and writing. Thirdly, a non-participant observer was invited to the classes to analyze language behaviors while using the online commercial platform while writing. Additionally, a lesson report was carried out taking into consideration the results of the main task of the lesson in relation to the number of students who completed the exercise and the kind of problems in their written production. Finally, learners were assigned to complete a Likert scale questionnaire about the lesson, mainly about writing in platform. Table 1 summarizes the data collection instruments used in both the diagnostic and the action stages of this research project:

Table 1
Data collection technique

Data collection Technique	Data collection instrument	Rationale
Diagnostic stage	Likert Questionnaire	This instrument was completed to know students' experience in the writing skill; precisely, language exposure, feelings, and feedback.
	Survey	To explore students' interests and wants using Information Communication Technologies (ICT) to develop their writing fluency.
	Observation	To collect students' behaviors when writing using the computer; specifically, the practice of online dictionaries, the use of the right button, the speed at the keyboard, use of L1, among other aspects.
	Diary	To mirror language behaviors taken place in the learning scenario; that is, students' attitudes working with the computer and their reactions towards the activities along with teacher's impressions of why certain attitudes happened.
Action stage	Likert questionnaire	To see students' perceptions towards the class using the Quia platform and the process writing wheel; namely, planning, drafting, editing, and final version.
	Lesson report	To analyze students' written performance by means of the writing rubric from the institution; specifically, spelling, word order, word choice, missing subjects, meaning, along with the rubric proposed by Hughey et al. (1981); for example, content, vocabulary, organization, and mechanics.
	Observation	To examine students' attitudes when working on the Quia platform and its tools such as hangman, challenge board, survey, and quiz to develop the tasks using the writing process wheel.
	Diary	To gather teacher's insights about the lesson taking into account the strategy used, students' attitudes working on Quia and the actions taken place at the writing process wheel.

Note: Data collection instruments in diagnostics and action stage.

At the diagnostic stage and the initial cycle of the implementation, a ground approach (Freeman, 1998) was adopted for data analysis in which the codes or categories were named according to what they represented. For the last seven cycles corresponding to workshops 2 through 7, data were analyzed on the basis of the a priori approach also suggested by Freeman (1998) according to which the already established categories of analysis were maintained in the data analysis procedures. Accordingly, a triangulation was carried out in order to confirm validity and reliability among the instruments and the three sources of information, in this particular study, the researcher's view, the observer's view and the students' view. In summary, the data analysis consisted of the following: Firstly, the information was encoded. Secondly, it was categorized mainly by identifying similarities. Later, the number of frequencies was counted in each of the instruments. Then, they were organized in a chart identifying the codes, the operationalization, and the occurrences in the diary, the observation, the

questionnaire and the lesson report along with the percentages. Finally, an interpretation was given.

Participants

This study was carried out in a regular English course at the Institute of Foreign Languages (ILEX) at Universidad Tecnológica de Pereira. This course had 12 students whose ages ranged between 17 and 25 years old; there were seven men and five women. These learners belonged to different programs at the university, namely, Recreation and Sport Sciences, Sustainable Tourism, Children Pedagogy, Industrial Engineering and Music. These learners came from different social strata; specifically, strata 2 and 3 and lived in the city of Pereira and surrounding towns. They were initially assigned to the course by the university Registrar Office according to their request for preparation in EFL.

Research stages / Phases of the study

The current situation of EFL in Risaralda is made evident in the project called *The State of the Art of the English Language Teaching in Public High Schools in Risaralda* whose main focus was to declare the relevant aspects of the English language subject in terms of language use, procedures and perceptions. The goal of this research was, then, to describe and interpret the participants' perceptions around English language teaching and learning as well as the tendencies in instruction and the role of the foreign language and the mother tongue in the classroom. Consequently, it is relevant to mention that this study was part of a project that belongs to an educational public policy called *Proyecto de bilingüismo: intervención colegios alma mater*, implemented by the Ministerio de Educación Nacional in Risaralda in 2011, whose aim was to increase and promote the learning of English in the Department in order to have citizens competent in the language. This study intended to respond to the first stage of the Risaralda bilingual project which attempts to represent and describe the realities of the English teaching in public institutions, with the purpose of establishing a reference that will contribute to the development of the next phases of the project Risaralda Bilingüe. Precisely, this study carried out in Santa Rosa de Cabal in 2012 by López and González revealed how English language teachers were conducting their classes considering the aspects of classroom management, use of L1 and L2, lack of ICT, and lesson planning; the conclusions from this study led to the proposal of the present study to focus on the implementation of ICT in the development of the English language, specifically the writing skill.

Diagnostic stage. In order to explore and identify the problems students were having in the English learning setting, a set of data collection research procedures were carried out; first, students were asked to complete a Likert scale questionnaire in a survey that included open-ended questions. Second, an observation was carried out by an outsider in order to perceive students' reactions towards the exercises about their strengths and weaknesses in their language performance. Finally, a diary was completed

and aimed to recall the main aspects of the lesson bearing in mind students' reactions and behaviors concerning their performance.

On the one hand, the students, the observer and the teacher agreed on the fact that there were two kinds of perceptions towards writing that illustrate two language views. Firstly, the information collected displayed *negative perceptions towards writing* because of lack of practice, lack of feedback, frustration and insecurity. Second, the category *positive perceptions towards writing* indicated that students liked English and they expected to be exposed to this skill with more frequency and with more tools or strategies from the teachers.

On the other hand, the category *lack of exposure to the writing skills* revealed that learners did not have enough opportunities to work on it which impeded their development of written exercises. Besides, the *lack of lexis in the L2* pointed out that the learners did not have enough vocabulary which prevented them from achieving the activities assigned for the writing process in the EFL class.

Additionally, the category *lack of writing skills* suggested that students were not skilled at the writing skill because they displayed serious problems in spelling, word order, tenses, connectors, and coherence. These weak grammatical, syntactic and semantic patterns did not provide the command students need when writing.

Action stage. The action stage of the present research project about the influence of ICT in the development of writing skills consisted in the implementation of six writing workshops and an evaluation stage, in which the use of a commercial internet platform was used to provide students with rehearsal on the main aspects required for the writing skill in response to the approach proposed by Harmer (2011). Each workshop was designed according to the program template which emphasizes a holistic view of learning incorporating linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic objectives. This exposes students to meaningful tasks aligned to their daily life experiences following the steps of engaging, studying and activating through Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach to improve writing skills. The workshops corresponded to a pre-stated lesson planning approach established in the curriculum to which this proposal about ICT and the writing process wheel was adapted.

Evaluation stage. In order to wrap up and evaluate the impact of the platform on this research project about the writing skill of A2 level EFL students, an evaluation stage was carried out after the implementation of the six workshops in which the learners were exposed to the writing wheel (Harmer, 2011). A lesson was planned to explore and describe the students' performance, achievements, and difficulties in the process of learning English, specifically concerning the writing skill and the writing process wheel which comprised linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competences. The results can be read in table 2 along with the operationalization and the amount of frequencies from workshop 1 to workshop 7.

Table 2
Triangulation of categories in workshop 1 to workshop 7

Codes	Operationalization	WORKSHOPS						Evaluation	TOTAL	%
		W1	W2	W3	W4	W5	W6			
1.CALL Benefit	Code describes the use of the computer along with the platform and the usefulness in order to enhance students' written production	23	15	17	17	19	20	22	133	21,5 %
2.Efficient final version	Code describes the achievement of the final task after being exposed to the process writing cycle.	0	18	15	16	15	18	19	101	16,3 %
3.ICT Tool use	Code describes the use of power point presentation, word document, online dictionaries, use of the right bottom, the use of application on the platform, web or computer along with the tools provided by the platform.	9	11	14	13	14	15	18	94	15,2 %
4.Efficient Drafting	Code describes students' ability to write by themselves to complete the writing task.	0	11	11	14	15	15	16	82	13,2 %
5.Efficient Planning	Code describes the information to be written down in the drafting stage such the best ideas for inclusion, simple and compound sentences	0	12	11	12	14	14	16	79	12,8 %

6.Efficient Editing	Code describes instances of improvement after students' taking into account feedback from teacher	0	10	9	11	10	13	14	67	10,8 %
7.Lack of writing skills	Code describes the lack of grammatical, semantic, syntactic, morphological patterns students have when writing.	17	11	10	9	7	5	4	63	10,2 %
	Total	49	88	87	92	94	100	109	619	100 %

Note: Triangulation of categories in evaluation stage.

Table 2 indicates that there was significant progress, specifically in the categories *CALL Benefit*, *Efficient Final Version*, *ICT Tool Use*, *Efficient Drafting*, *Efficient Planning*, *Efficient Editing* and *Lack of Writing Skills*, and that there were steady frequencies throughout the implementation and the evaluation stages.

Findings

In order to account for the way A2 learners communicate through writing in platform, information was collected from the instruments already mentioned: a diary, an observation, a Likert questionnaire, a lesson report and a survey. The findings showed the usefulness of ICT in the EFL classroom in order to improve students' writing performance and vocabulary along with their willingness and confidence towards the writing process wheel to write different kinds of paragraphs.

First of all, students showed interest and enthusiasm working with the activities proposed using the *Quia* platform; in those activities, learners practiced vocabulary, grammar, and were enrolled in some games where their attitudes indicated that they enjoyed and learnt from it. Additionally, it was an engaging tool since it was new for the students in terms of language practice; the exercises gave the learners the chance to see vocabulary and expressions that could be acquired and taken into account in the final version of the paragraphs. The platform was a key factor that positively affected the students' commitment and willingness to complete the written tasks. Writing was easier for student when compared with their performance in paper and pencil tasks; this helped them to improve their perceptions about the writing skill. Students stated that the content on the platform, aligned with the exercises and grammar, was fruitful because they could develop the assigned tasks expressing their ideas with more linguistic tools. Plus, they were able to recall information from the platform by going back and forth which helped them perform better in their written portions; they used the vocabulary worked covered in the lesson, they went back to some exercises to check grammar, words, expressions, connectors, and they connected the ideas from the platform to

develop their own discourse. Moreover, they gained confidence when writing the first version of their paragraphs; they were skilled at writing on the computer since they came up with their ideas in a faster and more logical manner. Consequently, when some help was required, they performed better because of collaborative learning. Another important finding was related to efficient language feedback which permitted them to write opinion, narrative, expository, and contrasting and comparing paragraphs about various topics. These paragraphs were useful in the sense of enhancing students' writing ability because the learners made significant progress in spelling, mechanics, punctuation, and language coherence. A progressive reduction in the frequencies of the category *lack of writing* skills provided evidence of the positive impact of the ICT exposure on the learners' writing production; this was also confirmed by the same reduction of occurrences in most of the errors in the assessment rubric used by the researcher in each workshop.

Thus, the continuous practice of language forms with the help of the *Quia* platform assisted the learners to include in their writing productions linking words, connectors, transition sentences, and vocabulary with a significant reduction of both grammatical and syntactic errors, producing coherent paragraphs that displayed a logical sequence of ideas.

El Ministerio de Educación Nacional in Colombia (2004) states that the use of technology in the classroom enriches the learner's environment and allows them to experience new knowledge from traditional classes. Throughout the workshops, students' work evidenced that the online activities provided by the platform were sufficient since they did not require additional online web pages to develop the exercises; the paragraphs written by the students provided showed that they incorporated in their discourse words, expressions, and connectors rehearsed in the platform. According to their testimonies in the different data collection instruments, the computer lab was interesting and the use of the platform was innovative in their language learning process, which confirms how Huberman (cited in Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 2013) characterizes innovation "as new practices that are taken to the classroom even when they have been carried out in other places" (p. 17, translated).

Additionally, in the early stages of this project the students' outcomes were characterized by their poor performance in the writing skill; specifically, they did not connect ideas coherently, they wrote without planning, they lacked vocabulary and grammar, they took time writing on the keyboard, they were unsure about what to write, and they described the process of writing as a tedious and stressful skill. Their performance suffered from poor lexis, morphological, syntactic, and grammatical patterns. In the diagnostic stage, they revealed that they did not receive enough advice in their written production which impeded them to develop their written portions. As a consequence, they did not know if what they were writing was right or if an improvement was needed. Likewise, Harmer (2001) points out that "one of the things students expect from the teacher is an indication of whether or not they are getting their English right" (p. 59).

After the interventions, students' behaviors and attitudes or affective factors changed dramatically regarding writing along with their written performance. Each member of the collaboration has access to others' mind and knowledge, imbuing the task with a sense of shared goals. Besides, the editing stage assisted students to pay attention to the aspects of spelling, word order, word choice, tenses, proper use of subjects, capitalization, vocabulary, structure, organization, content, and mechanics to develop a good piece of work. Particularly, it was seen that learners improved their performance after the process of revision which is congruent with Ur's ideas (2003) that "most of the feedback we give our learners is ongoing correction and assessment with the aim of bringing improvement" (p. 242). They were able to write independently, having a good command of lexis and grammar acquired from the platform; what is more, their attitudes towards writing changed because of the writing process wheel. More precisely, learners found it easier to write because they had vocabulary and grammar to develop their ideas in a coherent way. Accordingly, this finding ratified that CALL (as stated in Liu, 2013) enhances language learning; specifically, in the following areas:

Language functions (Beatty, 2003; Chang, 2005; Crook, 1994), greater levels of participation (Gonzalez-Bueno, 1998), reduce anxiety (Kessler, 2010; Ritter, 1993), and promote more motivation and interest and greater autonomy (Chang, 2005; Kessler & Bikowski, 2010; Leakey & Ranchoux, 2006; Vinther, 2011) (cited in Liu, 2013, p. 301).

Tables 3 and 4 illustrate the results of assessment in workshop 1 and improvement in workshop 6.

Table 3
Writing rubrics

Results of assessment of draft		Results of assessment after edition	
Codes	Number of errors	Codes	Number of errors
S = Spelling	11	S = Spelling	2
W. O= Word order	4	W. O= Word order	0
W.W= Wrong word choice	4	W.W= Wrong word choice	1
T= Tense	10	T= Tense	2
? M= Meaning	7	? M= Meaning	1
λ =Missing subject	11	λ =Missing subject	2
C= Capitalization	3	C= Capitalization	0
Vocabulary	3	Vocabulary	1
Structure	4	Structure	1
Organization	3	Organization	0
Content	0	Content	0
Mechanics	8	Mechanics	2

Note: Comparison of assessment results in draft and edited paragraph in workshop 1.

Table 4
Writing rubrics 2

Note: Comparison of assessment results in draft and edited paragraph in workshop 6.

Results of assessment of draft		Results of assessment after edition	
Codes	Numbers of errors	Codes	Numbers of errors
S = Spelling	6	S = Spelling	2
W. O= Word order	2	W. O= Word order	0
W.W= Wrong word choice	4	W.W= Wrong word choice	1
T= Tense	4	T= Tense	1
? M= Meaning	2	? M= Meaning	0
Λ= Missing Subject	0	Λ= Missing Subject	0
= C Capitalization	0	= C Capitalization	0
Vocabulary	3	Vocabulary	1
Structure	1	Structure	1
Organization	0	Organization	0
Content	0	Content	0
Mechanics	2	Mechanics	1

Tables 3 and 4 exemplify the mistakes found in the first version of students' draft and the results after editing it. The edited version of the paragraphs in the first workshop led to a significant reduction of errors mainly in spelling, tense, meaning of texts, and the missing of the subject in sentences. According to the students' comments in the questionnaire, this aspect was a result of the *Quia* platform during the edition stage of the writing wheel in which the feedback of the teacher was of paramount importance. That progress was mainly made thanks to the different activities provided by the platform; for instance, games which according to the students' attitudes were useful in order to do the activities actively. Each of the exercises on the platform provided learners with the necessary input to develop their written portions, allowing them to use the expressions worked on in the activities without the necessity to interact with other online pages. This is very reliable taking into consideration what Olshtain (2001) indicates about matching tasks and other word games that students can practice on the computer: "it enables the learners to develop effective recognition habits based on distinctive graphic features, many of these have the form of games, puzzles, and other "fun" activities" (p. 212).

The implementation of this research provided evidence that ICT and EFL curriculum can be included in lesson planning to improve language teaching and learning conditions; six workshops with their corresponding lesson plans provided the program with new possibilities to articulate language and ICT; 12 sessions in which 48 word games were played, 48 language exercises were completed, 24 reading comprehension tasks were carried out not only helped the participants to improve their writing skills, increase their vocabulary inventory, and build confidence towards the

writing skill, but also become pedagogical tools that both teacher and students took advantage of for the improvement of their environment.

The use of the computer lab supported the development of language skills, since the varied exercises had a significant influence in learners' language performance. This fact showed that the combination of ICT and EFL teaching strategies as a curriculum innovation aligned the institution with current trends and policies in education according to which technology is used to raise the students' level of interest and their language proficiency. This means that the proposal had a positive impact in the setting by promoting ICT in response to international, national and local guidelines and policies aiming at reducing the digital divide (Ministerio de tecnologías de la Información y las Comunicaciones, 2013) in the educational system. In the implementation of this proposal it is important to highlight that the learners had full access to technological resources in the institute and this represented significant progress concerning ICT and bilingualism objectives considered in the local, regional, and national development plans.

Conclusions

The implementation of technological resources such as computer, video beam, tape recorders, and networks increases students' interest, enthusiasm and language understanding and command. These kinds of resources encourage students to interact with the language in an interesting and different way assisting them to grasp meaning easily. Moreover, the use of text material, images, videos, and audios in EFL lessons focused on writing leads students to more achievements; the implementation of strategies such as prediction and linking words help them learn vocabulary, grammar, syntactic rules, and semantic principles. The use of these resources is strongly suggested to motivate, engage, and activate students' knowledge at all levels in the educational system.

The use of commercial platforms that provide students opportunities to rehearse language material has a relevant influence on students' performance because it helps them improve syntactic, morphological, and grammatical patterns. Online tools help students process information and rehearse language forms within different approaches according to language skills, for example the writing process wheel. These ICT tools raise students' interest in the foreign language in a meaningful and engaging manner, allowing them to interact with the language in context.

The use of the English computer lab in the traditional classroom provides language learning with additional strengths because students are skilled at computer operation and know how to navigate useful online web pages which represents a positive influence of ICT in curriculum design and development; teachers, administrators, and policy makers in boards of education should encourage the strengthening of ICT use for language teaching in order to lead the students to higher level of proficiency stemming from their digital citizenship condition.

The usefulness of the writing process wheel with the support of an online platform increases students' ability to write in English. The planning stage permits students to increase their vocabulary; it allows students to plan their ideas using key concepts, simple or complex sentences which help them to establish a framework to be developed in the drafting stage. Moreover, it encourages students to ritualize their written productions by planning in advance which words to consider. Teachers should promote the writing habit in the classroom by teaching students to follow the stages in the writing process wheel so that they improve their style following a logical sequence in the organization of their ideas. Similarly, teachers are invited to include the ICT-assisted writing process wheel as a strategy in their lesson plans to motivate students to write so that they gain confidence writing in English.

The writing process wheel in combination with ICT tools such as online platforms augments student's confidence, letting them come up with coherent and logical ideas. Students have more time to think, rethink, revise, edit, and incorporate feedback into their writing production than they do when working with traditional resources and strategies. Besides, interaction with ICT resources, tools, and applications makes students feel confident with the language by having a support represented in feedback, correction, modelling, examples, and the like that help them achieve common language goals. I strongly recommend including ICT-based methodological teaching and learning strategies in the EFL curriculum in all institutions, so that students can work independently while acquiring writing skills.

The writing process wheel assists English teachers and students towards the improvement of the writing skill because each stage permits learners to think critically and revise their written portions as many times as possible to get a better performance. This teaching learning strategy ratifies the theory proposed by White and Arndt (1991) that writing is "re-writing...re-vision" seeing with new eyes which is a main characteristic of the writing process wheel to help learners to become better at writing. It is essential that teachers provide opportunities to write in the classroom so that students can develop each of the stages, all of them should be under observation so that teachers can guide the process making it more meaningful. This enhances language aims because the teacher is aware of what students are doing giving them a hand in the activities with the support of ICT tools. In addition, this fact helps students to carry out activities in the expected way which, according to Harmer (2001) "is one the things students expect from the teacher: an indication of whether or not they are getting their English right" (p. 59). Teachers should monitor students' activities also when they are using ICT tools to make sure they are on the right route; otherwise, to direct them ahead in the task.

All in all, the use of Information Communication Technologies (ICT) influences students' writing skill because it motivates them to write, augmenting their enthusiasm, motivation and self-confidence; additionally, the use of ICT permits them to increase their awareness of syntactic, morphological, and grammatical patterns when providing their points of view. The importance of the present study lies in the fact that it serves as a basis for further studies of the writing process wheel cycle with the use of ICT.

Furthermore, this study may inform readers about the actions, perceptions, roles of ICT, students' and teachers' roles, teaching tendencies, and techniques used in the English language teaching contexts in one public university.

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Uso del diario interactivo para fomentar la escritura en ELE: Volviendo al papel y al lápiz

The Use of the Interactive Journal to Foster Writing in Spanish as a Foreign Language: Returning to Paper and Pencil

José Villalobos

josev@dbu.edu, josesv_ve@yahoo.com

Licenciado en Educación, Mención Idiomas Modernos, Universidad del Zulia, Maracaibo, Estado Zulia, Venezuela, M.A. en Lingüística Aplicada a la Enseñanza de Lenguas (Estudios del Lenguaje), The University of Lancaster, England, Ph.D. en Educación, Enseñanza de Lenguas Extranjeras, Lingüística Aplicada, Investigación Cualitativa, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, U.S.A., M.A. en Lingüística Hispánica, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, U.S.A.

Associate Professor of Spanish College of Humanities and Social Sciences, Dallas Baptist University, Dallas, TX 75211

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Resumen

La escritura es considerada por algunos investigadores como una actividad mental algo compleja y, por ello, un poco difícil de desarrollar, sobre todo en una lengua extranjera. En el contexto del aula de clases de una lengua extranjera, en ocasiones, los estudiantes inscritos en cursos de español necesitan producir textos escritos y esta actividad les causa cierto grado de angustias y frustraciones. Un grupo de estudiantes de español inscritos en el curso de Español Intermedio II no fue la excepción. La presente investigación es un estudio de casos de corte cualitativo que realicé con estudiantes de español como lengua extranjera, a nivel de pregrado. En dicho curso, implementé el diario interactivo como estrategia pedagógica. El estudio tuvo como propósitos principales investigar: 1) hasta qué punto uno de mis estudiantes estaría motivado a producir textos escritos utilizando el diario interactivo y 2) la calidad y cantidad de sus producciones escritas. 16 estudiantes participaron en este estudio, pero solo reporto los resultados de uno de ellos, ya que es un estudio de casos. El estudio incluyó observaciones, notas de campo y dos entrevistas semi-estructuradas con el propósito de triangular toda la información. Los resultados de esta investigación demostraron que los estudiantes mejoraron la organización del pensamiento y de sus ideas mientras escribían en sus diarios, desarrollaron una actitud positiva hacia la escritura en español y utilizaron el diario interactivo para generar temas y así producir composiciones más

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extensas en español para expresar sus pensamientos y sentimientos en relación a temas que se discutieron en clase. Al final del trabajo, presento algunas recomendaciones de tipo pedagógico para el uso del diario interactivo en cursos de español como lengua extranjera.

Palabras clave: *escritura, español como lengua extranjera, diario interactivo, motivación*

Abstract

Writing is considered by some researchers as a somewhat complex mental activity and therefore rather difficult to develop, especially in a foreign language. In the context of a foreign language classroom, students enrolled in Spanish courses need to produce written texts and this activity provokes in them a certain degree of anxiety and frustration. Students of Spanish enrolled in Intermediate Spanish II were no exception. In this paper, I present the results of a qualitative case study that I conducted with undergraduate students of Spanish as a foreign language. In this course, I used the interactive journal as a pedagogical tool. The main purposes of the study were to investigate: 1) the extent to which one of my students would be motivated to produce written texts, using the interactive journal and 2) the quality and quantity of their written productions. Sixteen students participated in this study, but I only report the results of one of them since this is a case study. After observations, field notes and two semi-structured interviews, I triangulated all the information. The results of this research showed that students improved the organization of their thinking and their ideas as they wrote in their journals, developed a positive attitude towards writing in Spanish, and used the interactive journal to generate topics whilst producing longer compositions in Spanish to express their thoughts and feelings based on topics discussed in class. To conclude, I offer some pedagogical recommendations for the use of the interactive journal in Spanish-as-a-foreign-language courses.

Key words: *Writing, Spanish as a foreign language, interactive journal, motivation*

La escritura es una de las actividades mentales más complejas y, por lo tanto, una de las más difíciles de desarrollar (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Wang & Wen, 2002). Algunos investigadores (Graves, 1991; Graves & Stuart 1985; Harste, Short & Burke, 1988; Kibler, 2010; Langer & Applebee, 1987; Myles, 2002) que han estudiado tanto la naturaleza como el desarrollo de la escritura han concluido que esta involucra múltiples decisiones que debe tomar un escritor como parte del proceso para producir un texto escrito. Pero, para tomar decisiones y comenzar a escribir, los escritores deben estar lo suficientemente motivados para así sobrevivir a las angustias y frustraciones que causa el proceso que ocasiona poner ideas en un papel (Atkinson, 2003; Raimés, 1983). Estos autores y sus investigaciones acerca del proceso de la escritura tanto en lengua materna como en otras lenguas, fueron pioneros en esta área del conocimiento, sus ideas continúan vigentes y son fundamentales cuando se trata del acto de escribir y del nivel de motivación de los estudiantes en el momento de producir un texto escrito.

Al estudiar el proceso de la escritura en estudiantes de inglés como lengua extranjera (ILE), Raimés (1983) concluyó que los escritores que escriben en otro idioma sufren las mismas angustias y frustraciones por las que atraviesan los escritores que escriben en su lengua materna. Además, los escritores de una lengua extranjera tienen los mismos problemas que los escritores de una primera lengua, a las que se suman otras dificultades como la falta de vocabulario, el desconocimiento de las estructuras sintácticas y retórica de la otra lengua y el poco dominio de los giros lingüísticos propios de cada idioma.

Planteamiento del Problema

En ocasiones, los profesores de lenguas extranjeras les exigen a sus estudiantes inscritos en cursos de español a nivel universitario que produzcan textos escritos sin tomar en cuenta las limitaciones, angustias y frustraciones por las que atraviesan muchos de los estudiantes (Atkinson, 2003; Raimés, 1983). Como resultado de estas constantes frustraciones, el estudiante de una lengua extranjera no se siente realmente motivado para enfrentarse a la difícil tarea de escribir textos en una lengua extranjera.

Un grupo de estudiantes de español como lengua extranjera inscritos en un curso de Español Intermedio II de una universidad ubicada en el sur de los Estados Unidos en la cual laboro no fueron y, todavía no son, la excepción. Las frustraciones que experimentaban algunos estudiantes, y que ellos mismos me comentaban, me motivó a buscar diferentes alternativas para animarlos más a escribir en una lengua extranjera y así tratar de ayudarlos a desarrollar y mejorar su escritura en forma general. Para ello, decidí implementar el “diario interactivo” (la definición del “diario interactivo” se presenta en la siguiente página) (Beach & Anson, 1993), actividad que se ha utilizado en el desarrollo de la escritura en inglés como primera lengua en escuelas norteamericanas. Se ha constatado que muchas de las técnicas pedagógicas que se utilizan en salones de clase para desarrollar la escritura en una primera lengua pueden ser adaptadas y usadas en salones de clase para mejorar la escritura en una lengua extranjera (Atkinson, 2003; Hyland, 2007; Kelly, 1984; Krashen, 1984, 2005; Myles, 2002). Estos autores explican que la escritura libre para generar ideas, los mapas semánticos y los esquemas para la organización de las ideas, la redacción y revisión constante de borradores y la edición de los mismos son técnicas y actividades que se pueden fácilmente utilizar en cursos de lenguas extranjeras para ayudar a los estudiantes en la producción de textos escritos.

Varios investigadores (Bloch & Crosby, 2008; Bolter, 1991; Lee, 2010; Sun & Chang, 2012) se han ocupado de explorar el impacto que tiene la utilización de algunas tecnologías de la comunicación y de la información (TIC) en sus aulas de clases en la promoción y desarrollo de la escritura en una lengua extranjera. Los resultados de estas investigaciones, en su mayoría, nos indican que los *blogs*, por ejemplo, han sido herramientas que motivan a algunos estudiantes a desarrollar la habilidad de la escritura (Sun & Chang, 2012). El uso del *blog* por parte de profesores de lenguas extranjeras se ha popularizado en los últimos años, y algunos estudiantes en este siglo XXI utilizan las TIC y las redes sociales con otra finalidad, cuando las comparamos con el el uso

tradicional de los blogs, en particular, para estar en constante contacto con amigos y familiares y no, precisamente, con propósitos académicos — mucho menos, para desarrollar la escritura (Krashen, 2005). Tomando en consideración estas ideas y la actual realidad, me propuse realizar un estudio, utilizando una técnica pedagógica la cual denominé “diario interactivo”, estrategia que puede ser considerada —si se quiere— un poco ortodoxa, puesto que implica bien sea el uso permanente de un diario escrito en un cuaderno físico y lápiz. Algunos profesores considerarían esta estrategia un poco desactualizada ya que, hoy en día, se usan diferentes programas de computación como WORD, por ejemplo, y todas las opciones que este programa brinda como los autocorrectores y otras, para ayudar a los estudiantes de una lengua extranjera a mejorar su escritura. No obstante, Mueller and Oppenheimer (2014) condujeron un estudio para comprobar qué tan efectivo es el uso de las computadoras portátiles por parte de estudiantes, en comparación con el uso de papel físico y lápiz o tinta para producir textos escritos y para el aprendizaje en general. Estos investigadores llegaron a la conclusión de que si bien es cierto que el uso de las computadoras permite que los estudiantes escriban más rápidamente, escribir a mano en papel físico y con lápiz o tinta permite que los estudiantes sean más selectivos en la información que deseen plasmar en el papel al tiempo que posibilita el desarrollo del procesamiento cognitivo al efectuar la actividad física de escribir.

Es aquí donde entra el uso del diario interactivo en mi clase de español como lengua extranjera. El diario interactivo, como explicaré más adelante, se basa en la idea de Beach & Anson (1993) para la promoción y el desarrollo de la escritura en inglés como lengua materna.

Propósito del estudio

El siguiente trabajo es el resultado de una investigación de tipo cualitativo que realicé con estudiantes de español como lengua extranjera, a nivel de pregrado. El estudio tuvo como propósitos principales investigar: 1) hasta qué punto uno de mis estudiantes de español estaría motivado a producir en forma escrita utilizando esta estrategia pedagógica y 2) la calidad y cantidad de producción en sus textos escritos.

Este trabajo es un estudio de casos que se basó principalmente en el uso del diario interactivo como herramienta para motivar a los estudiantes a escribir y producir composiciones en una lengua extranjera. Ya que este trabajo es un estudio de casos, el propósito del mismo no es representar todo el universo, sino representar el caso solamente (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2017; Stake, 1994; Yin, 2014). Un estudio de tipo cualitativo nos permite extraer descripciones a través de las observaciones que adoptan la forma de entrevistas¹², narraciones, grabaciones, transcripciones de audio, registros escritos producidos por los propios actores que interactúan en un contexto determinado. Estos datos descriptivos parten de las palabras, escritas u orales, de las personas observadas y de la conducta observable que éstas despliegan (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2017;

¹² Las entrevistas que tuve con los estudiantes se realizaron en inglés y luego hice las transcripciones y traducciones al español.

Creswell, 2014; Taylor & Bogdan, 1996; Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2016). En este trabajo se reporta el caso de John –seudónimo que usaré de ahora en adelante–, un estudiante quien, al igual que sus compañeros, no es un escritor asiduo en inglés y tiene un conocimiento intermedio del español equivalente al nivel B1, según el Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas Modernas (MCERLM).

¿Qué es un “diario interactivo”?

En 1993, Beach & Anson definieron al “diario interactivo” como el intercambio de ideas entre un lector y un escritor a través de la lengua escrita en un formato que les permite a ambos mantener una conversación acerca de un tema o tópico. Estos autores argumentaron que el uso constante del “diario dialógico” como técnica pedagógica permite un diálogo permanente entre el maestro y el estudiante a través del intercambio de ideas utilizando la escritura como medio de comunicación. En este sentido y en esta investigación, el diario interactivo –como actividad de enseñanza/aprendizaje– promueve la escritura y establece interacciones sociales entre un escritor y un lector, desarrollándose, de esta manera, el aspecto social del lenguaje (Fairclough, 2013; Heath, 1983; Vygotsky, 1978).

En este estudio, el diario interactivo se refiere a la interacción constante entre un profesor y un estudiante a través de las entradas que escribe un estudiante en un cuaderno, bien sea físico o digital, y los comentarios que provee el profesor en respuesta a esas entradas. De esta manera, el profesor y el estudiante se comunican a través de la escritura (Cassany, 2005). El profesor debe presentar el diario como una actividad en clase y podría permitir que los estudiantes aprovechen de diez a quince minutos dentro del aula una o dos veces por semana para escribir una entrada, normalmente, de género descriptivo/narrativo (Beach & Anson, 1993). Cuando los estudiantes se han familiarizado con el procedimiento de escribir una entrada en el diario, el profesor puede también asignarla como tarea para la casa. Después de que los estudiantes hacen sus aportes al diario, el profesor las debe leer y responder de manera puntual. Ya que el objetivo central de la actividad es la intimidad y/o privacidad a través de la palabra escrita, el profesor no debe corregir la ortografía, la gramática ni el contenido. En lugar de corregir, debe modelar la buena escritura en sus respuestas o comentarios (Beach & Anson, 1993).

El diario se ha utilizado en diferentes formatos desde la educación griega y romana hasta la actualidad (Autrey, 1987). Rohman (1965) recomendó la implementación del diario como una herramienta para la etapa de pre-escritura y lo utilizó para que sus estudiantes desarrollaran textos escritos con bastante rapidez no solo en cantidad sino también en calidad.

Antes del advenimiento de las máquinas de escribir y de las computadoras, el uso del lápiz o tinta y papel era la única manera de comunicarse usando la palabra escrita. Las opciones que nos ofrecen en estos momentos las diferentes herramientas tecnológicas hacen que la implementación de un diario en papel físico se vea como algo obsoleto y sin sentido. Ahora bien, todos sabemos que la población juvenil actual en los

distintos niveles de la educación, a saber, primaria, secundaria y universitaria, utilizan la palabra escrita a través de mensajes por correos electrónicos o usando cualquiera de las redes sociales existentes. Esto significa que a medida que las personas se vuelven hábiles en el procesamiento de palabras a través del uso de las redes sociales, la escritura a mano se convierte en algo desactualizado. En este sentido, Ardila (2004) nos indica que el uso de las computadoras, y de cualquier herramienta tecnológica, sigue reemplazando rápidamente a la escritura a mano como el principal modo de comunicación. El chat, el correo electrónico, los mensajes de texto y las diversas aplicaciones de chat actuales son todos los medios de componer y comunicar mensajes escritos; estos –evidentemente– dejan a un lado el uso del papel y lápiz. Yancey (2009) afirmó que el siglo XXI será conocido como una era en la cual a los estudiantes, por lo general, no se les enseñará a escribir necesariamente a través de la instrucción formal en aulas de clases, sino que usarán un proceso llamado co-aprendizaje en el cual los estudiantes escriben textos auténticos usando diferentes tecnologías de la información y comunicación (TIC), pero que estos textos no son –en la mayoría de los casos–, ni gramaticales, ni de contenido sustancioso, ni muy extensos.

Yancey (2009) sugirió que el estudio de la escritura debe ser restaurado en tres pasos. Primero, los profesores deben utilizar todas las estrategias posibles para promover las habilidades de la escritura. El segundo paso es diseñar un modelo para un plan de estudio de la escritura. El último paso incluye la creación de nuevos modelos que les permitan a los estudiantes comunicarse utilizando todas las estrategias y técnicas disponibles dentro y fuera del aula de clases. Esta es la esencia del desarrollo de la enseñanza de la escritura. En 2007, Lenhart propuso el uso del diario como una actividad decisiva, sobre todo después de leer un texto, bien sea un poema, una narración o cualquier otro tipo de género literario. Este autor manifestó que la actividad de escribir refleja un aprendizaje permanente y que el uso constante del diario por parte de escritores se puede ver reflejado en la calidad del escrito.

Cuando los estudiantes toman notas a mano y desarrollan un texto escrito usando papel y lápiz, pueden mejorar la capacidad de retención, característica que no ocurre en muchas ocasiones cuando algunos escritores usan una computadora, ya que muchos escritores solo tienden a transcribir automáticamente sin procesar lo que redactan (Lee, 2010; Mueller & Oppenheimer, 2014; Myles, 2002). Sin embargo, son pocos los estudios que se han llevado a cabo para investigar el impacto de volver al papel y al lápiz para fomentar el desarrollo de la escritura, sobre todo en una lengua extranjera. Por otro lado, la mayoría de las investigaciones realizadas en el campo de la escritura en una lengua extranjera se han llevado a cabo usando métodos cuantitativos o una combinación de métodos cuantitativos y cualitativos (Bloch & Crosby, 2008; Bolter, 1991; Lee, 2010; Mueller & Oppenheimer, 2014; Sun & Chang, 2012). Es por eso que en este trabajo se usó el estudio de casos bajo el paradigma cualitativo de la investigación con el propósito de analizar y reportar lo que sucedió con un estudiante en particular mientras escribía en su diario utilizando únicamente papel y lápiz. De aquí la importancia de llevar a cabo esta investigación a fin de analizar cómo los estudiantes de español como lengua extranjera desarrollan la escritura y producen textos escritos, usando el diario interactivo.

Inicios de la investigación: Precisiones metodológicas

En las primeras clases de uno de mis cursos que enseñé en el semestre de primavera de 2017, observé que una estudiante de español, Michele (seudónimo utilizado en esta investigación), escribía sin cesar en un cuaderno bastante grueso. Mientras los demás estudiantes revisaban sus celulares, Michele estaba concentrada en su actividad de escritura; ella sólo levantaba su cabeza para mirar por la ventana, seguir reflexionando y continuar escribiendo. Fue muy interesante observar cómo Michele escribió tres páginas de una manera fluida en tan poco tiempo. Después de interrumpirla y preguntarle lo que hacía, Michele me contestó: “Escribo en mi diario las experiencias que tuve ayer.” Entablamos una corta conversación y me enteré de que ella escribía diariamente todo lo que le sucedía. Michele había empezado a escribir en un “diario” desde que tenía doce años y lo mantenía hasta este momento. Para Michele, la actividad de escribir en su diario y mantenerlo al día “formaba parte de su vida”, y ella disfrutaba al máximo esta actividad. Luego comprendí la razón por la cual Michele escribía con tanto gozo. Desde ese momento, comencé a reflexionar más detenidamente en la diferencia que existe entre aquellos estudiantes que disfrutaban del acto de la escritura cuando estos escriben algo que tiene significado y propósito para ellos, y aquellos estudiantes que rechazan la escritura porque la asocian con una actividad dolorosa, frustrante, relacionada con las asignaciones académicas y sin ningún significado personal.

Diseño de investigación

El diseño de esta investigación está concebido bajo el paradigma cualitativo que, por definición, ayuda a entender y explicar fenómenos de índole social dentro de su contexto natural o campo (Taylor & Bogdan, 1996; Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2016; Willis, 2007). Este campo no está controlado por el investigador y se encuentra libre de cualquier intervención y/o acondicionamientos previos (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2017; Creswell, 1994, 2014; Merriam, 2002; Rodríguez, Gil & García, 1996; Stake, 2000; Willis, 2007). El diseño que utilicé en esta investigación correspondió al estudio de casos, ya que permite entender una realidad social particular sin generalizar los resultados; es decir, se analiza un fenómeno específico en su ambiente natural y los resultados no son generalizables a otras situaciones o realidades sociales (Patton, 1990; Yin, 2014). Anderson (1998), Bogdan and Biklen (1992), Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault (2016), Stake (2000) y Yin (2014) entre otros, consideran como caso: una persona, una organización, un depósito de documentos, un programa de enseñanza, una colección, un acontecimiento particular, pero siempre dentro de un límite social o físico que le confiera entidad. En el contexto educativo, base de la presente investigación, el caso se refiere a un estudiante –John en este trabajo–, un docente, una clase, un claustro, un centro, un proyecto curricular, la práctica de un docente, una determinada política educativa, entre otros (Creswell, 2014; Willis, 2007).

Lugar y participantes de la investigación

Este estudio se llevó a cabo durante 16 semanas que conforma el semestre de primavera (enero-mayo) de 2017. En el estudio participaron dieciséis (16) estudiantes de nivel de pregrado inscritos en el curso Español Intermedio II, asignatura que forma parte del programa ‘Requisito de una Lengua Extranjera’(F.L.R.)² del Programa de Español de una universidad localizada en el sur de los Estados Unidos. Todos los estudiantes participaron de manera voluntaria y ningún estudiante se retiró del estudio. Aunque la investigación se llevó a cabo con los dieciséis estudiantes del curso, solo me concentré en uno de ellos, John. Esto lo hice con el propósito de documentar el proceso por el que John atravesó durante la realización de la investigación y enfocar dos aspectos del fenómeno en estudio: 1) su cambio (o no) en la percepción de la escritura; es decir, su actitud hacia la escritura y 2) el mejoramiento en la producción de sus textos escritos en español como lengua extranjera.

Cuando la mayoría de los estudiantes llegan a mi clase de Español Intermedio II, ya han estudiado este idioma por tres semestres en la universidad y su actitud hacia el aprendizaje del español no es, en general, muy positiva. Los estudiantes de carreras humanísticas de esta universidad del sur de los Estados Unidos deben cumplir con el requisito del estudio de una lengua extranjera por cuatro semestres como parte de su programa a nivel de pregrado. Muchas veces estos estudiantes no se percatan del propósito de estudiar una lengua extranjera, y es por eso que los profesores que enseñamos estos cursos de español no tenemos a nuestro favor el factor “motivación” –aspecto tan importante para el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera (Dörnyei, 2013; Ellis, 1985; Gardner, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Stern, 1983).

A principios del semestre les expliqué claramente a mis estudiantes lo que significaba un diario interactivo. También les expliqué que la actividad de escribir en sus diarios interactivos era complementaria y sin carácter de obligatoriedad. Negocié el formato a desarrollar con los alumnos y pronto éstos se dispusieron a escribir en sus diarios. También negociamos las veces que ellos debían entregarme sus diarios para que yo pudiera leerlos y responderles con comentarios en forma escrita. Acordamos que ellos escogerían el formato que más les agradara para escribir: cuaderno de notas o carpetas con hojas. También acordamos que ellos me entregarían sus diarios cuando ellos consideraran conveniente que yo los leyera, pero decidimos que ellos deberían entregarme sus diarios al menos una vez cada dos semanas durante el semestre. Si alguno de ellos consideraba que yo no debía leer una sección de los apuntes de su diario en alguna ocasión y por cualquier motivo, el o la estudiante debería sentirse en plena libertad para manifestármelo escribiendo la palabra *privado* al comienzo del apunte.

Cuando leía los diarios de mis estudiantes, nunca trataba de responder de una manera personal a cada uno de los apuntes que ellos escribían. Esta actividad es muy agotadora para el profesor en su función de lector/escritor. Sin embargo, trataba de

² Por sus siglas en inglés, FLR (Foreign Language Requirement).

reaccionar y responder a los diarios de mis estudiantes tan frecuentemente como podía ya que de esta manera mantendría un diálogo constante con ellos. En este sentido, se podría decir que, aunque decidí usar el estudio de casos como diseño de investigación para este trabajo, también usé la investigación-acción, puesto que reflexioné constantemente sobre mi práctica pedagógica y participé activamente como investigador en el desarrollo de este estudio (Elliot, 2000; Latorre-Beltran, 2007; Mills & Butroyd, 2014).

Los estudiantes sabían de antemano que yo no haría ningún tipo de corrección gramatical a lo que ellos escribiesen en sus diarios; es decir, mi propósito no era corregir ni los signos de puntuación, ni la acentuación, ni la sintaxis. Mi único propósito fue brindarles a los estudiantes la oportunidad de sentir placer en el momento de escribir y desarrollar la escritura a través del uso del diario. Los estudiantes también sabían de antemano que no habría ningún tipo de evaluación involucrada.

Recolección de datos

Como una forma de investigación cualitativa, el estudio de casos implica la realización de un trabajo de campo en el cual el investigador recoge datos que guardan estrecha relación entre ellos y entre los objetivos o propósitos del estudio. Estos datos le permiten al investigador descubrir, comprender y explicar la conducta de los actores que participan en la investigación en ese contexto específico (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2017; Creswell, 2014; Patton, 1990; Taylor & Bogdan, 1996; Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2016; Willis, 2007). En el presente estudio de casos, utilicé las siguientes herramientas etnográficas para la recolección de los datos: observaciones y notas de campo, entrevistas semi-estructuradas y documentos escritos.

Observaciones y notas de campo. Mis observaciones en el aula se iniciaron desde el principio y hasta el final del semestre. Realicé observaciones-participativas dos veces por semana, ya que eran las ocasiones cuando me reunía con los estudiantes en clase, por diez semanas para un total de veinte observaciones. Enfoqué las observaciones, principalmente, en la manera cómo los estudiantes abordaron el desarrollo de sus diarios en clase, así como también en las actividades grupales que ellos llevaron a cabo para hacer comentarios en los borradores y en las versiones finales de sus composiciones, las cuales fueron basadas en las entradas de los diarios. Durante mis observaciones, las notas de campo correspondieron a un registro escrito, en forma de tabla, de todas las actividades que se desarrollaron en el aula de clases. Anoté de forma muy detallada, todo lo que ocurría dentro del aula, específicamente, qué hacían los estudiantes antes de comenzar a escribir, durante la producción de sus textos y la revisión y edición de los mismos. También llevé un registro de la extensión de las producciones de cada uno de sus borradores. Fotocopié las entradas de los diarios, de sus borradores y de las versiones finales. De estas notas de campo, tomé aquellos datos más relevantes para los propósitos de esta investigación.

Documentos escritos. Comencé a implementar el uso del diario interactivo en mis clases de español. Para ello, les solicité a mis estudiantes que comenzaran y

mantuvieran un diario escrito a mano donde debían escribir sus ideas, reflexiones y conclusiones acerca de textos o artículos que yo les había asignado para leer y discutir durante el semestre. Los estudiantes debían incluir en sus diarios cualquier experiencia de aprendizaje que tuviera conexión directa con lo que estábamos discutiendo en nuestras clases. Inclusive, yo –como instructor– también empecé a escribir en mi diario, y fue entonces cuando comencé a hacer conexiones más directas entre lo que estaba leyendo en los textos y/o artículos, y mis propias experiencias de enseñanza y aprendizaje.

Les solicité a los estudiantes que me permitieran tener acceso a sus diarios cada dos o tres semanas. En cada ocasión que les regresaba los diarios a los estudiantes, ellos se sorprendían por la cantidad de comentarios escritos que les hacía, convirtiendo al diario en una manera para dialogar e interactuar entre el lector (el profesor), y los escritores (los estudiantes). Por supuesto, cada vez que les escribía comentarios en sus diarios, yo me convertía en lector/escritor y, de igual manera, mis estudiantes se convertían en lectores/escritores. No analicé la sintaxis en los textos ni corregí aspectos gramaticales; solo hice comentarios con respecto al contenido e hice preguntas en los márgenes de las hojas para que los estudiantes las respondieran y pudieran aclarar y expandir el volumen de sus textos escritos.

A medida que los estudiantes escribían más en sus diarios, sus textos escritos mejoraron considerablemente y, sobre todo, la actitud de muchos de ellos hacia la escritura en general cambió radicalmente. Esto me llevó a considerar el uso del diario interactivo como actividad pedagógica cotidiana para promover el desarrollo de la escritura en mis estudiantes de español como lengua extranjera, y a utilizar el diario interactivo como una herramienta para motivarlos a escribir y a cambiar su actitud hacia la escritura.

Entrevistas semi-estructuradas. En el presente estudio de casos empleé el tipo de entrevistas semi-estructuradas, ya que fueron las más apropiadas para complementar y profundizar la información proveniente de mis observaciones en el contexto educativo específico del curso de español como lengua extranjera. A lo largo del estudio, llevé a cabo dos entrevistas semi-estructuradas a los dieciséis estudiantes. Apliqué estas entrevistas una al inicio del semestre y otra al final del mismo, las grabé en mi celular y las transcribí posteriormente en forma computarizada. En el Apéndice 1 presento los temas tratados en estas entrevistas.

Entregué las transcripciones a cada estudiante para su consideración final. En las mismas incluí igualmente el seudónimo de los informantes, las preguntas del investigador y las respuestas a las mismas por parte de los estudiantes, al igual que la fecha y el lugar donde efectué dichas entrevistas. Todas las entrevistas, tanto la realizada al principio del curso como al final, tuvieron una duración de veinte minutos aproximadamente y fueron grabadas en audio en mi teléfono móvil; las llevé a cabo en el aula de clases o en otro recinto disponible cercano al aula bien sea al final de las clases o en otro momento según la disponibilidad de tiempo del informante.

El propósito principal de la primera entrevista semi-estructurada, realizada a finales del mes de enero de 2017, fue conocer los conceptos y percepciones de los informantes sobre la escritura en español en sí. La segunda entrevista semi-estructurada que apliqué, llevada a cabo en el mes de abril de 2017, tuvo como propósito principal conocer las percepciones de los informantes en cuanto al uso del diario interactivo como actividad que les permitió desarrollar la escritura en español. También mantuve algunas conversaciones informales con los informantes, las cuales me permitieron ahondar en sus percepciones con respecto a las actividades pedagógicas realizadas durante el semestre y sobre los propósitos y la pertinencia de las mismas. Igualmente, permitieron ampliar información sobre los temas y aspectos tratados en las entrevistas semi-estructuradas.

Análisis e interpretación de los datos

En el presente estudio de casos, procedí de la siguiente forma para el análisis e interpretación de los datos: primero, leí la información contenida en mis notas de campo recabada durante las observaciones en el aula de clases; luego, con el uso de diferentes colores y siguiendo las ideas de Tribble (2013), categoricé la información recabada durante las observaciones y los contenidos de los documentos escritos por los informantes, a saber, las entradas de los diarios; para ello, utilicé un sistema de temas para categorizar la información. Este sistema de temas fue una modificación del que diseñó inicialmente Tribble (2013) para el análisis de textos académicos. En la versión que utilicé, exploré y enfatiqué las ideas que plasmaron los estudiantes en sus textos, relacionadas con sus sentimientos e interpretaciones de las lecturas que discutimos en clase. Seguidamente, analicé las respuestas de los estudiantes a las dos entrevistas semi-estructuradas aplicadas al inicio y al final del semestre; finalmente, triangulé las respuestas que los estudiantes dieron en la primera y segunda entrevistas semi-estructuradas con mis notas de campo (Merriam, 2002). Luego, correlacioné los hallazgos basados en la triangulación de la información para establecer los patrones que emergieron del análisis de los datos obtenidos de las entrevistas semi-estructuradas y la información que los informantes incluyeron en sus entradas o apuntes de sus diarios. Todo esto con el fin de dar validez y confiabilidad al estudio (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2017; Creswell, 2014; Merriam, 2002; Yin, 2014). Emergieron dos categorías principales, las cuales fueron producto de los temas recurrentes en las diferentes herramientas de recolección de datos; de la primera categoría, se desprendió una subcategoría y todas ellas las explico detalladamente en la sección de los resultados.

Limitaciones del estudio

Ya que solo reporto los resultados de un solo estudiante, los hallazgos de esta investigación no pueden ser generalizados a otras situaciones de enseñanza/aprendizaje, ya que el estudio estuvo enmarcado dentro de un contexto socio-educativo específico; por lo tanto, los resultados de este estudio no pueden ser extrapolados a otros contextos socio-educativos (Patton, 1990; Yin, 2014). La cantidad reducida de datos que se obtienen en los estudios cualitativos se basan en descripciones y análisis muy detallados a partir de contextos o situaciones muy particulares y delimitadas, lo que no permite

replicar o comprobar los resultados obtenidos ni hacer generalizaciones de los mismos en otros contextos similares (Nunan, 1992; Yin, 2014). Sin embargo, los resultados obtenidos pudieran presentarse en contextos educativos similares o en niveles educativos diferentes al de esta investigación.

Resultados

Luego de haber leído los diarios de los estudiantes, haber hecho comentarios a los mismos y haber realizado las dos entrevistas semi-estructuradas con cada estudiante, observé como patrón general que los estudiantes que escribieron constantemente en sus diarios habían mejorado considerablemente el volumen de información consignada en el momento de escribir en español. Diez estudiantes descubrieron que la escritura tenía un propósito para ellos, mientras que seis de ellos manifestaron que la escritura había sido –y es– una herramienta de aprendizaje muy útil y valiosa (Calkins, 1986; R. Graves, 1988; D. Graves, 1994; Krashen, 2005; Myles, 2002; Walshe, 1987; Wang & Wen, 2002). Estos seis estudiantes también manifestaron en las entrevistas que tuve con cada uno de ellos que la actividad de escribir en sus diarios significó aprender a: enfocar mejor sus ideas y pensamientos, concentrarse mejor en un tópico específico que ellos estaban leyendo, organizar sus reflexiones acerca de una lectura y generar nuevas ideas mientras escribían. En una forma más concreta, la actividad de escribir en sus diarios interactivos ayudó a mis estudiantes a:

Mejorar la fluidez y organización de las ideas y desarrollar una actitud positiva hacia la escritura

Algunos investigadores (Atkinson, 2003; Cassany, 2005; Elbow, 1981; Emig, 1977; Flower & Hayes, 1982; Myles, 2002; Perl, 1980; Scardamalia, 1982; Wang & Wen, 2002) han estudiado el proceso de la escritura y han argumentado que existe una poderosa conexión entre el pensamiento y el texto escrito que los escritores van generando a medida que van escribiendo. Según estos investigadores, el acto de expresar nuestros pensamientos en una forma tangible en un texto escrito, genera nuevos pensamientos, lo cual conduce a la producción de más texto escrito. El simple hecho de expresar los pensamientos en forma escrita brinda al escritor la oportunidad de pensar, organizar dichos pensamientos y, eventualmente, aprender (Emig, 1977; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). A continuación, describo algunos de los progresos que encontré en John desde el momento que comenzó a escribir en su diario.

John fue un estudiante de español a quien no le gustaba escribir ni en inglés ni en español. Cada vez que yo le pedía a John que escribiera algo en español, él sólo producía algunas oraciones cortas, sin sentido y sin secuencia alguna. En una entrevista que tuve con John al principio del semestre, le pedí que escribiera algo en inglés. Le pregunté cuál era su actitud hacia la escritura en general; su respuesta fue la siguiente:

A mí no me gusta escribir ni en inglés y mucho menos en español. Yo odio la escritura ya que tengo que pensar mucho y luego gastar mi tiempo en algo que no tiene importancia para mí. Prefiero leer lo que mis

amigos colocan en Facebook y conversar con ellos de cosas alegres usando mi celular o mi portátil (Entrevista: enero de 2017).

Es evidente a través de estas palabras que a John no le gustaba explorar sus pensamientos y formular sus propias ideas; por el contrario, y como a la mayoría de los jóvenes en la actualidad, John se divertía interactuando con sus amigos a través de una de las redes sociales más populares en estos momentos. En la misma entrevista que tuve con John, me enteré de que la mayoría de las actividades de escritura a las que John había sido expuesto en cursos de inglés en la escuela primaria, en la escuela secundaria y, posteriormente, en cursos de español en la universidad, involucraban exclusivamente “hacer ejercicios en clase preparados anteriormente por el maestro,” las conocidas ‘hojas de ejercicios’, y “responder preguntas en los exámenes con oraciones cortas y sencillas.” A John nunca se le brindó la oportunidad de escribir sus propias ideas acerca de un tema en forma de prosa. Applebee, Langer, Mullis, Latham & Gentile (199) condujeron una investigación acerca del tipo de escritura que más realizan los estudiantes en las escuelas de los Estados Unidos. Estos investigadores llegaron a la conclusión de que la mayoría de los maestros a nivel de primaria y profesores a nivel de escuela secundaria sólo les exigen a sus estudiantes que “rellenen” las ‘hojas de ejercicios’ que los estudiantes reciben en clase, y respondan con oraciones cortas a preguntas que se les formulan en los exámenes escritos. Cuando John aceptó el reto de explorar sus ideas y pensamientos para luego expresarlos en forma escrita en su diario en español, él experimentó cambios en su actitud hacia la escritura. John también comenzó a utilizar su diario para darle forma a aquellas ideas que todavía no tenía claras en su pensamiento.

Antes de finalizar el semestre, tuve una segunda entrevista con John. Le pregunté de qué manera creía él que le había ayudado la actividad de escribir constantemente en su diario. John contestó lo siguiente:

Escribir en mi diario me brindó la oportunidad de saber que puedo escribir acerca de varios temas y no simplemente contestar preguntas en un examen, como lo hice muchas veces en la escuela secundaria. También me ha servido como herramienta para organizar mis pensamientos y expresar lo que quiero en forma escrita. He descubierto que he mejorado mi escritura en español y, por supuesto, en inglés. Ahora puedo escribir con más fluidez y rapidez mis ideas, pensamientos, mis sentimientos y mis emociones en español —algo que no es fácil para mí. Ya no me aburro tanto cuando escribo y hasta he comenzado un diario en inglés (véase Apéndice 2) (Entrevista: abril de 2017).

Nuestros estudiantes deben tener la oportunidad de explorar sus ideas y pensamientos y expresarlos en forma escrita. A través de su diario, John pudo desarrollar la fluidez en la escritura mientras exploraba sus pensamientos y, de esta manera, modificar considerablemente su actitud hacia la escritura.

Desarrollo de la técnica del “resumen”. En este trabajo se entiende el “resumen” como la producción de un texto escrito a partir de otro texto donde se incluye la opinión del escritor (Keck, 2006; Van Dijk, 1983). En esta clase de español, los estudiantes utilizaron sus diarios como herramienta para resumir algunas de las historias, cuentos y poemas que estaban leyendo durante el semestre, una película que vieron en el cine o en sus casas y ciertos apuntes que tomaron en algunas de sus otras clases en la universidad. Al respecto, John expresó lo siguiente en la segunda entrevista que tuve con él:

Fue extraño darme cuenta de que al escribir en mi diario en español podía utilizarlo también para resumir muchas de las ideas que estaba leyendo en los libros de texto, no solamente para mi clase de español sino también para mis otras clases. Creo que, sin querer, usé mis diarios, en español y en inglés, como los sitios perfectos para organizar mis apuntes, resumir mucha información que uno recibe de tantas clases y reflexionar sobre esta información mientras escribía (Entrevista: abril de 2017).

Estos estudiantes no “copiaron” textualmente de los textos que estaban leyendo o de lo que decían o explicaban sus profesores que dictaron sus clases. Por el contrario, utilizaron sus propias palabras y escribieron sus opiniones personales acerca de lo que leyeron, vieron y escucharon. En el Apéndice 3, muestro un ejemplo de cómo John desarrolló sus ideas luego de haber leído y discutido en clase un poema titulado *Corrida de toros en Ronda*, de Federico García Lorca, basado en la vida de Mariana Pineda, una gran heroína española quien fue símbolo de ‘libertad’ alrededor de 1820.

La actividad de escribir en los diarios interactivos también ayudó a mis estudiantes a:

Generar temas y preguntas para escribir composiciones más extensas. En algunos casos, los estudiantes utilizaron sus diarios para escribir de una manera “exploratoria e informal” (Elbow, 1973; Kibler, 2010; Lee, 2010). Este tipo de escritura no requiere que los estudiantes produzcan textos escritos bien estructurados y con una sintaxis impecable, ni tampoco que los estudiantes estén pensando en una audiencia o lector(es) que vaya(n) a leer lo que ellos han escrito. Por el contrario, los estudiantes escriben reflexionando a medida que van construyendo significado en forma escrita. En otros casos, algunos estudiantes escribieron en sus diarios para explorar y generar nuevas ideas, temas y preguntas para involucrarse en el proceso de la escritura y, finalmente, producir composiciones más formales y extensas. En la segunda entrevista que tuve con John, él manifestó:

Algo bueno de usar mi diario fue que podía –y puedo– escribir lo que quiero sin preocuparme por la gramática del español –o del inglés–. Solo escribí y escribí y las ideas fluyeron muchas veces sin pensar en cómo escribía las oraciones. También me di cuenta de que algunos de los temas para las composiciones que nos pediste (refiriéndose a José como instructor) en la segunda mitad del semestre, surgieron del contenido que

ya había escrito en mi diario. Ya estaban allí y no tuve que pensar mucho en esos temas. Solo enfoqué y restringí un poco el tema y comencé a escribir mi composición. ¡Fue fenomenal! El diario también me dio la oportunidad de lograr la extensión o cantidad de líneas en las composiciones que nos pedías durante el semestre. Este requisito me estresaba mucho porque no estaba acostumbrado a escribir tanto (Entrevista: abril de 2017).

Varios estudiantes coincidieron con John en que el uso del diario los ayudó a producir ideas en forma escrita sin preocuparse por los aspectos gramaticales o sintácticos de la lengua –hecho que pude comprobar en las respuestas que dieron estos estudiantes en sus entrevistas.

Aquellos estudiantes que tenían dificultades para seleccionar un tema para sus composiciones en español utilizaron algunas ideas generadas de la actividad de escribir en sus diarios. Estos estudiantes, con la debida orientación del profesor, hicieron listas de temas que incluyeron los aspectos que más les intrigaron y que querían investigar y desarrollar. Luego, seleccionaron uno de esos aspectos y se formularon preguntas acerca del tema seleccionado. Los estudiantes revisaron las preguntas que se habían formulado y generaron una lista de preguntas más específicas. Esta lista de preguntas a su vez dio origen a la utilización de técnicas de escritura como por ejemplo la “escritura libre” (*freewriting*) (Elbow, 1973), y el diseño de “mapas semánticos” (*semantic mapping*) (Heimlich & Pittleman, 1986). Según Elbow (1973), la técnica de la “escritura libre” motiva a los escritores a escribir tan rápidamente como sea posible cualquier idea o ideas relacionadas con un tema en particular. Es así como Elbow llega a la conclusión de que la actividad de escribir en un diario es sinónimo de escritura libre, ya que los escritores escriben de una manera espontánea acerca de cualquier idea o pensamiento por varios minutos. De esta forma, queda ilustrada claramente la relación directa entre la escritura y el pensamiento (Atkinson, 2003; Cassany, 2005; Elbow, 1973; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Graves, 1991; Krashen, 2005; Moffett, 1982; Murray, 1982; Myles, 2002). Una vez que los estudiantes comenzaron a escribir en forma libre acerca de la(s) pregunta(s) que querían desarrollar, empezaron a darle forma a sus composiciones y a tratar de cumplir con el requisito de la cantidad de líneas que les pedía en sus composiciones, las cuales eran 16 líneas al principio del semestre y 20 líneas al finalizar el mismo. En sesiones de clase destinadas a actividades de escritura, los estudiantes, con la ayuda del profesor, escribieron varios borradores. Estos borradores de las composiciones fueron revisados varias veces tanto por los mismos autores como por sus compañeros del grupo de escritura. Formamos cuatro grupos de escritura integrados por cuatro estudiantes en cada grupo. El objetivo principal de estos grupos de escritura fue leer y revisar los borradores de todos los integrantes del grupo. Estos grupos de escritura se reunían una vez por semana durante veinte minutos y, cada semana, se leía y revisaba un borrador. Todos los miembros de cada grupo ofrecían sugerencias tanto de contenido como de forma. Luego de leer y revisar varias veces todos los borradores, entonces, el estudiante presentaba al profesor una versión final de la composición (véase Apéndice 4). Vemos entonces que la actividad de escribir en los diarios no sólo dio origen a actividades de pre-escritura, escritura, revisión y edición de composiciones, sino que

también brindó oportunidades para que los estudiantes discutieran sus composiciones en forma oral. En este sentido, vemos cómo la escritura genera interacciones sociales a través de conversaciones entre los estudiantes (Fairclough, 2013; VanPatten & Benati, 2010; Vygotsky, 1978). Resultados de algunas investigaciones (Cazden, 1988; Elbow, 1973; Heller, 1991; Ur, 2015) han demostrado que cuando los estudiantes discuten en forma oral sus composiciones escritas, ellos ofrecen sugerencias para aclarar las ideas presentadas en las composiciones de sus compañeros.

Conclusiones

En cursos donde se promueve la escritura en español como lengua extranjera siempre ha existido el problema de motivar a los estudiantes a escribir (Atkinson, 2003; Gardner, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Hyland, 2007; Sun & Chang, 2012). Después de haber implementado el diario interactivo en mi clase de español como lengua extranjera, he llegado a la conclusión de que esta actividad es una manera eficaz para motivar a los estudiantes a expresar en forma escrita sus opiniones personales y sus pensamientos en una lengua extranjera. En muchos casos, esta actividad también ayudó a algunos estudiantes a desarrollar la escritura en inglés como primera lengua y a cambiar la actitud del estudiante hacia la escritura en general.

El diario ha sido una herramienta que se ha utilizado para promover la escritura tanto en primera lengua como en una lengua extranjera (Atkinson, 2003; Calkins, 1986; Cassany, 2005; Krashen, 1984, 2005; Myles, 2002; Raimes, 1983). Este estudio proporciona datos, a través de las respuestas suministradas por John –y por el resto de los estudiantes en las entrevistas–, que muestran que las actitudes de los estudiantes hacia la escritura en español como lengua extranjera pueden ser modificadas, y que las habilidades de escritura del estudiante se pueden mejorar con el uso del diario en un período de tiempo relativamente corto (Cassany, 2005).

La actividad del diario interactivo en esta investigación se pudiera catalogar como algo ortodoxa por algunos profesores e investigadores, ya que las herramientas tecnológicas con la que contamos en la actualidad son muy variadas, y el uso de muchas de ellas ha coadyuvado en el desarrollo de la escritura en una L2. Sin embargo, los resultados de este estudio coinciden con los encontrados en el estudio de Mueller and Oppenheimer (2014) al comprobar que volver al uso del papel y lápiz cambió la actitud de los estudiantes hacia la escritura en general y los motivó a desarrollar la escritura en español como lengua extranjera.

La implementación del diario interactivo por parte de los estudiantes, tanto dentro como fuera del aula de clases, también les permite a los instructores de español a nivel universitario colaborar con sus estudiantes en la consecución de temas para sus futuras composiciones, los cuales son –en ocasiones– difíciles de encontrar y desarrollar, sobre todo si los estudiantes no se sienten completamente motivados en el momento de producir un texto escrito en la lengua extranjera (Hyland, 2007).

El diario interactivo es una herramienta que también ayuda significativamente a los estudiantes a desarrollar y mejorar el vocabulario, tanto en la L1 de los estudiantes como en la L2 que ellos están aprendiendo y, en algunos casos, a que los textos que producen sean más extensos, objetivo que no es muy fácil de lograr con estudiantes cuando escriben en una lengua extranjera (Beach & Anson, 1993; Cassany, 2005; Lee, 2010). Los instructores podrían trabajar más de cerca con aquellos estudiantes que necesitan mejorar aún más ciertas habilidades específicas de la escritura como, por ejemplo, la selección de vocabulario, la sintaxis y otros aspectos gramaticales inherentes a la escritura. Elegir e incorporar el diario interactivo en la clase de español es una tarea individualizada que contribuye a mejorar las habilidades de escritura de los estudiantes de esta lengua (Cassany, 2005; Hyland, 2007; Lee, 2010).

Recomendaciones pedagógicas

A continuación, presento algunas recomendaciones de tipo pedagógico para el uso del diario interactivo en nuestros cursos de español, ya sea como primera lengua o como lengua extranjera:

- Explíqueles a sus estudiantes lo que significa el diario interactivo. Los estudiantes deben saber que la actividad de escribir en un diario interactivo les brinda la oportunidad de: explorar y expresar sus pensamientos; aclarar, modificar y expandir temas; explorar diferentes géneros de escritura y lograr fluidez en el momento de escribir; conectar la lectura, la escritura y el pensamiento en forma natural.
- Sugiera a los estudiantes que escriban en sus diarios interactivos por lo menos quince minutos diariamente. Los estudiantes deben internalizar que aprendemos a escribir escribiendo (Hyland, 2011) y que la escritura es una actividad que se va desarrollando a medida que la vamos realizando.
- Negocie con sus estudiantes el formato que ellos deseen utilizar para sus diarios. El diario interactivo puede tomar la forma de cuadernos de notas o bien hojas sueltas en carpetas.
- Explíqueles a sus estudiantes que sus diarios interactivos serán leídos y comentados, pero no evaluados. El carácter de evaluación de un diario puede entorpecer el objetivo principal de la actividad: desarrollar la escritura.
- Lea los diarios interactivos de sus estudiantes, pero respete aquellos apuntes o entradas que los estudiantes no quieran que se lean. Sugiera a los estudiantes que utilicen cualquier palabra que le indique al profesor el apunte o entrada que no debe ser leído, por ejemplo, el profesor puede sugerir a sus estudiantes que utilicen la palabra PRIVADO.
- No trate de responder de manera personal a cada uno de los apuntes o entradas que los estudiantes escriban. Esto puede agotar rápidamente al profesor en su función de lector/escritor. Sin embargo, responda o reaccione a las entradas tan

frecuentemente como pueda para así mantener el diálogo con los estudiantes.

Se necesitan más estudios en el área de la escritura en una lengua extranjera para así determinar otras estrategias pedagógicas que motiven a nuestros estudiantes a escribir, los ayuden a mejorar su calidad en la escritura y faciliten la enseñanza de esta modalidad del lenguaje, bien sea en una L1 o en una L2. También se necesita realizar más estudios para explorar si la implementación de diarios escritos de forma manual a través del uso de papel y lápiz, y no computarizada, es una estrategia pedagógica que motiva a los estudiantes de español como lengua extranjera de otras latitudes –y no solamente de los Estados Unidos– a producir en forma escrita.

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APÉNDICE 1

TEMAS TRATADOS EN LAS ENTREVISTAS SEMI-ESTRUCTURADAS

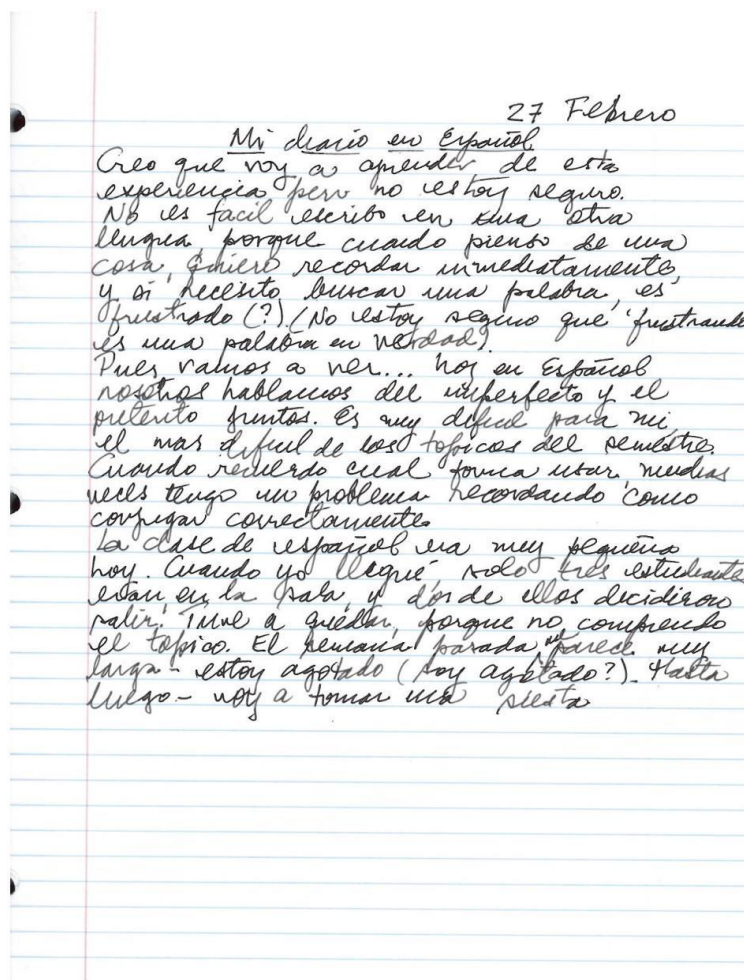
ENTREVISTA AL INICIO DEL ESTUDIO:

- Antecedentes personales y educativos del estudiante:
 - Nombre y edad del estudiante
 - Especialidad y subespecialidad
 - Asignaturas que cursa en el semestre
 - Concepto de escritura
 - Experiencias previas con la escritura en inglés
 - Experiencias previas con la escritura en español
- Motivación para escribir en inglés y en español
 - Razones para estudiar español
 - Razones para escribir en español
 - Percepción de su aprendizaje de la escritura en español
 - Expectativas que tiene de la clase de español que cursa en el semestre

ENTREVISTA AL FINAL DEL ESTUDIO:

- Expectativas de la clase – ¿se cumplieron?
- Percepción de su aprendizaje de la escritura en español – ¿cambió?
- Satisfacciones y frustraciones mientras escribía en el diario y en español
- Opiniones acerca de las actividades de escritura dentro y fuera del aula de clases durante el semestre

APÉNDICE 2



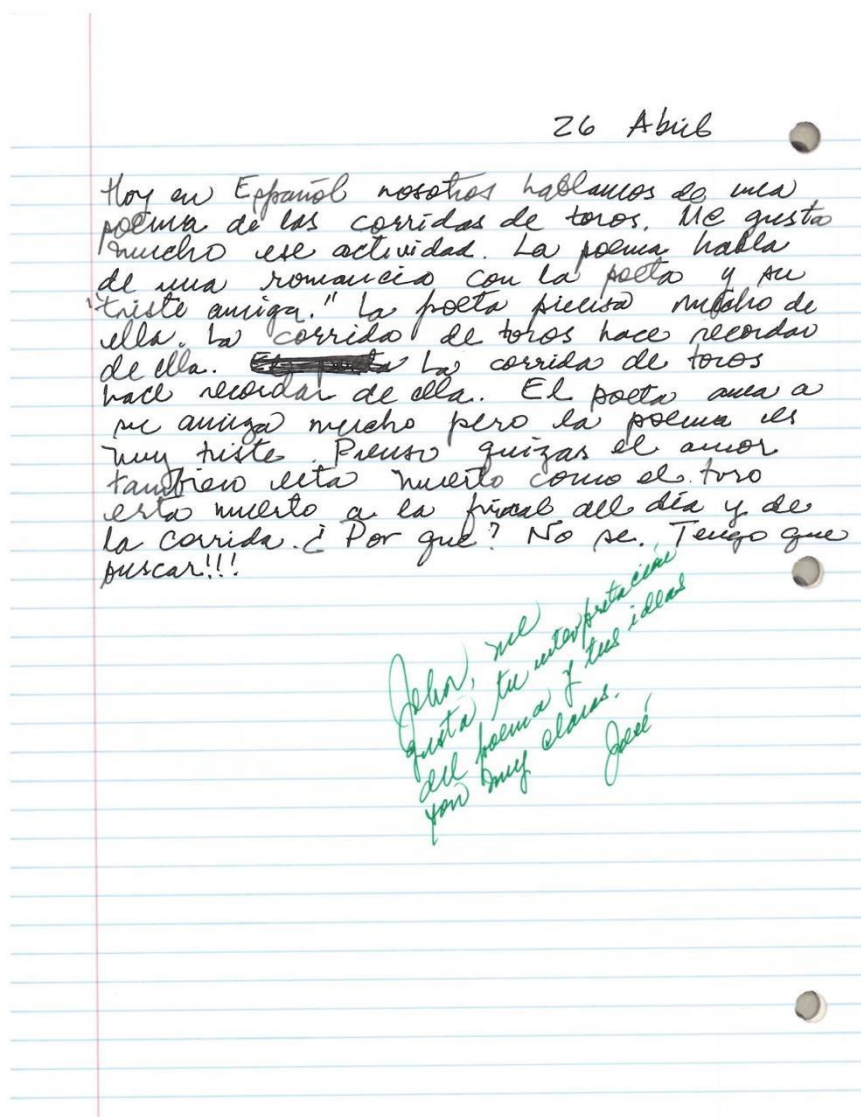
27 Febrero

Mi diario en Español

Creo que voy a aprender de esta experiencia pero no estoy seguro. No es fácil escribir en una otra lengua, porque cuando pienso de una cosa, quiero recordar inmediatamente, y si necesito buscar una palabra, es frustrando (?). (No estoy seguro que "frustrando" es una palabra en verdad).

Pues, vamos a ver... hoy en Español nosotros hablamos del imperfecto y el preterito juntos. Es muy difícil para mi, el mas difícil de los topicos del semestre. Cuando recuerdo cual forma usar, muchas veces tengo un problema recordando como conjugar correctamente. La clase de español era muy pequeña hoy. Cuando yo llegué, solo tres otros estudiantes eran en la sala, y dos de ellos decidieron salir! Tuve a quedar, porque no comprendo el topico. El semana pasada me parece muy larga - estoy agotado (soy agotado?). Hasta luego—voy a tomar una siesta.

APÉNDICE 3



26 Abril

Hoy en Español nosotros hablamos de una poema de las corridas de toros. Me gusta mucho ese actividad. La poema habla de una romancia con la poeta y su "triste amiga." La poeta piensa mucho de ella. La corrida de toros hace recordar de ella. El poeta ama a su amiga mucho pero la poema es muy triste. Pienso quizás el amor también esta muerto como el toro esta muerto a la final del día y de la corrida. ¿Por que? No se. Tengo que buscar!!!

(John, me gusta tu interpretación del poema y tus ideas son muy claras. José.)

APÉNDICE 4

05 Mayo

El poema habla sobre una corrida de toros en Ronda pero también habla de un poco de romance. Cuando el poeta refiere a su "triste amiga" pienso que el habla de una mujer y ese mujer es la objeto de su amor. El pensaba "siempre" de ella porque la corrida de toros hace recordar de ella. ¿Por que? No se exactamente. Primero, el poeta discute (?) los jóvenes y las niñas quien venian a la corrida y anticipan la pelea. Quizas cuando la poeta conocio a la mujer, ellos tambien estaban contentos. Segundo, la poeta habla de el torero, "el gran Cayetano." El tiene la ropa muy elegante de "plata y seda." Quizas el amor estaba como el "elegante y seda." Finalmente, el poeta habla de los toros y de como mueren. Quizas el amor tambien muere como los toros, como el dia, como el sol. El romance con dos personas es en ese poema. El toro y el amor mueren juntos. Este es muy triste. Pero quizas hay simbolo bonito - amor y corrida.

05 Mayo

El poema habla sobre una corrida de toros en Ronda pero también habla de un poco de romance. Cuando el poeta refiere a su "triste amiga" pienso que el habla de una mujer y ese mujer es la objeto de su amor. El pensaba "siempre" de ella porque la corrida de toros (le) hace recordar de ella. ¿Por que? No se exactamente. Primero, el poeta discute (?) los jóvenes y las niñas quien venian a la corrida y anticipan la pelea. Quizas cuando la poeta conocio a la mujer, ellos tambien estaban contentos. Segundo, la poeta habla de el torero, "el gran Cayetano." El tiene la ropa muy elegante de "plata y seda." Quizas el amor estaba como el – "elegante y seda." Finalmente, el poeta habla de los toros y de como mueren. Quizas el amor tambien muere como los toros, como el dia, como el sol.

El romance con dos personas es en ese poema. El toro y el amor mueren juntos. Este es muy triste. Pero, quizas hay simbolo bonito - amor y corrida.

The Impact of Self-Video Recordings in Raising Oral Production

El Impacto de la Autograbación de Videos en la Producción Oral

Enrique Vez López
vision_vez@yahoo.com.mx
Ph. D. in Language Studies
Full-time Professor
University of Veracruz, Xalapa, Mexico

Verónica Bertani Tepetla
bertani_10@hotmail.com
M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language
Part-time professor
Centro de Bachillerato Tecnológico, Industrial y de Servicios “José María Cos y Pérez” No.13, Xalapa, Mexico

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Abstract

This paper examines the impact that self-video recordings of oral task-based activities have on the development and/or improvement of students' speaking skills. The study was conducted over an eight-week period during which fifteen participants wrote a script for a TV cooking show and videotaped their rehearsals in order to receive teacher feedback. Finally, they made a closing presentation, TV show style, during which a recipe was followed while they explained its steps and gave tips. Data examined by means of videos, structured interviews, and students' reflections showed that participants' oral production was enhanced mostly due to the analysis that the students were able to do of each one of their rehearsals, which also helped the teacher to give more meaningful feedback. This action research intervention resulted in an increase of vocabulary, self-confidence, motivation, fluency, and better pronunciation.

Key words: *Video recordings, task-based activities, self-confidence, motivation, action research*

Resumen

Este reporte de investigación examina el impacto de auto-videograbaciones de actividades basadas en tareas en el desarrollo y/o mejoramiento de las habilidades orales

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de un grupo de estudiantes. El estudio se llevó a cabo a lo largo de un periodo de ocho semanas durante las cuales los participantes escribieron un guion para un programa de cocina por televisión y videograbaron sus ensayos a fin de recibir retroalimentación de parte su maestra. Finalmente, hicieron una última presentación, al estilo de un programa de televisión, de una receta de cocina mientras la seguían paso a paso y daban consejos. Los datos examinados a través de los videos, entrevistas estructuradas y reflexiones de los estudiantes mostraron que la producción oral de los participantes mejoró debido en gran parte al análisis que los estudiantes hicieron de cada uno de sus ensayos, lo cual también ayudo a la maestra a darles una retroalimentación significativa. Esta intervención en el marco de una investigación acción resultó en un incremento de vocabulario, de la autoconfianza y la motivación, así como en un desempeño más fluido y una mejor pronunciación.

Palabras clave: *Videograbaciones, actividades basadas en tareas, autoconfianza, motivación, investigación acción*

A globalized economy means that our country's borders are increasingly open to the constant interchange of products, ideas, and some other elements of culture. This process has occurred due to the development of telecommunications which have brought people closer to people from different cultures, forming a global community that requires a means to share knowledge, information, and to trade or conduct business. Thus, it is necessary to use a common language that serves all these purposes. It appears English has become that global language we need.

Another major aspect that this phenomenon has had an impact on is the development of the tourism industry all over the world. Through the internet it is now possible to know about new, wonderful and remote places in any part of the world, which motivates people to travel and visit them.

Mexico has not been spared this effect of globalization; according to the National Institute of Statistics, Geography and Informatics, (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, 2015), the number of international visitors to national destinations reached 23.7 million in 2013, a new historical maximum in our country. It must be highlighted that of all the tourists that visit Mexico, 55% are American.

Thus, although tourist service providers have to cater to the needs of domestic tourists, to a large extent; they also have to be prepared to provide services and goods to this growing market of American tourists that are frequent visitors in our country. In this regard, it is not surprising that in Mexico, learning English as a foreign language has become an important asset for businesspersons, travel agents, tour guides, and the like.

In view of the constant growth of international tourism in our country, together with the adoption of English as the universal language for communication around the world, the importance of this language and the reasons for learning it need not be

emphasized, especially for those people who work in the tourism industry or who are majoring in tourism related areas, such as gastronomy and tourism management.

As a consequence of this, English in colleges offering majors in tourism and gastronomy has become an essential subject of their curricula, with instruction often adopting the form of English for Specific Purposes courses. This is an approach that considers the language needs of the students and also takes into consideration the sociocultural contexts in which these students will be using English (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

In view of the fact that tourist service providers and their clients interact mostly orally, it is more important for the students to be competent at communicating this way. Thus, they can assist their customers appropriately by giving them explanations, making suggestions or giving advice, and even doing business with them in order to sell or buy services or products such as the dishes of a menu in a restaurant, tickets for a concert or a day trip to an archaeological site.

From this point of view, although developing the four skills is vital for the acquisition of the language, it may make more sense for some of these universities and their students to focus more on one or two skills—speaking and listening—than in the others.

Consequently, it is essential for students who study gastronomy to be able to explain accurately the procedure of a recipe, to have a good command of the vocabulary related to the kitchen and/or food so that they understand the instructions that can be given in this context, to mention a few examples. For this reason, the intention of the present action research study was to implement a video recording strategy that has an impact on the learners' oral production and on their vocabulary acquisition.

Background

Increasing students' oral production in order to improve their communicative competence should be a great concern for any teacher. This was precisely the main objective of this research project. In view of this, first it was necessary to review some of the literature about English for Specific Purposes and Learner-centered Education in order to analyze the characteristics of the curriculum that the participants of this research are following. In this way, the particular language needs of these learners could be understood.

Additionally, the characteristics of current teaching approaches such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Cooperative learning and Task-based learning (TBL) were examined. Likewise, some concepts related to speaking strategies and the use of technology in ELT are explored as a way to establish an argument for the strategy that was designed.

Finally, some previous research on the topic is cited to become familiar with the application of technology in English Language Teaching (ELT); more specifically, the use of video and audio recordings as a technique to improve the oral production of the students.

English for Specific Purposes

Celce-Murcia (2001) defines English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as an approach to ELT based on the assertion that all language teaching should be accommodated to meet the specific learning and language use needs of distinct groups of group of learners. This is achieved by making use of activities, lexis, register, and grammar elements pertaining to the field of knowledge it is oriented to. While ESP focuses on the language appropriate to these activities, it must also be highlighted that one of the key elements of ESP is that it is also “sensitive to the sociocultural contexts in which these students will be using English” (Celce-Murcia, 2001, p. 43).

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP should be defined in terms of what it is not. Even though ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines, it is not a special form or variety of English. It is true that ELT practitioners engaged in ESP have to pay special consideration to teaching words and grammar for a specific area or field but it is not just about that; it is necessary to consider what functions of the language need to be performed by the learners, in order to help them to develop the abilities that are required to do so. Finally, ESP, like general English, may use different methodologies in specific teaching situations; thus, it is not different from other language teaching. In other words, there is no ESP methodology but methodologies that have been applied in ESP classrooms and that are more or less suitable for it.

In this regard, ESP should not be seen as a methodology but simply as an approach to language teaching, which, according to Celce-Murcia (2001), possesses four absolute characteristics:

- It aims to meet the needs of particular learners. In the present study, ESP attempts to meet the specific needs of students of gastronomy, tourism or business.
- It is related to the content of particular disciplines, occupations or activities.
- It takes into account the syntax, lexis, discourse and semantics of the activities chosen for a specific curriculum. This means that an ESP program will be centered on the language appropriate for each occupation.
- It is in contrast to the idea of General English.

As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out:

What distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need. If learners, sponsors and teachers know why the learners need English, that awareness will

have an influence on what will be acceptable as reasonable content in the language course and ... what potential can be exploited (p. 53).

The ESP movement can be categorized in two main groups: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). That is the case in this action research intervention strategy, which includes English for Professional Purposes (EPP) and Vocational ESL (VESL).

Learner-centered Education

So far, the importance of considering the needs of the learners as a major issue for the development of an ESP curriculum has been established. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), it is necessary to identify what the learner needs to do in a target situation and it is convenient to analyze those situations in terms of necessities (what the learner has to know in order to perform effectively in the target situation), lacks (what the learner knows and does not know), and wants (the learner's view or perception of his/her own needs).

Bearing in mind the importance of the participants' needs for broader lexis, the reason for considering ESP as learner-centered approach is understandable. As stated by Nunan (1988), a learner-centered approach needs a collaborative effort to create a curriculum, meaning that it should be planned between teachers and learners, allowing learners to be part of the decision-making process regarding the content and how it should be taught. In addition, Brown (2007) points out that a learner-centered instruction includes techniques that motivate students by making them accountable for the acquisition of knowledge, engaging them in learning by focusing on their own needs, learning styles and objectives; these may vary depending on their competences and their motivation for learning English. It is a teacher's duty to get to know their students so that they can plan class activities taking into account their students' interests and skills. Learner-centered education requires fostering class collaboration and delivering explicit skill instructions regarding the topic in order to encourage pupils to reflect on what they are learning and push them to keep on studying.

On the other hand, it is important that the students set their own learning goals because "an absence of goals can lead to aimlessness and a lack of any sense of direction. Some people will tend to look for "quick-fix" immediate solutions to problems with-out thinking through the possible long-term consequences" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 74). It seems that the goals should be set individually by each learner according to their own capabilities, in this way it may increase the possibilities of achieving them.

Another important technique is giving some control to the students and allowing creativity and innovation, as in this case, where the students managed their own video production. Brown (2007) argues that some teachers may be reluctant to give control to the students, especially when these students are beginners because they do not know the language; nevertheless, this should be understood as a way to help the students to be

independent and become more effective learners. This is also supported by Cullen, Harris and Hill (2012) who state that:

Sharing power with students is a key factor in learner-centered practices as well as in developing creativity. Giving students opportunities to choose fosters engagement with content and helps ensure that they find activities relevant. The same is true in regard to creativity. Amabile's extensive study of creativity (1996) outlined the factors that affect creativity in learning environments. Most important is openness, both physically in terms of classroom configuration and metaphorically in terms of a sense of freedom and safety (pp. 18-19).

Thus, it can be concluded that creativity and innovation can be promoted by giving the students freedom to decide about their learning choices. A serious attempt must be made to enhance a student's sense of competence and self-worth (Brown, 2007).

A learner-centered curriculum should take into account the development of a sense of competence in the students. Williams and Burden (1997) consider that teachers should make them feel capable of learning the language by creating a positive self-image of themselves. Apparently, developing a sense of competence in the students leads to a better performance in the acquisition of a language. One of the reasons for this improved performance may be that students are not afraid to express themselves in English or to make mistakes.

This is pinpointed by Cullen et al. (2012), who argue that students' beliefs about their ability or self-efficacy have a strong impact on their learning. "Students with high self-efficacy are more persistent ... in the face of difficulties. They interpret failure not as a personal failing but as a single poor performance that can be overcome..." (Cullen et al., 2012, p. 16).

Communicative Language Teaching

There seems to have been a great concern for developing new and better ways to teach English as a foreign language. That is why several methods and approaches have emerged, intending to be the panacea of English teaching.

One of them, which has apparently been quite accepted within the English teachers' community, is the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). It is difficult to provide a definition, nevertheless what is clear, is that it sets as a goal the teaching of communicative competence. According to Richards (2006), CLT involves the acquisition of language knowledge that allows the learner to use language for negotiating meaning in a variety of contexts for different reasons and activities. The ability to handle vocabulary and grammar to build isolated sentences with no real use is not evidence of true communicative skills. Rather, authentic language use is about knowing how to adapt our choice of language to the setting and the people around us, how to

shift between formal language use and informal speech depending on the environment. It is also about knowing when to use language that is appropriate for conversation, as an alternative to the one used for the production of written communication; that is, different types of texts, whether descriptive, narrative, expository, or argumentative. CLT seeks to develop different kinds of communication strategies and language skills that are necessary to keep communication flowing in spite of imperfections in the learner's language knowledge.

Additionally, Brown (2007) offers some other characteristics as a description of CLT, such as:

- The use of language techniques to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes.
- A focus on students' flow of comprehension and production and a focus on the formal accuracy of production are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques.
- Students have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts outside the classroom.
- Students are given opportunities to focus on their own process through raising their awareness of their own styles of learning and through the development of appropriate strategies for production and comprehension.
- Students in a CLT class are active participants in their own learning process. Learner-centered, cooperative, collaborative learning is emphasized, but not at the expense of appropriate teacher-centered activity (pp. 46-47).

Moreover, "acquisition studies suggest that classroom communication can foster language acquisition, particularly if learners are given opportunities for productive language use and the negotiation of meaning in small-group work" (Nunan, 1988, p. 87). Opportunities for productive language use can be given through different tasks that serve as genuine practice within the classroom. According to Nunan (1988) some of these activities are considered collaborative communication activities such as: problem-solving tasks, role plays and simulations. Having students video record themselves is a good example of a role play activity aimed at fostering language production.

Task-based Learning (TBL)

It is said that TBL has its origins in Communicative Language Teaching. According to Brown (2007), it is one of the most prominent perspectives within the CLT framework. However, there is disagreement about it because for some authors TBL is a completely different approach while some others claim that TBL is at the very heart of CLT (Ellis, 2003, as cited in Brown, 2007).

This approach uses tasks as a medium for language teaching. Peter Skehan (1998a, as cited in Brown, 2007) defines tasks as:

An activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; task completion has some priority and the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome (p. 50).

In other words, a task is an activity performed by a person which, in order to be completed successfully, requires or demands certain knowledge, abilities and attitudes from the learner. In this case, the knowledge and abilities needed are related to the use of a foreign language, bearing in mind the attainment of an objective.

Brown (2007) argues that a “task-based instruction is a perspective within a CLT framework that forces you to carefully consider all the techniques that you use in the classroom in terms of a number of important pedagogical purposes” (p. 52). This means that, when planning an activity it is important to consider the communicative dimensions of it; that is, be clear about what the learner needs to do with the language or the goal to pursue, what input from the teacher is going to be needed, the role of the teacher and the learner, and finally, the considerations for assessment.

According to Brown (2007) the characteristics of TBLT, also known as Task-based instruction, are the acquisition and use of authentic language that enables the learner to carry out meaningful tasks that stretch beyond isolated forms of language that are of little help, if any, in real-world contexts. The elements of tasks cannot be chosen carelessly or thrown together recklessly. Instead, they have to be carefully designed and selected so that they provide specific scaffolding that can be helpful in achieving communicative goals that are well defined. This allows the TBLT practitioner to engage learners in authentic problem-solving activities tailored to their level of language proficiency and to assess accurately the results and success of one task over another at some later stage.

Cooperative Learning

Up to this point, two of the most embraced approaches in English Language Teaching (ELT) have been addressed; nonetheless, keeping in mind the characteristics of both approaches, it is difficult to imagine the implementation of communicative activities that do not involve cooperative learning. Cooperative Learning refers to:

A systematic instructional method in which students work together in small groups to accomplish shared learning goals. The data in a large amount of research shows, compared with competitive and individualistic efforts, cooperation has positive effects on a wider range of outcomes (Johnson & Johnson, 1991; Slavin, 1995; Kagan, 1999). People operating in a cooperative learning activity attain higher achievement level than those who function under competitive and individualistic learning structures. Other findings in cooperative learning research show cooperation has positive effects on relations among

students, self-esteem, long-term retention, or depth of understanding of course material, etc. It has been tested as one of the most effective and constructive teaching strategies (Zhang, 2010, para. 1) .

Brown (2007) states that a curriculum based on cooperative learning possesses the same characteristics of a learner-centered program. It involves pair and/or team work as a way to achieve goals. This can be made possible by sharing information through mutual cooperation among learners. On the other hand, this author points out that sometimes co-operative learning is used as a synonym of collaborative learning; however, “in cooperative learning models, a group learning activity is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners and in collaborative learning, the learner engages with more capable others, who provide assistance and guidance” (Brown, 2007, p. 53).

Zhang (2010) argues that this approach has been gaining great acceptance in the language learning classrooms due to its contributions to create opportunities for communication and for improving productivity. Cooperative language learning provides opportunities for comprehensible input and output; two important factors in raising students’ achievement. It also assists in creating a good learning environment as students are encouraged to help each other learn and tackle a common goal. Additionally, it augments the use of a variety of language functions and thinking skills; for example, students have to organize their ideas to be able to put them in words and share them with their classmates, which in turn boosts their own understanding. Moreover, it promotes learners’ autonomy and responsibility by requiring that students engage in collaborative study and teamwork that help them build their own learning.

Speaking Skills

Speaking is a productive skill. It is defined as an interactive process through which, we construct meaning. This involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994, as cited in Burns & Joyce, 1997). It also may be considered one of the most difficult skills to teach and/or to work with. This statement is based on the complaints of many teachers about how difficult it is to have their students speak English during the class. Although the reasons for this problem can be many, one of them has to do with the fact that “Speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence), but also that they understand when, why, and in what ways to produce language (sociolinguistic competence)” (Cunningham, 1999, para. 3).

In other words, when speaking, the speaker has to take into account several factors in order to address his/her interlocutor correctly. Speakers have to be aware of the fact that “the form and meaning are dependent on the context in which (they) occur, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking. It is often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving” (Cunningham, 1999, para. 3).

However, as confirmed by Cunningham (1999), it is possible to find or identify patterns in the language, that is, expressions and/or utterances that are recurrent in certain discourse situations. In the case of professionals in the tourism field, some functions would include taking orders at a restaurant, providing information for a tourist, or explaining to customers how a dish is prepared. These language functions can be classified and charted in order to design goal-oriented oral tasks that eventually help the learner to succeed in a given speech task.

According to Byrne (1991, as cited in Peña & Onatra, 2009) oral tasks:

Involve the productive skill of speaking and the receptive skill of understanding. It means that learners have to be taught to speak as well as to listen. Both listening and speaking are such common activities in the daily routine that we seem to confuse ourselves as being experts when we are only users. Hence, when learners understand the difference between hearing something and listening attentively to someone, they can then grasp a variety of communication requirements that range from talking to an audience in a meaningful transactional mode, to speaking with each other by building up the discourse as the conversation flows in an interactional task. The conjunction of these relevant elements in the classroom is a contribution to the gradual achievement of communicative competence (para. 7).

On the other hand, there is an assumption that learners will be able to transfer the knowledge and skills developed within the classrooms to new contexts and situations in the real world. Nevertheless, Nunan (1998) considers that the shift of skills from the classroom context to other real life settings does not always happen as promptly as one would expect. The classroom is a sheltered environment where conditions are to a large extent accommodated to suit students' capabilities and needs. In view of this, it is necessary to become involved in the implementation of scaffolding activities designed to provide a bridge between what happens in the classroom and what students can realistically expect to take place in authentic communication, where they might feel more vulnerable. In order to do this, there is a whole range of communicative activities, such as games, simulations, and role plays that can help students gain fluency. In addition, there are a number of drills and controlled practice activities that can go a long way in reducing mistakes and enhancing accuracy.

In this view, Nunan (1988) has stated that various tasks types have been developed to simulate genuine whole task practice in the classroom. These include information gap tasks, language games, simulations, and role play, which are considered collaborative communication activities. He believes that these activities manifest the following characteristics:

- They provide learners with opportunities to hold conversations.
- They make learners help each other to construct meaning.
- They entail the learning of turn-taking rules.

- They focus on comprehensible and meaningful input and output.
- They require the participation and deep involvement of the learner.

Additionally, it is important to consider some other concepts related to the development of communicative competence. “There are six terms in second language research and pedagogy regarding speaking skills: Fluency versus accuracy, interlanguage, comprehensible input, pushed output and negotiation of meaning” (Folse, 2006, p. 30).

According to Folse (2006), a speaking activity can focus on fluency or on accuracy. “Fluency here refers to the amount of language produced in the task, while accuracy refers to the linguistic correctness of what is said in the task” (Folse, 2006, p. 30). This author explains that in conversation classes the most important thing is that students talk; thus, fluency activities can be more suitable, especially if these activities not only encourage them to talk but require them to speak.

Folse (2006) points out that interlanguage is “the language that is in between the native language and the target language (English)” (p. 33). He claims that this language is clearly full of errors which are a sign of language development. “Second language learners’ errors follow a fairly predictable pattern in which these errors are deemed a normal and necessary part of the language acquisition process” (Corder, 1981, as cited in Folse, 2006, p. 33).

The concept of interlanguage is closely related to the concept of comprehensible input. Teachers should attempt to design speaking activities for a proficiency growth, while making language comprehensible. According to Folse (2006), this can be done through clear and careful articulation of vowels and consonants so that the learner avoids mispronouncing adjacent sounds and words. It is also important to be aware of recurrent mistakes in pronunciation on the part of ESL students. These errors are often the result of either English pronunciation and spelling patterns or a student’s native language getting in the way; for example, English has the same number of written vowels (five) as Spanish, but there can be as many as nineteen different vowel sounds. One more thing that can help is to keep an eye on grammar and vocabulary that learners might find confusing or might not be aware of. This can only be done through careful observation and monitoring so that the teacher becomes fully aware of the students level and what is accessible to them. Additionally, Folse (2006) recommends waiting until a third attempt to explain something to students has been made before we start paraphrasing. Waiting a little will give students the opportunity to understand more complex lexis and structures.

It should be noted that, in addition to comprehensible input, there is a pushed output which is the moment when learners make utterances, rethink them and modify them if necessary, thus the importance of giving students the opportunity to express themselves on video. According to Swain and Lapkin (1995), during this process of modifications their interlanguage is impacted and restructured for good.

Finally, negotiation of meaning is a process in which “the speakers attempt to successfully convey information to one another; they reach mutual comprehension through restating, clarifying and confirming information” (Folse, 2006, p. 40). Having the students holding conversations where they have to negotiate meaning is an excellent way to stretch their interlanguage because “the learners’ vocabulary, an especially important part of second language proficiency, is reinforced” (Folse, 2006, p. 42).

Technology in ELT

The last twenty years have been characterized by a great and accelerated development of technology, which has had a deep impact on different fields such as education. Currently, there are a lot of applications, multimedia devices (smartphones, cameras, laptops, pads, and computers), networks, and all kinds of software that serve as learning tools. Vanderplank (2009) claims that “we have been experiencing a revolution in digital technology since the late 1990s” (p.1), with the convergence of television, digital media, and computer technology, which has brought about exciting opportunities and countless possibilities for language teachers and learners. A case in point of multimedia applications that have furnished language teachers and learners with an effective tool to enhance language acquisition is digital video (Tschirner, 2001). This would not have been possible before the arrival of sophisticated computers (Tschirner, 2010) that have currently become a powerful, effective element of modern language teaching and learning.

However, it seems that “their effectiveness as instruments of learning is not inherent; their power is derived from the teachers and students who use them. Their effectiveness is measured by whether they improve student performance and help students reach full potential” (Jordan & Follman, 1993, p. 66). The use of all types of audio-visual resources, self-video recordings in the present case, to boost foreign language learning must be carefully crafted. It must be used at the appropriate time and place so that it is motivating, enhances acquisition, facilitates learning, and has a positive impact on learners (Çakir, 2006). It is also important to have a well-defined pedagogic purpose in mind; objectives that are clearly defined often lead to a better organization of the students’ efforts to accomplish the goal set for the activity (Hobbs, 2006).

The application of technology within the EFL classroom encompasses a wide range of techniques which can be used in various degrees depending on the learning goals. According to Jordan and Follman (1993) information can be presented in several formats (text, video and audio) by means of technology and each of them provides good opportunities for learning. Likewise, using technology as a learning strategy presents many advantages, that is:

Technologies enable teachers to focus their energies on coaching students with their individual growth. Teachers can give special attention to certain individuals without neglecting the progress of others who are successfully guiding their own learning. Students are enabled to work

individually or in small groups at their own pace, taking advantage of access to vast sources of information and working with complex connections among varied disciplines. Technologies stimulate students as active learners who control the pace and direction of content, questions, and responses” (Jordan & Follman, 1993, p. 66).

Orlova (2009) points out that the use of video recordings can be especially valuable for non-native teachers and English speaking trainees and trainers as there are several skills that can be further developed by means of this tool such as observation, analysis, and discussion of classroom work. Video recordings allows practitioners to focus on their communicative competence, level of language proficiency, knowledge of essential language functions, style of teacher-student interaction, and other nonverbal elements of their teaching practice (Orlova, 2009).

As videos allow documenting students’ language production, there is more meaningful feedback; that is, “video recording student performance enables teacher and students to recall the activity for a more considered and objective analysis than is possible during the event and they can focus not just on the words but also on all the nonverbal features which contribute to communication” (McGovern, 1983, p. 87). Assessment is more reliable and valid as well.

In addition, by self-video recording their performance, students “can observe their own current English oral proficiency and thus discover areas they need to improve” (Shrosbree, 2008, p. 76). Furthermore, McGovern (1983) states that having students prepare and practice an activity that is to be video recorded, either in class or at home, can raise their interest and give them a sense of purpose, a feeling of satisfaction that emerges from the experience of watching themselves performing. McGovern (1983) points out that this can be a very rewarding activity when students carry out a task or do an activity or presentation that they formerly thought was above their level of proficiency.

Objectives

The main purpose of this project was to determine whether the use of video recording is a useful technique for increasing the oral production of the students in the second semester of their Gastronomy degree. Additionally, this research attempted to identify possible improvement in terms of amount of vocabulary gained, mostly specific vocabulary associated with the kitchen such as kitchen verbs (cook, boil, simmer, bake, etc.), utensils, ingredients, and measurements. Finally, it was also expected that the implementation of the strategy would have a positive impact on the students' motivation by helping them to develop self-confidence and good feelings toward the learning of English. An increase in vocabulary usage as revealed by the video recordings attested to the effectiveness of the intervention plan and the attainment of the objectives.

Methodology

For this research study, it was important to carry out a process of observation and reflection in order to design and implement a strategy that would achieve the objectives. Action Research (A.R.) gave the researcher the opportunity to become involved in a self-reflective process so as to analyze his teaching practice and thus address a problematic situation within the classroom through the implementation of certain strategies. Also, due to the characteristics of A.R., it was possible to determine the effectiveness of the intervention in a relatively short period of time, giving the researcher the chance to complete several different cycles to achieve the goal that was previously set and thus, attempt to solve the problem.

Additional advantages of this methodological design were that the research study could be set within a very specific context, the researcher was able to join in with participants, continuous evaluations and modifications could be made as the project progressed, and the study led to open-ended outcomes (Koshy, 2005). It was a very rewarding process as it provided a sense of achievement and improvement.

The whole process involved four specific stages which became a repetitive cycle (Burns, 2010). The general steps as outlined by Kemmis and McTaggart (1988, as cited in Burns, 2010) that were followed in this investigation were:

- **Planning:** the objective was identified and a plan of action was developed to bring about improvement in the students' speaking skills. Initial research was carried out to be sure about the situation. This was done through the observation of the students' performance in a task and through a questionnaire.
- **Action:** it involved the implementation of deliberate intervention. The intervention included writing a script for a cooking TV show and the video recording of each rehearsal.
- **Observation:** this implied the analysis of the effects of the intervention and documenting the perceptions of the people involved in the research.
- **Reflection:** the results emerging from the data were evaluated in order to assess the real effectiveness of the strategy.

Context

The present study was carried out in Xalapa, Veracruz, Mexico, at a private university. This university has two B.A programs, Tourism and Gastronomy. English teachers focus on the students' developing communicative skills rather than any other skills. The goal is that students develop the ability to hold meaningful conversations with English speaking tourists. They also need to be prepared to deal successfully with prospective job interviewers so that, hopefully, they can be hired by some of the large companies operating in our country and abroad.

The approach to English teaching at the school can be labeled as English for Specific Purposes. All the resources, activities and materials used in class are related to these two main fields: Tourism and Gastronomy. The students majoring in Tourism have four 50-minute classes per week, whereas students majoring in Gastronomy have three 50-minute classes per week. Most of the classes are large - twenty to thirty students - and students have different levels of English proficiency.

The students do not work with any particular text books. There are specific topics to be covered but each teacher has freedom to choose what to teach first, how to teach it and what materials to use, which means that they can organize the contents the way it suits them better. At the end of every semester, each group is assigned a special project. All the groups of the same semester and major have to do the same thing.

English is not a mandatory subject of the syllabus for the B.A. in Gastronomy. Thus, some students may be reluctant to take this class. Fortunately, the new generations are more conscious of the importance of learning this language and most of them are more willing to take the class.

Participants

There were fifteen research participants in this investigation. The participation in the study was voluntary. However, the participants had to complete all the stages outlined above and follow all the steps involved in each one of them, and do the final presentation. Almost all the participants come from middle-class families and only 39% of all of them are from Xalapa. In most cases, their parents make a considerable effort to support them, pay for tuition, books, and housing. Their ages range from eighteen to twenty-two years of age.

Most of the participants can be considered beginners at the A1 or A2 level, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Language Learning, Teaching, and Assessment (Council of Europe, 2017). However, a disparity was observed regarding their level of language proficiency. While about 20% seemed to have some command of English, about 15% of them did not have any knowledge of the language at all.

The general attitude of the students toward English is of acceptance; the students are aware of the importance of learning English, especially for their major because it increases the possibility of getting a better job. However, most of them think it is quite difficult and some others simply do not enjoy learning this language. Moreover, the majority do not make any effort to study the language at home.

English is compulsory in middle and high school in the basic education system in Mexico, with all registered students taking at least 6 years of English before going to college or university. However, it is well known that these courses account for little if any practical knowledge of the language as in the case of the participants.

Intervention and Data Collection Tools

The results of their first semester final oral exam indicated that most of the students had trouble explaining the procedure of a recipe because they did not know enough vocabulary related to this genre (verbs used in the kitchen, utensils, ingredients and measurements). Besides, they did not know how to build clear sentences and/or how to connect them in order to sound natural when explaining a procedure. Additionally, the majority of the students had a pronunciation problem, making it difficult to convey a clear message.

An intervention plan was designed where video recordings were used as a way to tackle all these problems. The aim was to increase the participants' opportunities for oral production and meaningful communication with teacher and peers. Videos were also used as a data collection tool. In qualitative research, video-recording seems to have excellent benefits because, through the videos, the researcher can observe and analyze in great detail certain phenomenon which, otherwise, would be very difficult to capture. Nevertheless, it was also necessary to come up with a set of other data collection instruments to gather information that could be helpful in assessing the effectiveness of the intervention.

Observations were an important data collection tool. The observation sheets used for this purpose had three sections to organize the information: one for common mistakes, one to write the score of the different aspects that were considered in the rubric designed for the research purposes and one for a general description of what was happening in the video that could explain the score given to each aspect of the rubric. The elements that were considered in the rubric handed out to the participants beforehand are: pronunciation, fluency, tone and intonation, coherence and interaction, and body language.

All the participants were interviewed at the end of the implementation of the strategy. These structured interviews were audio-recorded. There was a list of key questions prepared in advance to determine the students' perceptions about the use of video recording as a way to improve their oral production.

At the end of the implementation of the action plan, the participants were asked to write a personal reflection about the convenience of using video recording to improve their oral production. They had to analyze whether there had been any changes in their performance and, if so, what kind of changes they had noticed. Many of the students also wrote about their feelings toward the activity and how they were motivated to do the task successfully.

The Action Plan

The intervention plan for further action aimed to improve oral production and vocabulary acquisition of the participants. The main point of the strategy was to video record their performance when producing a cooking TV show. After a video clip was

turned in, feedback was given to help the participant improve oral production and acquire vocabulary. The intention was that after rehearsing (they could video record themselves as many times as they wanted as rehearsal) and doing a couple of videos, the students could be capable of performing a cooking TV show “live” and prepare, in real time, the recipe that had been rehearsed. Thus, the strategy assessed not only the final product but also the whole process.

The intervention strategy was carried out in three cycles: the students video-recorded themselves at home twice, plus the final presentation in the classroom, where the teacher videotaped their performance. The general steps that constituted the implemented strategy were the following:

- Pre-production stage. It lasted two weeks. The main goal was to provide students with enough input to prepare them for the oral task (cooking TV show). The students took a quiz to assess how much kitchen vocabulary they could recall; pronunciation and language management were also assessed.
- Production stage. It lasted five weeks. The participants put into practice what they had learned in the first stage. They acted out their recipes and used English to tackle a task: to video record their performances.
- Post-production stage. The teacher analyzed each video and prepared a report in order to give the students feedback. The participants reflected about their work and they corrected their mistakes for the next video recording. The result of this analysis together with the results of the interviews and the students’ personal reflections were used to determine whether the video recordings worked as a useful tool to increase and improve the students’ oral production in English.
- Final presentation.

It was hoped that after each rehearsal, it would be easier for the participants to remember the vocabulary. The assumption is that when someone says something out loud and it is done at the same time, this vocabulary could be internalized to be used in the future. Additionally, it was assumed that their pronunciation would improve due to repetition, which eventually could have a positive effect on the participants’ self-confidence and motivation.

Results

Due to the characteristics of the strategy that was implemented, it was considered important to focus the attention on both the process and the final result. Thus, two types of evaluation were used. Formative evaluation was carried out through the two videos that the students recorded during the second stage of the strategy. The students received feedback after each video so that they could make changes for the next video-recording. Additionally, the students were continuously assessed through the rehearsals performed in class. Summative evaluation took place at the final presentation when the students had to cook for real and explain the recipe while being video recorded. Finally, the

participants were interviewed and they were asked to write a self-reflection about their perceptions on the whole process.

The Interviews

The interviews were conducted immediately after the final presentation so as to capture the emotions and perceptions of the students regarding the usefulness of the strategy that was implemented as a way to improve their oral production in English. The participants' insights are summed up below.

Summarized results from the interviews:

- English is perceived as a necessary but demanding subject, not enjoyed by most of them.
- English pronunciation is complex and confusing. However, almost all the participants reported improvement in their oral performance, mostly in terms of pronunciation.
- Video recording was a new useful experience that helped them learn about the language. They assured that the intervention strategy worked because they put in practice vocabulary learnt in class.
- The participants' motivation to study English increased. Apparently, seeing themselves speaking English gave them a sense of attainment.
- All the participants gave themselves a good grade. In a 1—10 grading scale, the average grade was 8.

The Videos

The videos provided the researcher with the opportunity to record the performance of the students to determine whether there had been an improvement in the students' oral production or not. On the other hand, using them as a means to evaluate the students' progress seemed to be a suitable instrument which would be not only useful for formative evaluation purposes but also for self-assessment. Through the videos, the participants became aware of their mistakes and corrected them in a more conscious way. The production of the videos at the second stage of the intervention strategy enabled the participants to record themselves as many times as possible. Thus, they had several opportunities to practice and this way, they could feel more confident in the final presentation. Due to time constraints, most of the participants were able to video record only two performances and the final one, which does not necessarily mean that they did not rehearse enough. They had to practice their dialogues at home and then record their video. They were asked to re-hearse their lines while acting the steps of the recipe so that it was easier for them to acquire the vocabulary and understand what they were saying.

The expectation was that from the very first video the students would show a good understanding of the vocabulary and the expressions that were in their scripts by acting

out their lines. Congruency between what they said and their performance was expected. Nevertheless, this did not happen the first time they video recorded themselves. Most of the students did not memorize their lines and it was evident that they were reading, not acting. Besides, they used Spanish when delivering their speech and almost all of them did not act out the steps of the recipe. They just sat on a chair or stood motionless in a kitchen reading everything without the appropriate intonation and without moving or acting out their recipe. What is more, it seems that most of them, in fact, did not know what they were saying in spite of having reviewed the vocabulary before video recording. This was concluded due to their continuous pausing in the wrong places and because they sometimes did something different from what they were explaining.

Likewise, it was expected that the participants would make many mistakes in pronunciation as the majority of them were beginners and they were not so used to speaking English. However, not only did they make mistakes with pronunciation but also with syntax. At this point, self-correction was not expected to take place because the participants were not aware of their mistakes yet. The participants' performances were assessed according to the rubric mentioned above. Most of the participants did poorly and only a pair of students' performance was of acceptable quality.

After the first video, the participants received feedback from the teacher who pointed out their mistakes. Then, the students rehearsed in class to correct them and they were asked to produce a new video. When they produced the second video, there were many significant changes in the quality of their performance.

Summarized results from the second video recording:

- A reduction in the use of mother tongue. Only four participants out of fifteen used Spanish to continue with the dialogue.
- A reduction in the use of visual aids to say their lines. In comparison with the first video, there were five participants who did not read at all, four that read half of the time and six who still read all the time.
- An improvement in coherence. This time, the majority of the students acted out what they were saying; only four of them continued to say the lines while doing nothing. Additionally, it was clear that they had a better idea of what they were expressing, their intonation improved and this time no one did something different from what they were saying.
- The appearance of self-correction was an unexpected outcome which showed that the students' awareness of pronunciation and intonation had risen; now they also knew where to pause.
- The number of students who performed acceptably increased. The progress achieved was easier to notice through the scores that they got. This time, most of the students were rated higher. Even though some of them still did poorly, their improvement was remarkable as they produced clearer and more comprehensible utterances; something that did not happen in the first video.

- The emergence of improvisation was another unexpected outcome. Four students took risks and tried to say things that were not their lines in order to convey the message. Three of them accomplished this successfully.
- There were fewer mistakes in syntax than in pronunciation. It seems that the students could remember their lines and were less likely to make mistakes in syntax. There was also some progress with pronunciation. They were able to correct the pronunciation of several words and thus reduce the amount of mistakes; however, they continued to mispronounce many other words.

The final video was recorded in the school kitchen during the last week of the intervention strategy. It was the final presentation of the course. This also worked as the final assessment. For this presentation, the students had to bring all the ingredients and the utensils to prepare a chocolate brownies recipe. The students were expected to pretend they were cooking for a TV show. Below is a description of the results obtained.

Summarized results from the final video recording:

- Practically all the participants avoided the use of Spanish, except for one participant who used a filler in Spanish. The rest of them did not use their mother tongue at all.
- Almost half of them did not read at all. Apparently, the ones who needed to take a look at their notes during the presentation did so because they were not able to control their nervousness which made them forget their lines. It seems that the stress caused by oral activities has a great impact on the final result. This was corroborated by the participants' comments after their presentations.
- In terms of coherence, that is the congruence between what is said and what is done, all of the students performed well and did exactly what they were saying.
- The appearance of self-correction was more frequent; more than half of the participants rephrased a sentence and/or corrected the pronunciation of some words. This was an important achievement.
- This time there were fewer mistakes in pronunciation and syntax in comparison with the participants' previous work. Those who had pronounced poorly and could not make themselves understood were able to convey a clearer message. In spite of these results, some of the students' mistakes seemed to have become fossilized because, despite the teacher's feedback, they continued making the same mistakes in pronunciation. Nevertheless, this did not prevent them from conveying the message.
- Again, there was some improvisation as more students decided to take risks with the language, which is positive.
- The students' progress became evident in their final performance. All of the participants scored well on the rubric, which was a reflection of their improvement.

Conclusion

The analysis of data as produced by the videos, the interviews and the observations provided valuable insight into the emotions and perceptions of the participants regarding the usefulness of the implemented strategy. It can be safely concluded that even though the majority of the participants did not like speaking English, they wanted to learn because it is important for their degree. English comes across to them as difficult mainly because of pronunciation and the fact that their teachers have not helped them in that respect.

None of the participants had ever video-recorded a task in English; for all of them it was a new and challenging experience. Some found the activity pleasant and interesting, some said it was useful to learn and to correct mistakes, and others found it difficult. Regarding the usefulness of video recording as an instrument to improve and increase oral production in English, most participants seemed to think it was an excellent strategy that helped them improve pronunciation, fluency and vocabulary.

As for commitment, almost all of the participants appeared to have felt motivated to continue studying English. They realized they were capable of speaking English if they put their mind to it. They also found additional advantages in video recording themselves, such as gaining self-confidence, losing fear of speaking in public and a desire to learn more. It must be acknowledged that they made an effort in spite of their nervousness and weaknesses. This is confirmed by their assessment of their own work, which was graded quite well. Giving the participants the opportunity to practice video recording themselves twice before their final performance helped them correct their mistakes and realize they could succeed in doing the activity.

As mentioned above, all of the participants' pronunciation and fluency seemed to have improved at the end of the intervention. Awareness of their mistakes in pronunciation was increased, which helped in correcting them. As a consequence of increased motivation, the participants appeared to be willing to use this strategy again, after the implementation, as it helped them to get rid of their fear of speaking English.

At the end of the implementation, the participants were asked to write a reflection about the process that they had gone through. It seems that, at the beginning, many of them felt tongue-tied; that is, it was difficult for them to pronounce words correctly, they could not remember their lines or what they had to say so their fluency was affected. Further, it was difficult for them to understand what they were saying themselves. Some admitted that in the first rehearsals, they had no idea of what they were saying. They also realized that for the first time ever, they could read something in English and understand it, and in the last video, they knew exactly what they were saying.

Regarding the acquisition of vocabulary, the participants were able to learn new words related to their area of interest (kitchen vocabulary). Acquiring new vocabulary was beneficial because it helped them to understand bits of language when watching a

video or a TV program. This way, they were able to take risks and add new words in their presentations while reinforcing vocabulary they already knew.

Motivation is essential when learning anything. It was rewarding to see that the participants' motivation seemed to have risen as they were happy and willing to do all the class activities. Apparently, they overcame their fears of speaking English.

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El fenómeno de la indireccionalidad en la interacción conversacional y su incumbencia en la clase de Español Lengua Segunda y Extranjera

The phenomenon of indirectness in conversational interaction and its role in Spanish Second and Foreign Language class

Georgina Lacanna

georginalacanna@gmail.com

Doctora en Letras, área Lingüística. Investigadora formada

Docente del Departamento de Letras

Universidad de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, Argentina

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Resumen

El objetivo de este artículo es presentar una definición de indireccionalidad en tanto fenómeno discursivo e interaccional y discutir la pertinencia de su incorporación en la clase de Español como Lengua Segunda y Extranjera (ELSE). Este fenómeno, de carácter gradual, se representa a través de una escala que permite evaluar el grado de indireccionalidad de toda estrategia discursiva en relación con el tipo de interpretación con la que se encuentra asociado. A partir de la aplicación de una propuesta de actividad didáctica en cuatro experiencias de clase, intentamos mostrar la relevancia de la indireccionalidad en la enseñanza del español rioplatense. Para ello apelamos a su ejemplificación a través de escenas provenientes de películas argentinas que nos proveen de acciones comunicativas debidamente contextualizadas y enmarcadas en contextos socioculturales concretos y variados.

Palabras clave: *Español como Lengua Segunda y Extranjera, indireccionalidad, interacción, multimodalidad*

Abstract

The goal of this paper is to present a definition of indirectness as a discursive and interactional phenomenon and to discuss the relevance of its incorporation into the Spanish Second and Foreign Language (SSFL) class. This phenomenon, of a gradual nature, is represented through a scale that allows evaluating the degree of indirectness of any discursive strategy in relation to the type of interpretation with which it is

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associated. Through the application of a didactic activity proposal in four class experiences, we seek to show the relevance of indirectness in the teaching of Rioplatense Spanish. In order to do so, we appeal to its exemplification through scenes from Argentine films that provide us with communicative actions, contextualized and framed in concrete and varied sociocultural contexts.

Key words: *Spanish as a Second and Foreign Language, indirectness, interaction, multimodality*

La indireccionalidad es un fenómeno discursivo relevante que se encuentra involucrado en el proceso de negociación de los significados cada vez que usamos el lenguaje para comunicarnos. Siempre que trabajamos con instancias de lenguaje en uso, los significados involucrados están estrechamente relacionados con el contexto de situación en el que se construyen, por lo cual, hablar de significados independientes de ese contexto de uso sería incurrir en una contradicción teórica. Llevada esta afirmación al extremo, podríamos sostener que todo proceso de significación es indirecto porque se encuentra mediado por condiciones específicas de realización.

El concepto de indireccionalidad, sin embargo, se da generalmente por supuesto y son escasas las ocasiones en las que encontramos definiciones concretas que lo aclaren. Su estudio en relación con la construcción de significados ha sido abordado desde diversos enfoques teórico-metodológicos (pragmáticos, sociolingüísticos, psicolingüísticos) que responden a diferentes intereses de investigación. Son numerosos los trabajos que hacen referencia a las formas indirectas de significación, asociadas en su mayoría a los conceptos fundacionales de implicatura conversacional (Grice, 1975), de acto de habla indirecto (Searle, 1975), significado no natural (Grice, 1957, 1969) o a la teoría de la cortesía (Brown y Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983). Pero no abundan los que aborden específicamente el tema para intentar ofrecer una definición o caracterización del fenómeno que permita analizar sus condiciones de aparición y sus implicaciones interaccionales (véanse Grainger y Mills, 2016; Thomas, 1995). Por otra parte, son pocos los que consideran la posibilidad de aplicar este concepto para la enseñanza de lenguas y, en menor medida aún, específicamente para la enseñanza de Español como Lengua Segunda y Extranjera (en adelante ELSE).

En este trabajo nos proponemos, en primer lugar, presentar una definición de indireccionalidad desde una perspectiva estratégico-funcional (Menéndez, 2006, 2010) y multimodal (Goodwin, 2000, 2003; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 1997, 2009; Norris, 2004, 2006, 2009) que se diferencia en aspectos puntuales de las desarrolladas hasta el momento. Esta definición nos permitirá, en segundo lugar, fundamentar la importancia de su aplicación didáctica en la enseñanza de ELSE.

La perspectiva que adoptamos entiende que la combinación de los recursos léxico-gramaticales y pragmático-discursivos (fuerzas ilocucionarias, procesos inferenciales, mecanismos de indireccionalidad) conforma estrategias discursivas. La reconstrucción de los dispositivos estratégicos explica el funcionamiento discursivo y

persigue siempre un objetivo interaccional (Menéndez 2006, 2010). Además, nuestra perspectiva se define como funcional ya que concibe el lenguaje como una herramienta de comunicación y considera que todo lenguaje es lenguaje en uso, utilizado en situaciones concretas y específicas, en contraposición al análisis de fragmentos de lenguaje aislados o descontextualizados. Por último, nuestra perspectiva es multimodal puesto que sostiene que el lenguaje verbal es un recurso poderoso en la construcción de los significados, pero no el único (Goodwin 2000, 2003; Jewitt 2009; Kress 1997, 2009; Norris 2004, 2006, 2009). En efecto, otros sistemas semióticos complementan los procesos de significación social, tales como la entonación, la gestualidad, la mirada y la proxemia.

De las múltiples modalidades de interacción humana, optamos por focalizarnos en la interacción conversacional cara a cara para analizar el fenómeno de la indireccionalidad. La decisión de trabajar con esta unidad de análisis se funda en el hecho de que es considerada no sólo como el principal contexto para la adquisición de lenguas, sino también como la única forma de lenguaje usada universalmente (Levinson, 1983) y el escenario canónico para el discurso en todas las sociedades humanas (Levelt, 1989). Las conversaciones que conforman el corpus de trabajo fueron extraídas de seis películas argentinas producidas y estrenadas en los últimos quince años.

Los ejemplos de indireccionalidad que analizaremos pertenecen a la variedad rioplatense del español hablado en Argentina. Como señala Acuña (2015), “El español de Argentina no es uniforme, ya que en las distintas regiones del país se habla de manera diferente” (p. 44). El caso del rioplatense corresponde a una subvariedad que se registra particularmente en el habla de los habitantes de la ciudad y de la provincia de Buenos Aires. Sus rasgos característicos son : el voseo (uso del pronombre personal de segunda persona singular *vos* en lugar del *tú*); la aspiración de la *s* en posición preconsonántica; el debilitamiento del fonema *s* en posición final; el yeísmo rehilado sordo¹³. Esta caracterización se completa con variantes léxicas propias de la variedad y con ciertas expresiones características para realizar acciones comunicativas (saludos, pedidos, elogios, evaluaciones, etc.). La utilización de estas últimas con fines estratégicos en la interacción conversacional constituye el rasgo de interés principal para nuestra investigación.

Este artículo dispone de cuatro secciones principales. En primer lugar, se hace una revisión de la literatura sobre el estudio de la indireccionalidad y se postula un concepto gradual de ésta. En segundo lugar, se propone una aplicación didáctica diseñada para un perfil de alumno específico y se discuten algunos aspectos que surgen de su uso en experiencias de clase. En tercer lugar, se discute el problema de la indireccionalidad y su pertinencia en la enseñanza de ELSE. Por último, se presentan las conclusiones.

¹³ Unificación de la pronunciación en una sola consonante palatal de las dos que ortográficamente se representan mediante las letras *ll* y *y*, con registro de una vibración adicional y un comportamiento sordo que lo distingue de otras variedades en las que se registra el yeísmo.

El concepto de indireccionalidad

En el ámbito de la pragmática, las propuestas desarrolladas por Grice (1957, 1969, 1975), con los conceptos de implicatura conversacional y significado no natural, y por Searle (1975), con la definición de acto de habla indirecto, constituyen, sin lugar a dudas, el punto de partida para la mayoría de los estudios actuales sobre comunicación indirecta de significados. Estas propuestas, si bien poderosas teóricamente, explican el fenómeno de la indireccionalidad con ejemplos contruidos *ad hoc* a los efectos de explicar el proceso de significación e interpretación, sin tener en cuenta las instancias reales del lenguaje en uso, factor fundamental para los objetivos que se desprenden de este trabajo.

También dentro del ámbito de la pragmática, pero ya con una orientación social más definida y, tomando incluso conceptos centrales de la sociología de Goffman (1966, 1967), los teóricos de la cortesía (Brown y Levinson, 1987, Lakoff, 1973, Leech, 1983) enfocaron el análisis del uso de la indireccionalidad por parte de los hablantes como un modo de proteger su imagen (la propia y la ajena) en la interacción. En este sentido, se dio un paso importante en favor del trabajo con ejemplos de lenguaje en uso. La limitación de este enfoque, sin embargo, consiste en que su objetivo principal no fue caracterizar o explicar la indireccionalidad como fenómeno discursivo en particular, sino que se abordó como una estrategia ligada y subordinada al fenómeno pragmático de la cortesía.

El concepto de indireccionalidad que proponemos en este trabajo no se construye sobre la base de una oposición entre tipos de significado diferentes (convencional / no convencional, literal / no literal, natural / no natural) ni se encuentra tampoco asociado directamente a los niveles de cortesía empleados por los participantes. Contempla más bien que el significado es de un solo tipo -interaccional- y es producto de cómo negocian su interpretación los participantes de una conversación en un contexto de situación específico. Toda situación comunicativa se desarrolla en el marco de un contexto que se caracteriza en términos de una naturaleza doble: socio-cultural y cognitiva. Estos dos aspectos del contexto de situación, lejos de ser excluyentes, resultan necesariamente complementarios.

Desde la perspectiva Sistémico-Funcional (Halliday, 1978, 1991), la contextualización socio-cultural es un proceso en el que un texto se relaciona con los procesos sociales que lo enmarcan. El contexto de situación se concibe, desde dicha perspectiva, como una estructura tripartita que enfatiza la naturaleza social del lenguaje y que está compuesta por el campo, el tenor y el modo. El campo del discurso hace referencia al tipo de acción social que se está desarrollando, con qué propósito se usa el lenguaje (narrar una experiencia, hacer una invitación, enseñar, etc.). El tenor hace referencia a las relaciones sociales que se establecen entre los participantes de la situación, cómo se posicionan socialmente unos frente a otros en la medida en que eso influya en el intercambio de los mensajes. Es posible definirlos en términos de roles (madre/hijo, compañeros de trabajo, profesor/alumno, etc.). La negociación de los

significados no sólo implica entender de qué se está hablando, sino también, fundamentalmente, con quién y desde qué posición se está hablando. En ese sentido, la identidad discursiva que asumen o asignan los participantes, el grado de distancia social, el de familiaridad / confianza, el de jerarquía, y cada elección que éstos realizan en el plano interpersonal -todos ellos con un fuerte anclaje sociocultural- condicionan el proceso de negociación. El modo, por último, hace referencia al medio o canal elegido para la comunicación (oral, escrito, audiovisual, dialogado, etc.) e incluye la forma genérica, que toma rasgos característicos de acuerdo a su función social. Este factor determina, además, el grado de planificación y espontaneidad de un discurso.

Por otro lado, la contextualización de una situación supone también el desarrollo de procesos cognitivos a través de los cuales los conocimientos previos, culturales y sociales se actualizan y forman parte de los procesos interpretativos que se desarrollan durante el transcurso de una interacción. De este modo, se enfatiza la importancia de las inferencias conversacionales (Gumperz, 1982, 1996, 2000) que los participantes realizan en el contexto del intercambio, en relación a lo que se dice y a cómo eso es interpretado. Dado que el carácter de éstas no es asertivo, sino hipotético y tentativo, para ser validadas deben apoyarse en un caudal de supuestos previos, de un conocimiento de mundo que se reinterpreta en cada intercambio conversacional de manera interactiva y se construye, por lo tanto, también socialmente.

En este marco, afirmamos que toda acción comunicativa es estratégica y que la indireccionalidad puede analizarse como un rasgo que se encuentra presente en todas las estrategias discursivas (Gumperz, 1982; Menéndez, 2012) que emplean los participantes de una conversación guiados por propósitos interaccionales específicos. Una estrategia se caracteriza a partir de la combinación de recursos semióticos de diferente naturaleza y es a partir del resultado de esa combinación, bajo condiciones contextuales concretas, que es posible determinar el grado de indireccionalidad que presenta. Es decir, en toda estrategia discursiva analizada en el marco de una interacción es posible reconocer cierto grado de indireccionalidad. No hay estrategias completamente indirectas por oposición a estrategias directas, ni tampoco los significados resultantes de los procesos de negociación en la interacción pueden clasificarse definitivamente como directos o indirectos.

Si bien el supuesto anterior afirma que no existen significados directos, en este artículo abordamos un problema teórico con la finalidad de ofrecer una aplicación práctica para su uso en la enseñanza de ELSE. En el desarrollo de esta actividad, muchas veces es necesario apelar a ciertas abstracciones o idealizaciones -al menos en las instancias iniciales del proceso de enseñanza- para, recién en una instancia posterior, poder elaborar reflexiones lingüísticas más complejas. Proponemos partir, por lo tanto, de la consideración de que existen estrategias discursivas de grado 0 de indireccionalidad, que representaría el nivel mínimo de indireccionalidad que implica la negociación de significados en la interacción. El grado 0 constituye el punto de partida de una escala que contempla, además, un grado 1 y un grado 2. En los tres casos, que definiremos más adelante, la negociación de los significados se realiza en términos de lo

que denominamos interpretación situada, es decir, en estrecha relación con la configuración contextual de la situación particular en la que se desarrolla.

Los grados de indireccionalidad en la interacción

La interacción se define, en líneas generales, como una secuencia o secuencias de acciones y reacciones comunicativas estratégicas, como las secuencias de saludos, secuencias de preguntas, secuencias de pedidos, entre otras. Cada secuencia está conformada, como mínimo, por una acción comunicativa y su correspondiente reacción. Una secuencia de saludo, generalmente, se conforma por un saludo inicial (acción comunicativa) y la respuesta a ese saludo (reacción comunicativa). Cada acción o reacción comunicativa puede ser realizada, a su vez, por una o más acciones menores (Lacanna, 2016) pertenecientes a diferentes modos semióticos, de modo que tenemos acciones verbales (decir hola o hasta luego), acciones gestuales (realizar un movimiento con la palma de la mano abierta), acciones posturales (pararse, darse vuelta) y acciones proxémicas (acercarse o alejarse) que, al ser utilizadas como recursos (Halliday, 1978; Menéndez, 2010), dan lugar a las acciones y reacciones estratégicas concretas que conforman la interacción. Es decir, toda acción comunicativa es estratégica porque se realiza a partir de la combinación de recursos (acciones menores) que los participantes utilizan con un fin interaccional determinado.

Cabe aclarar, por otra parte, que el uso del término interpretación en este trabajo no refiere únicamente al procesamiento inferencial que realiza el participante destinatario de una acción estratégica iniciada por otro. El participante que inicia una acción, está, desde ese instante, negociando su interpretación con su interlocutor. Por lo tanto, los significados interaccionales son siempre co-construidos, negociados y dependen de las intervenciones de todos los participantes involucrados.

Por último, a pesar de que el tema de la indireccionalidad en la interacción fue abordado desde diferentes perspectivas teóricas, como las ya mencionadas, en todas ellas ocupó siempre un lugar central el elemento verbal de la comunicación en la interpretación de los significados. Los elementos designados tradicionalmente como no verbales se ubicaron en un lugar secundario o subordinado. En este trabajo, sostenemos que los significados se realizan multimodalmente (Goodwin 1981, 2000; Jewitt 2009; Kress 1997, 2009; Norris 2004, 2006, 2009), a partir de la combinación de diferentes recursos semióticos (mirada, proxemia, gestualidad, lenguaje verbal). Esta combinación no admite un desdoblamiento entre lo dicho verbalmente y lo expresado a través de otros recursos semióticos. Ambas dimensiones conforman, simultáneamente, lo significado interaccionalmente por los participantes.

A continuación, presentamos las características de los diferentes grados de indireccionalidad propuestos que podemos analizar en las acciones estratégicas en la interacción.

Grado 0 de indireccionalidad o interpretación situada primaria. Denominamos interpretación situada primaria (en adelante IP) a la interpretación por

defecto (Leech, 1983) o preferida (Levinson, 2000) que tiene una determinada acción. Por ejemplo, el significado de la acción verbal de alguien que dice “hola” se interpreta por defecto como un saludo inicial o la respuesta a un saludo inicial, por lo tanto, decimos que su IP es la de saludo. Es decir, si alguien utiliza estratégicamente la unidad de entonación (Norris, 2004) afirmativa “hola” con el fin pragmático de saludar a alguien, sostenemos que está apelando a la IP de esa acción verbal. Si se piensa en la realización de una acción gestual, por ejemplo en algún gesto de tipo emblema¹⁴, también podemos referirnos a ellos como acciones gestuales que se asocian con una IP particular. Por ejemplo, cuando una persona realiza un movimiento lateral con la palma de la mano abierta, podemos interpretar también por defecto que está realizando la acción de saludar. Todas las acciones estratégicas que promueven una IP se ubican en el grado 0 de la escala de indireccionalidad.

La negociación del significado de este tipo de acciones estratégicas implica la realización de un proceso inferencial mínimo que requiere la recuperación de información de tipo léxico-gramatical-sintáctica (en el caso de las acciones verbales) y el reconocimiento de los gestos emblema usados (en el caso de las acciones gestuales) y su relación con la información contextual.

Este proceso podría ejemplificarse de la siguiente manera para el caso de alguien que realiza la acción verbal “hola”: 1) una persona con la que acabo de encontrarme me dice “hola”; 2) “hola” es una palabra que en español se utiliza para saludar; 3) no hay ninguna razón ni característica contextual que me haga pensar que al realizar esa acción no está intentando saludarme; 4) por lo tanto, me está saludando.

Cualquier persona, por el hecho de tener conocimiento del idioma español, ya sea como L1 o como L2¹⁵, podrá negociar el significado del intercambio en esos términos. Es decir, excepto que haya algún rasgo contextual que le indique lo contrario, sabrá que la persona que realiza esa acción la está saludando.

Grado 1 de indireccionalidad o interpretación situada convencionalizada. Los significados interaccionales no siempre son negociados en función de una IP. La acción verbal “hola”, por ejemplo, puede ser usada estratégicamente para cumplir otras funciones y promover interpretaciones que difieren de la del saludo. Suele usarse, por ejemplo, cuando se intenta reclamar mayor compromiso conversacional a un interlocutor, de igual o menor jerarquía en términos de roles, que no está prestando

¹⁴ Los emblemas (Kendon, 1988; McNeill, 1992, 2005) son gestos convencionalizados culturalmente que se volvieron estables en su forma y tienden a ser fácilmente reconocibles (como por ejemplo el pulgar hacia arriba para manifestar aprobación). Forman parte de un inventario compartido, por lo que también se los conoce como “gestos citables”. Su aparición junto al lenguaje verbal es optativa, ya que tienen la capacidad de significar aun cuando el lenguaje verbal está ausente.

¹⁵ Siguiendo a Martín Peris (1996), designamos L1 a la primera lengua que adquiere el niño en forma completa -tomamos en consideración únicamente casos de adquisición monolingüe- y L2 a cualquier lengua que aprenda posteriormente, independientemente de que ésta sea extranjera o no o de que ya tenga conocimiento de más de una lengua. Suponemos, además, que los hablantes L1 han desarrollado el proceso de socialización en su L1.

atención durante una conversación en curso. En esas situaciones, el participante que realiza la acción verbal “hola”, generalmente acompañada por un énfasis de entonación y de intensidad de la mirada, no está intentando saludar al otro, sino hacerle notar que demanda que lo escuche o lo mire mientras le habla.

En lugar de hablar de acciones que se usan estratégicamente para negociar su significado en base a una IP, hablamos, en casos como el anterior, de acciones estratégicas que promueven una interpretación situada convencionalizada (en adelante IC), relativamente estable, de las acciones que la conforman. Una IC implica que, además de tener un conocimiento del idioma español -de su léxico, su gramática y su sintaxis- es necesario conocer las pautas de uso socio-culturales (Gumperz, 1982) que señalan que el empleo de determinada acción verbal, por ejemplo “hola”, constituye una estrategia típicamente utilizada en situaciones contextuales específicas para, por ejemplo, llamar la atención de otra persona. Esta interpretación o la negociación de su significado se encuentra garantizada socioculturalmente por su uso habitual y extendido en una comunidad lingüística (Hymes, 1996, p. 33) determinada.

Para negociar ese significado es necesario realizar -de manera consciente o no- un proceso inferencial que consiste en descartar la IP de la acción verbal o gestual, según sea el caso, en favor de una IC. Podemos ejemplificarlo a través de los siguientes pasos: 1) una persona con la que estoy manteniendo una conversación dijo “hola” mirándome fijamente a los ojos; 2) la IP de “hola” es la de saludo; 3) las características contextuales indican que mi interlocutor no está intentando saludarme; 4) por lo tanto, es posible que esté intentando negociar otro significado; 5) en encuentros informales entre personas que tienen una relación estrecha de confianza y familiaridad puede usarse la acción verbal “hola” para demandar mayor atención al discurso del otro; 6) en los últimos instantes no estuve demostrando suficiente atención; 7) en consecuencia, al realizar esa acción me está pidiendo mayor atención. Este tipo de acciones estratégicas se ubican en el grado 1 de indireccionalidad de la escala propuesta.

Así como señalamos el uso de la acción verbal “hola” para realizar acciones diferentes a la del saludo, podemos mencionar también, en el sentido inverso, el uso frecuente de la acción verbal “¿qué hacés?” para saludar a alguien y no para averiguar qué está haciendo, como lo indicaría una negociación del significado según su IP.

En un contexto de situación de un encuentro informal entre dos personas, esa estrategia de saludo es un recurso típico de la variedad rioplatense (Acuña, Baralo y Moure, 2015; Di Tullio y Kailuweit, 2011) y no se registra, en cambio, en otras variedades del español. Mientras que intraculturalmente -entre hablantes L1 de español rioplatense que tienen internalizadas y naturalizadas las pautas de uso socio-culturales-, el grado 1 puede pasar desapercibido y confundirse con lo que sería un grado 0 de indireccionalidad, cuando interviene en la conversación un participante de español como L2 -que no necesariamente comparte dichas pautas- la configuración contextual se modifica porque se modifican los conocimientos culturales compartidos. Para el participante L2, no necesariamente resulta obvio que la acción verbal “¿qué hacés?” sea utilizada como una estrategia para saludar.

Las IC asociadas a determinadas funciones comunicativas básicas en español - como por ejemplo el saludo- no siempre son equivalentes a las usadas en otras lenguas. Su desconocimiento puede generar una gran cantidad de malentendidos en la comunicación intercultural (Grainger y Mills, 2016) y por eso resulta fundamental abordar su enseñanza en la clase de ELSE.

Grado 2 de indireccionalidad o interpretación situada estratégica. Reconocemos, por último, un grado 2 de indireccionalidad. Nos referimos a acciones estratégicas que no se encuentran convencionalizadas socio-culturalmente -como en el grado 1-, sino que son creadas por un participante determinado, en un momento particular, con un fin interaccional específico en una situación también específica.

A raíz de su carácter idiosincrático, las estrategias de grado 2 de indireccionalidad dejan abiertas varias posibilidades de negociación de los significados e, incluso, pueden derivar en la producción de un efecto de vaguedad, ambigüedad o ironía. La mayoría de las veces, resulta necesaria una actitud ostensiva del participante que realiza la acción estratégica para hacer evidente su intención comunicativa de ser indirecto y evitar, de ese modo, la generación de algún malentendido, ya sea entre hablantes de la misma lengua o no. En consecuencia, uno de los rasgos que caracterizan a las acciones estratégicas en grado 2 de indireccionalidad es que tienden a ser pragmáticamente marcadas.

La combinación de las acciones que las conforman promueve la negociación de los significados en función de lo que llamamos una interpretación situada estratégica (en adelante IE). Para negociar su significado interaccional se requiere la activación de un procesamiento más complejo -consciente o no- de inferencias pragmáticas que implica, entre otras cosas, descartar una posible IP y una posible IC de la acción o las acciones realizadas.

Este último grado de indireccionalidad es el más difícil de describir y ejemplificar, justamente por su carácter idiosincrático y por el nivel de complejidad que representa, ya que a diferencia de los casos de grado 1, no se encuentra asociado a la realización de acciones específicas (saludos, pedidos, etc.) por convencionalización socio-cultural. Presentamos un ejemplo en el que se enfatiza, además, la importancia de la perspectiva multimodal que abordamos.

En el tramo final de una reunión de amigos quedan dos hombres y una mujer, uno de ellos es el dueño de la casa en la que se encuentran y tiene intenciones de quedarse a solas con la mujer. Cuando ella se dispone a retirarse y va hacia otra habitación para buscar sus cosas, el dueño de casa dice: “¿Por qué no se quedan un rato más?”, mientras le hace un gesto de tipo emblema (usado cuando queremos indicar que alguien se vaya) con la mano a su amigo, señalándole la puerta de salida y guiñándole un ojo. La mujer puede escuchar la acción verbal pero no puede ver las acciones gestuales porque se encuentra en otra habitación.

En esa acción estratégica podemos identificar dos destinatarios diferentes. Por un lado, la mujer, de quien se espera que, como destinataria únicamente de la acción verbal, realice la IC de la propuesta¹⁶ a quedarse. Pero por otro lado, está el amigo, para el que la estrategia utilizada cobra otra dimensión porque se combinan las acciones pertenecientes a diferentes modos (verbal, gestual, mirada). El significado interaccional se negocia entre los dos hombres, entonces, a partir de la combinación de todas ellas y no asignándole un significado a cada una por separado. Por lo tanto, no hay una contradicción entre una propuesta para quedarse, realizada por medio de la acción verbal y un pedido para abandonar el lugar, por medio de la acción gestual, sino que en conjunto promueven una IE de pedido de complicidad entre los dos hombres.

Podemos ejemplificar el proceso inferencial requerido de la siguiente manera: 1) estoy a punto de irme de la casa de un amigo al finalizar una reunión cuando él dice “¿por qué no se quedan un rato más?”, realiza la acción gestual de señalarme la puerta de salida con su mano y la de guiñarme un ojo; 2) su acción verbal se usa típicamente para hacer propuestas o sugerencias, en este caso, para quedarse en su casa, pero su acción gestual se usa para pedir que alguien se vaya de un lugar, la acción de guiñar un ojo puede adquirir diferentes matices; 3) dado que la IC de su acción verbal y la IP de su acción gestual parecen contradecirse, es probable que esté intentando negociar otro significado en términos de una IE; 4) en la habitación de al lado está buscando sus cosas una amiga que iba a retirarse conmigo; 5) ella pudo escuchar la acción verbal del dueño de casa pero no pudo ver sus acciones gestuales; 6) es probable que mi amigo no pretenda que ella las vea; 7) dado que la IC de su acción verbal es una propuesta para quedarse en su casa un rato más y que esa acción es la única a la que tuvo acceso nuestra amiga, es posible que él quiera que ella se quede en su casa; 8) dado que yo no soy el destinatario de su acción verbal, sino de la combinación de sus acciones, es posible que yo no esté incluido en la propuesta; 9) por lo tanto, al realizar la combinación de sus acciones, está intentando comunicarme que quiere quedarse a solas con nuestra amiga.

Como podemos apreciar en este ejemplo, el significado resultante del intercambio comunicativo es siempre producto de la interacción entre los diferentes modos y así también lo son las inferencias que permiten que los participantes reconozcan, interpreten y comuniquen esos significados en la interacción (Lacanna, 2012). Esto permite explicar situaciones como estas en las que, sólo en apariencia, los recursos de los diferentes modos parecen entrar en conflicto, cuando, en realidad, se complementan

¹⁶ Las unidades de entonación interrogativas encabezadas por “por qué” promueven, según su IP, que se interprete como una interrogación causal. Cuando al adverbio interrogativo causal le sigue el modalizador de negación “no”, existe la posibilidad de que esa IP se mantenga, tratándose de una interrogación causal acerca del motivo por el cual no se realiza o realizó determinada acción (ej: en medio del transcurso de una cena, una mujer le pregunta a su hijo “¿Por qué no comés?”), o bien que esa negación no afecte la modalidad del proceso verbal, sino que forme parte de la estructura interrogativa conformando una unidad completa que afecta a toda la proposición (ej: finalizada la cena, la madre dice: ¿Por qué no te acostás y seguís estudiando mañana?). En el segundo caso, la unidad de entonación interrogativa se usa, típicamente, para realizar propuestas o sugerencias en grado 1 de indireccionalidad (Lacanna, 2016).

para construir significados interaccionales que dependen estrictamente del contexto de situación en el que son utilizados.

En el siguiente apartado, presentamos una propuesta de aplicación didáctica del concepto de indireccionalidad en la clase de ELSE que permite mostrar cómo incide el fenómeno descrito en la negociación de los significados interaccionales y discutir brevemente los resultados de su uso en el aula.

Propuesta de aplicación didáctica

Nuestra propuesta se inscribe, en líneas generales, dentro de los postulados básicos del enfoque comunicativo en la enseñanza de lenguas (Canale y Swain, 1980; Dubin y Olshtain, 1986; Nunan, 1989) y, en particular, sigue los lineamientos del paradigma de la adecuación (Puren, 2004). Según éste, debe adoptarse una postura intermetodológica que combine las herramientas más efectivas de cada método de enseñanza a la hora de seleccionar los contenidos y diseñar las tareas dirigidas a los estudiantes de una L2. De este modo, no es necesario adscribirse a una única propuesta, sino que se pueden utilizar los aportes de cada método que se consideren adecuados con el objetivo de que los estudiantes puedan contar con diferentes herramientas para producir e interpretar textos en la lengua meta, acordes con sus intenciones comunicativas y las de sus interlocutores (Celce-Murcia y Olshtain, 2001).

Considerando lo desarrollado anteriormente, planteamos que resulta importante poder mostrar, a través del análisis de interacciones previamente seleccionadas y claramente contextualizadas, la variedad de recursos que los participantes utilizan para negociar significados en la interacción en situaciones comunicativas determinadas, especialmente cuando las acciones estratégicas realizadas presentan un grado de indireccionalidad mayor a 0.

Las interacciones conversacionales con las que trabajamos para el diseño de las actividades (Lacanna, 2016) fueron extraídas de seis películas argentinas producidas y estrenadas en los últimos quince años. La decisión de trabajar con escenas de películas se debe a que nos permite contar con una amplia muestra de situaciones de lenguaje en uso socio-culturalmente definidas, dentro de la variedad del español rioplatense, que se encuentran contextualmente enmarcadas. Esta decisión se apoya, además, en la idea de que la enseñanza de ELSE no se limita a la enseñanza del uso de las formas verbales sino de la combinación de éstas con el modo de la mirada, gestual y proxémico que también son particulares de cada comunidad lingüística y participan en la negociación de significados interaccionales. Al trabajar con material audiovisual, se pueden abordar tanto las cuestiones del comportamiento proxémico o gestual, según el grado de formalidad de las situaciones y las relaciones entre los participantes, como también la elección de los pronombres de tratamiento (vos/tú/usted).

La validez del trabajo con material audiovisual cinematográfico para la enseñanza de lenguas se sostiene en investigaciones previas (Moreno Jaén y Rodríguez Martín, 2009; Taylor, 2004) que comprobaron el grado de autenticidad y espontaneidad de las

escenas representadas en los textos fílmicos contemporáneos en comparación con instancias de interacciones orales reales. Lo novedoso de nuestra propuesta consiste en presentar una metodología de análisis de material cinematográfico que hasta ahora no ha sido lo suficientemente explotada con fines didácticos para la enseñanza de ELSE.

Si bien existen numerosas propuestas de actividades que utilizan textos fílmicos para incorporar a la clase, lo hacen abordándolos como artefactos (Halliday y Matthiessen, 2004). Analizar un texto fílmico desde la perspectiva de artefacto, implica hacer un análisis de su composición artística, de su inscripción en determinada tradición y géneros cinematográficos, del carácter de sus personajes, etc. Equivale a adoptar una mirada externa y analizar la película completa como un solo texto. Por el contrario, existe la posibilidad, menos explorada hasta el momento, de analizarlo desde el punto de vista del texto como espécimen (Halliday y Matthiessen, 2004). En este último caso, la película es considerada como un conjunto de textos, muestras de lenguaje en uso, que nos permite analizar y ejemplificar su funcionamiento en situaciones concretas y claramente contextualizadas. Desde el punto de vista de los textos como espécimen, no hay diferencias entre una interacción extraída de un género ficcional y una interacción videograbada en la vida real (Álvarez-Pereyre, 2011). Ambas cumplen la misma función, son realizaciones concretas de lenguaje.

Las interacciones que conforman nuestro corpus son analizadas desde el punto de vista del texto como espécimen, como representaciones de situaciones de uso reales del lenguaje. Esto nos permite analizarlas como muestras del español rioplatense en uso, en situaciones comunicativas concretas, para dar cuenta de cómo los participantes apelan a los distintos grados de indireccionalidad para negociar los significados interaccionales. Las situaciones de lenguaje representadas en las escenas que conforman el corpus aportan ejemplos a partir de los cuales es posible inferir cuáles son los fines comunicativos de los participantes al utilizar determinadas estrategias. Así también, permite evaluar las reacciones de sus interlocutores y los efectos pragmáticos que se producen. Esto hace que los estudiantes estén familiarizados con ciertos usos del lenguaje a los que probablemente se vean expuestos por el hecho de participar en situaciones de características similares y que generalmente no aparecen en el registro de la clase ni en los libros de texto tradicionales.

Características del material didáctico

El material didáctico que diseñamos está compuesto por dos secciones diferenciadas. La primera es una guía de actividades cuyos destinatarios son los alumnos de ELSE. La segunda es una guía dirigida a los docentes de ELSE. Ambas fueron pensadas para ser utilizadas en contextos de enseñanza institucionalizados, es decir, en una situación de clase compuesta por un/a profesor/a, alumnos y materiales didácticos seleccionados específicamente para cubrir una serie de temas básicos de acuerdo a un nivel de conocimiento de la lengua B2/C1, determinado según los estándares del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia (MCER). La guía de actividades contiene las indicaciones de lo que se hará durante la/s clase/s y las instrucciones para que los alumnos puedan realizarlo. La guía del profesor, que acompaña a la anterior,

tiene como finalidad describir las posibilidades de utilización de cada una de las consignas propuestas para que el docente las adapte según sus intereses y necesidades concretas. No pretende ser de carácter normativo, sino todo lo contrario. Construye un destinatario que es un profesional en la materia y que tiene conocimiento completo de todos los temas que se abordan en la clase, razón por la cual no se incluyen explicaciones lingüísticas.

Siguiendo la idea del paradigma de la adecuación (Puren, 2004), consideramos que toda herramienta didáctica debe ser lo suficientemente flexible y adaptable a la configuración particular de cada situación de clase. Así como no existe un modelo de alumno que encuadre perfectamente dentro de ninguno de los descriptores de nivel que mencionamos en el apartado anterior, tampoco es posible pretender que una misma actividad -o conjunto de actividades- satisfaga a todos -o a la mayoría- de los docentes que la utilicen. En ese sentido es que nuestra propuesta lleva el nombre de “guía” -tanto para el alumno como para el profesor-, porque no tiene como finalidad ser más que eso, una orientación acerca de cómo y para qué puede ser usada, pero sin constituir una restricción o limitación para el docente que quiera adecuarla a su antojo.

La idea es que los profesores de ELSE, profesionales capacitados para desarrollar esa tarea, puedan apropiarse del material y manipularlo a su estilo como si fuera una caja de herramientas, “un recurso (prevenidamente) neutro a disposición de los grupos de usuarios y capaz de intervenir eficazmente en la renovación pedagógica y actualización de la profesión” (Martín Peris, 1996 p. 474). Por esta razón es que no se incluyeron fórmulas o reglas gramaticales ni de sintaxis. En muchos casos, la explicación ofrecida por los libros de texto dificulta, en lugar de facilitar, la presentación de un tema porque no coincide con la forma que elige el profesor para hacerlo. En esas situaciones, al existir una discrepancia entre lo que dice el libro y lo que explica el docente se genera como resultado una confusión entre los estudiantes.

Nuestra guía de actividades se propone, entonces, como una herramienta que supone un usuario que conoce perfectamente cómo usarla y deja abierta, además, la posibilidad de refuncionalizarla según sus intereses.

Perfil del alumno

Según el MCER, el alumno que alcanza el nivel B2 (Dominio operativo limitado) en la L2/LE se caracteriza por su capacidad de argumentar eficazmente (presentar, explicar y defender su punto de vista en un debate; desarrollar un argumento; especular sobre causas, consecuencias y posibles situaciones hipotéticas), conversar con naturalidad, fluidez y eficacia (iniciar, mantener el turno de habla y finalizar una conversación) y tener un grado de consciencia suficiente sobre la lengua que le permite autocorregirse y detectar cuáles son los errores más comunes que pueden generar malentendidos con sus interlocutores. Además, se destaca que en este nivel el alumno desarrolla una gran cantidad de estrategias de negociación que le permiten satisfacer sus propósitos comunicativos. En el nivel C1 (Dominio operativo eficaz) se refuerzan las características del nivel precedente y se adquiere “un repertorio lingüístico amplio” lo

que facilita una comunicación fluida y espontánea que “sólo un tema conceptualmente difícil puede obstaculizar”. Las diferencias entre un estudiante de un nivel y otro no siempre resultan fáciles de determinar y es probable que no se adviertan a simple vista. Es por eso que planteamos las actividades en el rango que va del B2 al C1, ambos considerados avanzados.

Un ejemplo

Presentamos, a modo de muestra, la primera consigna de visionado por escenas de “*Tesis sobre un homicidio: guía de actividades para la clase de ELSE*”¹⁷ y las correspondientes indicaciones de la “Guía del profesor”, ambas de nuestra autoría. A continuación, hacemos una breve reflexión sobre los resultados preliminares de su aplicación en clase.

1. Visionado por escenas. Actividad grupal.

Antes de comenzar a ver la película, van a mirar tres escenas¹⁸ correspondientes a la parte inicial para ir conociendo a los personajes. A cada grupo se le asignará una escena para resolver las siguientes consignas. Al finalizar, harán una puesta en común.

- 1) ¿Qué tipo de relación hay entre los participantes? ¿Cómo se expresa esa relación?
- 2) ¿Qué acciones comunicativas¹⁹ realizan los participantes? ¿Qué estrategias utilizan para realizarlas?
- 3) ¿Qué acciones se realizan de manera más indirecta? ¿Con qué finalidad?
- 4) Si tuvieran que describir al personaje de Roberto según esta interacción en particular, ¿Cómo lo harían? ¿Por qué?

Guía del profesor

1. Visionado por escenas. Actividad grupal.

El objetivo de este ejercicio es que los estudiantes puedan analizar distintas interacciones, poniendo el énfasis en el comportamiento comunicativo de los participantes antes de concentrarse en la trama argumental del film. El acento está puesto en partir del análisis del texto como espécimen (Halliday y Matthiessen, 2004) del español rioplatense. En las tres escenas se repite el personaje principal de la película en interacción con diferentes personas. En la pregunta 1), la idea es que puedan describir el tipo de relación que entabla con cada interlocutor a partir del análisis de la combinación de recursos verbales (vocativos, pronombres, formas de tratamiento, selección léxica, etc.), gestuales, proxémicos, etc. En la pregunta 2), los estudiantes deben poder reconocer cuáles son las acciones que realizan los participantes (preguntas,

¹⁷ Guía de actividades basadas en la película *Tesis sobre un homicidio*, dirigida por Goldfrid (2013).

¹⁸ Se transcribe una de las escenas en la sección Anexo de este trabajo.

¹⁹ Una acción comunicativa puede ser saludar, dar una orden, pedir permiso, etc.

pedidos, pedidos de disculpas, excusas, invitaciones, evaluaciones, saludos, etc.) y mediante qué recursos y estrategias. Es importante notar que, en algunos casos, el lenguaje verbal está ausente y la acción comunicativa se realiza por medio de otros recursos semióticos. En la pregunta 3), el objetivo es que puedan poner en relación las diferentes acciones para evaluar el grado de indireccionalidad de cada una de ellas y su relación con las intenciones comunicativas de quienes las realizan. Es interesante debatir qué es lo que entienden por indireccionalidad y cuál es la reacción y el grado de interpretación ante los casos más indirectos, como en los varios ejemplos de ironía que aparecen. La pregunta 4) pretende poner en relación el comportamiento interaccional de uno de los participantes, Roberto, con la construcción de su identidad. La idea es analizar qué descripción surge de cada una de las interacciones, según la relación interpersonal que construye con su interlocutor.

Breve revisión de los resultados

La guía anterior formó parte del material complementario para la clase de ELSE de un instituto privado de nivel universitario situado en la Ciudad de Buenos Aires, Argentina, durante el período lectivo 2016/2017. Dado que los cursos son semestrales, la guía fue utilizada en cuatro oportunidades. Las clases estaban conformadas por grupos de alumnos de entre veinte y veintidós años de edad, de nacionalidad estadounidense en su mayoría, de nivel socio-económico alto. Todos se encontraban en situación de inmersión y en convivencia con familias argentinas.

Los datos más relevantes, para el presente artículo, que surgen de la experiencia didáctica con el material se relacionan con las reacciones de los estudiantes frente a las estrategias de grado 1 y 2 de indireccionalidad que aparecieron en las escenas seleccionadas para la actividad. En primer lugar, observamos que en relación con los casos de grado 1, se produjeron dos situaciones diferentes. Con respecto a algunas estrategias para realizar acciones de saludo (“¿qué hacés?”, “¿cómo andás?”) o de peticiones (“¿podés venir más tarde?”), no hubo problemas para identificar cuál era la acción que se estaba realizando ni para negociar su significado. Sin embargo, sí se manifestaron confusos con respecto a otras. Por ejemplo, con la fórmula “¿qué dice?” para saludar, o con la exclamación “¡qué bárbaro!” como comentario evaluativo. En ambos casos, las estrategias fueron interpretadas como saludo y como evaluación, respectivamente, en el contexto de la escena de la película. Sin embargo, varios de los alumnos mencionaron que ya habían oído anteriormente esas mismas expresiones, ya sea de sus padres anfitriones, de algún vendedor en un comercio o de un encargado de edificio y que no habían podido comprender su función pragmática a causa de haber recurrido a analizar el significado literal de las palabras utilizadas por sus interlocutores. En consecuencia, no habían sabido de qué manera responder.

Por otra parte, en las estrategias de grado 2, se requirió de la intervención del docente para poder llegar a la comprensión de su significado. En esos casos, todos los estudiantes manifestaron la dificultad de comprender cuando los argentinos utilizan la ironía y el humor y aludieron al sentimiento de frustración que eso les genera.

Por último, como había sido previsto, en los casos de grado 0, en los que prevalece la literalidad de los significados, no se registraron problemas de comprensión, excepto cuando se desconocía el léxico específico en cuestión (ámbito judicial y criminalístico).

A continuación, desarrollamos algunos argumentos para sostener los motivos por los cuales la incorporación de una propuesta como la anterior puede resultar novedosa para la enseñanza de ELSE.

La indireccionalidad y la enseñanza de ELSE

La mayoría de los trabajos sobre indireccionalidad que fueron aplicados a la investigación en enseñanza de L2 se ha centrado en describir este fenómeno en relación con la realización de un número limitado de actos de habla indirectos, como por ejemplo, los pedidos o directivas (Blum-Kulka, 1982, 1987; Holtgraves, 1998, 2007; Kasper y Blum-Kulka, 1993; Koike, 1989; Thomas, 1983, 1984; Weizman, 1989, 1993), las disculpas (Kasper y Blum-Kulka, 1993; Koike, 1989) o las estrategias de rechazo (Bardovi-Harlig y Hartford, 1990; Robinson, 1992). En ellos se propone explicar también la producción de emisiones indirectas vinculadas con las normas de cortesía en tanto principio universal (Brown y Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983) a partir de los datos que arrojan trabajos que tienen, en su mayoría, al inglés como lengua meta. Si bien se registran estudios sobre otras lenguas (Blum-Kulka, 1982 sobre el aprendizaje de hebreo; Escandell Vidal, 1995, 1996, 2004 y Koike, 1989 sobre el español; Wierzbicka, 1991 sobre el polaco), el número es considerablemente menor. Resulta importante destacar esto por lo siguiente: un punto en el que coinciden todas las investigaciones es que los hablantes de cualquier lengua ya han desarrollado una competencia pragmática (Blum-Kulka, 1982; Thomas, 1983) durante el proceso de adquisición de su L1, por lo tanto, no es necesario enseñarles a realizar inferencias. Sin embargo, lo que sí debe enseñarse es qué tipo de inferencias desencadena, habitualmente, la realización de determinadas acciones comunicativas en una comunidad lingüística específica. No alcanza con transferir las estrategias inferenciales -basadas en convenciones de uso lingüísticas y sociales particulares- de su L1 a la L2.

Partiendo de la clasificación en grados propuesta en este trabajo y de los primeros resultados que surgen de la aplicación de la guía de actividades, podemos establecer algunas prioridades para su abordaje en la clase de ELSE.

Las estrategias que clasificamos en el grado 0 son las que tradicionalmente se presentan en la clase. Se encuentran convencionalizadas lingüísticamente y demandan un procesamiento inferencial mínimo, que consiste en entender el significado de las acciones verbales utilizadas. Estas características no generan mayores dificultades para su interpretación.

Las estrategias de grado 1, en cambio, demandan un esfuerzo cognitivo mayor para el hablante de ELSE. Esto puede deberse, por un lado, al probable desconocimiento

de muchas de las convencionalizaciones socioculturales de uso del español en situaciones específicas, lo que le dificulta el proceso inferencial para negociar los significados. Por otro, a su intento de transferir a la L2 algunas de las estrategias que utiliza en su L1, lo que puede generar que el hablante de ELSE realice acciones estratégicas que resultan inadecuadas para la comunidad lingüística en la que está inmerso. En ambos casos se da lugar a la ocurrencia de malentendidos frecuentes en la comunicación intercultural (Grainger y Mills, 2016). Para evitar este tipo de malentendidos, es necesario conocer tanto las acciones estratégicas más habituales en una comunidad lingüística, como así también sus condiciones de uso.

En ese sentido, una misma estrategia, por ejemplo interrogar sobre la capacidad del destinatario de realizar una determinada acción, recibe interpretaciones diferentes según la comunidad lingüística en la que se utilice. Mientras que en español una pregunta como “¿podés pasarme la sal?” se interpreta convencionalmente como un pedido, su traducción literal en polaco (“Czy możesz podać mi sól?”) para realizar la misma petición, sin embargo, se interpreta como una pregunta acerca de la capacidad de la persona de realizar esa acción (Escandell Vidal, 1996) y tiende a interpretarse como una ofensa.

En cada lengua y cultura, por consiguiente, se crean expectativas de comportamiento lingüístico que, al no verse satisfechas por los participantes de una interacción, pueden interpretarse como un acto de desinterés o descortesía. Los hablantes que se encuentran en proceso de aprendizaje y desarrollo de una L2 no son del todo conscientes sobre ese aspecto y eso lleva a que en una gran cantidad de situaciones, incluso en las que se pretende cumplir funciones básicas, se produzcan episodios de malentendidos que surgen de la presunción del estudiante de que una acción en la lengua meta tendrá las mismas implicaturas, presupuestos, fuerza ilocucionaria y usos conversacionales que alguna construcción análoga de su L1 (Levinson, 1983, p. 376). Denominamos este tipo de fenómenos como ‘transferencia pragmática’²⁰.

Entendemos que una transferencia pragmática se produce cuando un hablante traduce una acción estratégica de su L1, de manera directa a la L2, intentando asignarle la misma función pragmático-comunicativa. Es usual, por ejemplo, que ante una pregunta del tipo: “¿Te sirvo un café o un té?” o “¿Preferís que cenemos afuera esta noche?”, los angloparlantes respondan, con la intención de actuar amablemente, “No me importa”, como traducción de *I don't mind*, que en inglés funciona, generalmente, como una forma cortés de cederle al otro la opción de elegir sin imponerse. El efecto que se produce en español es, por el contrario, completamente diferente ya que quien recibe esa respuesta tiende a interpretarla como grosera. El desconocimiento de algunas opciones de respuesta preferida en español (“me da lo mismo” o “lo que vos quieras”)

²⁰ Optamos por utilizar esta terminología en lugar de la de interferencia pragmática, propuesta por Escandell Vidal (1995, 1996) o la de falla pragmática, propuesta por Thomas (1983), dado que no concebimos que sea una interferencia o una falla lo que origina el mal entendido, sino una estrategia de transferencia que el hablante utiliza cuando desconoce la forma de expresar en la lengua meta su intención comunicativa.

que resultan muy comunes para un hablante L1 de nuestra comunidad lingüística, los lleva a hacer una transferencia pragmática desde el inglés que, sin embargo, no logra cumplir adecuadamente con su propósito interaccional.

Otra situación que se repite en las clases de ELSE, y a la que pretende responder una propuesta como la nuestra, es la dificultad que plantean los estudiantes para realizar acciones muy básicas, como responder a un saludo en la calle o hacer un pedido en un local de comidas. Un porcentaje elevado de estudiantes de ELSE angloparlantes -aun con un nivel avanzado de competencia en el contexto académico- afirma, por ejemplo, que experimenta confusión a la hora de tener que pedirle a un mozo algo para tomar o comer en un restaurante, ya que su primer impulso es traducir literalmente la expresión verbal a la que acuden en su L1 (“¿Puedo tener una cerveza?” por *Can I have a beer?*) para cumplir esa función.

A lo largo de quince años de experiencia como docentes, hemos evidenciado el modo en que fenómenos de transferencia pragmática como estos se multiplican y generan frustración y una autoevaluación negativa por parte de los estudiantes de ELSE hacia sí mismos. Por lo tanto, apuntamos a implementar actividades que promuevan el desarrollo de una competencia pragmática (Blum Kulka, 1982) en la lengua meta que les dé las herramientas necesarias para reconocer y realizar acciones comunicativas estratégicas en una lengua que no es la propia. Esto implica enseñarles, por un lado, las diferentes posibilidades que ofrece esa lengua para realizar determinadas acciones. Por otro, que la elección de una u otra de esas formas, en una situación específica, tiene un grado de aceptabilidad social relacionado con pautas socioculturales definidas.

Las estrategias de grado 1 de indireccionalidad, que pretendemos analizar a través de las interacciones seleccionadas de las películas, permiten una sistematización para su enseñanza y se encuentran asociadas a la realización de determinadas acciones (saludar, pedir comida, aceptar o rechazar una oferta, invitar, etc.) que resultan fundamentales para su inclusión en la enseñanza de ELSE.

Por otra parte, aunque las estrategias de grado 2 son menos sistematizables para su enseñanza y se destacan por su carácter idiosincrático, son, sin embargo, también factibles de ser analizadas en clase a través de ejemplos concretos que permitan su análisis y posibiliten que los estudiantes de ELSE puedan desarrollar estrategias de negociación similares en el caso de requerirlas. Por esta razón, la propuesta de aplicación didáctica que elaboramos prevé la posibilidad de reconocer distintos grados de indireccionalidad en la realización de acciones comunicativas habituales, a pesar de que se enfoca más detenidamente en los casos de grado 1. En la Tabla 1 se resumen las principales características de cada uno de los grados de indireccionalidad.

Tabla 1
Grados de indireccionalidad

Estrategias de grado 0	Estrategias de grado 1	Estrategias de grado 2
Interpretación situada primaria	Interpretación situada convencionalizada	Interpretación situada estratégica
La posibilidad de que se generen malentendidos es baja	La posibilidad de que se generen malentendidos es más alta entre hablantes de diferentes comunidades lingüísticas	La posibilidad de que se generen malentendidos es más alta entre hablantes de comunidades lingüísticas diferentes, pero también puede darse el caso de que suceda entre hablantes de la misma comunidad lingüística
Implica un procesamiento inferencial básico, garantizado por el conocimiento de la lengua	Implica un procesamiento inferencial sencillo, garantizado por el conocimiento de la lengua y las pautas de convencionalización sociocultural	Implica un procesamiento inferencial complejo que no está garantizado ni por el conocimiento de la lengua ni por compartir las pautas de convencionalización sociocultural
Son sistematizables para su enseñanza por convención lingüística	Son sistematizables para su enseñanza por su convencionalización de uso en una comunidad lingüística	No son sistematizables, deben abordarse como casos particulares en cada situación específica

Conclusiones

En este artículo nos propusimos presentar la indireccionalidad como fenómeno discursivo gradual, presente en toda acción comunicativa, como aspecto importante para ser abordado en la clase de ELSE. Para ello desarrollamos una definición del concepto y diseñamos una secuencia didáctica basada en una película argentina que permitiera aplicarlo didácticamente.

A partir de la aplicación de la secuencia didáctica en cuatro situaciones de clase, pudimos comprobar que las estrategias de grado 0 de indireccionalidad no generaron dificultades de comprensión ni de identificación del tipo de acción comunicativa que se estaba realizando, excepto por los casos de desconocimiento del léxico específico involucrado, lo cual concuerda con la primacía del rasgo de literalidad que caracteriza a las estrategias de grado 0. Por el contrario, vimos cómo las estrategias de grado 1 de indireccionalidad están mayormente condicionadas por el conocimiento de las pautas socioculturales de uso del lenguaje para la adecuada negociación de sus significados. Es el caso de muchas fórmulas de saludo en el registro informal (¿qué hacés?, ¿qué decís?, ¿cómo andás?), de expresiones de deseo (que te vaya bien), de apreciaciones (¿qué

bárbaro!), etc. Pudimos observar también que, en el transcurso del desarrollo de la secuencia didáctica, los estudiantes manifestaron diversos grados de dificultad para comprender algunas de ellas, aún cuando reconocieron haberlas escuchado antes en algún contexto familiar. Esto se produjo, en especial, con las expresiones que se encuentran asociadas a un grupo etario diferente al propio, como por ejemplo, el de sus padres anfitriones, grupo con el cual mantienen un contacto menor que con el de sus pares. Finalmente, en las estrategias de grado 2, la contextualización de la situación provista por las escenas no fue suficiente para que pudieran ser comprendidas. En la mayoría de los casos, para que los estudiantes pudieran entender los significados que se estaban negociando fue necesaria la intervención y explicación del docente a cargo.

La necesidad de negociar significados con diferentes grados de indireccionalidad en situaciones de conversación informal es muy frecuente, en especial para estudiantes en situación de inmersión, por lo tanto, resaltamos la importancia de incluir su tratamiento en la clase de ELSE. Para ello consideramos pertinente utilizar fragmentos de escenas de películas en español ya que permiten mostrar cómo se realizan diferentes acciones comunicativas, debidamente contextualizadas y enmarcadas en marcos socio-culturales concretos y variados.

Para concluir, reconocemos que este es un tema que presenta grandes desafíos y múltiples posibilidades de ser abordado. Alentamos que siga siendo explorado en vistas de enriquecer y actualizar la tarea de enseñanza de ELSE y otras lenguas segundas y extranjeras.

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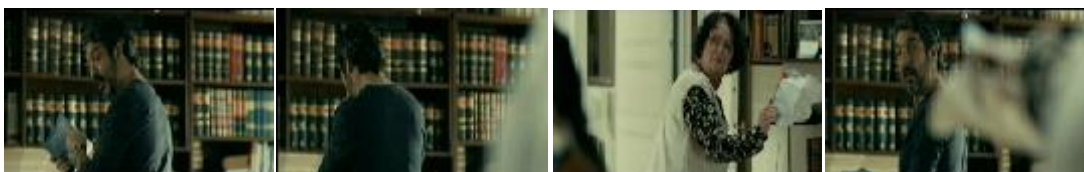
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Anexo 1

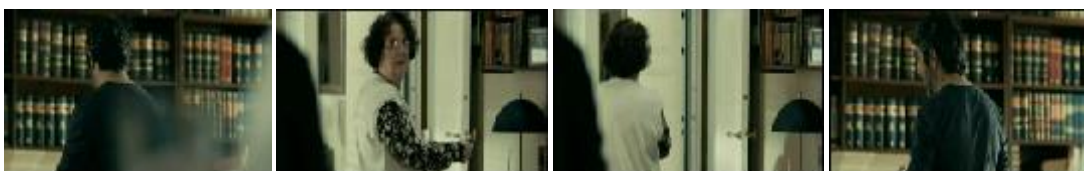
Escena 2 (08': 22'' - 09': 03'')



Roberto: ¿Qué dice Cecilia?
Cecilia: Bien, ¿y usted?
Roberto: Igual que ayer.



Cecilia: Llegaron los libros.
Roberto: Sí.
Cecilia: ¿Y esto?
Roberto: Ah.



Roberto: Un regalo. Me lo mandó Ruiz Cordera, Felipe. ¿Se acuerda?
Cecilia: Sí, claro. ¿Está acá?

Roberto: No, su hijo. Vino para mi seminario. Me preguntó si conocía a alguien que pudiera ir a su casa una o dos veces por semana.



Roberto: Le di su teléfono.

Cecilia: Ah, bueno. Gracias. ¡Qué lindo un regalo!



Roberto: Sí, divino. Una espadita de la justicia para un abogado. Es como si a un funebrero le regalaran un ataúd en miniatura.

Cecilia: Si usted lo dice.

The Rhotic Pronunciation of Anglo-English and Punjabi-English Bilingual Speakers in West Yorkshire

La pronunciación de /r/ de hablantes anglo-ingleses y punjabi-ingleses en Yorkshire del Oeste

Chad Hall

hallcha4@msu.edu

B.A. Linguistics, M.st. (Oxon) General Linguistics and Comparative Philology

Graduate Student, Department of Linguistics & Germanic, Slavic, Asian and African Languages

Michigan State University, East Lansing, U.S.A.

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Abstract

In this paper, the /r/ production of adolescent Anglo-English and Punjabi-English Bilingual speakers in West Yorkshire was analysed from speech data collected in 2000. A clear difference was found between Anglo-English speakers who used the standard British rhotic, the postalveolar approximant [ɹ], exclusively, and the Punjabi-English Bilingual speakers who used both British rhotics and a number of different variants influenced by the Punjabi retroflex flap /ɽ/. The influence of the retroflex flap /ɽ/ was proven by formant and duration results, as well as qualitative observations of the speaker spectrograms. It is predicted that Punjabi-English speaker preference for either Punjabi influenced rhotics or British rhotics depended on if they identify as culturally integrated “British Asians” or culturally alienated “Asians”. This study also considers the possibility of a progression in rhotic production of West Yorkshire Punjabi-English speakers over the last fifteen years.

Keywords: *Speech data, /r/ production, Punjabi, Anglo-English, West Yorkshire*

Resumen

Este trabajo analizó la producción del fonema /r/ de los adolescentes anglo-ingleses y punjabí-ingleses bilingües en el oeste de Yorkshire a partir de los datos recogidos en el año 2000. Se encontró una clara diferencia entre los hablantes anglo-ingleses que usan exclusivamente el /r/ británico estándar, [ɹ], y los hablantes bilingües punjabí-ingleses que usan el fonema /r/ británico tanto como otras variantes influenciadas por la vibrante retrofleja Punjabi /ɽ/. La influencia de esta última se demuestra en el movimiento

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formántico y la duración resultantes, así como por las observaciones cualitativas de los espectrogramas de los hablantes. Se predice que la preferencia de los hablantes punjabíes hacia los róticos punjabíes o los róticos británicos depende de si se identifican como "británicos asiáticos" integrados culturalmente o como asiáticos alienados culturalmente. Este estudio también considera la posibilidad de una progresión en la producción del rótico punjabi en los angloparlantes del oeste de Yorkshire en los últimos quince años.

Palaras clave: *Datos de habla, pronunciación de /r/, punjabi, anglo-inglés, Oeste de Yorkshire*

The dialects of English in Yorkshire are largely separated in to two main zones: The area southwest of the River Wharfe which is more influenced by the Mercian dialect and the area northeast of the River that is influenced more by the Northumbrian dialect (Ellis, 1992; Rohrer, 1950; Wakelin, 1977). Leeds and Bradford are neighboring cities situated southwest of the River, and are both part of the county of West Yorkshire. Petyt (1985) found that dialect differences between these two cities are minimal, suggesting that industrial West Yorkshire as a whole is a speech community that shares many language features.

However, the cities of Leeds and Bradford differ greatly in their demography. According to the 2011 United Kingdom Census (Office for National Statistics, 2011), 23% of the population of Bradford are Indian and Pakistani (2.59% Indian and 20.41% Pakistani), and Punjabi is the second most commonly spoken language in Bradford after English (2011 United Kingdom Census). Previous linguistic studies in Bradford reported that all Punjabi bilingual participants originated from the Mirpur district in the Punjab region of Pakistan (Heselwood & McChrystal, 1999; Kirkham, 2011; Kirkham & Wormald, 2015; Wormald, 2014) where a dialect termed ‘Mirpuri Pahari’ is spoken (Lothers & Lothers, 2012). In Leeds, there is a far smaller Indian and Pakistani demographic (5.14%) and a larger White British population of 81.1%, compared to Bradford’s White British population of 63.9%.

The acquisition of English as a second language by a large minority of Punjabi first language speakers in Bradford has led to the emergence of a particular contact variety of British Asian English that has received input from the local Bradford/West Yorkshire dialect and native Punjabi, as well as other Indo-Aryan languages prominently spoken in the area such as Urdu and Bengali. Cheshire, Kerswill, Fox & Torgersen (2011) discusses how in the emergence of contact varieties such as these, children initially acquire the language of their primary caregiver (Kerswill, 1996; Kerswill & Williams, 2000), in this case Punjabi, and then acquire the target language, English, mainly through informal and unguided second-language acquisition in their social networks.

There have been a small number of papers published on the features of British Asian English in Bradford over the last fifteen to twenty years. In 2000, Barry

Heselwood & Louise McChrystal investigated the presence of Punjabi accent features in the English of ten year-old Punjabi bilingual children in Bradford, focusing closely on their realization of stop consonants, though they also found other accent features not associated with monolingual Bradford English, such as clear allophones of /l/ in syllable codas, retroflex and postalveolar articulation of /t/, /d/ and /n/, and a backed /a/ vowel (Heselwood & McChrystal, 2000). No other research had been published on British Asian English in Bradford until 2015 when Sam Kirkham and Jessica Wormald released papers on further linguistic observations in Bradford Asian English: Wormald (2014) found that female Bradford Punjabi-English speakers produced a higher KIT and FACE (British Isles Primary Lexical Set) (Wells, 1982) vowel in comparison to Bradford Anglo-English speakers, a characteristic pattern of Asian and other Multicultural British English (Stuart-Smith, Timmins & Alam, 2011; Sharma, 2011). Kirkham & Wormald (2015) analysed the acoustic and articulatory variation of English liquids by Punjabi-English female bilinguals. It was found that they generally produced /l/ and /r/ with a more anterior constriction, while Anglo monolingual Bradford English speakers generally produced /l/ and /r/ with a more posterior constriction where the tongue dorsum is retracted (Kirkham & Wormald, 2015).

Presently, no papers on British Asian English in Bradford have accounted for these more recent findings in male speakers nor have they focused on dialect differences between sexes since Heselwood & McChrystal's 1999 and 2000 papers. Additionally no papers have analyzed the linguistic features of Punjabi-English bilingual adolescents in Bradford; Kirkham & Wormald (2015) and Wormald (2014) focused on adults from 18-45 years old and from 21-36 years old respectively, while Heselwood & McChrystal's (2000) paper investigated ten year olds. Furthermore, not all of the linguistic features observed in Bradford Punjabi-English speakers are explained in relation to the influence of native Punjabi. For example, /r/ is observed by Kirkham & Wormald (2015) to have a higher second and third formant compared to Bradford Anglo-English speakers due to its more anterior constriction, yet no comment is made as to why this difference exists or what the allophone is. This paper will analyse the rhotic pronunciation of adolescent male and female Anglo-English and Punjabi-English bilingual speakers in West Yorkshire (Leeds and Bradford) from older data collected in 2000 to analyse differences between the two ethnicities and confirm Kirkham & Wormald's (2015) and Wormald (2014) observations, to relate the findings in the Punjabi-English speakers to the phonemic inventory of Punjabi and to attempt to classify the rhotic produced, to observe if these differences vary considerably between sexes and to see if there are contrasts between adolescent and adult speech in the community. This paper will also consider if there is any evidence of a progression over time in the speech of Punjabi-English bilinguals in Bradford: The benefit of observing adolescent speakers recorded in 2000 is that these same speakers today would belong to the adult group that Kirkham and Wormald investigated in 2015, meaning that this paper can give a real time study of change in the speech of Bradford Punjabi-English bilinguals from adolescence to adulthood. Though the speakers recorded in 2000 may not necessarily be the same speakers recorded by Kirkham & Wormald (2015), it is assumed that the results presented both in this study and in Kirkham & Wormald's (2015) paper are representative of the language patterns of the entire speech group, and thus we can see

the possibility of a fascinating real-time change in the Bradford Punjabi community from over a decade ago to present time. It is also hoped that this paper can bring to light for Sociolinguists, Phoneticians and Second Language Researchers, the potential ways in which the analysis of one phoneme can reveal a substantial amount of information about an L2 community's adaptation to a second language, as well as how this adaptation progresses over a long period. The paper also aims to explain, through the analysis of /r/, the social factors that can help or hinder the adaptation of the production of a phoneme in an L2 community.

Variation in the Pronunciation of /r/

Rhotics are articulatory complex sounds that vary greatly across languages. For example, Spanish has two rhotic phonemes, the alveolar trill /r/ and alveolar tap /ɾ/ that contrast phonemically in word-medial position (perro ([pero]) 'dog' vs pero ([pero]) 'but'), but in many forms of English, /r/ has just one realization, the postalveolar approximant [ɹ] (not to be confused with the alveolar approximant [ɻ]). /r/ can also vary within the same language, such as the contrast between rhotic General American English, where /r/ is pronounced prevocally and postvocally, and non-rhotic Received Pronunciation where /r/ is only pronounced prevocally. This difference pertains to the point that even in a single dialect such as Received Pronunciation, the surface form of /r/ can differ based on its position in a syllable, word or phrase. Rhotic pronunciation can also vary based on sociolinguistic factors such as gender (Stuart-Smith, 2003), social class (Labov, 1966, 1972), ethnic (Hinton & Pollock, 2000), regional (Llamas & Watt, 2009) or national identity (Chambers & Trudgill, 1980).

The dialect of Leeds and Bradford is non-rhotic, meaning /r/ is only pronounced prevocally, and the standard pronunciation of rhotics is the postalveolar approximant [ɹ], like most dialects in England (Wells, 1982), though the alveolar tap [ɾ] has been observed to occasionally occur in Leeds and there is evidence that /r/ is becoming increasingly realized as a labiodental approximant [v] across England, including Leeds (Marsden, 2006). Punjabi by contrast is a rhotic language, meaning /r/ is pronounced prevocally and postvocally. The language consists of two rhotic consonants, the alveolar trill /r/ and the retroflex flap /ɽ/, that are phonemically distinct (Bakst, 2012; Bhatia, 1993; Karamat, 2010). For example, [mo:r] ('peacock') and [mo:ɽ] ('turn') are minimal pairs in Punjabi. The flap only occurs in word-medial and word-final position whereas the trill occurs in all positions. Kirkham & Wormald (2015) found that Punjabi-English bilinguals in Bradford had a non-rhotic accent similar to British English, though they produced /r/ with a more anterior constriction than the monolingual Anglo-English speakers produce regardless of word, phrase or syllable position. This was supported by ultrasound tongue imaging data and the higher F2 and F3 values from the Punjabi-English bilinguals compared to the Anglo-English speakers, who showed a significant drop in F3 during /r/ production, a typical acoustic cue of [ɹ] (Ladefoged, 2006). It is likely that the more anterior constriction of Punjabi-English /r/ production is a result of the influence of native Punjabi on this contact variety. This paper will seek to classify this rhotic variant and find if these patterns were present or different in a similar group of speakers fifteen years before when they were adolescents,

and also to look for any variation between male and female speakers. It will also consider, assuming similar results to Kirkham & Wormald (2015) are observed, if this anterior constriction is an allophone influenced by the Punjabi retroflex flap /ɽ/ or alveolar trill /r/ and the British postalveolar approximant /ɹ/. Furthermore, this paper will explore if there are any cases of Punjabi-English bilinguals using British rhotics, as was the case in Hirson & Sohail's (2007) study of British Asian English in London.

Method

IViE Corpus

The recordings for this study were taken from the 'Intonational Variation in English' (IViE) corpus (Grabe, Post & Nolan, 2001), which is a set of speech data from nine urban dialects of British English recorded from 1997-2000. The data was collected as part of a project to find intonational variation between speakers of different dialects across the British Isles. Speakers were recorded talking in five different speaking styles ranging from formal to free speech. The project has an output of several publications on intonational variation in British English. The recordings in Leeds were made by Kimberley Farrar and the Bradford recordings were made by Brechtje Post, both in 2000 (Grabe, 2003).

Participants

The speech of 24 speakers are analysed in this study. Twelve are monolingual Anglo-English speakers from Leeds and twelve are bilingual Punjabi-English speakers from Bradford. There are six males and six females in each group. According to the IViE corpus summary booklet, all the speakers were about sixteen years old at the time of recording, and all data was collected in urban secondary schools (Grabe, Post & Nolan, 2002).

Materials

Five speaking styles were recorded from the Bradford and Leeds speakers: Controlled sentences, a read text, a retold version of the text with the assistance of pictures, a map task done in single sex pairs, and a discussion on a given topic which was smoking. This study will analyse just the controlled sentence speech, and only the sentences relevant to the analysis of rhotic production. The following sentences were analysed from the corpus:

- *They are on the railings (Declarative)*
- *May I lean on the railings? (Question)*
- *Do you live in Ealing or Reading?*
- *We arrived in a limo*
- *Where is the manual?*
- *Is his name Miller or Mailer?*

Sentences 1-3 provide stressed word-initial (but not phrase-initial) rhotics (Railings, Reading) between two vowels, sentence 4 provides a stressed syllable-initial word-medial rhotic (Arrived) between two vowels, sentences 5 and 6 have phrase-medial word-final linking-r rhotics (Where, Miller) between two vowels and sentence 6 provides a word-final phrase-final postvocalic /r/ to observe if it is pronounced by the Punjabi-English bilingual speakers. With these sentences, we can compare the /r/ production of the Anglo-English and Punjabi-English bilingual speakers in different phonological contexts.

Analysis

For each sentence uttered by the speakers, the rhotic consonant was identified on the spectrogram on Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2016) and segmented manually. Since rhotics display great variability in their realisations across and within languages, the way in which they were segmented depended on the nature of the /r/ pronunciation. If the rhotic was an approximant, characterized by observable formants on the spectrogram and a loss of intensity compared to its surrounding vowels, the onset was marked at the start of articulatory movement away from the vowel, which is where the formants started transitioning to the rhotic. The offset of the approximant was marked at the end of the articulatory transition to the next vowel, which is where the formants finished transitioning to the steady state of the following vowel. For phrase-final word-final /r/, the offset was marked at the end of periodic voicing.

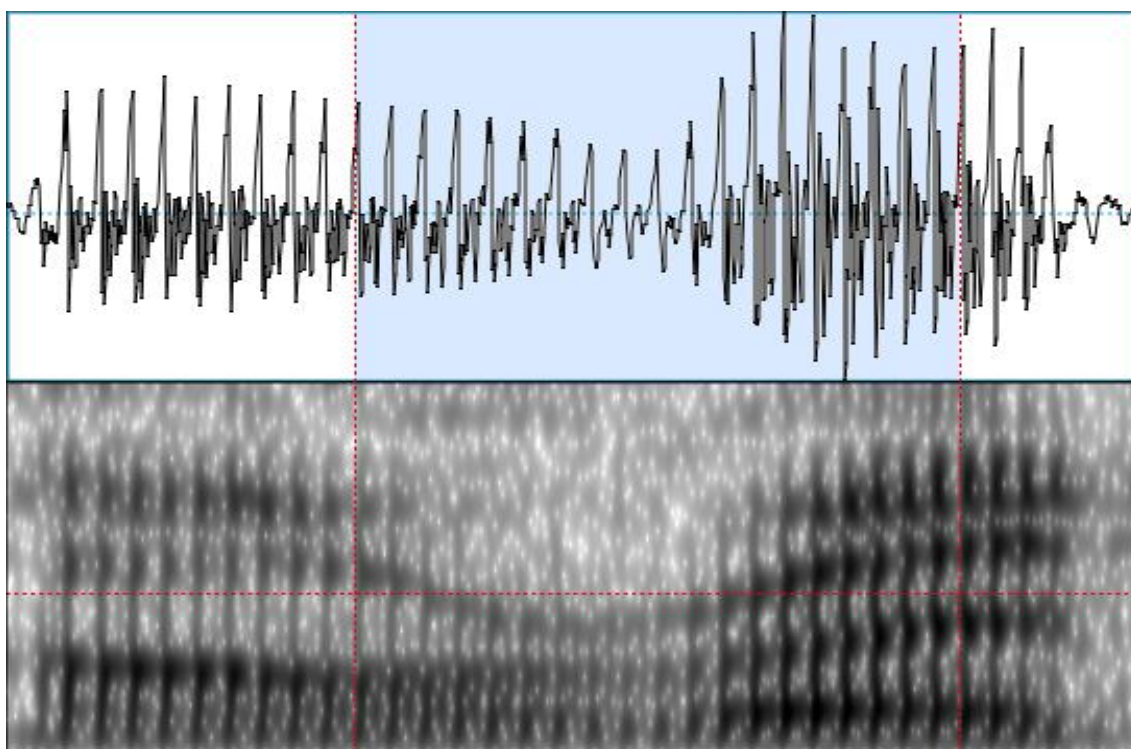


Figure 1. The segmentation of a postalveolar approximant.

Figure 1 shows how a postalveolar approximant [ɹ] between two vowels was segmented. Note that the rhotics in all figures are marked at the start and completion of formant, and therefore, articulator movement, motivated by Gao & Xu (2013). If the rhotic was a retroflex flap [ɽ], characterized by a short plosive burst similar to a voiced stop consonant, the onset was marked at the end of periodic voicing for the vowel where there was a sharp drop in intensity as the articulators began to constrict to articulate a flap, and the offset was marked at the start of periodic voicing of the next vowel after the flap gesture. *Figure 2* shows how a retroflex flap was segmented. Spectrogram figures are sourced from the author's data unless otherwise specified. All Spectrogram screenshots are from Praat with the frequency range between 0 to 5000Hz.

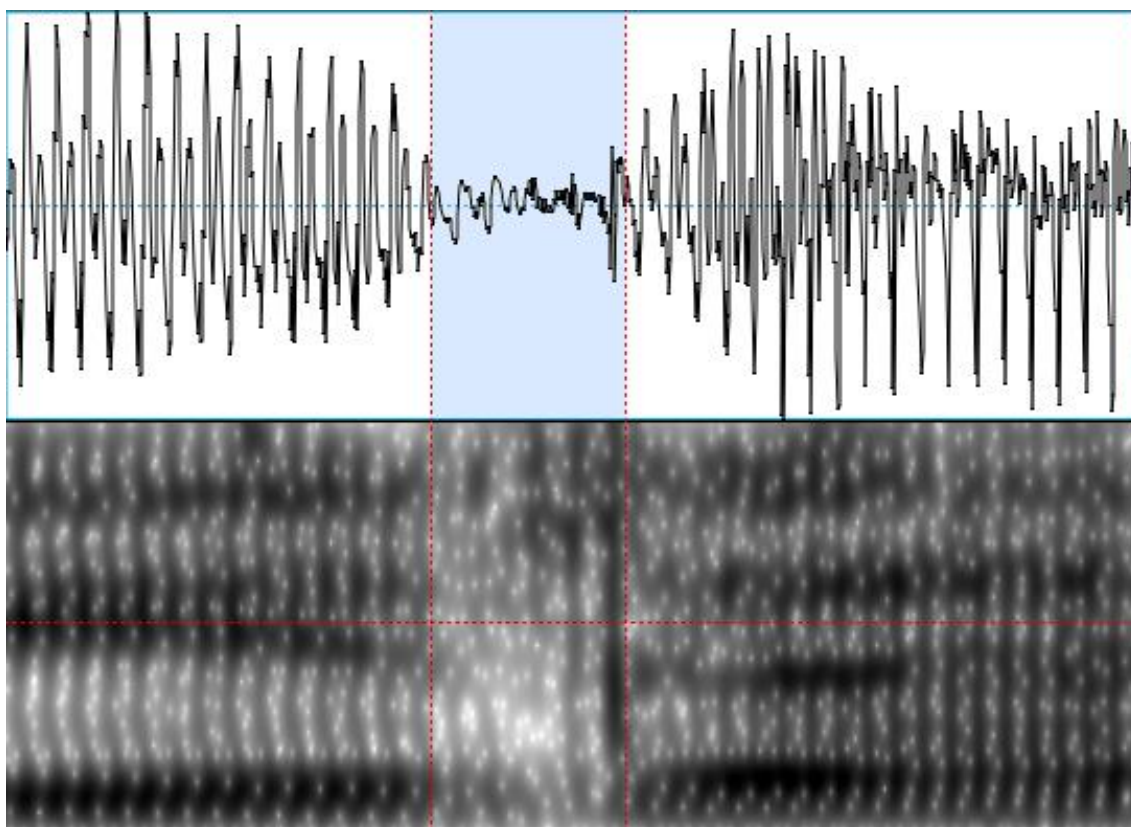


Figure 2. The segmentation of a retroflex flap.

It was also possible that a fricative may be produced if an approximant was articulated with the oral articulators tighter than usual, producing frication. In this case, a fricative was segmented with its onset at the end of periodic voicing of the previous vowel, and its offset at the start of periodic voicing of the next vowel, as *Figure 3* shows.

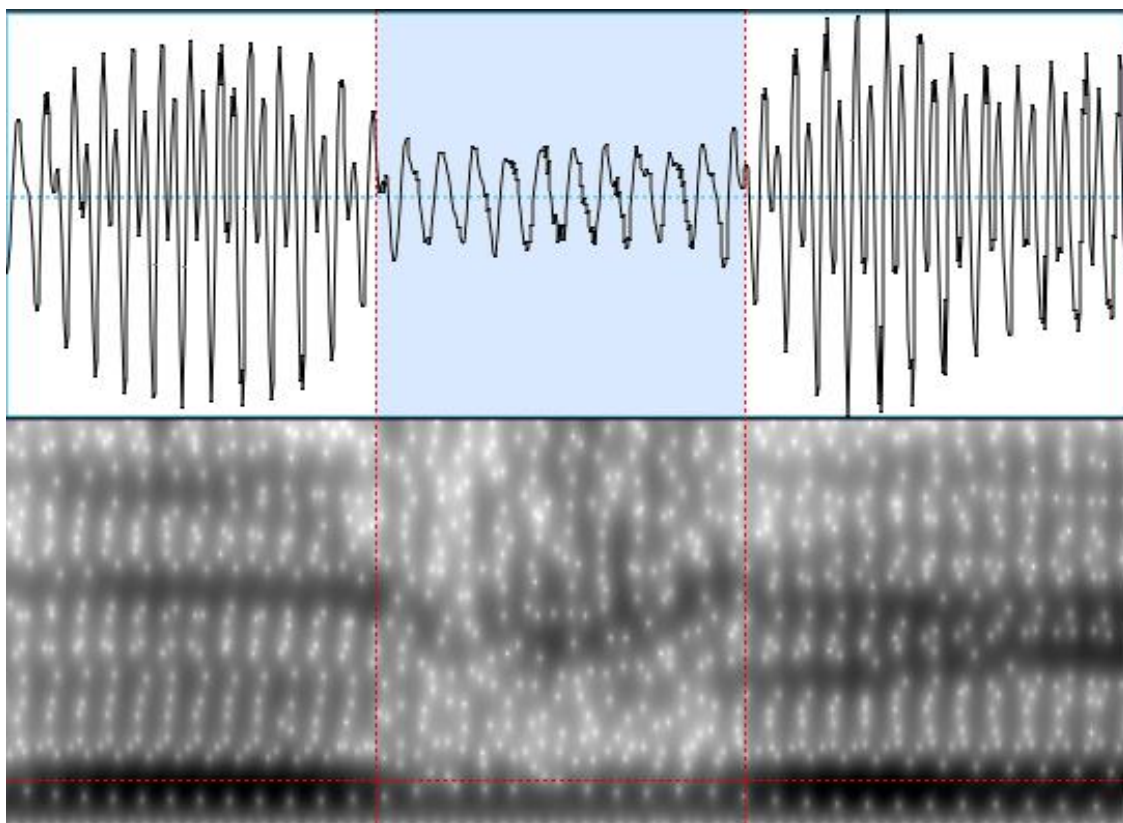


Figure 3. The segmentation of a fricative.

If an alveolar trill [r] was observed, its onset was segmented at the end of periodic voicing of the previous vowel, and its offset was segmented at the start of periodic voicing of the following vowel, as Figure 4, taken from Lamy (2015), shows.

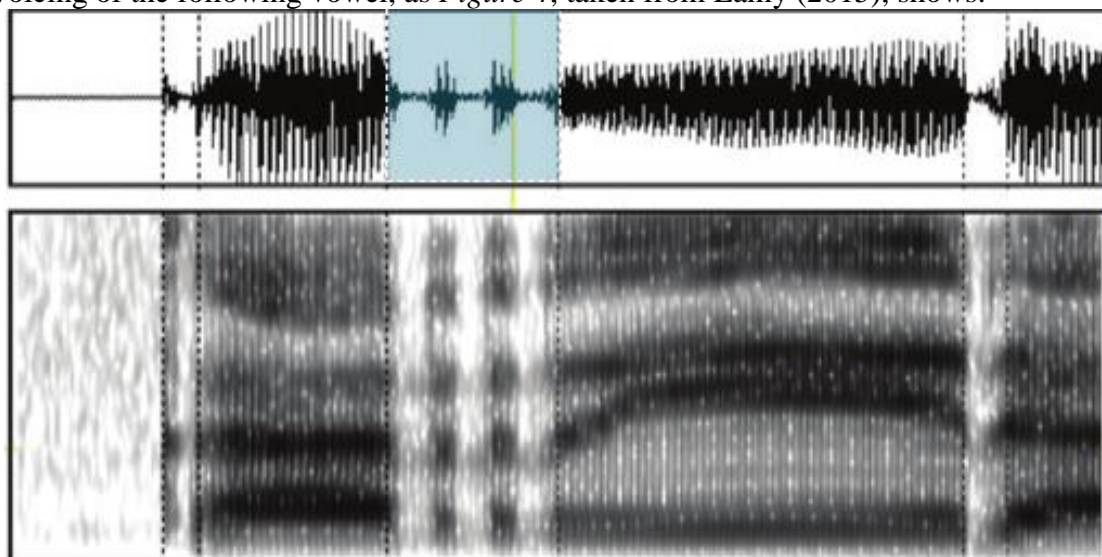


Figure 4. The segmentation of an alveolar trill. Taken from («A sociophonetic analysis of trill production in Panamanian Spanish», 2012).

The rhotic consonants were analysed in three ways: The first was qualitative observation of the spectrogram and auditory impression to determine what the allophone was. To be considered as one of the proposed allophones, it had to be determined through both impressionistic auditory evaluations and its appearance on the spectrogram. If the rhotic was a postalveolar approximant [ɹ], it was expected that F3 would fall significantly (Ladefoged, 2006) as shown in *Figure 1*. If the rhotic were pronounced as a retroflex flap [ɽ], the spectrogram would be expected to show a plosive burst (Ladefoged, 2006) as displayed in *Figure 2*. If the variant produced were an approximant influenced by Punjabi, formants would be expected to be present, and F2 and F3 to be higher than the postalveolar approximant [ɹ] as Kirkham & Wormald's (2015) results show. Whether this approximant was alveolar [ɹ] or retroflex [ɽ] depended on the difference between F4 and F5. It is reported that retroflex rhotics display a larger difference between F4 and F5 (Zhou, Espy-Wilson, Tiede, Boyce, Holland & Choe, 2008) than other rhotics. Therefore, if the F4-F5 difference was observed to be greater than usual, the approximant was considered retroflex. If not, it was deemed alveolar. It should be noted that when this study refers to a retroflex approximant [ɽ], it is not referring to the exact same variant that is used in some North American and West Country English accents (Delattre & Freeman, 1968; Trudgill, 1984), but a sound that is articulated in a more anterior position, influenced by the Punjabi retroflex flap [ɽ]. *Figure 5* shows a typical Punjabi-English retroflex approximant.

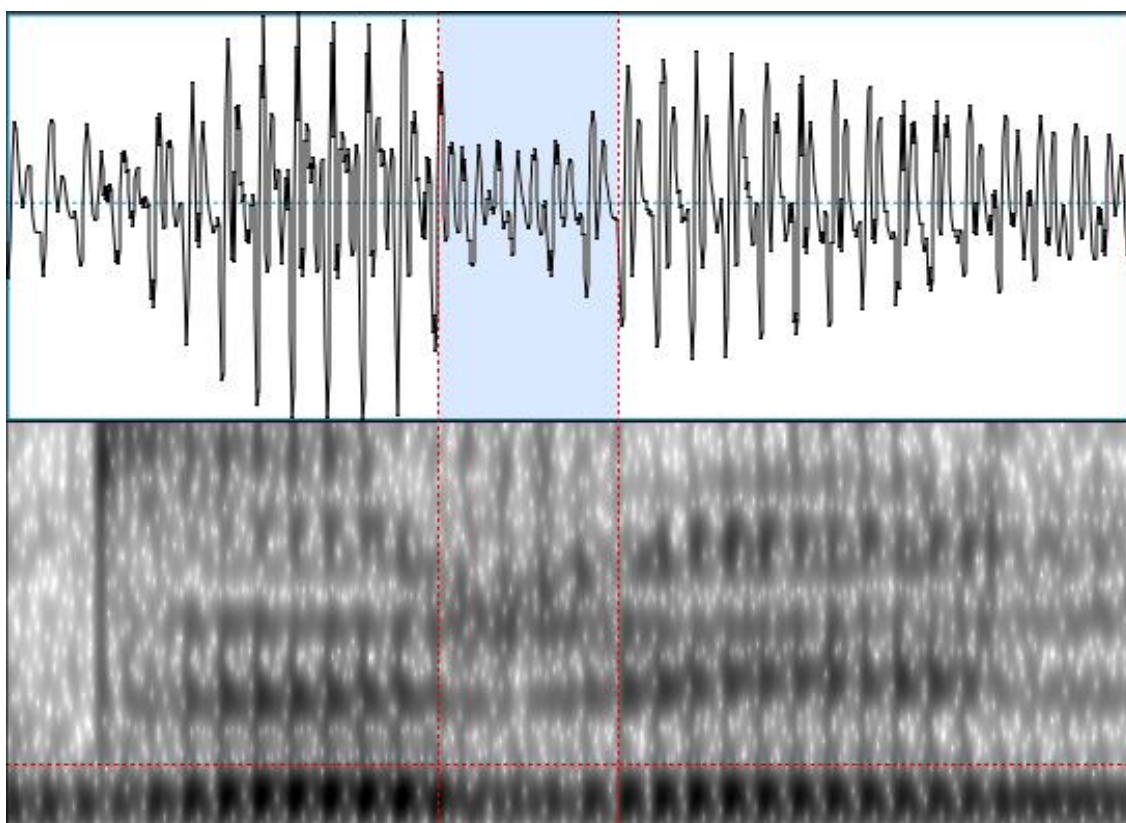


Figure 5. A Punjabi-English Retroflex Approximant.

An alveolar approximant [ɹ] was likely to look similar, only with a smaller F4-F5 difference. It was also possible that one may have observed an articulation between a flap and an approximant where the tongue constriction was extremely close to the hard palate that a fricative was produced. For this variant, it was anticipated that the formants would be much fainter or absent, and that there would be aperiodic energy in the higher frequencies of the spectrogram (Ladefoged, 2006), as shown in *Figure 3*.

When an alveolar trill was produced, the spectrogram displayed a short series of periodic voicing as the tip of the tongue is set in motion by the current of air (Ladefoged, 2006) as shown in *Figure 4*.

The second way in which the rhotics were analysed was by quantitative formant measurements in order to confirm the qualitative observations and auditory impressions. Formant measurements of the rhotic were taken manually on Praat using the formant tracker. For approximants, the formants were measured at the point where the intensity of the consonant was lowest. Since the intensity of an approximant is at its lowest when the oral articulators are closest (Reetz & Jongman, 2011), the lowest point of intensity of the approximant can be considered its midpoint. The other rhotic formants were measured, if there were any, at the midpoint of the duration of the consonant. Moreover, the results of the formants are presented separately for males and females as it is known that the average higher pitch of female speakers causes them to exhibit higher formant frequencies than male speakers (Hillenbrand, Getty, Clark & Wheeler, 1995). The mean average of the formants for each speaker group (Male Anglo-English speakers, Female, Anglo-English speakers, Male Punjabi-English speakers and Female Punjabi-English speakers) were calculated and outliers which lay outside two standard deviations of the mean average were not included in the results.

The third way in which /r/ was analysed was by the quantitative measurement of duration, to explore if there was a relation between the type of rhotic observed and its duration. It was hypothesized that approximants would take longer to produce than flaps since they are characterized by a very rapid closure (Ladefoged, 2006), and if the duration of the Punjabi influenced approximant was shorter than the postalveolar approximant, this may be due to the influence of the Punjabi flap. The mean average of the rhotic duration was calculated for the four speaker groups and any outliers that lay two standard deviations outside of the mean were not included in the results. Some rhotics were not measured at all if pronounced too quickly so that the consonant was not fully articulated or if there was too much background noise on the recording. Note that the duration and formant results we will observe may not necessarily match those of the spectrograms in the figures provided in this paper. The crucial point of these measurements is the comparison between the different rhotic variants in the results rather than the preceding figures. We can consider the second and third way of analyzing /r/ as one of the same thing: Quantitative Acoustic Phonetic Analysis, while the first way is Qualitative Impressionistic Analysis.

Results

In the following results, the analysis of the word-final phrase-final rhotic “Mailer” is not included since most utterances of this phoneme were not pronounced, confirming that Punjabi-English bilingual speakers in Bradford speak with a non-rhotic accent. However, one male and one female Punjabi speaker pronounced the /r/ as a postalveolar approximant [ɹ], similar to most North American English speakers (Plag, Braun, Lappe, & Schramm, 2009).

In addition, the results of this study are not separated in to syllable, word or phrase positions as it was found that position did not affect the rhotic produced, its formants or duration. This is likely because although the rhotics were in contrasting phonological positions, they were always in the same phonetic environment, between two vowels (VCV) in the middle of a phrase.

Qualitative Analysis Results

The first point to make about these qualitative analysis results is that no alveolar trills or approximants were observed. The only Punjabi influenced allophones found were retroflex approximants [ɻ], retroflex fricatives [ʒ], and retroflex flaps [ɽ]. It is assumed that the fricatives were retroflex since it is highly probable that they were more tightly constricted retroflex approximants, and in the cases where the fricative formants were measurable, they were almost identical to the retroflex approximants. Again, the retroflex fricative [ʒ] referred to in this study is not exactly the same as the one found in languages such as Russian and Slovak (Hamann, 2004; Hanulíková & Hamann, 2010) as the Punjabi-English speakers in this investigation pronounce it with a more anterior constriction.

Table 1.

Table of the Percentage of Variants Used by Each Speaker Group.

	Postalveolar Approximant	Labiodental Approximant	Retroflex Approximant	Retroflex Fricative	Retroflex Flap	Number of Measurements
Male Anglo-English Speakers	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	25
Female Anglo-English Speakers	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	27
Male Punjabi-English Speakers	33.33%	0%	50%	16.67%	0%	18
Female Punjabi-English Speakers	40%	8%	28%	20%	4%	25

Figure 6. Graph of the Percentage of Variants Used by Each Speaker Group.

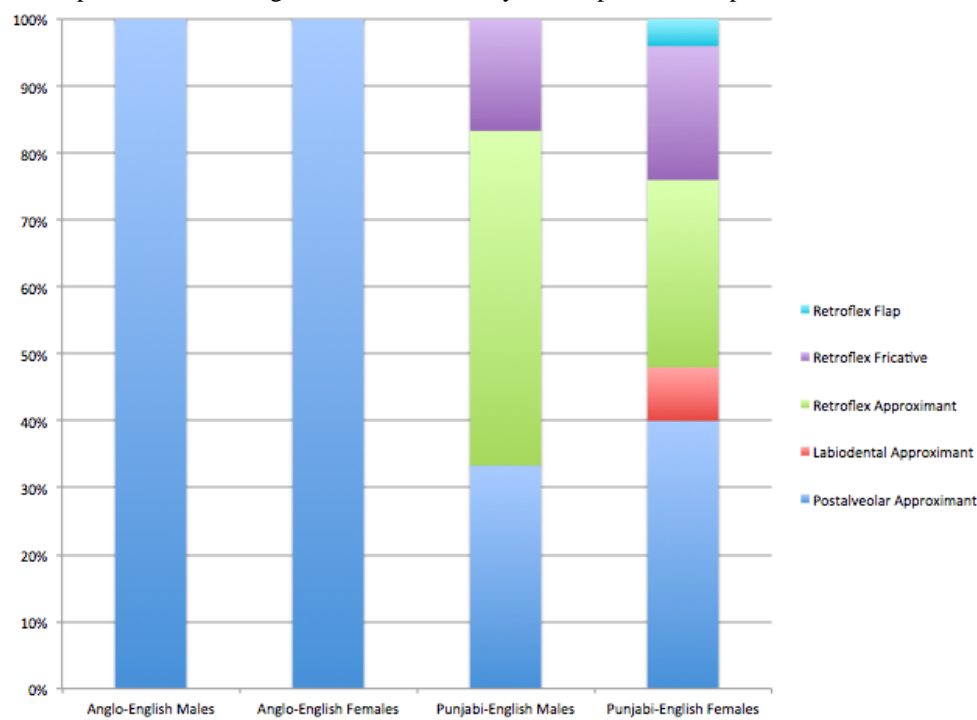


Table 1 and Figure 6 show that all Anglo-English speakers used a postalveolar approximant [ɹ] 100% of the time. The results for the Punjabi-English bilingual speakers show more variation. Both the male and female Punjabi-English speakers use the British postalveolar approximant variant in 30-40% of the measured rhotics, and a small amount of labiodental approximants [v] were found in the female Punjabi-English group. Labiodental approximants were identified by a much higher F3 than the postalveolar approximants (Foulkes & Docherty 2000) but without the larger F4-F5 difference found in the retroflex approximants (Zhou et al., 2008). They were deemed not to be Punjabi influenced alveolar approximants because they sounded labiodental, and the duration of these approximants was significantly longer than the other Punjabi influenced variants, closer to the duration of British rhotics. The most commonly produced Punjabi influenced variant was the retroflex approximant [ɻ]: Females used it in 50% of their rhotics and males used it 28% of the time. The retroflex fricative [ʒ] was the second most common Punjabi influenced allophone with females using it 20% of the time and males using it in 16.67% of their rhotic consonants. Only one retroflex flap [ɽ] was recorded from a Punjabi female speaker. Punjabi female speakers used a higher percentage of British variants (48%) than Punjabi male speakers (33%), though both groups generally favoured using Punjabi influenced rhotics over British ones.

Though the overall results may suggest that Punjabi-English bilinguals alternate regularly between British rhotics and Punjabi influenced variants, Table 2 shows that there is significant variation in /r/ production between individual speakers.

Table 2.

Table of the Percentage of Variants Used by Each Punjabi-English Speaker.

	Postalveolar Approximant	Labiodental Approximant	Retroflex Approximant	Retroflex Fricative	Retroflex Flap	Number of Measurements
Male 1	0%	0%	75%	25%	0%	4
Male 2	0%	0%	50%	50%	0%	4
Male 3	66.7%	0%	0%	33.3%	0%	3
Male 4	0%	0%	100%	0%	0%	1
Male 5	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	4
Male 6	0%	0%	100%	0%	0%	2
Female 1	25%	0%	50%	25%	0%	4
Female 2	25%	0%	25%	50%	0%	4
Female 3	20%	0%	40%	40%	0%	5
Female 4	0%	25%	50%	0%	25%	4
Female 5	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	4
Female 6	75%	25%	0%	0%	0%	4

Table 2 reveals that not all Punjabi-English speakers used both British and Punjabi influenced rhotics. In the male speaker group, all but one speaker (Male 3) used either British or Punjabi influenced rhotics exclusively. In the female group, individual speakers displayed more alternations between British and Punjabi influenced /r/, though all speakers showed a preference for one rhotic group over the other. Females 1-4 showed a preference for Punjabi-influenced rhotics, using them 75-80% of the time, while Female 5 and 6 used British rhotics exclusively. Furthermore, it is worth noting that Female 5 and Male 3 were the two speakers who produced /r/ postvocally in sentence 6.

Quantitative Analysis Results

Formant Results. Table 3 shows the mean average formant values for the rhotics with postalveolar, retroflex and labiodental articulation across the four speaker groups. Note that the following formant values of F5 for the Punjabi-English female postalveolar approximants are not shown since there were no measurable fifth formants for this particular group.

Table 3.

Table of the Mean Average Formant Values for Postalveolar, Retroflex and Labiodental Rhotics by Each Speaker Group.

Average Formant Value (Hz)				
Postalveolar Articulation				
	F2	F3	F4	F5
Anglo-English Males	1177	1780	2778	3336
Anglo-English Females	1371	2242	3341	3585
Punjabi-English Males	1264	1825	2667	3323
Punjabi-English Females	1629	2324	3105	N/A
Retroflex Articulation				
	F2	F3	F4	F5
Punjabi-English Males	1583	2374	3002	3903
Punjabi-English Females	1850	2624	3312	4438
Labiodental Articulation				
	F2	F3	F4	F5
Punjabi-English Females	1511	2720	3572	4234

The results show, as anticipated, that the formants of the female speakers were always considerably higher than formants for the male speakers. The average values of F2 and F3 for the retroflex rhotics were significantly higher than the postalveolar rhotics across males and females. Moreover, the difference between F4 and F5 was

considerably greater for the retroflex variants (900-1100Hz) than the postalveolar and labiodental variants (200-700Hz) as Zhou et al. (2008) observed, and the labiodental rhotics had a higher F3 than the postalveolar rhotics as predicted by Foulkes & Docherty (2000).

Duration Results. *Table 4* below shows the mean average duration for the postalveolar, retroflex and labiodental rhotics across the four speaker groups, and *Table 5* shows the mean average duration for the different manners of retroflex rhotics by the Punjabi-English speakers.

Table 4.

Table of the Mean Average Duration Values for Postalveolar, Retroflex and Labiodental Rhotics by Each Speaker Group.

Duration (ms)						
Postalveolar Approximant				Retroflex Articulation		Labiodental Articulation
Anglo-English Males	Anglo-English Females	Punjabi-English Males	Punjabi-English Females	Punjabi-English Males	Punjabi-English Females	Punjabi-English Females
132.88	117.58	108.17	102.9	70	70	118

Table 5.

Table of the Mean Average Duration Values for the Different Manners of Retroflex Rhotics by the Punjabi-English Speakers.

Duration (ms)		
	Punjabi-English Males	Punjabi-English Females
Retroflex Approximant	71	75
Retroflex Fricative	66	68
Retroflex Flap	N/A	50

Table 4 shows that the duration of the British postalveolar and labiodental variants for all speaker groups was significantly greater than the duration of the Punjabi influenced retroflex rhotics. *Table 5* shows that within the class of retroflex variants, the approximant [ɹ] had the longest duration, followed by the fricative [ʒ] and then the flap [ɾ] for both male and female speakers. The retroflex approximant had a markedly shorter duration than the postalveolar [ɹ] and labiodental [v] approximants.

Discussion

The results show that there was a clear difference in the production of /r/ between the Anglo-English and Punjabi-English bilingual speakers. The Anglo-English speakers used the British postalveolar approximant [ɹ] on every occasion while the Punjabi-English speakers produced a wider variety of rhotics. In addition the results show that being a Punjabi-English bilingual speaker does not necessarily entail that the speaker always uses a rhotic influenced by the Punjabi language, and in some cases, the speaker may not use one at all. Some Punjabi-English speakers used British variants such as the

postalveolar and labiodental approximant exclusively and some used only rhotics influenced by Punjabi, while others used both British and Punjabi-influenced variants. This variation within the Punjabi-English speaker group is likely to be due to social factors. The reason that Male 3 and 5, and Female 5 and 6 use almost entirely British variants may be due to a difference in identity compared to the other speakers. Hirson & Sohail (2007) examined the variability of rhotics in Punjabi-English bilinguals in London, and found that speakers differed drastically in their /r/ pronunciation depending on if they self-identified as either a 'British Asian', relatively integrated in to British society, or as 'Asian', more alienated from British culture. Their identity was teased out through questionnaires that addressed their language background, language use and their views on current social and cultural issues relevant to them. A picture-naming task consisting of high frequency words of concrete words was used to elicit their data. The 'British Asian' speakers used postalveolar approximants almost all of the time while 'Asian' speakers produced a range of Punjabi-influenced rhotics as well as British ones. It is possible that Male 3 and 5, and Female 5 and 6 consider themselves to be integrated 'British Asians' while the others may self-identify as 'Asians'. Hirson and Sohail also found that 'Asian' speakers had rhotic accents, pronouncing /r/ as a bunched postalveolar or retroflex approximant in postvocalic positions, which is unsurprising considering Punjabi is a rhotic accent and 'Asian' speakers felt more of an affinity with their Asian background. These results however show that Male 3 and Female 5, two of the more 'British Asian' speakers, are the only ones to pronounce /r/ postvocally. It could be speculated that while the other speakers use more Punjabi-influenced rhotics than Male 3 and Female 5, these two speakers, though integrated in to British culture, maintain their Asian identity with a rhotic accent to maintain an allegiance with their heritage (Foulkes & Docherty, 1999).

Kirkham & Wormald (2015) found that on average, Punjabi-English bilingual speakers in Bradford produced /r/ with a higher F2 and F3 than Anglo-English speakers due to a more anterior constriction, which is confirmed in this study, though no comment was made on what variant was being articulated. By considering the phonemic inventory of Punjabi and the larger difference between F4 and F5, it is likely that this allophone is retroflex with an anterior constriction. The results in this study also suggest that being a Punjabi-English bilingual does not always entail a higher F2 and F3 than an Anglo-English speaker. When the Punjabi-English rhotics are categorized by allophone, it is clear that on the occasions when a postalveolar approximant [ɹ] is produced, the formants are similar to the Anglo-English speakers, and when a retroflex rhotic is produced, F2 and F3 are much higher, proving that the difference in formants is dependent on rhotic pronunciation, not racial or language background.

Within the Punjabi influenced retroflex class of rhotics, three separate allophones were found, the retroflex approximant [ɹ], the retroflex fricative [ʒ] and the retroflex flap [ɾ]. The presence of the flap is likely the result of the retroflex flap in Punjabi being inserted into this British Asian dialect. The retroflex approximant is hypothesized to be a hybrid contact allophone that is influenced by the retroflex flap of Punjabi and the postalveolar approximant of British English. The retroflex fricative is similarly articulated to the retroflex approximant, only the constriction between the tongue and

hard palate is tighter so that there is frication. The presence of the fricative is likely the product of speakers producing an allophone in between the retroflex flap and retroflex approximant. The duration results show a distinct difference between the length of British and Punjabi influenced rhotics. More proof that the retroflex approximant is influenced by the Punjabi retroflex flap is the fact its duration is much shorter than the British variants, and closer to the flap duration. Though the retroflex approximant can be considered a combination of the postalveolar approximant and retroflex flap, the allophone does appear to be closer phonetically to the flap, in terms of duration and place of articulation, especially considering the anterior constriction of the approximant proved by the higher F2 and F3. The duration results also provide more proof that the retroflex fricative is a combination of the retroflex flap and retroflex approximant since its duration lies in between the two allophones.

One of the aims of this paper was to search for differences between male and female Punjabi-English speakers, and though there is some variation in rhotic production, the overall patterns are the same. The female speakers on average used more British rhotics than the male speakers, and even the female speakers who predominantly used Punjabi-influenced variants uttered at least one British rhotic. This is possible evidence for Trudgill's arguments that female speakers are more sensitive to standard and non-standard variables than males (Trudgill, 1972), and are more conscious of using the standard British variant, even if they do self-identify as 'Asian' and use more Punjabi influenced rhotics. However, both groups overall showed a preference for Punjabi influenced rhotics over British rhotics, they both displayed a higher F2 and F3 and a larger F4-F5 difference in their retroflex rhotics, and they both produced Punjabi influenced rhotics with a shorter duration than British rhotics.

Another objective of this paper was to observe if there has been any real-time change from these results that were recorded from Punjabi-English bilingual adolescents in Bradford in 2000 to the results in Kirkham & Wormald's (2015) study of the same community as adults. Their study measured the /r/ production of five female Punjabi-English bilinguals in Bradford aged 21-36, and they found that four of the five speakers produced /r/ with a more anterior constriction while one speaker's tongue position was more retracted. This suggests that four of the five speakers were using Punjabi influenced rhotics, likely to be retroflex as proven by this study. When the results of both experiments are considered, it is possible that the use of British rhotics by Punjabi-English speakers has decreased in the space of approximately fifteen years and the preference for Punjabi influenced variants has grown, though with only five female speakers and no male speakers tested in Kirkham & Wormald's (2015) study, this possibility should be approached with caution. Only if this point is proven true with more evidence in future research should questions be asked as to why this progression is occurring.

Conclusion

This study has found that there is a clear difference in the rhotic production of Anglo-English and Punjabi-English bilinguals in West Yorkshire, with Anglo-English speakers producing solely postalveolar approximants [ɹ] in the data collected and analysed, and Punjabi-English bilinguals producing a range of allophones, from British variants such as the postalveolar [ɹ] and labiodental approximant [ʋ], to rhotics influenced by Punjabi such as the retroflex flap [ɽ], retroflex fricative [ʒ] and retroflex approximant [ɻ]. The retroflex approximant is considered a contact allophone influenced by the British postalveolar approximant and the Punjabi retroflex flap, and the retroflex fricative is likely to be an articulation between the retroflex flap and the retroflex approximant. Both male and female Punjabi-English speakers overall prefer Punjabi influenced rhotic production over British rhotics, though there are significant differences between individual speakers, with some using predominantly British variants and others using mostly Punjabi influenced variants. The reasons for this are likely due to differing social identities of the speakers (Hirson & Sohail, 2007). This paper also speculates on the possibility of a change in progress in Punjabi-English rhotic production in Bradford over the last fifteen years, stating that it is possible that the use of British rhotic production has decreased and the preference for Punjabi influenced rhotics has increased, though more research is needed to confirm this. In the future, a more thorough examination of present day /r/ production in the Punjabi-English Bradford community must be conducted. More participants must be analysed from both sexes, with a greater focus on what rhotic allophones are present, and the amount that each variant is produced. Individual speaker variation must also be considered, and participant identity affiliation should be teased out using questionnaires (Hirson & Sohail, 2007) to see if self-identifying as 'British Asian' or 'Asian' is a key factor in the /r/ production of a speaker. Auditory impressions, qualitative observations of the spectrogram, formant and duration measurements should all be taken in to account to determine the allophone uttered. If it is found that the preference for Punjabi influenced rhotic use has grown as Kirkham & Wormald's (2015) results suggest, then sociolinguistic reasons for this change must be considered. If this progression is genuine, future research should ask if it is a change in the speech of Punjabi-English adolescents in to adulthood or a change representative of the entire Punjabi-English speech community. To address this question, present day Punjabi-English adolescents should be examined as well as adults. If they are favouring Punjabi influenced rhotics as much as the adults, then perhaps there has been a general shift in /r/ pronunciation in British Asian English in West Yorkshire over the last fifteen years. In terms of the broader implications for Sociolinguistics, Phonetics, and Second Language Studies, this study shows that through the analysis of one phoneme, much can be revealed about the integration of an L2 community in to a city. Variation in the phoneme production can uncover underlying attitudes to the country of their second language, and by observing older data, we can obtain a better understanding of how L2 communities progress in the pronunciation of their second language through a 15 year long real-time study such as this, a rarity in language analysis studies.

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Opening a Window to the World: Content-based Instruction, Cultural Capital and Critical Pedagogy in an Undergraduate EFL Teaching Program

Abriendo una ventana al mundo: aprendizaje basado en contenidos, capital cultural y pedagogía crítica en un programa de licenciatura en lengua inglesa

Gudrum Kern

mati2011mar@gmail.com

B.A in Anglistica y Romanística, B.Ss. in Agronomy, M.Sc. in Agricultural Sciences, and M.A. in Teaching of foreign languages

Associate Professor at the Language Department, Universidad Pedagógica, Bogotá, Colombia

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Abstract

This descriptive-interpretative case study examines the impacts on public university pre-service teachers' cultural capital when exposed to EFL content-based instruction, in this case teaching of the history of the Western hemisphere and related artistic expressions in a two-semester course at a public university in Colombia. After analyzing interviews with students, their writings as well as the researcher's field notes and interpreting them in the light of content-based instruction, cultural capital and critical pedagogy, it becomes evident that teaching history and related artistic expressions in fact increases students' cultural capital. This in turn fosters students' socio-political awareness.

Key words: *cultural capital, critical pedagogy, content-based instruction, teaching of the history of the Western hemisphere*

Resumen

El presente estudio de caso descriptivo-interpretativo examina los impactos en el capital cultural de estudiantes de licenciatura cuando están expuestos a la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera basada en contenidos, en este caso enseñanza de la historia del hemisferio occidental y expresiones artísticas relacionadas, en un curso de dos semestres en una universidad pública en Colombia. Después de analizar las entrevistas con los estudiantes, sus escritos y las observaciones de la docente e interpretar estos

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datos en el contexto de aprendizaje basado en contenido, capital cultural y pedagogía crítica, se hace evidente que enseñar historia y expresiones artísticas relacionadas efectivamente aumenta el capital cultural de los estudiantes, lo cual a su vez aumenta la conciencia socio-política de los estudiantes.

Palabras claves: *capital cultural, pedagogía crítica, enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera basada en contenidos, enseñanza de la historia del hemisferio occidental*

The general objective of this research is to understand the impacts on public university pre-service teachers' cultural capital when exposed to EFL content-based instruction about the history of the Western hemisphere and related artistic expressions. This objective emerged in the context of the education system in Colombia, where studying a B.A. in English or Modern Languages is usually limited to learning how to teach the four basic language skills and how to teach about the dominant cultural manifestations of the hegemonic English-speaking countries, leaving aside aspects like the cultures of former British colonies or a deeper understanding of the history of both groups of countries. Apart from this pedagogical limitation, the national program of bilingualism does not consider the widespread improvement of proficiency in a foreign language, in this specific case English, as a tool to transform the unequal education system in Colombia. In this context, and acknowledging the need for transformation, Bourdieu's concept of cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986, 1997), which is explained later on, contributes to understanding underlying causes of this situation. Once these causes are understood, alternatives can be proposed.

Public schools in Colombia usually give little importance to the teaching of world history and related artistic expressions. This can be seen, for example, in the little knowledge about these topics students coming from those schools generally have when they enter university, as could be observed in the questionnaire, which was carried out at the beginning of this research. In the case of the public university where this research took place the curriculum for those who are studying to become language teachers does not normally consider the teaching of history or related artistic expressions beyond the hegemonic English-speaking countries, that is, Great Britain, the United States, Australia and Canada, as can be seen in the respective curricula. This, in turn, leads to the perpetuation of a weak basis of general knowledge about world history and related artistic expressions and thus to a lack of references for social transformation.

From a sociological perspective, the knowledge of history and related artistic expressions belongs to what Bourdieu (Bourdieu, 1986, 1997) would call cultural capital. As students from lower social strata – the ones who study at the public university where this research was executed - often do not have the same access to sources of cultural capital as students from higher social strata, it seems important for university education to help them in this process in order to interrupt the cycle of perpetuating education without a sound cultural capital. The first research question then

is whether teaching the history of the Western hemisphere and related artistic expressions can increase students' cultural capital.

Another area of interest of this research is the students' learning process of English through content-based instruction (henceforward CBI), in this case teaching/learning about the history and related artistic expressions of the Western hemisphere. Therefore, the second research question is whether learning focused on content rather than on form can increase the students' existing small cultural capital while inviting them to practice the four basic language skills. As will be described later, considerable research has been carried out on CBI. However, examining the relation of CBI to critical pedagogy and its impacts on cultural capital may open new perspectives for the teaching/learning process in the field of EFL teaching/learning.

This research was carried out as a descriptive-interpretative case study. The data obtained using several data collection instruments were analyzed following a grounded approach, as will be illustrated later on.

Literature Review

For this research study, three concepts are relevant in order to understand the role of teaching the history of the Western hemisphere and related artistic expressions using a content-based approach for pre-service language teachers' cultural capital. These are content-based instruction, critical pedagogy as a manner of social Reconstructionism, and cultural capital.

Content-based Instruction

Content-based instruction (CBI) has been discussed now for about forty years as an interesting alternative in the field of foreign language education. Related concepts are content-and-language-integrated learning (CLIL; see for example Dalton-Puffer, 2007) and sheltered subject-matter teaching (see Burger & Chrétien, 2001; Krashen, 1991). What the three concepts have in common is that a subject matter is taught in a language other than the students' mother tongue, and that the content of the subject matter is equally or more important than language teaching as such. According to Krashen (1991), "this encourages a focus on meaning, not form, and results in more comprehensible input, and thus more language acquisition" (p. 183). Although Krashen's theory is dated, his contribution to a better understanding of teaching input is still relevant. CBI creates an environment for contextualized learning where students encounter "useful language that is embedded within relevant discourse contexts rather than isolated language fragments" (Grabe & Stoller, 1997, p. 13). This, in turn, invites students to discuss and negotiate content through the foreign language they are learning.

CBI emerged out of various concerns, such as the frequently unsatisfactory results of traditional foreign language classes, the search for a truly communicative approach, the students' deficiency in academic language skills, the desire to use authentic and meaningful materials, and the fostering of critical thinking skills (Benítez Velásquez,

2012; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Krashen, 1991; Short, 1991). There are several reasons to suggest that CBI can represent an answer to these concerns. One line of argument follows language acquisition research and Krashen's insistence on the importance of students being exposed to second-language input (Grabe & Stoller, 1997). A second line of argument takes up Vygotsky's concepts related to learning (Grabe & Stoller, 1997; see also Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Cummins' concept of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) constitutes a third rationale (as cited in Grabe & Stoller, 1997). Consequently, the use of complex language input in the form of subject-matter content can help develop students' CALP. A fourth point of view relates reading comprehension and academic skills like note-taking, summarizing and looking for specific information to CBI (Benítez Velásquez, 2012). In the words of Kasper (1995), "content-based courses help students make the transition from the secure and comfortable ESL program to the more rigorous academic curriculum" (p. 224). A fifth beneficial aspect of CBI is a possible increase in students' intrinsic motivation when learning a foreign language, due to the more complex content and activities (Grabe & Stoller, 1997).

There are, however, some potential drawbacks of CBI. Due to the focus on content rather than on how this content is taught, students may not learn enough complex grammar structures. Vocabulary may be another potential strain, as, depending on the subject matter, it may be quite specific. This may lead to students' finding it difficult to understand complex documents about other topics and their learning of only limited word fields. These problems, however, can be avoided or overcome by using a methodology that fosters students' oral and written language production and by giving feedback on recurrent language mistakes.

Cultural Capital

The concept of cultural capital is based on French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu's (1986) understanding of the three forms of capital: economic, social and cultural. Cultural capital, the one this study is concerned about, exists in three forms: 1) in its embodied state, 2) in its objectified state, and 3) in its institutionalized state. The embodied state of cultural capital consists of "widely shared, high status cultural signals (attitudes, preferences, formal knowledge, behaviors, goods and credentials) used for social and cultural exclusion" (Lareau & Weininger, 2003, p. 587; see also Peña Rodríguez, 2013). Embodied cultural capital is passed on mainly through socialization within the family and the education system, which largely explains why state-financed educational institutions perpetuate social inequalities in a class-determined society like Colombia's.

In a study about the relation between cultural capital and academic undermatch, Deutschlander (2017) distinguishes between general and college-specific cultural capital, where the former is understood as "a general resource that facilitates action within the education system, providing access to scarce rewards" (p. 170). He states that students from lower-income families do not benefit from general cultural capital to the same degree as do better-off students. Nevertheless, according to this author, college-

specific cultural capital is equally distributed among the different family backgrounds. Besides, members of disadvantaged families can acquire cultural capital individually later in life, through personal efforts of self-improvement (Bourdieu, 1986; Deutschlander, 2017).

The objectified state of cultural capital refers to cultural goods such as paintings, books, machines, etc. which “can be appropriated both materially – which presupposes economic capital – and symbolically – which presupposes cultural capital” (Bourdieu, 1986, para. 15). Here again the educational disadvantages of lower-income students become evident, not only in terms of general knowledge but also in terms of artistic expression. These may seem unnecessary for success on the labour market; yet, they illustrate history and are another way of understanding the world.

The most significant form of institutionalized cultural capital is academic qualification, or, as Peña Rodríguez (2013) calls it, “school capital” (p. 27). On the labour market, an academic qualification can be converted into money; the conversion rate, however, depends on the official recognition of the respective educational institution. In contrast to Lareau’s & Weininger’s (2003) inclusion of human capital or technical skills into the concept of cultural capital, in Colombia, where deficiently financed public universities coexist with high-ranking private universities, the origin of an academic title still determines its value. This phenomenon can also be called “the profit of distinctiveness” (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 654).

To conclude, Bourdieu’s concept of cultural capital and its implications evidence the need of increasing public-university students’ cultural capital so that, in the long run, the perpetuation of the unequal social and economic structure in Colombia is interrupted.

Critical Pedagogy: A Manner of Social Reconstructionism

One of the founding fathers of critical pedagogy is undoubtedly Paulo Freire (1970) with his very inspiring book “Pedagogy of the Oppressed”. Freire considers not only the educational context but also the broader social, political, and economic context to achieve thorough social transformations. In this sense, he encourages learners to question the established and taken-for-granted truths and presentations of reality in order to understand and transform them in a liberating process. This liberation process takes some time as the oppressed have incorporated the oppressor within themselves; that is to say the oppressor has “colonized” the minds of the oppressed so that they usually underestimate themselves. At the same time, they believe in their supposed inferiority and in the superiority and invulnerability of the oppressor. However, once the oppressed perceive that transformations are possible, a process of change takes place in their taken-for-granted convictions.

Freire’s concept of teaching and learning is based on dialogue, a process of mutual learning between the learner-teacher and the teacher-learner, and the dialectical cycle of reflection-action-reflection-etc. – all this contrary to the widely accepted

“banking model” of teaching, where the learner is considered an empty receiver of the teacher’s wisdom. In order to maintain the power of the “banking model”, its advocates have to convert reality into a myth, present an alienated, static, unchangeable reality so that the learners remain passive and convinced that the only option they have is to come to terms with this reality and to adapt to it. This is achieved through the socialization process at school, university, in the families, through religion, among others, what Althusser (1970) called the ideological State apparatuses, and what can be related to Bourdieu’s aforementioned concept of cultural capital in its embodied form. The alternative to this “banking model” of education is problematizing education. Freire’s alternative model invites to constantly discover reality and leads to a critical insertion into this reality, whose comprehension becomes less and less alienated.

As regards a critical stance developed in the course under study, it is important to take into account Auerbach’s (1995) perspective on curriculum development. He states that this task is not apolitical but “inherently ideological in nature, with significant implications for learners’ socioeconomic roles” (p. 9; see also Canagarajah, 2000; Grundy, 1987). To be coherent with the aforementioned, teaching implies either to adopt a political stance or to follow a “hidden agenda” included in a given curriculum. The course studied here invited the students to assume their roles as political subjects; thus, it followed Richard’s (2001) understanding of learning and teaching as a way of “social reconstructionism”, that is, “teachers must empower their students so that they can recognize unjust systems of class, race, or gender, and challenge them” (p. 118). Once students have acquired more cultural capital, which in the case of the present study would mean more knowledge about history and related artistic expressions, they have tools to become aware of critical situations in their own society and, hopefully, feel compelled to transform them.

Methodology

This case study is framed within a qualitative research paradigm and follows a descriptive-interpretative approach. As this research is of a qualitative and descriptive nature, it allows for subjectivity in the contributions of the participating students as well as in the interpretation on part of the researcher. Taking reality as a social construct, qualitative research accepts its subjectivity, because it highlights “empathetic understanding” (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 33). In qualitative research human behaviour is understood as situational and context-bound and is observed in its normal environment (Creswell, 2003), in this case the classroom. This setting, where students, as well as teachers, come from different backgrounds, where they have different motivations, beliefs and hopes, is especially interesting for a descriptive-interpretative case study.

The research design contemplated five stages. First, during the first semester of this two-semester course several data collection instruments were applied (see description below). Next, at the end of that semester, the data obtained were analyzed preliminarily and the instruments to be applied in the second semester were adapted as

necessary. Third, in the second semester, more data were collected and analyzed in a fourth step. The fifth stage consisted of writing this article.

Context and Participants

The present research was carried out in a two-semester advanced English course for students of the B.A. in Modern Languages and English/Spanish at a public university in Bogotá where most students belong to the lower social strata. At this university, for the 7th and 8th semester the students choose an “Emphasis” course, a course in which the teacher designs content, methodology, materials and evaluation of the course. In this case, the course was designed to cover the history of the Western hemisphere from the Middle Ages to the late 19th century, including related artistic expressions, and organized in seven thematic blocks during the two semesters. The topic of the history of the Western hemisphere from the Middle Ages to the 19th century was chosen since, first, it is related to the evolution of the English language; and second, because the history of the Western hemisphere includes the history of Latin-America, of which aspects were included in the course. As artistic expressions, especially painting, architecture and music, accompany and illustrate history, they were incorporated into the course. Besides, they should be part of the cultural capital of lower-class students, as they are of the cultural capital of upper-class students.

The methodology applied was that of a *German seminar*, that is, pairs of students prepared a topic according to the course programme, which was then presented and discussed in class, ideally with all other students having prepared themselves as well and participating. It is noteworthy that neither content-based learning/teaching nor the method of a German seminar held entirely in English are common at the language department of the university where this research took place.

The participants in this study were 17 male and female students aged 21 to 26, out of 25 students registered in the course. According to the data obtained in the questionnaire, almost 60% of them had studied at a public school prior to entering the university. 47% of their parents finished secondary education, while 24% hold a B.A. or B.Sc. title. One third of the participating students work and study at the same time. The students who volunteered for this study were those 17 who completed the questionnaire applied at the beginning of the first semester, and who gave their consent to be interviewed later on. The course, however, was carried out with all 25 students during the two semesters. The researcher acted as a participant observer (Merriam, 1998), as she was the course teacher.

Data Collection Instruments

In order to collect the data for this research, I used a questionnaire with open and closed questions at the very beginning of the course; two semi-structured interviews, one at the end of the first semester, one at the end of the second; observations and field notes taken during both semesters; and students’ artifacts, that is, students’ written reflections. At the end of the two semesters, the data obtained from the sources

described above were compared and analyzed in a triangulation process in order to find answers to the research objective. Besides, the triangulation process helped to counterbalance the aforementioned subjectivity.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The data gathered with the selected instruments were analysed following a grounded approach (Freeman, 1998; Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Pattoon, 2002; Strauss & Corbin, 1990) using two complementary methods: looking for word or code frequencies; and coding. Then, related to the research objective, two categories with their respective subcategories emerged. They are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Categories and corresponding subcategories

Categories	Subcategories
Impacts related to CBI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students realize a lack of autonomy in their learning process • CBI facilitates learning several things at the same time
Contributions to students' cultural capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students realize their lack of general knowledge about history • To contextualize art gives meaning to it • Learning about history fosters socio-political awareness

Results

In the following section, the findings are described in detail and related to the respective categories and subcategories. Accordingly, in the category “Impacts related to CBI” the following subcategories are illustrated: “Students realize a lack of autonomy in their learning process” and “CBI facilitates learning several things at the same time”. The second category, “Contributions to students' cultural capital” comprises the subcategories “Students realize their lack of general knowledge about history”, “To contextualize art gives meaning to it”, and “Learning about history fosters socio-political awareness”.²¹

²¹ **S** and a number (e.g. **S1**) refers to the student with the corresponding code, **R** refers to the researcher. The excerpts are included in their original language; where the original language is Spanish, the translation can be found in the corresponding footnote.

Impacts Related to CBI

This category relates to the impacts content-based instruction had on the students' learning processes. It has two subcategories, which are described as follows.

Students realize a lack of autonomy in their learning process. Combining students' efforts to improve their level of English and their learning about history evidenced that they are not used to the method of a German seminar, which centers on a content-based approach and presupposes a high level of autonomy on the part of the students. This, however, did not work out because most students did not prepare themselves for the class topics, as they mention in the following excerpts from interviews:

S2: Lo que pasa es que somos muy perezosos, casi nadie se prepara para la clase, entonces se nota que no leen, que no se preparan.^{22/} Interview, June 11, 2014.

S7: Nosotros muchas veces necesitamos el jaloneador que nos diga: esto es para tal día, porque si no, nosotros nos fresqueamos, pues, dejamos que todo ocurra.^{23/} Interview, November 14, 2014.

The fact that students say they need a “prodder”, someone who pushes them to study, could indicate that some teachers at school as well as at university still adhere to the “banking model” of education criticized by Freire. Most students are used to receiving prepared class contents instead of preparing themselves for class and discussing their own points of view. Yet, some students liked this method because it is contrary to what they usually experience, as evidenced below:

S3: Digamos que en tu clase yo no pienso mucho en la nota sino en lo que voy a aprender y en lo que tú nos dices. Uno se olvida del tema de la nota y ya, uno disfruta la clase. Cosa que no pasa en la mayoría de las clases en la universidad. Uno sólo piensa en la pinche nota, porque los profes se encargan de eso, de meterle a uno ese temor académico.^{24/} Interview, November 14, 2014.

²² What happens is that we are very lazy, hardly anyone prepares for class. Then you notice that no one reads, that no one is prepared.

²³ Many times we need a prodder, someone to tell us: this is for that day; otherwise we are too cool, well, we let everything happen.

²⁴ Let's say in your class I don't think much about the grade but in what I will learn and in what you tell us. You forget about the grade and you enjoy the class. This doesn't happen in most courses at university. You only think of the grade because the teachers just instill this academic dread.

S5: Above all, in this course I write rather based on my opinion, from my perspective, from what I am than for something academic. I feel free in this course to do so.²⁵/ Interview, November 7, 2014.

This second aspect suggests that content-based instruction, apart from generating awareness of a lack of autonomy, might create the opportunity for students to express themselves freely. These impacts, which are unrelated to the essence of CBI, are accompanied by another interesting impact, which is presented in the following subcategory.

Content-based instruction facilitates learning several things at the same time. In this course, CBI allowed students to learn various things at the same time. Thus, several students stated that acquiring new vocabulary through contextualized learning is one of the advantages of CBI. This characteristic of CBI is also highlighted by Grabe and Stoller (1997).

S9: Por ejemplo, digamos que uno quisiera irse a estudiar a Europa. Entonces esas temáticas, hombre, uno tiene cómo desenvolverse en Europa, con un vocabulario adecuado y no macheteando como dicen acá.²⁶/ Interview, November 10, 2014

S15: [The course] has provided a new vocabulary and strengthened the abilities in the English language. It is not only relevant for the above, it is the use of the English language not only as teaching itself but as a tool to teach other subjects such as history, geography, science and more. / Homework, November 29, 2014

Among the activities carried out in class that called the students' attention was the interpretation of maps to illustrate historical processes, which was something they had never done before. Discussing them in English led students to negotiate content related to authentic and meaningful course material in the foreign language, which is another of the characteristics of CBI (Benítez Velásquez, 2012; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Grabe & Stoller, 1997).

Topic: Mercantilism. Interpreting maps engages them in group work, but they ask what countries are depicted, as on the maps some countries are without names. / Field note, August 12, 2014.

Altogether, most students appreciated the pedagogical usefulness of the CBI approach, especially when asked about their performance as future teachers. This can be observed in the following excerpts:

²⁵ Más que todo, en este curso yo escribo más con mi opinión, desde mi punto de vista, desde yo, que para algo académico. Tengo más libertad en este curso para hacer eso.

²⁶ For example, let's say one would want to study in Europe. Then these topics, well, you are able to manage in Europe, with an adequate vocabulary instead of "hacking", as we say here.

S12: It is not enough to know everything about grammar, speaking or reading texts correctly if it does not have valuable content to share with the students. / Homework, May 21, 2014.

S8: ... cómo se puede enseñar a los estudiantes una manera de leer en inglés pero que puedan aprender algo nuevo, sí, una variedad de temas que se pueden ofrecer en el espacio académico de inglés o de español y de la materia que uno esté dictando.²⁷/ Interview, November 11, 2014.

To conclude, it can be stated that in the case of this study CBI helped students to recognize a low level of autonomy in their learning processes as well as to appreciate the space for discussions opened through this learning/teaching approach. Besides, through CBI students had the opportunity to simultaneously learn new vocabulary and skills like interpreting a map, and to reflect upon pedagogical issues.

Contributions to Students' Cultural Capital

In this category, three different areas of contributions evolved: students realized their lack of general knowledge about history, the meanings of art works and the fostering of socio-political awareness. These three subcategories are illustrated in what follows.

Students realize their lack of general knowledge about history. The recognition of their lack of general knowledge about history, even about Latin-American history, became evident in the students' answers in the first questionnaire, their reflections written as homework tasks at the end of each block as well as in the researcher's field notes and in the interviews. Here are three examples:

S12: Some issues of the Middle Ages as feudalism have been present from school, however, never taught with a purpose, only to meet the requirements, which is why these subjects are taught in a superficial way, leaving many gaps in the students. / Homework, April 17, 2014.

Topic: Music in the Renaissance. Most students say they have heard this music in movies, for example by Walt Disney. / Field note, May 8, 2014.

S1: El curso me ha hecho caer en cuenta que tengo muchas falencias en cuanto a cultura general.²⁸/ Interview, June 11, 2014.

On the one hand, the students' answers in the first questionnaire related to this topic set the foundation the course could be developed on. On the other hand, the

²⁷ ... how to teach students a way to read in English but learning something new, yes, a variety of topics that can be offered in the academic field of English or Spanish and the subject one is teaching.

²⁸ The course made me realize that I am quite lacking general culture.

students' lack of general knowledge about history and artistic expressions is strongly related to Bourdieu's concept of the embodied state of cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986, 1997; Peña Rodríguez, 2013) as the majority of the students who participated in this research studied in schools where history frequently is not taught in depth and artistic expressions are reduced to teaching how to draw and paint on a basic level.

To contextualize art gives meaning to it. Including artistic expressions into each historical block (mostly music and painting, to a lesser extent architecture) generated a quite unexpected impact on some of the students participating in this research. This can be evidenced, for example, in the following field note:

Topic: Music in the Middle Ages (students listen to recorded examples as part of the presentation) Most students listen attentively; maybe they have never heard this kind of music before. / Field note, April 10, 2014.

Listening to pieces of music of different historical periods, analysing their characteristics and discussing how they express the feelings of the corresponding time even inspired some students to compare them to genres of music they are listening to today.

S1: Moreover, the music we listen to nowadays has got those principles included; for instance, the so-called "Speed Metal" incorporates sounds that do resemble that classic music. Hence, I could say that we are living in a Renaissance, too: we are starting to re-discover the arts and at least to include some elements into postmodern artistic expressions. / Homework, May 16, 2014.

Not only music but also paintings called some students' attention. Asked about the sense of discussing paintings in the course, some students commented that to put them into their historical context provided them with a new meaning:

S3: Y de verdad que es chévere contextualizar una obra de arte. (...) Pues, cuando uno conoce el contexto de una obra halla sentido. De lo contrario queda una cosa colgada en la pared que no significa nada para uno.²⁹/ Interview, June 13, 2014.

S7: Yo pensaba que la historia no tiene nada que ver con cierto tipo de movimientos [artísticos]. Entonces, después uno se da cuenta que todo está ligado. (...) Y me enteré más de las obras, por ejemplo desde qué punto histórico salieron. Entonces creo que es mucho más motivante la

²⁹ And really, it's great to contextualize a work of art. (...) Well, once you know the context of a work of art, you find sense in it. Otherwise it remains a thing put on the wall which doesn't mean anything to you.

obra como tal y a partir de esta obra la investigación que cómo tal el movimiento.³⁰/ Interview, June 10, 2014.

This inspiring experience of discovering a new meaning in some pieces of music and paintings can also be linked to the students' lack of cultural capital in its embodied and in its objectified states (Bourdieu, 1986). Neither at school nor at home nor at university do students usually learn how to interpret music, paintings or architectural styles, which would confer onto them a sound endowment of cultural capital with respect to different artistic expressions.

Learning about history fosters socio-political awareness. This is the insight all students referred to in one way or another. Although in Bogotá the public university where this research took place is generally considered leftist, the participants of this research seem to have received little political education before this course.

Topic: Introduction. I present Marx's time line, the general phases in history. They don't know them. / Field note, February 26, 2014.

S3: Unas lecturas, por ejemplo el tema del capitalismo, marxismo, imperialismo, absolutismo, todo eso ha sido nuevo para mí y super-interesante. Nunca he sido muy receptiva con estos temas económicos, políticos, pero sí ha sido muy interesante todo, porque uno aprende de eso y cómo es aplicable en nuestro contexto.³¹/ Interview, November 10, 2014.

As most students do not know about other possible political and economic systems, they do not usually question the existing political and economic order in Colombia. One could say that this political stance is not proper of a language teacher; however, teaching any subject, which means developing and following a curriculum, is an inherently political activity which forces the teacher either to adapt his/her teaching practice to his/her own convictions or to submit to someone else's agenda (Auerbach, 1995; Canagarajah, 2000).

Second, during the course, students became aware that they and the society they live in are products of historical processes:

³⁰ I thought that history isn't related to certain types of [artistic] movements. Then, you find out that everything is linked. (...) And I understood more about the works, for example, in what historical point they originated. Thus, I think the work as such becomes much more motivating and based on this work to research about the movement.

³¹ Some readings, for example the topic of capitalism, Marxism, imperialism, absolutism, all this has been new for me and very interesting. I have never been very receptive to these economic, political topics, but everything has been very interesting because you learn from it and how it is applicable in our context.

S3: Me parece muy interesante conocer la historia de todo el mundo. (...) Nos da cuenta lo que somos hoy en día. Todo ese proceso ha hecho de nosotros lo que somos hoy en día.^{32/} Interview, June 13, 2014.

S5: Desde ahí empecé a interesarme por la historia, porque las cosas no son de repente, no son como ahora mismo, sino por algún motivo son como son ahora. Y es eso lo que usted nos enseñó al principio del semestre. Por algo somos lo que somos ahora y hacemos lo que hacemos ahora. Y lo que hacemos ahora también va a tener una incidencia en el futuro. Y de eso trata la historia.^{33/} Interview, June 10, 2014.

These comments are also evidence of what Paulo Freire (1970) called problematizing education, that is, education that allows students to discover new aspects of reality and to comprehend the world surrounding them from an ever less alienated perspective.

The third aspect, students' evolving critical stance towards their own reality, goes in line with Freire's (1970) encouraging learners to question taken-for-granted truth and go beyond the common presentations of reality. The following excerpts illustrate this.

S7: El Énfasis lo que hace es ampliar la mirada, el horizonte de vista, mirar un poco más para'llá. (...). Eso hace en el estudiante que, yo como estudiante en este momento, es ampliar el foco de visión en cuanto que la historia se teje y yo soy parte de la historia. Y en ese sentido me involucro, y como me involucro, pues, me hace un agente participativo. Pero un agente crítico, un agente que se entera.^{34/} Interview, November 14, 2014.

S5: I believe I can really make use of the movie '1492, Conquest of Paradise' to create critical thinking about the conquest and answer some of the why's and how's that we may have. / Homework, May 17, 2014.

These comments demonstrate that students have become interested in going beyond taken-for-granted truth, in going deeper into facts they have learned only superficially, in asking "why's and how's" they had no opportunity to ask before, in short, in taking a critical stance towards their reality.

³² I find it very interesting to know the history of the entire world. (...) It explains what we are today. All this process has made of us what we are today.

³³ From that point I started being interested in history, because the things don't come out of the blue, they are not just from now but for some reason they are as they are now. And this is what you have taught us at the beginning of the semester. It's for something that we are what we are now and that we are doing what we are doing now. And what we are doing now will influence the future. And that's what history is about.

³⁴ The Emphasis broadens your vision, your horizon to look a bit further. (...) This makes that I, as a student at this moment, broaden my perspective in the sense that history is being constructed and I am part of history. And in this sense I get involved, and as I get involved, well, I become a participating agent. But a critical agent, an agent who is aware of things.

Conclusions

Bearing in mind that this research aimed at understanding the impacts on public university pre-service teachers' cultural capital when exposed to EFL content-based instruction about the history of the Western hemisphere and related artistic expressions, it can be concluded that impacts occurred not only in the field of cultural capital but also with regards to students' autonomy and their socio-political awareness.

First, as the students recognized, CBI is a useful tool to not only improve the four language skills but also to learn authentic content that is not always taught in a "pure" language class, which is one of the main advantages of CBI. Additionally, discussing authentic content in English, e.g. interpreting a map, allows students to practice real-life language structures in the foreign language they are learning. If this content is related, as in the case of the present study, in a broader sense to the historical and cultural context of the foreign language the pre-service teachers are learning, CBI acquires special importance for the pedagogical practice of future language teachers.

Second, students acknowledged that they are not used to studying in an autonomous way. Most students are used to some kind of "banking-model" education (Freire, 1970), where a "prodger" (S7, interview November 14, 2014) tells them what to do until what deadline. In the light of Richard's (2001) concept of "Social Reconstructionism", usually students are neither being challenged to question their realities nor to transform them, nor to be autonomous in their learning processes. Although this constitutes a well-known fact in education research, for the university where this research took place it is a valuable insight.

On the other hand, when students are invited to learn in a dialogical way that fosters their autonomy, they feel they can express themselves freely, without thinking about a grade. They can then relate historical events and processes to their own reality, thus obtaining references for social transformation and gaining a less alienated comprehension of the world surrounding them, which constitute two of the objectives of critical pedagogy.

Third, the aforementioned lack of autonomy can partly explain why the participating pre-service teachers evidenced little general knowledge about history and related artistic expressions, as was acknowledged by them. Taking into consideration the concept of the embodied state of cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986, 1997; Peña Rodríguez, 2013), other reasons include the students' social backgrounds and their socialization processes, including the eleven years they spent in school.

Fourth, offering students a basic understanding of artistic expressions in their historical context can be an enriching experience for language students. Although Lareau & Weininger (2003) argue that new insights into these "high-brow" artistic expressions do not reflect an increase in cultural capital, one could also argue that to give a deeper meaning to a work of art and to put it into its historical context responds to Freire's (1970) claim to question given presentations of reality and empower students

to appropriate for themselves new meanings they have discovered in these artistic expressions.

Last but not least, teaching English following a CBI approach under the perspective of critical pedagogy and giving pre-service language teachers the chance to increase their cultural capital raises their socio-political awareness in three different aspects: the students' increased awareness of their indifference towards political and economic issues; their emerging insight that history has made us what we are today; and the students' evolving critical stance towards their own reality. This increased socio-political awareness can empower them to understand themselves as political subjects, as "critical participative agents" (S7, interview November 14, 2014) who can begin to transform a reality they perceive as unjust so that someday the perpetuation of the unequal education system in Colombia may come to its end.

Thinking about further research, it would be interesting to accompany the students who participated in this research in a long-term case study in order to find out if the insights gained during this two-semester course have any impact on their ongoing learning process.

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Un'analisi dei fattori legati alla motivazione degli studenti d'italiano della Kyoto Sangyo University (Giappone)

Un análisis de los factores relacionados con la motivación de los estudiantes de italiano de la Universidad Kyoto Sangyo (Japón)

An Analysis of the Factors Related to the Motivation of Students of Italian at Kyoto Sangyo University (Japan)

Francesco Diodato

fdiodato@cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp

Laurea del vecchio ordinamento in Studi Comparatistici, Master universitario di primo livello in Didattica e promozione della lingua e cultura italiane a stranieri, Master universitario di secondo livello in Multimedialità per l'e-learning, Master universitario di secondo livello in Progettazione avanzata dell'insegnamento della lingua e della cultura italiane a stranieri

Docente di lingua italiana presso la Kyoto Sangyo University, Kyoto, Giappone

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Abstract

Questo contributo è basato su una raccolta di dati eseguita attraverso due questionari sottoposti agli iscritti al I e II anno dei corsi di Lingua Italiana della Kyoto Sangyo University (Giappone), nel maggio e nel luglio 2015. I questionari investigavano le opinioni degli allievi relativamente ai fattori che influivano, a loro avviso, sulla motivazione verso lo studio dell'italiano e sono stati somministrati in due momenti diversi del corso. I risultati mostrano considerazioni legate a una grande varietà di ambiti: si spazia dalla società e dal sistema di valori giapponese all'organizzazione e alle condizioni materiali dell'Ateneo, fino al ruolo della famiglia. L'esame delle opinioni degli apprendenti mostra inoltre come questi elementi convergano anche nella formazione delle loro convinzioni rispetto allo studio. Gli studenti, tuttavia, mostrano di ritenere che la propria motivazione sia strettamente connessa anche alla struttura e alla conduzione della lezione: vengono infatti percepite come motivanti attività le cui caratteristiche sono legate all'*apprendimento attivo*, il che conferma la relazione esistente fra questo e la motivazione e, di conseguenza, la memoria. Emergono inoltre altri fattori che integrano le modalità in cui si svolgono le attività: il clima della classe, necessariamente privo di tensione, l'atteggiamento sorridente e gentile dell'insegnante, che sa ricorrere all'umorismo, è entusiasta e allegro. Si accenna inoltre alle opinioni

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esprese su temi controversi ma sempre molto attuali, quali il ruolo della valutazione, dei compiti a casa e sull'organizzazione dell'orario delle lezioni.

Parole chiave: *Giappone, motivazione, studio dell'italiano, convinzioni, valutazione, apprendimento attivo*

Resumen

Este trabajo está basado en la recolección de datos realizada a través de dos cuestionarios enviados a los estudiantes de primer y segundo año de italiano de la Universidad Kyoto Sangyo (Japón) en mayo y julio de 2015. Los cuestionarios indagaron las opiniones de los estudiantes sobre los factores que, en su opinión, motivaron su estudio del italiano. Dichos cuestionarios se aplicaron en dos momentos diferentes del curso. Los resultados mostraron consideraciones relacionadas con una amplia variedad de ámbitos, dentro de los cuales están los factores sociales y del sistema de valores japoneses, así como la organización de la universidad, su ambiente e incluso el papel de la familia. El análisis de las opiniones demostró cómo estos elementos también han influido en la formación de sus convicciones hacia el estudio. Sin embargo, los estudiantes indicaron que su motivación también está estrechamente relacionada con la estructura y el desarrollo de las clases; de hecho, perciben como motivadoras las actividades cuyas características están vinculadas con un *aprendizaje activo*. Esto confirma la conexión que hay entre dicha estrategia de aprendizaje y la motivación y, por consiguiente, la memoria. Surgieron además otros factores que complementan la forma en la que se llevan a cabo las actividades: un ambiente libre de tensión en el aula, así como un profesor divertido, entusiasta y alegre que tenga una actitud amable y sonriente. También surgieron opiniones con respecto a temas controvertidos pero siempre relevantes, tales como el papel de la evaluación, la tarea y el horario de clase.

Palabras clave: *Japón, motivación, estudio del italiano, convicciones, evaluación, aprendizaje activo*

Abstract

This contribution is based on data collected via two questionnaires presented to students registered in the first and second year of Italian Language courses at Kyoto Sangyo University (Japan) in May and July 2015. The questionnaires investigated students' opinions concerning the factors which influenced, in their estimation, their motivation toward the study of Italian and were administered on two separate occasions during their respective courses. The results highlight considerations related to a wide variety of areas including societal factors and the Japanese system of values, University organization and physical environment, and the role of the family. The examination of learners' opinions further shows how these elements also lead to the formation of their beliefs about studying. However, students seem to believe that their own motivation is also closely connected to structure and management of the lessons; indeed, activities whose features are linked to *active learning* are felt as motivating, which confirms the

existing connection between this and motivation and, consequently, memory. Other factors which complement the modalities in which the activities are carried out emerge: a necessarily tension-free classroom environment as well as a humorous, enthusiastic and cheerful teacher who smiles and is kind. Further opinions regarding controversial but always relevant topics, such as the role of assessment, homework and the class schedule, also emerge.

Keywords: *Japan, motivation, study of Italian, beliefs, assessment, active learning*

Il tema della motivazione degli studenti universitari, a giudicare dal numero di ricerche eseguite negli ultimi anni, sembra essere molto sentito in Giappone, ma non di rado i docenti sono propensi a considerarla come qualcosa di innato. Ne consegue che gli interventi volti a svilupparla e migliorarla sono spesso esigui quando non del tutto assenti. In questo contesto, il presente contributo si propone di analizzare i maggiori fattori relativi allo sviluppo della motivazione, e su quali di essi e in che misura l'insegnante possa esercitare un'influenza tale da poter realizzare l'obiettivo di un incremento del grado di attenzione e di partecipazione degli allievi.

La ricerca, di tipo qualitativo, è stata condotta in due classi di apprendenti del corso intensivo d'italiano presso la Faculty of Foreign Studies della Kyoto Sangyo University durante il primo semestre dell'anno accademico 2015/2016³⁵ e riguarda esclusivamente le lezioni affidate all'autore della presente ricerca. Delle due classi, una era costituita prevalentemente da studenti del primo anno; pertanto, tranne che per qualche eccezione, all'inizio del corso privi di conoscenze pregresse di lingua italiana. La competenza degli iscritti dell'altra, formata principalmente da studenti del secondo anno, raggiungeva mediamente il livello A1³⁶.

Per raccogliere i dati sono stati messi a punto due questionari somministrati in momenti diversi del corso: il primo dopo 10 lezioni e il secondo dopo 30 lezioni, alla fine del primo semestre³⁷. Il primo questionario aveva la duplice funzione di "foglio di dialogo tra docente e studenti" e di strumento utile per un'indagine preliminare sulla motivazione. Il foglio di dialogo è previsto dall'Ateneo, il quale permette al docente sia di usare una forma predefinita fornita dall'Ateneo stesso, che di elaborarne uno personale da presentare alle proprie classi, come in questo caso. Il suo fine è quello di dare la possibilità all'insegnante, qualora lo ritenga necessario, di correggere il tiro delle

³⁵ Il corso dura due anni e consiste in una lezione di 90 minuti tenuta quotidianamente dal lunedì al venerdì per 15 settimane a semestre. Due di esse, definite di *Conversazione* (termine che nei sillabi delle università giapponesi include in genere anche attività di ascolto), sono affidate all'autore, mentre due lezioni di morfosintassi e una di lessico sono curate da docenti giapponesi. Alla fine dei due anni, gli allievi raggiungono mediamente il livello A1-A2.

³⁶ Le lezioni affidate all'autore si svolgevano il lunedì e il venerdì alla prima ora per gli studenti del secondo anno e alla seconda per quelli del primo. Le lezioni erano volte a promuovere l'*apprendimento attivo* descritto in seguito attraverso l'approccio comunicativo della Dilit International House.

³⁷ I questionari, somministrati in giapponese, possono essere consultati rispettivamente nell'Appendice A) e nell'Appendice B) nella traduzione italiana.

lezioni e di chiarire eventuali incomprensioni circa gli obiettivi, la valutazione ecc. Per questa ragione, le domande in esso contenute riguardavano la motivazione degli apprendenti nei confronti del corso, il loro grado di partecipazione alle lezioni, il loro impegno oltre l'orario delle lezioni, la metodologia adottata dal docente e il tipo di attività svolte in classe. Il secondo questionario, invece, è stato predisposto con l'intento di approfondire alcuni aspetti emersi dai risultati ricavati dal primo. Sono state, pertanto, inserite domande inerenti agli altri docenti dell'Ateneo, ai compagni di classe, alla famiglia, agli stessi intervistati, all'università e agli amici. Per entrambi i questionari si è optato per domande a risposta aperta. Benché queste richiedessero tempi maggiori per la compilazione e per l'analisi, si è ritenuto opportuno dare ampia libertà agli studenti, sperando in questo modo di poter acquisire anche dati che andassero oltre ogni nostra supposizione. Si è altresì deciso di lasciare agli studenti la facoltà di scegliere se inserire il proprio nome nei questionari, auspicando che da questo accorgimento sarebbe risultata una maggiore sincerità nelle risposte. Il primo questionario raccoglie le risposte di 46 apprendenti di età compresa tra i 18 e i 23 anni, di cui 28 ragazzi e 13 ragazze. Cinque questionari erano anonimi. Gli intervistati per il secondo, di età compresa tra i 18 e i 22 anni, sono stati 41, di cui 24 ragazzi e 15 ragazze. Due questionari erano anonimi. Le risposte sono state date nella loro lingua madre.

Motivazione e motivazioni

La motivazione spiega perché qualcuno decida di fare qualcosa, con quanto impegno e per quanto tempo, ma trovare una risposta a queste tre domande è cosa molto ardua considerata la complessità dell'essere umano, il cui comportamento può essere influenzato da numerosi fattori (Dörnyei, 2012). Mariani (2008) afferma che “il costrutto ‘motivazione’” è così variegato e complesso che sarebbe meglio parlare “di ‘motivazioni’, diverse da individuo a individuo e, per lo stesso individuo, mutevoli” ed individua una motivazione rispetto ai contesti di lavoro (discipline diverse, insegnanti diversi, compagni diversi ecc.), un'altra “rispetto alle dimensioni dell'esperienza” (la motivazione nei confronti di una particolare disciplina o attività è diversa dalla “motivazione come disposizione generale verso l'apprendimento nel suo complesso”) e un'altra ancora “rispetto alle dimensioni temporali” (p. 26) (nel senso che la motivazione varia nel tempo).

Motivazione intrinseca ed estrinseca

Benché esistano diverse teorie sulla motivazione, in questo lavoro si darà particolare evidenza alla distinzione tra motivazione intrinseca ed estrinseca, non solo per il grande seguito che ha avuto, ma anche perché più adatta ai fini di questo studio.

Deci e Ryan (2004), citando Deci, e Deci e Ryan, affermano che la motivazione intrinseca “implica il partecipare a un'attività per il piacere e la soddisfazione inerenti nell'attività stessa”³⁸ (p. 42), ma seguendo Mariani (2008), tuttavia, si ritiene importante

³⁸ Tutte le traduzioni sono dell'autore.

chiarire che “la motivazione non risiede nell’argomento o nel compito, ma è una disposizione che origina pur sempre dalla persona (che in realtà non fa dunque qualcosa ‘per la cosa in sé’, ma per se stessa)” (pp. 50-51).

Di contro, sempre secondo Deci e Ryan (2004), la motivazione estrinseca “si riferisce a una vasta gamma di comportamenti aventi in comune il fatto che si partecipa alle attività non per ragioni insite in esse ma per ragioni strumentali” (p. 42).

Polito (2014), citando Deci e Ryan, asserisce che la motivazione intrinseca è migliore di quella estrinseca: la seconda “ha la caratteristica strutturale di essere debole, precaria e fragile” (p. 29), ma ne riconosce l’utilità iniziale come incentivo, benché, a differenza di quella intrinseca, non sia duratura. Gli allievi motivati intrinsecamente, sostiene a ragione Polito (2014), “sono più forti e resistenti”, e sanno che “il risultato scolastico dipende direttamente dal loro impegno” (p. 31).

Riguardo a questi apprendenti, lo studioso si esprime come segue: “Non si inventano scuse, non si raccontano bugie, non proiettano le proprie colpe sugli altri. Si sentono responsabili davanti a se stessi e padroni del proprio comportamento” (Polito, 2014, p. 31). A questo proposito, interessante è l’affermazione di Mariani (2008) secondo la quale “è irrealistico pensare che tutti gli studenti, in tutte le circostanze, possano esibire una motivazione di tipo intrinseco” (p. 54), per il fatto che molto probabilmente, se ne avessero la facoltà, invece di svolgere le attività scolastiche, dove generalmente non hanno nessun controllo sui contenuti e sui metodi, si dedicherebbero molto volentieri ad altro.

Anderman e Anderman (2014) non escludono che le due motivazioni possano coesistere: “Uno studente può avere una motivazione intrinseca alta o bassa per un compito e una motivazione estrinseca alta o bassa per lo stesso compito” (p. 39). In altre parole, gli apprendenti possono essere contemporaneamente interessati allo studio, un fattore intrinseco, e al conseguimento di buoni voti, che però costituisce un incentivo estrinseco. Questo atteggiamento sembra essere realistico, dal momento che gli insegnanti, fra i loro altri doveri, hanno anche quello di assegnare dei voti.

Infine, Pallotti (2006) ricorda che “[u]n apprendente che abbia molti validi motivi per imparare la L2 sarà nel complesso più motivato di uno che ne abbia pochi e deboli” (p. 215) (vedi (44)) e suggerisce di ricorrere alla motivazione estrinseca solo qualora non fosse possibile motivare gli allievi in nessun altro modo. Negli altri casi, aggiunge, la motivazione estrinseca dovrebbe rivestire un ruolo secondario, quel tanto che basta per stimolare un’“ansia facilitativa” che può riflettersi con effetti benefici sull’apprendimento. D’altro canto, Hiromori (2013) precisa che “nessun singolo motivo è ‘buono’ o ‘cattivo’ in senso assoluto” (p. 294). La motivazione intrinseca può certo essere un buon motivo per decidere di apprendere una lingua, ma intrapreso lo studio e compresa l’entità dell’impegno richiesto, lo si potrebbe trovare meno piacevole del previsto, come Hiromori (2013), citando Hayashi, ricorda. Del resto, studiare per ottenere buoni voti non è una cosa negativa, ma il loro ottenimento non è garantito. Il suggerimento di Hiromori (2013), basato su varie teorie, verte dunque su un giusto

equilibrio di motivi su cui contare per studiare una lingua, in modo che quelli più deboli o che stanno per sparire possano essere ravvivati da altri motivi più forti.

La valutazione e la motivazione estrinseca

Mariani (2008) afferma che “ricompense e punizioni, abbassando il senso di autoregolazione, invitano gli individui a fare quanto più possibile nel più breve tempo possibile, a prendere scorciatoie, a scegliere compiti facili, che non facciano correre i rischi implicati in compiti più impegnativi” (p. 58). Stando allo studioso, la forma istituzionale assunta da ricompense e punizioni è, secondo una percezione spesso diffusa tra gli studenti, la valutazione. Si studia dunque per la promozione e, affermano Wentzel e Brophy (2014), per raggiungere lo scopo si adottano strategie appropriate³⁹. Barkley (2009), basandosi sul lavoro di Kohn, ricorda che gli allievi possono decidere di iscriversi a corsi in cui è più facile ottenere voti alti in modo da mantenere il livello della loro media: in casi come questi la “generosità” dell’insegnante, pur sembrando risolvere il problema della motivazione nell’immediato, può successivamente rivelarsi controproducente per lo sviluppo della motivazione intrinseca.

L’enfasi sui voti, che può indurre alcuni apprendenti a barare durante gli esami, non origina solo dall’insegnante: anche le aspettative dei genitori (brutti voti possono comportare una punizione, mentre grazie a bei voti si ottengono lodi o addirittura regali) e determinate condizioni legate ai regolamenti dell’università (voti bassi escludono l’accesso a determinati privilegi) giocano un ruolo importante (Anderman e Anderman, 2014).

Per Polito (2014) la valutazione può essere *deterrente* (dunque punitiva) o *valorizzante*. Mentre nel primo caso si studia solo per il voto o per ricevere l’apprezzamento di qualcun altro (i genitori, l’insegnante) e non per il desiderio di imparare né per se stessi, nel secondo si ha una visione educativa, attraverso la quale l’insegnante valorizza lo studente e lo aiuta a sviluppare le sue potenzialità. Alla domanda se i voti vadano aboliti, Polito (2014) risponde: “Non è necessario abolire i voti, se si recupera la funzione educativa e culturale della scuola. Basta questo ripensamento a risvegliare la motivazione scolastica e a svuotare i voti del loro veleno demotivante” (p. 356). Dello stesso avviso sembra Pallotti (2006) quando chiarisce che “‘sviluppo della motivazione estrinseca’ non è sinonimo di ‘valutazione’ né di ‘correzione degli errori’”: queste infatti “possono aver luogo anche senza implicare alcuna idea di ricompensa o sanzione” (p. 311, n. 9), fattori fondamentali che definiscono la motivazione estrinseca. Si può pertanto ridurre il peso della motivazione estrinseca senza necessariamente sminuire la portata della valutazione o della correzione degli errori. Pur riconoscendo l’importanza di queste osservazioni, siamo indotti a ritenere che i voti, così come la correzione degli errori, possano limitare l’autonomia

³⁹ Wentzel e Brophy (2014) ne portano qualche esempio: se le prove contengono solo tecniche di abbinamento o di riempimento di spazi gli apprendenti probabilmente opereranno per una memorizzazione superficiale dei materiali; se l’insegnante preannuncia i contenuti oggetto d’esame, concentreranno i loro sforzi solo su di essi, e così via.

degli apprendenti, poiché rappresentano un mezzo attraverso il quale il docente esercita un controllo. In questo modo, il problema che Pallotti (2006) attribuisce alla motivazione estrinseca rimane però irrisolto:

Uno studente mosso esclusivamente dalla motivazione estrinseca difficilmente potrà essere detto autonomo: la sua acquisizione sarà condizionata dal bisogno di essere valutato positivamente dagli altri, non saprà prefiggersi obiettivi di apprendimento individuali e non sarà in grado di giudicare da solo se ha compiuto o meno progressi (p. 310).

Rispetto a questa difficoltà, l'esperienza alla base del presente lavoro mostra piuttosto come non sia attraverso i voti (vale a dire attraverso un giudizio proveniente dall'esterno), ma attraverso lo svolgimento di attività e il confronto fra pari che gli allievi imparano a valutare i propri progressi e le proprie lacune, e a porvi rimedio in maniera autonoma (vedi (63)).

L'apprendimento attivo e la motivazione

Barkley (2009) asserisce che quanto si intende attraverso *apprendimento attivo* (così definito perché indica un coinvolgimento attivo della mente), “si riferisce a diversi modelli d'istruzione, inclusi l'apprendimento cooperativo e collaborativo, l'apprendimento attraverso la scoperta, l'apprendimento esperienziale, l'apprendimento basato sui problemi, e l'apprendimento basato sull'investigazione” (p. 16). Evidenzia, inoltre, come gli apprendenti imparino veramente quando viene loro richiesto di giungere da soli a una soluzione facendo leva sulle proprie conoscenze ed esperienze.

Affinché gli allievi si impegnino, devono essere sicuri di avere le capacità necessarie per portare a termine un compito, e questo compito deve essere per loro significativo. D'altro canto, perché un'attività possa essere percepita in modo positivo, è importante che comporti un livello di sfida e di sostegno dell'insegnante normalmente alti: in questo modo gli apprendenti, imparando qualcosa di nuovo, possono percepire l'utilità del compito, senza essere condizionati dall'ansia per la paura di non essere in grado di svolgerlo, perché grazie al sostegno ricevuto chi studia si sente assicurato (Mariani, 2008). Inoltre, secondo Wentzel e Brophy (2014), se le attività vengono svolte spontaneamente e con la consapevolezza che la qualità dell'esecuzione non avrà gravi conseguenze, si preferiscono alti livelli di sfida e di abilità. Se invece lo svolgimento delle attività viene presentato come un obbligo (e quindi per qualche ragione l'apprendente vuole a tutti i costi riuscire a completarle con successo), si preferiscono attività che comportino un livello di abilità superiore a quello di sfida.

L'italiano in Giappone

Come descritto da Carassia, Diodato e Hirose (2009), la lingua italiana ha cominciato a guadagnarsi un posto importante in Giappone negli anni '90, sulla scia del successo del *Made in Italy* degli anni '80. Sono proprio gli anni '90, infatti, che vedono

la nascita di un programma televisivo per l'apprendimento della lingua italiana che, come quello alla radio, viene mandato in onda ancora adesso⁴⁰. Per seguire queste lezioni è possibile acquistare dei testi, reperibili in qualsiasi libreria. Le tv giapponesi, a conferma dell'interesse nei confronti del *Bel Paese*, spesso trasmettono anche programmi di vario genere che hanno come tema l'Italia. Sono, inoltre, da segnalare anche manifestazioni varie, quali il Festival del Cinema Italiano, che si svolge dal 2001, e il fatto che diversi negozi e riviste hanno un nome italiano [o italianeggiante]. Da qualche anno, aggiungiamo, ci sono anche canali televisivi che trasmettono telefilm italiani.

Le motivazioni di chi studia italiano, con variazioni dipese dall'età, generalmente riguardano uno di questi ambiti: moda, design, cinema, cucina, e più in generale gastronomia, musica (in particolare l'opera), Formula 1, vini, arte, calcio, lavoro, bellezze naturali, viaggi, storia, letteratura, il modo di vivere "all'italiana" (Carassia et al., 2009; Nannini, 2000) e MotoGP. L'esperienza, tuttavia, insegna che in molti casi si tratta di motivazioni deboli. Nannini (2000) afferma: "Soprattutto all'inizio, i discenti sono spinti, in linea generale, da interessi abbastanza generici" (p. 234).

L'insegnamento dell'italiano fu introdotto per la prima volta in un istituto d'istruzione superiore giapponese nel 1899, presso la Tokyo School of Foreign Languages (l'attuale Tokyo University of Foreign Studies) (Kikuchi, 2014). Secondo i dati del Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (Monbukagakushō. Kōtō kyōikukyoku. Daigaku shinkōka. Daigaku kaizen suishinshitsu, 2016) in Giappone l'italiano si studia in 119 università, ossia il 15,6% del totale, posizionandosi all'ottavo posto dopo, in ordine, l'inglese, il cinese, il francese, il tedesco, il coreano, lo spagnolo e il russo. Takada (2005) sostiene che l'italiano figura soprattutto tra gli insegnamenti delle università in cui ci si specializza in musica, seguite da università in cui si studiano le belle arti. Sempre secondo lo studioso, la lingua o la letteratura italiana è materia di specializzazione in 7 università⁴¹, tra cui la Kyoto Sangyo University. Il Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (Monbukagakushō. Shotō chūtō kyōikukyoku. Kokusai kyōikuka, 2016) rende noto che l'italiano è insegnato anche in 13 scuole secondarie di secondo grado e in una scuola secondaria di primo grado.

Bisogna aggiungere che ci sono corsi di lingua anche presso l'Istituto Italiano di Cultura, con sede a Tokyo e a Osaka, presso Associazioni Italo-Giapponesi e in numerose scuole private di lingue e centri culturali. Non bisogna infine dimenticare gli insegnanti che impartiscono lezioni private. Secondo una stima, il numero di chi studia italiano in Giappone si aggira intorno alle 500.000 persone (Crisafulli, in Maugeri, 2011).

⁴⁰ Il sito web dei due programmi è consultabile all'indirizzo <https://www2.nhk.or.jp/gogaku/italian/>

⁴¹ Una di queste è, più precisamente, un istituto universitario biennale.

La voce degli studenti

In questo paragrafo si riportano alcune delle opinioni espresse dagli studenti rispetto ai fattori di vario genere che, a loro avviso, influenzano la propria motivazione verso lo studio della lingua italiana.

Fattori demotivanti

Il quadro emerso dall'analisi dei questionari sembra essere piuttosto complesso. Qui presenteremo le cause che gli studenti sentono connesse alla motivazione, ma distinguendole secondo gli ambiti a cui competono.

Fattori esterni (società, famiglia, elementi concreti del quotidiano all'interno dell'Ateneo, ecc.). Secondo uno degli allievi, la società attribuisce eccessiva considerazione a voti e crediti (1), e, sempre dal punto di vista dell'influenza dei fattori sociali sugli studi universitari, un altro esprime la propria frustrazione rispetto al fatto che si tenda a dare priorità al nome dell'università frequentata piuttosto che all'impegno dedicato al corso di studi, probabilmente perché teme che questo possa condizionare in qualche misura la sua futura ricerca di lavoro (2).

(1) “Vorrei un ambiente in cui l'apprendimento fosse qualcosa di piacevole”.
Motivo: “Perché c'è la tendenza a dare maggiore importanza a crediti e voti”.

(2) “Vorrei che non si desse eccessiva importanza alla reputazione dell'università”.
Motivo: “Vorrei che si guardasse a come si è studiato all'università”.

In uno dei commenti si afferma a chiare lettere che l'ateneo frequentato non è quello a cui ci si sarebbe voluti iscrivere, ma che la scelta è caduta su questo perché non si è riusciti a superare l'esame di ammissione del primo, e si dichiara, senza mezzi termini, di non nutrire interesse alcuno per l'italiano, scelto solo perché figura tra i corsi obbligatori previsti dal corso di laurea, la cui scelta l'intervistato non è stato in grado di giustificare (3).

(3) Domanda: “Perché hai pensato di studiare l'italiano?”

Risposta: “È materia obbligatoria del mio corso di laurea. Non avendo superato l'esame di ammissione dell'università alla quale aspiravo, non mi è rimasto che iscrivermi qui. Non c'è nessun motivo particolare per cui io abbia scelto questo corso di laurea”.

Un discente lamenta un'eccessiva importanza data al punteggio TOEIC, nonostante non rappresenti le effettive capacità comunicative della persona (4).

(4) “[*scil.* Vorrei che] non [decidessero] tutto in base al punteggio TOEIC”.

Motivo: “Pur ottenendo un punteggio TOEIC elevato non significa che si sappia parlare [*scil.*: l’inglese]”.

Gli studenti, dice un altro, hanno pochi soldi e per potersi mantenere e pagare l’università sono costretti a lavorare part-time e ciò sottrae tempo allo studio. Inoltre, gli iscritti all’ultimo anno devono anche cercare un lavoro a tempo pieno in modo da poter cominciare subito a lavorare dopo la laurea (5).

(5) “In Giappone gli studenti ricevono troppo pochi soldi. Attualmente, gli studenti che hanno chiesto un prestito per studiare sono indebitati già da adolescenti. Gli studenti sono angosciati dalla necessità di lavorare part-time. Si impegnano troppo nella ricerca di un impiego per dopo la laurea e non possono studiare come dovrebbero”.

Bisogna anche riportare, basandosi sull’esperienza, che, se è vero che ci sono molti studenti universitari che lavorano part-time, i motivi per cui lo fanno sono tra i più diversi.

Alla famiglia, tra le varie cose, si chiede protezione, sostegno, che possono esprimersi nella preparazione di cibi graditi (6) o cestini da pranzo (7).

(6) “Vorrei mangiare cose buone”.

(7) “Vorrei che mi preparassero il cestino da pranzo”.

Motivo: “Penso che, avendo qualcosa di piacevole che mi aspetta dopo la lezione, potrei impegnarmi”.

Accanto a queste osservazioni, si leggono però anche quelle di chi preferisce che la famiglia non interferisca (8) o chi vorrebbe che manifestasse interesse nei confronti dell’Italia (9), fino a chi vorrebbe che qualche familiare lo svegliasse in modo che riesca ad alzarsi per andare all’università, perché da solo non ci riesce (10).

(8) “Vorrei che non si intromettessero troppo nei miei affari”.

Motivo: “Perché mi chiedono più o meno sempre le stesse cose”.

(9) “Vorrei che ne sapessero di più dell’Italia”.

(10) “Vorrei che la mattina mi svegliassero”.

Motivo: “[*scil.* Alzarmi presto] [l]a mattina non fa per me”.

Mettendo a fuoco più precisamente le condizioni di vita universitaria e avvicinandoci così all’aspetto che più ci interessa, si aggiunge qui che qualcuno gradirebbe, ad esempio, un maggior numero di mense, minimarket, scale mobili (11), un

maggior numero di autobus da e per l'università⁴² e l'abolizione dei bagni alla turca (12).

(11) “Vorrei più scale mobili, minimarket e mense”.

Motivo: “C'è troppa gente”.

(12) “Vorrei più autobus e che i bagni fossero tutti in stile occidentale”.

Organizzazione dell'università, strutturazione dei corsi. Molti degli intervistati (forse fin troppo numerosi) disapprovano l'obbligo di seguire un certo numero di corsi d'inglese per il conseguimento della laurea (13).

(13) “Vorrei che abolissero i corsi d'inglese”.

Motivo: “Perché vorrei concentrarmi nello studio della lingua in cui mi specializzo [...]”.

Non è facile ipotizzare il motivo per cui vengano espresse queste opinioni, ma si può congetturare o che gli apprendenti non siano sufficientemente consapevoli dell'importanza che la conoscenza della lingua inglese riveste nel mondo di oggi (per esempio nel momento in cui si cerca lavoro), oppure che il rifiuto da loro manifestato potrebbe risalire al modo in cui lo studio di questa lingua è stato affrontato nel passato, fino alle scuole superiori. Si dovrebbe imparare perché si vuole e non perché si deve, altrimenti l'apprendimento non è efficace, ma essendo l'importanza della lingua inglese innegabile, non può essere ignorata da un corso di laurea come quello che frequentano. La soluzione ideale dovrebbe dunque ispirarsi ad un approfondimento e una maggiore precisione nell'individuazione delle ragioni di questo rifiuto e agire affinché il desiderio di imparare l'inglese possa essere stimolato nelle sue motivazioni più profonde.

Organizzazione e struttura dei corsi di lingua italiana. Le lezioni di conversazione d'italiano, essendo alla prima ora del lunedì e del venerdì (vedi n. 2), sembrano avere per vari apprendenti un impatto negativo sulla partecipazione poiché la stanchezza (spesso dovuta alla lunghezza degli spostamenti) rende loro difficile una partecipazione efficace (14)-(15).

(14) “Vorrei che le lezioni non fossero alla prima ora”.

Motivo: “È dura seguire lezioni di conversazione dalla prima ora”.

⁴² Le file per i servizi possono essere snervanti, soprattutto negli orari in cui questi sono più utilizzati. Un maggior numero di autobus, soprattutto in certi orari, può permettere di uscire più tardi di casa. Il riferimento alle scale mobili deriva invece dal fatto che gli edifici del campus sono sparsi lungo una collina e lo spostamento, nel caso in cui due lezioni si svolgano in edifici diversi, può richiedere tempo ed energia.

(15) “Mi risulta difficile frequentare perché le lezioni si tengono alla prima ora del lunedì e del venerdì [...]”.

I risultati degli studi che indagano il sonno sembrano indicare che alzarsi la mattina verso le 9 o le 10 o andare a dormire verso mezzanotte non implicano pigrizia o vita sregolata negli adolescenti: ciò sembra invece riflettere il normale ritmo biologico di questa età. Per questo motivo potrebbe essere auspicabile far coincidere l’orario delle lezioni con l’orario biologico di quelli che devono frequentarle (per esempio dando inizio alle attività didattiche fra le 10 e le 11) (Kelley, Lockley, Foster e Kelley, 2015).

Molti degli intervistati lamentano il carico di lavoro richiesto da alcuni corsi, che impedisce loro di dedicarsi con lo stesso impegno a materie per cui potrebbero nutrire maggiore interesse, se non indurli addirittura a trascurarle completamente, e queste richieste spesso non riguardano solo i compiti a casa, ma anche la preparazione di prove intermedie⁴³ (16).

(16) “Vorrei che assegnassero meno compiti e che la quantità di cose da studiare per le prove intermedie e la frequenza delle stesse fossero minori”.

Motivo: “Perché ci resta tempo solo per quella materia”.

I compiti richiesti per altre materie sembrano dunque talvolta interferire nel normale svolgimento delle lezioni generando uno stato di ansia.

Trautwein (citato in Anderman e Anderman, 2014) afferma che, anche se l’utilità dei compiti è innegabile, il tempo a essi dedicato è meno importante di altri aspetti, quali la frequenza con cui si assegnano e l’impegno degli studenti durante lo svolgimento. Quest’ultimo aspetto, secondo Trautwein e Ludtke (citati in Anderman e Anderman, 2014), è legato all’utilità che essi attribuiscono ai compiti e alle capacità che pensano di avere per poterli svolgere.

Si ritiene perciò che i compiti imposti, oltre a non avere nessuna utilità perché tutto verrà dimenticato dopo poco, limitino l’autonomia degli studenti, distruggano il piacere di imparare e accentuino la repulsione nei confronti dello studio e della cultura. La soluzione ideale sarebbe, naturalmente, che i docenti si impegnassero a svolgere lezioni talmente motivanti da facilitare gli studenti nella scoperta del piacere di imparare: saranno poi loro a decidere spontaneamente se dedicarsi allo studio e all’approfondimento di quanto incontra maggiormente il loro interesse anche oltre l’orario delle lezioni (vedi (69)).

⁴³ Per esempio, durante una lezione, un’allieva ha cercato più volte di svolgere frettolosamente dei compiti per un’altra lezione dello stesso giorno. A esplicita richiesta, ha spiegato che non era riuscita a svolgerli a casa e temeva che il docente, che non conosceva abbastanza (trattandosi del primo semestre del I anno), non si sarebbe mostrato comprensivo.

Corsi e lezioni: contenuti, pratiche didattiche, partecipazione. Una delle richieste più frequenti è quella di lezioni più piacevoli perché se non lo sono conciliano il sonno (17).

(17) “Vorrei lezioni un po’ più divertenti”.

Motivo: “Perché mi viene sonno”.

A volte il monologo del docente è difficile da seguire e si desidererebbe una lezione che permettesse un certo livello di interazione e che quindi li veda partecipi in un ruolo attivo. Questo li terrebbe lontani dagli smartphone e dallo svolgimento di compiti per altre materie. Inoltre, una partecipazione attiva potrebbe facilitare la memorizzazione dei contenuti (18).

(18) “Vorrei lezioni in cui non fosse solo il docente a parlare, ma in cui venisse richiesta una partecipazione maggiore agli allievi”.

Motivo: “In questo modo gli studenti non sarebbero tentati di fare compiti [*scil.* per altre materie] o di usare lo smartphone e è più probabile che il contenuto delle lezioni venga memorizzato”.

Fra le cause di distrazione, si incontra anche il continuo bisbiglio dei compagni, al quale l’insegnante non fa nulla per porre rimedio (19), o ancora, si vorrebbe non essere invitati dagli amici prima degli esami, perché non si riesce a rifiutare (20), un’altra prova, a nostro avviso, del peso eccessivo che studenti e docenti attribuiscono alle verifiche.

(19) “Vorrei che, nelle classi in cui c’è chi bisbiglia tanto, si prendessero misure nei confronti degli studenti che disturbano”.

Motivo: “Perché ci sono casi in cui non smettono se nessuno gli dice niente”.

(20) “[*scil.* Vorrei] [m]eno inviti a uscire prima degli esami”.

Motivo: “Perché non posso rifiutare”.

Uno degli intervistati risponde di lasciarsi facilmente influenzare dai compagni di classe, che hanno nei suoi confronti una funzione di traino, e, di conseguenza, il suo impegno a lezione riflette il loro (21).

(21) “Vorrei che a lezione si impegnassero”.

Motivo: “Perché penso che, se gli altri si impegnassero, mi impegnerei anch’io”.

Queste affermazioni mostrano che gli studenti hanno bisogno di aiuto per proteggersi dalle *interferenze*. Se in classe è il docente a ricordare, per esempio, che gli

smartphone vanno spenti, a casa in genere sono da soli e, come nota Polito (2014): “Molti studenti sono poco concentrati, perché non prendono le opportune precauzioni per proteggere la propria motivazione dalle numerose interferenze” (p. 37). Gli studenti, dunque, devono imparare a disciplinarsi, ad automotivarsi⁴⁴.

Altre opinioni riguardano la durata delle attività, considerata troppo estesa (22).

(22) “[...] a volte penso che il tempo dedicato alle attività sia troppo”.

Interessante è che questo problema sia emerso solo nel primo questionario e non nel secondo, il che potrebbe indicare una mancanza di abitudine rispetto a questo modo di studiare. In ogni modo, per risolvere questa difficoltà, potrebbe essere sufficiente svolgere attività più brevi all’inizio del corso e aumentare a poco a poco la loro durata fino a raggiungere quella adeguata. Qualcuno si è espresso negativamente rispetto alla durata delle lezioni vere e proprie, ritenendo eccessivi 90 minuti e suggerendo di prevedere una pausa nel corso della lezione o abbreviarne la durata, perché questo migliorerebbe il rendimento (23).

(23) “[*scil.* Vorrei] [l]ezioni più brevi”.

Motivo: “In una lezione di 90 minuti non è possibile rimanere concentrati fino alla fine. La lezione sarebbe più efficace se si facesse una pausa di 5 o 10 minuti o se durasse 70 minuti”.

Fra gli elementi motivanti, è interessante la proposta di chi vorrebbe maggiori opportunità di incontrare italiani, possibilmente coetanei, che potrebbero offrire tanto una possibilità di praticare la lingua quanto una motivazione in più. Questa opportunità potrebbe presentarsi grazie alla presenza di studenti italiani nell’Ateneo tramite accordi interuniversitari: aumentare le occasioni di incontro potrebbe contribuire certamente all’offerta formativa (24).

(24) “Per quanto riguarda l’italiano, vorrei che ci fossero più occasioni di venire a contatto con gli italiani dello stesso anno di corso”.

La percezione della difficoltà. Le risposte ai questionari sembrano anche indicare il peso esercitato sulla motivazione dalle convinzioni personali degli studenti sul modo in cui si dovrebbe studiare/insegnare, acquisite in tanti anni di “addestramento scolastico”.

Di fronte alla percezione delle difficoltà, nelle risposte degli allievi incontriamo due commenti che esprimono due opinioni diametralmente opposte: mentre uno studente del II anno, al primo questionario, in generale afferma che se le lezioni sono divertenti la motivazione è alta nonostante le difficoltà (25), uno del I, nel secondo questionario, riferito all’attività di ascolto, risponde che la difficoltà dell’attività impedisce un aumento della motivazione (26).

⁴⁴ Per alcune strategie praticabili a questo scopo, vedi Dörnyei, 2012, pp. 109-116.

(25) “È difficile, ma piuttosto divertente, quindi la motivazione è alta”.

(26) “Le cose che stiamo facendo ora sono troppo complicate, difficilmente riesco a comprenderle e la mia motivazione non aumenta”.

Rispetto a questo problema, è difficile stabilire se il livello della loro motivazione, così com'è da loro espresso, sia una causa o un effetto. Nel primo caso, ciò avvalorerebbe la tesi di Wentzel e Brophy (2014) sopra menzionata secondo cui gli apprendenti più motivati preferiscono compiti più difficili e i meno motivati preferiscono quelli più facili (per quanto sarebbe preferibile poter far riferimento a un campione più ricco). Allo stesso tempo, per correttezza di registrazione dei dati, si deve qui riferire che lo stesso studente che nel questionario dichiarava un'alta motivazione ha poi abbandonato il corso, dopo essersi assentato ripetutamente, il che permette di esprimere dei dubbi sulla sua reale motivazione.

Al di là della difficoltà oggettiva, la percezione di difficoltà di un'attività o di un corso può avere cause diverse. Una di queste può derivare dalle convinzioni dell'allievo. Yūki (2015b) sostiene che potrebbe trattarsi di un pretesto che può aiutare a superare tanto lo shock dell'insuccesso (“non ce l'ho fatta perché era difficile”) quanto avvalorare il successo (“nonostante la difficoltà”). Gli studi sembrano mostrare che chi ricorre a questa strategia ha più probabilità di insuccesso rispetto a chi non lo fa⁴⁵.

Una parte delle risposte riguarda invece la riflessione di come loro stessi possano incentivare la propria motivazione: sono emerse proposte di vario genere, interessanti sia per documentare la varietà delle opinioni, sia per individuare, in alcuni casi, le loro convinzioni. Si ricordano qui strategie menzionate secondo le affinità che presentano. Il primo gruppo (27)-(35) riguarda lo studio; il secondo gruppo (36)-(41) l'autoregolazione; il terzo e ultimo gruppo (42)-(47) motivazioni intrinseche ed estrinseche di vario tipo.

(27) “Ripassare”.

(28) “Esercitarmi”.

(29) “Fare i compiti ogni giorno”.

Motivo: “Facendoli ogni giorno, posso capire e la motivazione aumenta”.

(30) “Avere un atteggiamento positivo nei confronti dello studio”.

⁴⁵ Se il pretesto viene avanzato dopo aver fatto qualcosa, attribuire l'insuccesso a cause diverse dalle proprie capacità o impegno facilita la diminuzione dello stress, ma allo stesso tempo può comportare il rischio dell'abbassamento degli obiettivi (Yūki 2015b).

(31) “Impegnarmi seriamente”.

(32) “Studiare tante parole e imparare la grammatica”.

(33) “Fare più domande”.

(34) “Adeguarmi allo stile dell’insegnante e degli altri senza perdere di vista il mio”.

(35) “Impegnarmi secondo le mie possibilità”.

(36) “Imparare ad autoregolarmi”.

(37) “Studiare in treno quando vado all’università”.

(38) “Fare in modo che non fare ritardi né assenze diventi una cosa ovvia”.

(39) “Svegliarmi la mattina”.

Motivo: “Per non fare tardi a lezione”.

(40) “Mettere in ordine la mia stanza”.

Motivo: “Perché, essendo la stanza in disordine, non posso sistemare i libri”.

(41) “Tenere un’agenda”.

Motivo: “Spesso non ricordo quali impegni abbia in un determinato giorno”.

(42) “Interessarmi all’Italia”.

(43) “Fare amicizia con italiani [...]”.

(44) “Farmi piacere di più l’italiano. Avere un maggior numero di interessi nei confronti dell’Italia”.

Motivo: “Studiando ciò che mi piace, lo studio non sarà soffocante”.

(45) “Studiare per la mia famiglia e laurearmi”.

(46) “Ottenere crediti e laurearmi”.

Motivo: “Per trovare lavoro”.

(47) “Risparmiare”.

Fra gli elementi demotivanti appare invece, in qualche caso, l'impressione di non fare progressi (48).

(48) “[...] non penso che la mia abilità nel conversare stia migliorando”.

Di fronte a questo, sarebbe importante che l'insegnante chiarisse che non tutti i risultati delle attività sono immediati, e che, come ricorda Osborne (2005), non essendo il progresso un processo lineare, talvolta è difficile notare progressi senza arrivare alla fine del corso o anche in momenti successivi. Tuttavia questa impressione potrebbe anche essere generata dalle convinzioni degli studenti.

Fattori motivanti

Prima di entrare nel merito, si premette che le considerazioni riportate di seguito si riferiscono quasi esclusivamente alle lezioni dell'autore del presente contributo.

Miglioramento della motivazione attraverso lo svolgimento delle lezioni.

Anche a questo proposito, si riportano le osservazioni proposte dagli allievi, cercando di comprenderne le ragioni e di trarne conclusioni utili al miglioramento della qualità dell'offerta didattica. Alcune osservazioni vertono sul divertimento e l'allegria che si provano imparando perché giocano un ruolo importante nella motivazione (49).

(49) “Aumenta la voglia di studiare l'italiano”.

Molti intervistati hanno usato “divertente” e “piacevole” nei loro commenti, quasi mostrando una specie di sorpresa per la scoperta di poter imparare divertendosi (vedi (25), (50), (52), (53), (54), (56), (58), (72), (73), (79) e (80)). Tuttavia, Raffini (citato in Dörnyei, 2012) nota come la parola “divertente” non sembri godere di una buona reputazione in ambiente scolastico. Diffusa, fra docenti e studenti, commenta Dörnyei, è infatti l'opinione che si possa imparare veramente solo se lo studio è serio e significativo.

Tra gli elementi definiti “divertenti”, si citano la varietà delle attività proposte (50), l'effetto sorpresa (51) e l'attesa che si crea quando, per dare istruzioni separatamente agli studenti prima di alcune attività di conversazione libera, al fine di creare un vuoto d'informazione, una parte di loro, in genere la metà, viene mandata fuori dell'aula (52).

(50) “È divertente perché ci sono vari tipi di attività”.

(51) “È sempre impossibile prevedere quali attività svolgeremo”.

(52) “Quando usciamo, anche se a volte penso che sia un po' seccante, l'atmosfera si fa più animata e divertente”.

Dal momento che normalmente le attività vengono svolte in coppia (in caso di numero dispari si forma un gruppo di tre), in qualche commento si legge che lavorare con compagni diversi è un fattore positivo (53)-(54).

(53) “È divertente il fatto di non sapere, ogni volta, che cosa faremo e con chi lavoreremo”.

(54) “Finora⁴⁶ nelle lezioni di conversazione avevo lavorato sempre con lo stesso compagno, quello con cui andavo d'accordo. Grazie, però, al fatto che l'insegnante forma coppie in modo casuale, ho potuto confrontarmi con compagni di classe con cui non avevo quasi mai parlato per un anno e ho trovato la cosa divertente”.

Un altro elemento sembra garantire l'effetto sorpresa: il fatto che non venga utilizzato un libro di testo, quanto piuttosto materiali cartacei, il che conferisce all'attività anche un senso di libertà (55)-(56).

(55) “Mi piace il senso di libertà scaturito dal fatto che non utilizziamo un libro di testo”.

(56) “È divertente usare materiali cartacei e non un libro di testo”.

Si precisa qui che i materiali vengono distribuiti solo quando l'attività lo richiede, quindi esistono attività per le quali non viene distribuito alcun materiale. Fonte di piacere è anche la soddisfazione derivante dal completamento dell'attività e la conseguente percezione di aver raggiunto l'obiettivo (57).

(57) “Riuscire a parlare solo in italiano per 30 minuti mi dava una grande sensazione di successo”.

L'utilità delle attività ai fini dello studio percepita dagli apprendenti, procurando piacere in esso, innalza la qualità dell'atteggiamento degli apprendenti (58).

(58) “[...] il contenuto delle lezioni non è solo divertente ma, a differenza delle lezioni tipiche, ci viene chiesto di usare la testa in modo considerevole, cosa che io trovo significativa”.

In un altro caso, l'ascolto e la successiva discussione sui contenuti vengono sentiti come utili anche per lo studio futuro dell'italiano (59).

(59) “Ho pensato che l'attività in cui, dopo aver ascoltato persone parlare in italiano, dobbiamo riflettere sul contenuto, sarebbe stata utile anche per lo studio futuro dell'italiano”.

⁴⁶ Lo studente si riferisce all'anno precedente, quando lo scrivente non lavorava ancora in questa università.

Utilità viene anche riconosciuta al fatto che l'insegnante si avvalga principalmente dell'italiano nel corso della lezione (60).

(60) “Penso che sia una buona cosa svolgere le lezioni principalmente in italiano. Finora⁴⁷ le lezioni di conversazione venivano svolte in giapponese”.

L'utilità, oltre alle modalità legate alle attività, si estende anche ai contenuti e ai tipi di testo (61)-(62).

(61) “Le lezioni sono state utili perché si faceva conversazione quotidiana. Ho avuto la sensazione che quando andrò in viaggio in Italia mi saranno senza dubbio utili”.

(62) “[...] è stato stimolante ascoltare l'italiano autentico”.

Il fatto che le lezioni siano svolte in modo da dare priorità alla pratica della lingua non solo facilita la comprensione, ma permette a chi impara di comprendere il proprio reale livello, i propri progressi e lacune, così, rendendosi conto dei propri limiti, si può cercare di superarli (63).

(63) “Mi sono reso conto che la mia abilità nel conversare è palesemente migliorata. Penso che se imparassi molte più parole potrei riuscire a tenere una conversazione in modo adeguato”.

Ovviamente questo va di pari passo con lo sviluppo dell'autonomia nell'apprendimento più volte menzionato in questo lavoro. Le parole stesse di uno degli studenti, intento a spiegare il motivo del gradimento delle lezioni, lo manifestano con chiarezza (64).

(64) “[...] perché [*scil.*: l'insegnante] ci fa lavorare autonomamente”.

Il fatto che non venga praticata alcuna forma di correzione da parte dell'insegnante nelle attività in cui è previsto che gli studenti si esprimano liberamente sembra avere effetti positivi sull'autostima, in particolare, degli apprendenti giapponesi (65).

(65) “Molti giapponesi, rispetto a persone di altre nazionalità, sono timidi⁴⁸, ma facendo conversazione [*scil.* con i compagni] possono acquistare fiducia in se stessi”.

⁴⁷ Vedi n. 12.

⁴⁸ Questo dato è confermato da Yashima (2010) che, citando Klopff, Klopff e Cambra, e McCroskey, Fayer e Richmond, spiega che i giapponesi sono più ansiosi nella comunicazione interpersonale in lingua madre di statunitensi, australiani, sudcoreani, cinesi, filippini e micronesiani; sono inoltre più introversi degli inglesi (per questo caso cita Iwawaki, Eysenck e Eysenck) e hanno spesso un atteggiamento passivo durante la conversazione con sconosciuti. Interessante sottolineare a questo proposito ciò che uno studente del I anno ha scritto nel primo questionario (1).

Presentare contemporaneamente lingua e cultura sembra poi rappresentare un altro fattore motivante. Gli intervistati sostengono di apprezzare in particolare l'uso di canzoni italiane e filmati (66)-(68).

(66) “Vorrei che a lezione usassimo anche programmi televisivi e filmati così da potermi interessare all'Italia”.

(67) “Sarebbe divertente usare filmati come film e telefilm”.

(68) “Vorrei ascoltare più canzoni”.

Per esempio, uno di loro scrive di aver cominciato ad interessarsi alla musica italiana dopo aver svolto delle attività su una canzone (69).

(69) “Sono contento che [*scil.* l'insegnante] ci abbia insegnato una canzone. Da allora mi sono un po' interessato alla musica italiana”.

Miglioramento della motivazione attraverso il clima della classe. Alcuni studenti attribuiscono al clima della classe il motivo per cui vengono volentieri a lezione (70).

(70) “Perché non c'è un clima di tensione”.

È importante al punto che si vorrebbe consigliare anche ad altri la frequenza al corso, proprio per questa ragione (71).

(71) “Mi sento a mio agio”.

Altri mostrano di apprezzare il clima informale delle lezioni (72).

(72) “Sono piacevoli perché possiamo studiare l'italiano in maniera divertente in un clima informale”.

Questo favorisce la creazione di uno spirito di gruppo⁴⁹. Da non sottovalutare è anche il ruolo dell'allegria (73).

(1) “Non riesco a tenere conversazioni in italiano cariche di contenuto se non con persone che conosco”.

Questo sembra confermare l'importanza della coesione del gruppo classe. Il caso di questo studente, che in entrambi i questionari si è mostrato molto critico e poco paziente nei confronti dei compagni e anche dello scrivente, induce però a ricordare che ci sono apprendenti che necessitano di più tempo di altri per instaurare dei legami.

Ancora Yashima (2010), citando Sato e Song, ricorda che gli studenti asiatici, giapponesi inclusi, in classe comunicano con meno frequenza degli studenti europei.

⁴⁹ Una delle modalità della lezione è che gli studenti, più volte nella stessa lezione, devono cambiare di posto, il che favorisce, ad esempio, la circolazione delle idee. Come ricorda Yūki (2015b), il fatto di

(73) “Mi è piaciuto il clima piacevole e allegro delle lezioni. Si scherzava e c’era un clima felice”.

Un intervistato, rivolgendosi in generale ai docenti dell’università, fa una richiesta legata a un aspetto più “pratico” (74).

(74) “Vorrei che dedicaste del tempo alle attività rompighiaccio in modo che abbiamo la possibilità di parlare con gli altri. Quando sono assente non ho persone con cui ho sufficiente confidenza per chiedere [*scil.* quello che è stato fatto durante la mia assenza]”.

Infine, il rapporto tra di loro sembra essere tanto importante che alcuni desidererebbero che nessuno si assentasse mai perché più sono più si divertono (75).

(75) “Vorrei che non vi assentaste”.

Motivo: “Se siamo in tanti è più divertente”.

Miglioramento della motivazione attraverso l’atteggiamento dell’insegnante.
Alcuni commenti mostrano apprezzamenti relativi all’insegnante (76)-(77).

(76) “È allegro, sorridente e si capisce chiaramente”.

(77) “Posso fargli domande senza timore, si relaziona con gli studenti con un atteggiamento sorridente e allegro”.

Si menziona qui il sorriso, che rappresenta uno degli elementi atti a mostrare benevolenza verso l’interlocutore. Altri modi volti allo stesso scopo sono: fissare l’interlocutore negli occhi perché denota interesse nei suoi confronti; chiamarlo per nome (perché si mostra di riconoscere le persone come tali); incentrare il discorso sull’altro evitando di parlare solo di sé stessi (anche questa è una manifestazione d’interesse nei suoi confronti)⁵⁰.

Polito (2014) definisce il sorriso “un gesto educativo. È una potente strategia educativa che crea serenità in classe, diffonde allegria, regala leggerezza, scioglie le tensioni, riduce la fatica, neutralizza le contestazioni, induce il rispetto, fa riscoprire il valore di ogni persona” (p. 334). Chiamare gli studenti per nome, inoltre, è utile, secondo un intervistato, anche per un’altra ragione (78).

(78) “Ho imparato subito i nomi di tutti perché Francesco ci chiamava spesso per nome”.

sedersi accanto a una persona significa entrare nel suo spazio personale e ciò aumenta la possibilità di sviluppare intimità, amicizia.

⁵⁰ Per esempio si può chiedere come abbia trascorso le sue giornate oppure richiamare informazioni relative all’interlocutore ottenute in passato (Yūki 2015a, p. 53).

Due commenti (79)-(80) definiscono una dimensione di divertimento che scaturisce dall'atteggiamento dell'insegnante, e uno di essi (79) fa chiaro riferimento all'umorismo, che Dörnyei (2012) definisce, nella sua dimensione di mezzo adeguato al miglioramento del clima di classe, con le seguenti parole: "È un fattore potentissimo, tuttavia è spesso ignorato negli scritti teorici sulla motivazione" (p. 41).

(79) "Penso che [*scil.* il suo modo d'insegnare] sia ottimo perché anche per noi giapponesi è chiaro, fa battute, è divertente ed efficace".

(80) "Mi piace la sua personalità. È allegro, gioioso e divertente".

Uno studente ritiene importante l'atteggiamento gentile dell'insegnante (81).

(81) "Il fatto che il modo di parlare e l'espressione del viso denotino gentilezza rende facile rivolgergli delle domande".

Polito (2014) si esprime sulla gentilezza sostenendo che se un insegnante è attento agli aspetti motivazionali diventa inevitabilmente gentile. Una didattica che esprime gentilezza e umanità viene presentata da Polito (2014) nel modo seguente: "Valorizza l'attesa. Rispetta le pause. Abbraccia il silenzio. Accoglie l'errore e lo usa per imparare a migliorare. Stimola l'apprendimento autentico e sostiene la rielaborazione personale dello studio" (p. 332).

Alcuni degli studenti apprezzano il fatto che l'insegnante risponda a qualsiasi tipo di domanda (82).

(82) "Quando gli fai una domanda, risponde subito".

Come evidenzia Humphris (1997), affinché gli studenti siano autonomi, è importante che siano loro a decidere che cosa vogliono sapere e non che sia l'insegnante a decidere che cosa devono sapere.

Anche l'uso del giapponese da parte dell'insegnante, il cui utilizzo ha l'obiettivo di fungere da sostegno psicologico, ha ricevuto commenti positivi (83).

(83) "Apprezzo molto il fatto che spieghi anche in giapponese".

L'entusiasmo dell'insegnante è menzionato in uno dei commenti come elemento positivo per la motivazione (84).

(84) "L'insegnante ha una grande energia".

Il ruolo dell'entusiasmo dell'insegnante ai fini della motivazione è fondamentale perché può risultare "contagioso". Così tanto Dörnyei (2012) che Wentzel e Brophy (2014), basandosi su vari studi precedenti, ne sottolineano l'importanza.

Conclusioni

A giudicare dai risultati ottenuti attraverso la presente ricerca, le problematiche legate alla motivazione nei confronti dello studio nell'ambito universitario presentano una grande complessità.

Tale complessità si manifesta in una serie di elementi di natura e di portata diverse. Da una parte troviamo fattori su cui non è facile intervenire, in parte perché derivanti dal sistema di valori insito nella società in cui gli apprendenti dovranno in futuro inserirsi, e in parte perché legati ai principi ispiratori, ai regolamenti e alle strutture materiali dell'ateneo di riferimento. Un altro degli elementi individuato nel corso della ricerca risiede nel sostegno, finanziario o morale, manifestato dalle famiglie.

Si è inoltre osservato come una parte di questi elementi si trovi alla base delle convinzioni che gli studenti nutrono verso la propria istruzione da un lato, e verso le finalità e le modalità del proprio studio dall'altro. Le condizioni che si presentano a chi si iscrive ad un corso universitario, dunque, possono non essere favorevoli a far nascere un atteggiamento volto allo sviluppo della motivazione concepita come "piacere di imparare". Questo atteggiamento, come si è visto, può rivelarsi dannoso per lo studio e, conseguentemente, per l'apprendimento.

Non è certo possibile all'insegnante intervenire sui fattori appena esposti, ma questo non esclude che possano esistere spazi atti ad indurre gli apprendenti a rivolgere verso lo studio uno sguardo positivo e ad aiutarli a sviluppare una motivazione intrinseca. Al contrario, solo chi insegna può intervenire nell'azione didattica, servendosi di modalità che si esprimono sotto aspetti diversi. Da una parte può utilizzare attività didattiche che rendano gli studenti – e non i docenti – protagonisti del proprio studio, ma queste da sole non bastano: proprio per rendere efficaci queste attività, chi insegna dovrà impegnarsi nel creare in classe un clima positivo, promuovendo la cooperazione, e non la competizione, evitando dannose tensioni. Ancora, con il suo stesso atteggiamento, attraverso il sorriso, la gentilezza, il senso dell'umorismo, l'entusiasmo e l'allegria, può far percepire agli studenti che studiare può essere piacevole ed accrescere così il loro livello di motivazione. A questo scopo, è importante operare per una sensibilizzazione dei docenti in modo che acquistino la consapevolezza di quanto in realtà loro stessi possano fare per favorire lo sviluppo della motivazione dei propri allievi e, affinché questa sensibilizzazione possa aver luogo, è fondamentale la consapevolezza che alla motivazione spetta un posto centrale nella programmazione didattica: senza di essa, infatti, non ci può essere un apprendimento reale.

Sarebbe auspicabile, in futuro, approfondire alcune delle tematiche emerse nel presente studio. Ci riferiamo in particolare alle convinzioni degli studenti, e al clima e alla coesione della classe. Le prime non sono da sottovalutare perché, la metodologia dell'insegnante, seppure efficace, qualora dovesse incontrare resistenza da parte degli studenti, non solo non sortirebbe gli effetti desiderati, ma ne minerebbe la motivazione e forse anche il rapporto. È fondamentale, dunque, sapere come comportarsi in questi casi

senza dover rinunciare al metodo in cui si crede. Gli studenti, infatti, hanno delle aspettative che ricalcano le loro precedenti esperienze di studenti. Pertanto hanno bisogno di essere formati.

Anche sapere come creare un buon clima di classe e promuovere la coesione di quest'ultima sono aspetti da approfondire affinché gli studenti possano lavorare proficuamente e trarre il maggior vantaggio possibile dalle attività svolte. Maggiori ricerche in tal senso permetterebbero ai docenti di ricordare che i discenti non hanno solo un cervello, ma anche un cuore.

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Appendice A

Semestre primaverile del 2015 Foglio di dialogo tra docente e studenti

Ti prego di rispondere al questionario al fine di migliorare le lezioni.

Data:

Insegnamento:

Nome e cognome: (facoltativo)

Hobby:

a. Esprimi un giudizio sul tuo livello di motivazione nei confronti di questo corso
molto alta - alta - mediamente alta - bassa - molto bassa

b. Perché?

.....
.....
.....

c. Partecipi attivamente al corso?
sempre - spesso - di solito - qualche volta - mai

d. Perché?

.....
.....
.....

e. Al di fuori dell'orario delle lezioni, ti eserciti/studi per questo corso?
sempre - spesso - di solito - qualche volta - mai

f. Perché?

.....
.....
.....

g. Il metodo dell'insegnante è
ottimo - buono - così così - non molto buono - pessimo

h. Scrivi qualche commento sul metodo.

.....
.....
.....

i. Esprimi un giudizio sulle attività svolte in classe.

.....
.....
.....

j. Consigliaresti questo corso ad altri studenti? Sì No

k. Perché?

.....
.....
.....

l. Scrivi qualche consiglio.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

m. Posso usare le informazioni che hai scritto in questo questionario anche per la mia ricerca e per scrivere articoli?

Sì No

Grazie della collaborazione

Appendice B

Questionario relativo alla ricerca sulla motivazione

Rispondi, onestamente, a tutte le domande.

Data:

Insegnamento:

Nome e cognome: (facoltativo)

a. Perché hai pensato di studiare l'italiano?

.....
.....

b. Ricorda alcune cose di questo corso che ti sono piaciute, che ti sono state utili o di cui sei soddisfatto. Perché pensi che ti siano piaciute, ti siano state utili o ti abbiano soddisfatto⁵¹?

.....
.....
.....
.....

c. Basandoti sulla tua esperienza di studente, non solo universitario, dimmi di che cosa hai bisogno affinché tu possa impegnarti di più in questo corso.

1. Quello che vorresti che facesse l'insegnante:

.....
.....

Motivo:

.....

2. Quello che vorresti che facessero gli altri docenti di questa università, di cui stai seguendo i corsi:

.....
.....

Motivo:

.....

3. Quello che vorresti che facessero i compagni di classe di questo corso:

.....
.....

Motivo:

.....

4. Quello che vorresti che facesse la tua famiglia:

.....
.....

⁵¹ La lettera b, c e la c5 sono state adattate da Mariani, <http://www.learningpaths.org/motivazione/b1.htm>

Motivo:

5. Quello che puoi fare tu:

Motivo:

6. Quello che vorresti che facesse questa università (filosofia dell'università, del corso di laurea a cui sei scritto o della materia di specializzazione; sistema; regolamento; strutture; club ecc.):

Motivo:

7. Quello che vorresti che facesse la società (sistema d'istruzione e della ricerca del lavoro in Giappone):

Motivo:

8. Quello che vorresti che facessero i tuoi amici:

Motivo:

9. Altro:

Motivo:

Grazie della collaborazione.