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A journal for teachers of English

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After publishing a monographic on multimodality, the 22nd volume of GRETA Journal readopts its miscellaneous character, covering aspects related to more recent trends in language teaching. The articles collected here range from more hands-on proposals intended for classroom implementation to more analytical reflections on the nature and discursive practices of bilingual education. Also, they address issues present at all different levels of English instruction: primary, secondary, and higher education. In subsequent pages, we present papers that deal with three of the regular sections in previous volumes: **Classroom Techniques**, **Teacher Training and Development**, and **Bilingual Education**.

Yolanda Joy Calvo Benzies (Universidad de Santiago de Compostela) proposes a set of activities to improve pronunciation in secondary and post-secondary education. Parting from EFL textbooks that teach pronunciation in a more traditional way, she provides new materials to ensure higher levels of motivation and a more enjoyable learning environment. The activities are thought to familiarize students with sounds, to allow them to work on particular English vowels, to figure out lyrics, to talk about songs and, ultimately, to write their own song. All of these activities come accompanied with examples to aid understanding.

Silvia Serrano Amores offers an interesting proposal for the integration of intercultural competence into the training of pre-service EFL teachers, taking Jewish culture as a case in point. By making use of literary works, in particular the novel *The Wandering Jews* (1926-1927) by Joseph Roth, her project goes beyond a simple linguistic analysis and encourages reflection and discussion in order to promote cross-curricular learning and raise awareness about a topic as relevant as migration is nowadays.

Ricardo Casañ Pitarch (Universitat Jaume I) analyses the language of abstracts in journal articles on bilingual education. He has examined 56 abstracts using the multi-genre structures model (AMS) (Casañ-Pitarch and Calvo Ferrer, 2015), which includes the analysis of macro-structure, micro-structure and format. As such, he identifies the linguistic patterns that are frequent in bilingual education journals and, in turn, provides guidelines that will help other researchers in this field.

Two final papers concerning CLIL are included within the *Bilingual Education* section. On the one hand, **Carme Bauçà** and **Maria Juan-Garau**'s paper 'Towards a real integration of content and language in CLIL' focuses on the role of 'integration' within CLIL. The authors propose a series of classroom practices that actually integrate both the language and the content as a way to overcome the potential drawbacks associated with CLIL, especially in relation to subject content. On the other hand, **Leonor María Martínez Serrano** reflects on the place of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL, or *AICLE* in Spanish) within the history of teaching. After a brief introduction about the importance of foreign language teaching and the advantages of bilingualism, Martínez Serrano traces the origins of the latter back to classical antiquity. Subsequently, she connects it to humanist philosophies of education, offering an original contribution to the current debate on the benefits and drawbacks of bilingual education in Spain.

Finally, our **Reviews** section presents the volume *Needs Analysis for Language Course Design: A Holistic Approach to ESP*, by Huhta et al., which, although primarily aimed at English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teachers, will also be of interest to course designers in other areas of EFL education.

In short, we expect to offer a variety of areas of interest for English teachers at different levels in this volume. As with our future volumes, we hope to strike a balance between practice-focused studies and articles with a more scholarly approach in order to cater for all the facets and complexities of this noble profession. We encourage teachers and researchers to submit their proposals for future volumes of *GRETA Journal* in order to ensure that there continues to be a common place to share ideas and progress in this field.

Carmen Aguilera Carnerero
Eva M^a Gómez Jiménez
Laura Torres Zúñiga

GOING BEYOND 'LISTEN AND REPEAT' AND DISCRIMINATION ACTIVITIES. WAYS OF TEACHING PRONUNCIATION TO *ESO* AND *BACHILLERATO* STUDENTS BY USING SONGS

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Abstract: Many general EFL textbooks addressed to Spanish secondary and post-secondary education learners continue to teach pronunciation in an isolated way, by means of tables or sections which are clearly separated from the parts which focus on the teaching of other language areas. Moreover, in spite of the large list of materials and resources currently available for teaching pronunciation in an engaging and motivating way, these materials still resemble traditional techniques, failing on many occasions to move away from isolated drills of random words and discrimination tasks. The present article hence aims at describing some ideas and activities for teaching pronunciation in an integrated, and, most importantly, in an engaging and motivating way for students. Although the activities included here have been explicitly designed for high-school students, they could easily be adapted to make them suitable for younger learners or even adult EFL students.

Resumen: Muchos de los libros de texto de inglés como lengua extranjera dirigidos a estudiantes españoles de la ESO y Bachillerato continúan enseñando la pronunciación de una manera aislada mediante tablas o secciones que están claramente separadas de las demás secciones que enfatizan la enseñanza de las demás destrezas. Además, a pesar de la larga lista de materiales y recursos actualmente disponibles para enseñar la pronunciación de una manera motivadora, estos materiales didácticos aún guardan semejanza con técnicas tradicionales y en muchas ocasiones el formato de dichas actividades no va más allá de repeticiones aisladas de palabras al azar y de tareas de discriminación. Este artículo tiene como objetivo principal describir algunas ideas y actividades para enseñar la pronunciación de una manera integrada y, asimismo, de una manera motivadora para los estudiantes. Aunque las actividades incluidas aquí se han diseñado explícitamente para alumnos de ESO/Bachillerato, pueden ser fácilmente adaptadas para aprendices jóvenes o incluso para la enseñanza del inglés a adultos.

Keywords: Pronunciation, songs, secondary education, post-secondary education, EFL.

Palabras clave: : Pronunciación, canciones, ESO, Bachillerato, ILE.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most important changes in EFL pronunciation classes in the last decades has been the shift from the use of 'decontextualised

drills' of isolated and randomly selected words that belong to a certain lexical field (Grant, 2014: 1) to the teaching of pronunciation within spoken activities in which the end-goal is to express some type of message with a clear

communicative purpose (Walker, 2010: 5; Grant, 2014: 1). A direct consequence of this change towards teaching English pronunciation integrated within other language areas is that new resources and techniques are constantly being designed so as to help EFL teachers teach pronunciation in more varied ways than with listen and repeat or discrimination tasks. Some examples of these resources are games, software, apps, role-plays, tongue twisters, posters, poems and jazz chants, jokes, TV programmes and films or photos and flashcards, to mention a few (Calvo, 2016: 80).

Despite these changes, I have found that many modern EFL textbooks addressed to Spanish secondary and post-secondary education learners continue to present pronunciation in isolated sections, clearly separated from the rest of the activities designed to practise other language areas (Calvo, 2016: 575). More particularly, I have observed a tendency for pronunciation to appear either in bright coloured tables throughout the different main units, which easily stood out from the remaining page sections, or at the end of the textbooks in independent pages in which some tasks and/or lists of phonetic symbols can be found. In addition, I encountered the fact that the vast majority of pronunciation tasks present in EFL textbooks for high-school students emphasise students' receptive oral skills whilst tasks in which learners can practise their productive pronunciation skills are extremely scarce. More specifically, most of the activities registered in my data analysis were of the type 'listen and repeat', 'listen and discriminate', 'listen and check', 'read aloud' or 'segmental and suprasegmental discriminations' (Calvo, 2016: 575).

The present article aims at describing different types of tasks that high-school EFL teachers in Spain can use to teach pronunciation. These tasks will revolve around one particular engaging and motivating resource that can

and should be used in EFL classrooms, that is, songs. It is true that music and songs have been used in EFL classrooms for some years now (Villalobos, 2008: 94) and some activities with songs do tend to appear in EFL learning materials designed for students in our country; however, in the data I collected for my doctoral dissertation I have observed that the activities in the form of songs present in EFL textbooks mainly focused on the practising of grammatical and lexical points or on improving students' reading and/or listening skills. Additionally, I have found very few examples of tasks in which learners could actually practise English pronunciation by listening to and/or singing to songs.

This paper, therefore, intends to be a contribution to this lack of general EFL materials to teach pronunciation with songs. I will both describe some ideas as to how to use this teaching technique in the classroom and outline some specific activities, mostly of my own creation to teach pronunciation via songs. The different activities have been ordered according to their degree of difficulty, that is, it will most likely be easier for teachers to begin with any of the first group of tasks since they allow students to get familiar with English sounds and then gradually introduce more difficult ones.

REASONS FOR USING SONGS IN EFL CLASSES

There are many reasons why songs are perfect resources teachers can use in the classroom to teach many language areas, including pronunciation. To begin with, music is all around us - when we go out, on television programmes, on the radio, on public transport, in supermarkets and shopping centres (Pietrala, 2007: 14). Moreover, Spain is a country extremely influenced by music sung in English. Many Spanish teenagers are fond of bands and singers like Justin Bieber, Miley Cyrus, Auryn, One Direction or Demi Lovato, whereas

adults will probably prefer singers like James Blunt, Robbie Williams, Dire Straits or AC/DC. Therefore, introducing songs students are in contact with outside the classroom (but do not know by heart) will most likely motivate them. Furthermore, songs have been pointed out to be “good motivational tools (...) fun and relaxing, and they provide a class with variety and a break from textbook study” (Lorenzutti, 2014:14).

Similarly, Villalobos (2008: 95) claims that using songs in the classroom helps to establish “a positive learning state, energizing learning activities, increasing attention, improving memory, releasing tension, enhancing imagination, developing inspiration”. Songs can be used to teach many aspects of English, not only to develop productive and receptive oral and written skills but also to emphasise grammatical, lexical, cultural or pronunciation points. Regarding the latter, many scholars do in fact recommend using songs to help students improve their pronunciation abilities and more especially, to practise suprasegmental features (Orlova, 2003; Harmer, 2007: 91); however, I believe teachers can also use songs to focus on the learning of different English sounds (see below for some examples).

All in all, songs are a good way of entertainment for people of nearly any age and they are an engaging and motivating type of activity for teaching many language points in EFL classes (Orlova, 2003), even for outlining and emphasising pronunciation skills since they are a useful way “of breaking the monotony of classic drills and other methods for teaching this complicated subject” (Pietrala, 2007: 14).

EXAMPLES OF TASKS

LEVEL 1: GETTING FAMILIAR WITH SOUNDS

Teachers select a song they believe their students will enjoy. Since English is a language in which

there are few correspondences between spelling and pronunciation (Fernández, 2009: 2) and the words at the end of the different lines of songs tend to rhyme, it should be quite easy for teachers to select a sound or group of sounds to work on. Finally, as mentioned above, it is important that the learners do not know the song off by heart to avoid them knowing all the answers to the questions beforehand. To exemplify, by using the chorus of the song *Shame* sung by Robbie Williams and Gary Barlow, teachers can focus on the teaching of /s, ʃ, z/ and the diphthong /eɪ/ (words containing any of these sounds in the chorus of this song are in bold type below):

*What a **shame** we never listened I told you
through the **television**
And all that went away was the **price** we paid
People **spend** a lifetime this way
And **that's** how they stay
Oh what a **shame**.
People **spend** a lifetime this way
Oh what a **shame**
Such a **shame**, what a **shame**.*

Idea 1: For receptive and productive purposes, ask students how some words within the song would be pronounced if they contained a different sound. For instance, how would *listened* be pronounced if the /s/ sound was replaced by /ʃ/, /z/ or /z/ or *shame* by /æ/, /e/ or /a:/. This technique, known as *nonsense words*, has been found to help students improve their intonation in English (Lane, 2010: 91) and is currently used in some courses on English phonetics such as the annual SCEP course at the University College of London (Summer Course in English Phonetics).

Idea 2: Ask students to think of any minimal pairs and/or rhyming words with *shame* (tame, came, name, frame), *price* (rice, ice, nice, dice) or *went* (tent, sent, meant, rent). If the learners cannot think of any minimal pairs, the teacher could suggest that they make use of websites

like www.rhymezone.com, which contains a detailed database of rhyming words and homophones.

Idea 3: Make the most of songs to make students aware of the high number of homophones that exist in English. For instance, in this song, explain that *way* has a homophone spelt *weigh*.

Idea 4: Tell students that *price*, which appears in the song, is pronounced with voiceless /s/, whereas the word *prize* is pronounced with the voiced sound /z/. Spanish students tend to have problems distinguishing between these two sounds since only the former exists in Castilian, causing problems such as pronouncing “Sue and zoo (...) in the same way” (Estebas, 2012: 74); however, Castilian Spanish does have an allophone for the /z/ sound in words like *mismo*, *asno* (Palacios, 2001: 21) and so teachers should also bear these similarities in mind when explaining these sounds to their students.

LEVEL 2: SEARCHING FOR A SONG THAT CONTAINS A PARTICULAR ENGLISH VOWEL

Now that students have seen that many words in songs sung in English rhyme, it is their turn to search for a song containing quite a few instances of a specific English short or long vowel.

Idea 1: The teacher gives each student/pair/group an English vowel and tells them that they have to look for a song they have at home, on the Internet, etc. that contains at least six or seven words with their sound. If the students are unable to find a song on their own or the teacher is worried the songs chosen by the learners themselves will lack pedagogical goals, they could give students a list of songs to choose from. Each week, there will be an oral presentation by one of the students/pairs/

groups. They should, first of all, play the song they have chosen for their classmates to hear and afterwards they have to identify the words that contain the sound they were assigned with. To exemplify, a song full of words with English diphthongs is *Story of my Life* by One Direction (see below; the words containing diphthongs have once again been placed in bold). Of course, instead of vowels, consonants and/or consonant clusters could also be used.

*Written in these walls are the stories that I
can't explain
I leave my heart open but it stays right here
empty for days
She told me in the morning she don't feel the
same about us in her bones
Seems to me that when I die these words will
be written on my stone
And I'll be gone, gone tonight
The ground beneath my feet is open wide
The way that I been holding on too tight
With nothing in between
The story of my life
I take her home
I drive all night
To keep her warm
And time is frozen
The story of my life*

Other songs that can be used are: *Change your life* by Little Mix for /ɔ:/, ɜ:/, *Skyscraper* by Demi Lovato for /æ/, /eɪ/, /aɪ/ or *All that Matters* by Justin Bieber for /aɪ/.

Idea 2: The teacher could prepare some exercises for each song, either related to the sound that the students in each group have worked on or not. For instance, “Identify how many different spellings the sound X is represented by in the song”, “Can you think of any minimal pairs of at least five words in the song?”, “Find three examples of homophones” or “Explain the connected processes used by the author in these lines”. Since these types of activities are perhaps less engaging, it may be

best not to them too much to avoid students from getting bored since the main aim of these activities is, as explained above, for students to have fun and enjoy themselves while learning English pronunciation.

Idea 3: Instead of giving students the sound they must work on, learners could choose a song they like and analyse the different predominant sounds present in the lyrics and then present their results orally to the class. For instance, “We found many examples of words with the short /æ/ vowel”; “We had problems with the pronunciation of X and Y and had to look them up in the dictionary”; “The sound /dʒ/ is spelt in three different ways”.

Idea 4: If the students are familiar with phonetic symbols, teachers could ask them to transcribe part of a song of their choice as the singer actually pronounces the different words, that is, if they do not pronounce final /d, t/, students should not include these consonants in their transcription, for instance. These transcriptions could represent the chorus or just 4 or 5 lines from a certain song in order to avoid spending too much time on this type of task. However, if teachers would like their students to transcribe a whole song, it could be designed as an activity to be done in small groups outside the classroom over a few days or weeks.

LEVEL 3: FIGURING OUT THE LYRICS OF A SONG

Mark Hancock (2016) refers to people who understand the lyrics of a song wrongly, that is, we sometimes misinterpret the lyrics of a song sung in a language that is not our native one. These misinterpretations can be due to homophones or ambiguous language, or because we simply believe the singer sang something different from what we understood. For instance, they believe the first verses of

the song *Yesterday* by the Beatles could be misunderstood in the following way:

Original version

*Yesterday, all my troubles seemed so far away
Now it looks as though they're here to stay
Oh, I believe in yesterday
Suddenly, I'm not half the man I used to be
There's a shadow hanging over me
Oh, I believe in yesterday
Why she had to go? I don't know, she wouldn't say
I said something wrong. Now I long for yesterday*

Wrong lyrics version

*Yes, today. Old men's doubles teams so far away
Now it seems they're over here to say
Oh, why be leaving yesterday?
Certainly, why not have the man I used to be
There's a chateau hanging over me
Oh, why be leaving yesterday?
Why she had two goes, eyes and noes, she wouldn't say
Eyes, head, something wrong. Now along, for chess today!*

Hancock's idea was hence an inspiration when creating the following activities on using songs to help students realize the number of homophones and minimal pairs there are in English as well as getting familiar with connected speech processes.

Idea 1: Teachers could ask their students to listen to part of a song they are not familiar with and write down what they hear. Depending on the rhythm of the song, teachers would have to pause more or less often between the different lines; the whole section of the song under analysis would probably have to be played two or three times. This activity could be done in groups of 3 or 4 students right from the beginning or each

person could write their own lyrics first and then in small groups of 3 or 4. The different students have to compare their answers and then come up with their final version. The next day, the teacher corrects the task together with the students going over every misunderstanding with them and asking for their help to explain why certain groups could have understood X instead of Y. For instance, by quickly listening to the beginning of the song *It's time* by Imagine Dragons (see below), I believe Spanish students may have trouble with several aspects such as those which have been marked in bold below. As can be inferred, some of the possible misunderstandings have to do with minimal pairs (for instance, understanding *bit* rather than *pit* or *no* instead of *now* – note that some students may even write the word *know* as a homophone of *no*; hence teachers could explain the differences between these words and other homophones). Others are due to connected speech processes such as the dropping of final *-d* in *hold*, which may make students believe that the singer says *hole* or the singer's slow pronunciation of *packing*, causing students to understand two different words, *pack in*. Another group of misunderstandings may simply be due to the way that the singer pronounces specific verses like *when you said you were cement* or *I'm just the same inside worlds*. Another possibility would be for the teacher to give the students an incomplete script of the lyrics in which the difficult parts students have to focus on are in blank. In addition, teachers could use a kind of jigsaw activity in which the different groups of students have different parts of the lyrics in black and their aim is to complete the entire text after exchanging information with the other groups of learners.

Original version

So this is what you meant

When you said that you were spent

And now it's time to build from the bottom of the pit

Right to the top. Don't hold back
Packing my bags and giving the academy a rain-check

I don't ever wanna let you down

I don't ever wanna leave this town

Cause after all

This city never sleeps at night

It's time to begin, isn't it?

I get a little bit bigger but then I'll admit

I'm just the same as I was

Now don't you understand

Possible wrong lyrics version

So this is what you meant

When you said you were cement

And now it's time to build from the bottom of the bit

Right to the top. Don't hole back

Pack in my bags and giving the academy a rain cheque

I never wanna let you down

I never wanna leave this town

Cos after all,

The city never sleeps tonight

It's time to begin, easining

I get a little bit bigger but there I'll admit

I'm just the same inside worlds,

No don't you understand

It is highly likely that some of the options given by some groups will sound awkward or will be ungrammatical, but this will benefit their learning process even more since they may end up discussing grammatical or lexical points. For example, in the previous song, students may have understood *pack in my bags* because they interpreted *packing* as two different words; however, in their group discussion they may come to the conclusion that *pack in* does not exist without an object placed between these words, i.e. *pack it in* for instance. Consequently, the members of a certain group may hence decide to write down *pack in* as one single word, also because they discuss that one *packs their bags*, not *packs in their bags*. At the end of these sessions, the teacher should give their

students the original lyrics of the song so that they can compare their work to the target version.

Idea 2: Teachers could ask students questions to test their receptive or productive skills, such as “Can anyone tell me how the singer pronounced this word?” “Were there any letters or syllables he did not pronounce?” or “Does anyone know another spelling for X?”.

Idea 3: Instead of listening to the lyrics of a song and trying to figure out what has been said, students could choose a song they like and invent a new version by transforming some words for others that sound similar/rhyme with each other and then test their classmates. As this activity may be quite difficult for some students, the teachers may once again provide them with a list of songs to choose from and give them strict guidelines to follow.

LEVEL 4: TALKING ABOUT THEIR FAVOURITE SONG

Another interesting activity to emphasise the practising of oral skills as well as other language areas such as writing, reading and grammar could be to get learners to choose their favourite singer/band or their favourite song/s and ask them to do a small project in which they have to create a poster to orally present to their classmates. Students can freely choose whether they would like to include pictures, material extracted from the Internet, books, the lyrics of the song, the biography of the singer/band, etc. Depending on the amount of time available according to the schedule and to the number of students per class, this activity could be done individually, in pairs or in small groups of 3. So as to make this activity even more challenging, perhaps teachers could turn it into a competition so that the people/groups with the best voted project/s in terms of originality, creativity or level of English would receive a small prize.

LEVEL 5: WRITING A SONG

In this final stage, students by now should have practised how to identify and distinguish between some English sounds by paying attention to the rhythm and rhyming words of songs; they may also have learnt some English homophones and minimal pairs and realised that English pronunciation is a difficult language area and it is normal for both native and non-native speakers to misunderstand the lyrics of a certain song sung in English due to homophones, speed or other ambiguities. It is now time for students to create their own song, which includes many examples of particular sounds. Teachers could once again give students a list of words to use or, if they are creative enough, they could entirely invent one by themselves. So as not to intimidate the students, it will not be obligatory to sing their song in the classroom but they should give a presentation on what their song is about, the problems they had creating it, whether they can compare their song to any other songs they know, the type of people who would most likely like their song and so on. Although this activity is not directly related to English pronunciation, the more students express themselves orally in class, the better their pronunciation may get. Thus, getting them to speak about their projects is also getting them to pronounce words (minimal pairs, homophones, etc.) used in the classroom.

As mentioned above, this article intends to be a contribution to the field of teaching English pronunciation to Spanish students. Although some prior knowledge of English pronunciation is required, it is not necessary for teachers to be expert phoneticians to use songs for teaching pronunciation; with a few ideas like the ones discussed here, they can make their pronunciation classes much more useful and, what is most important, much more fun for their students than constantly listening to and repeating different random words or short phrases.

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MULTICULTURAL FICTION FOR EFL TEACHER TRAINING: DELVING INTO *THE WANDERING JEWS*

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Silvia Serrano Amores holds a PhD in Educational Sciences, an MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, an MA in Tourism, Archaeology and Nature, a BA in English Philology and a BA in Tourism. She was an exchange student at Northumbria University (Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom). Since 2013 to 2016 she has taught English language at a language school and since 2016 she works as a lecturer at the Department of Didactics of Language and Literature, University of Granada. Her research interests lie in the fields of cultural issues in ELT and ELT teacher training.

Abstract: The present paper discusses the importance of teaching culture in class nowadays and proposes a specific example of doing so by focusing on Jewish culture. The paper reviews some of the most important themes that have been included in that culture throughout its history and it shows Jewish fiction and the conflictive depiction of Jews in literature and fiction in general. Given the power of fictional resources as a useful tool, it also delves into the role of multicultural fiction in the didactics of foreign language and literature. The last part of the paper is the actual design of a didactic proposal based on Jewish fiction to work with pre-service EFL teachers in order to make a contribution to the current necessity of training teachers in intercultural aspects.

Resumen: El presente artículo discute la importancia de enseñar cultura en clase hoy en día y propone un ejemplo específico centrado en la cultura judía. El ensayo revisa algunos de los temas más importantes incluidos en esa cultura a lo largo de su historia y muestra la ficción judía y la conflictiva representación de los judíos en literatura y en ficción en general. Dado el poder de los recursos ficcionales como una herramienta útil, también se indaga en el papel de la ficción multicultural en la didáctica de la lengua y la literatura extranjeras. La última parte del artículo es el diseño de una propuesta didáctica basada en la ficción judía para trabajar con futuros docentes y hacer una contribución a la actual necesidad de formar profesores en aspectos multiculturales.

Keywords: Multicultural competence, multicultural fiction, Jewish literature, teacher training, didactic proposal.

Palabras clave: Competencia multicultural, ficción multicultural, literatura judía, formación del profesorado, propuesta didáctica.

INTRODUCTION

Multicultural literature is gaining remarkable importance in the field of language teaching as a means of introducing culture in class. However, certain cultures are not being considered at all. Such is the case of Jewish culture, which may offer a valuable opportunity to work on the cultural component. In order for this to become

a reality in the field of education, EFL teacher training programmes need to include cultural, and especially, multicultural elements serving as an actual bridge between culture and classrooms.

The present study has two main objectives. First of all, to make a revision of literature related to the question of multiculturalism and culture in the training of EFL teachers and, secondly, to

analyse a book pertaining to Jewish fiction in order to make a didactic proposal for its potential use as a tool for training EFL teachers. The scope of the proposal may be any EFL teacher training program with cultural elements at its core.

THE ROLE OF CULTURE IN THE TRAINING OF EFL TEACHERS

In terms of multiculturalism, Clay and George (2000: 206) insist on the importance of the multicultural reality of post-imperial Europe in the twenty-first century. That is why they think that the implementation of a Code of Practice for intercultural education should be based on challenging the dynamics of power and promoting constructive changes (p. 208). Likewise, Larzén-Östermark perfectly synthesises the necessity for a multicultural education: "Finding a balance between contributing to a certain cultural consensus and increasing the ability to live with a cultural multiplicity is one among many challenges facing the contemporary school, its teachers and thereby also teacher education institutions" (2009: 417). Multiculturalism is the situation where more than one culture co-exist. It is important to first recognise its existence and then to attempt to develop students' intercultural competence, which is a step further.

In the face of an evidently multicultural world, the proposal of considering intercultural competence as necessary for learners is already widely accepted. Such importance is reflected in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (2001) which states that the learner develops his/her intercultural competence during the process of acquisition of a second language. In that manner, teachers of EFL are directly involved in this process in the sense that they need to be aware of cultural elements when teaching the language to students (Barros García and Kharnásova, 2012: 101-102). Therefore, if we include an intercultural dimension in language teaching, it will promote students'

ability to "ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities, and their ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality" (Byram, Gribkova and Starkey, 2002: 5). However, teachers face the issue of implementing intercultural competence in class. According to Byram and Kramsch (2008: 21), it would not be such an issue if teachers did not rely as much on history as on personal experiences. They claim that language teaching should be both a personal and a cultural/historical event, which places individual experience into a larger social and historical framework.

To appreciate the importance of presenting multiculturalism in class, the work of Glazier and Seo (2005: 686) describes the experience of a group of high school students when they read N. Scott Momaday's *The Way to Rainy Mountain* (1996) which focuses on the Kiowa nation. However, as they point out, it is desirable not to focus only on minority cultures, but to have a look at majority groups as well. If we do not do so, many students in class belonging to majority cultural groups may feel disregarded, as shown in the study. Students from minority cultural groups were very pleased to have the opportunity to talk about their own culture by connecting it with the text studied in class. Nevertheless, students belonging to majority culture in the United States, although given the opportunity to know more about their peers' culture, were not able to connect the experiences in the text to their own experiences and traditions. They even felt as though they did not have a culture.

Finland is also a good example of multicultural education. Acquah and Commins (2013: 448) very recently implemented a course on multicultural education for international Master's degree students and exchange students from the Erasmus Programme in an urban university in Finland. Some innovative initiatives of the course were observing classes in a school where 30%

of students were immigrants and 50% spoke a different language from Finnish. The idea was to analyse students' previous perceptions on multicultural and intercultural aspects, and contrast them with the new perceptions after the course. The students' response was very positive because they all wanted to learn how to deal with culturally diverse children at school and they showed a wider knowledge about multiculturalism and were better prepared to teach in multicultural contexts after the course. They were also willing to have children from different backgrounds in their future classes. Students were themselves diverse and that is why the authors think this kind of courses can be carried out everywhere with the adaptation of participants. As they state (Acquah and Commins, 2013: 458), offering a multicultural education course in teacher education programmes is very important for teachers to have a greater awareness about cultural diversity.

When helping speakers in terms of intercultural competence, it seems advisable to teach them to analyse the representation of events in certain texts rather than studying these events or the information contained in those texts. Accordingly, an intercultural speaker needs to own some knowledge about the other culture, but also some skills, attitudes and values in order to understand human relationships. From this statement, Byram, Gribkova and Starkey (2002: 6) infer the following implication for EFL teacher training programmes: A good teacher is the person who "can help learners see relationships between their own and other cultures, can help them acquire interest in and curiosity about 'otherness', and an awareness of themselves and their own cultures seen from other people's perspectives".

Regarding teacher training programmes then, introducing intercultural competence should not be a question of acquiring new knowledge about a certain country, but of how to organise the classroom and its processes. What a teacher

may do is to present a series of activities which allow students to draw conclusions from their own experience of the target culture. Providing them with some factual information is fine, but it would be desirable to encourage them to compare the target culture with their own ones. Consequently, it is a question of focusing on how students respond to others and others' views of themselves as well as how they interact with people from other cultures (Byram, Gribkova and Starkey, 2002: 11). We could conclude then that inter/multicultural competence consists in gaining experience and tools in order to interpret, and also acquire, attitudes, values or behaviour from people belonging to different cultures.

Although the interest in culture has not been widely spread in the field of teaching, professional journals and associations have paid attention to it in recent years. The implication of that for teachers and teacher training programmes is outstanding:

There is also widespread recognition that such interest will require extensive professional development to ensure appropriate classroom implementation. There is clearly an agenda here for teachers, teacher trainers, and researchers. Preparing students in the US and Europe for successful participation in an increasingly diverse society and workplace will require careful attention to the teaching of culture in language education programmes (Byram and Met 1999: 68).

It is widely recognised that the teaching of culture as factual information about literature, history and arts has already left way to a more context-based culture. However, this kind of culture, which is based on interaction and built up at every second, is not still fully admitted as the kind of culture students need to know in order to be competent intercultural speakers (Kramsch, 2013). In that sense, new teachers and teacher training programmes may endeavour

to spread the teaching of this context-based culture in the field of foreign languages so that it becomes an increasingly common practice. The present study tries to be a humble step in the consecution of such spread, starting with the consideration of a particular culture: Judaism.

MULTICULTURAL LITERATURE: THE JEWISH CASE

The importance of considering Jewish literature resides in the fact that, as Valman (2010: 206) states, it is a great source of knowledge on the peculiarities of an ethnic or religious minority. Jewish culture, in particular, has been stigmatised throughout decades and this fact can easily be compared with current stories of persecution because of ethnic reasons, giving teachers the opportunity to treat the topic of migration and the cultural implications it has. In addition, the prevailing Spanish Law for Education specifically mentions the Jewish Holocaust as a historical fact that needs to be studied at schools and, as such, would be teachers should be widely familiarised with it. Together with persecution, one of the main aspects which have shaped Jewish history is exile and literature has always been considered its main way of expression:

Exile seems to stimulate a form of literary imagination like no other experience. This is compounded by the writer's detachment from home and roots, the attempts to transcend time and space and the need in extremis to access and imagine other places or to idealise the real past (Abramson, 2006: 171).

America, for instance, was a place for Jewish exile. Most of American Jewish fiction is a kind of reaction to American culture given the conflict between the demands of Jewish tradition and the expectations of American culture which very often resulted in favour of the latter. However, in the seventies, American Jewish fiction started to advocate the norms of Jewish tradition and,

a bit later, in the eighties, the problems of Jews were fully represented in fiction. In addition, Jewish novelists returned to traditional figures and classical texts when telling their stories. Thus, they did not worry any more about what Christians would think (Berger, 1990: 221).

The Holocaust too will be noticeable in this reaffirmation of the Jewish question in the eighties as some important writings of survivors' children were released. It seems that Jewish novelists started to consider the meaning of being Jew from inside and not from the perspective of American culture. In that sense, some of the issues they take into account are the role of memory, family relations or the state of Israel. Jewish religion is also present and many novels show the lives of people having certain problems, such as, for instance, drugs, until they find their salvation converting into Judaism and being totally covenant (Berger, 1990: 222).

Surprisingly, after the destruction of European Jewry, the silence about the Holocaust in novels was notable. Nevertheless, some writers started to pay attention to it without remarking theological consequences (Lewis Wallant's *The Pawnbroker*, 1961) and, a decade later, it was considered as a civilization marker (Saul Bellow's *Mr Sammler's Planet*, 1970). Progressively, the Holocaust started to be seen as a moral teaching and it became a literary exploitation focusing on the catastrophe's moral and theological scars (Berger, 1990: 226).

Likewise, novelists began to wonder about a variety of topics such as God's role, Jewish response to destruction, the nature of evil or the nature of Jewish-Christian relations after the Holocaust in order to find an answer to all these questions. Jewish novelists such as Elie Wiesel and Cynthia Ozick insisted on the idea of writing about the Holocaust, no matter how difficult it could be. Wiesel's novel *The Fifth Son* (1984), for instance, treats a very important topic for the aim of this work. Wiesel is the son

of survivors from the Holocaust and he concedes a very special role to memory. He considers that survivor's tales are of an incalculable value to memory (Berger, 1990: 229). Other common themes described in this kind of novels are traumatic death or disappearance (representing Jews' vulnerability) and children being separated from parents and friends. Jewish identity is a very important concern too in second generation novels (novels written by survivors' children). Lastly, theology and God are two other recurrent topics. Jewish novelists use God as a redeemer for evil, but also as the responsible for the bad things which happened to them. Hence, characters asking and begging God because of the Holocaust are abundant in Jewish fiction in the eighties (Berger, 1990: 232).

METHODOLOGY

After the revision and analysis of several texts from Jewish fiction, *The Wandering Jews* is the chosen work for the didactic proposal given not only its cultural value but also its touching narration about the sorrow of thousands of Jews based on real life. Once the author and the text are briefly analysed, the variables that have been taken into account for the didactic proposal are exposed.

A. THE AUTHOR AND THE TEXT

Joseph Roth (1894-1939) was a Jewish writer of Austrian origin who combined his work as fiction writer with that of journalism. He was gifted with an exceptional perception of reality reported overwhelmingly through his style. He published well-known novels like *The Spider's Web* (1923), *Savoy* (1924), *Rebellion* (1924), *Job* (1930) or *The Radetzky March* (1932) largely considered his masterpiece. During his exile in France he wrote books of fabulist orientation like *Tarabas* (1934), *Confession of a Murderer* (1936), or *The Tale of the 1002nd Night* (1939). He finally died in Paris escaping from Nazi Germany during the 30s.

The Wandering Jews (1926-1927) is a book of sorrow, a book which tells the story of thousands and thousands of Jews who had to emigrate from their safe home to the unsafe and unknown lands of the West, conforming the process of diaspora. The work is an essay that goes through several cities of wandering for Jews and narrates the different difficulties they had to face both to get there and once there. At the beginning, the author describes how Jews do not know anything about the West and its injustices to foreigners and especially to Jews. Little by little, he introduces the reader to how difficult and unbearable it can be to get to and to live in certain places such as Germany, France, Austria or America being a Jew. In case they succeeded in entering these places, Jews suffered all kinds of discrimination and oppression, which are described by the author in detail. Apart from discrimination, poverty is a pivotal point in the story. Jewish ghettos are full of it. In the same manner, war also plays its part and it is the cause of the many atrocities that Jews committed themselves in order to avoid being recruited.

This text is a very valuable contribution to our proposal since, as previously mentioned, stories of migration caused by persecution are, unfortunately, commonplace nowadays. In that sense, it can help students to establish a relation between the situations back then and now in order to instil a sense of alarm in them about this topic.

B. VARIABLES FOR THE DIDACTIC PROPOSAL

The variables of the study have been chosen in order to give as a complete vision as possible of the fictional text which is the base for the didactic proposal. The first one is linguistic analysis. The points of analysis here are grammatical structures, vocabulary, coherence and cohesion. All these variables are analysed because it is important to know linguistic aspects about the works in order to decide whether they

are suitable or not for our students. Added to the point of appropriateness, it is also useful to know such structures to teach them in class.

The next variable is conceptual analysis. The purpose of this dimension is to know more about certain topics from the fictional work such as love, death or religion and how they are treated. Students usually enjoy discussing about general topics in class, especially if such topics have to do with their own interests and concerns (love, for example). Talking about them can be even more interesting when seen through the eyes of characters, especially in fictional texts like novels or films. It is a great opportunity to reflect on certain subjects about which they would probably never speak otherwise. In our text we find the following topics: longing for the West, poverty and misery, God and His relationship with Jews, discrimination, war and suffering, disillusionment and loss of hope, fear of deportation and diaspora, with special focus on the Spanish diaspora devised as a dark chapter for Jews. The author talks about Spain as the original homeland of Palestine with a remarkable sentiment of homesickness.

The third variable is based on culture and it is developed, in turn, in three sub-variables. The first aspect we have aimed to explore is the values transmitted. Here, the feelings of Jews about their own religion and position are explored. In the majority of cases, a feeling of in-betweenness can be noticed. The next aspect is Jewish culture. The goal here is to analyse and explain every cultural concept, celebration or tradition which appears in the fictional work under study. If we are to introduce cultural topics in class, the need to include this variable becomes clear.

The last variable of culture is the multicultural dimension. What is discovered here are the different relationships, both positive and negative, between Jews and people from another culture, and how the people involved deal with different intercultural situations. This is of great relevance

in the sense that intercultural competence is one of the most valuable aims of this study.

DIDACTIC PLANNING

What follows is the didactic proposal for the previously mentioned novel: *The Wandering Jews* (1926-1927). The arrangement into sessions would be as follows:

First and second sessions

The warming-up phase will be divided into two sessions: in the first one, students will be introduced to the topic of migration and the topics of multiculturalism and intercultural competence by asking them to share some of their experiences when travelling abroad. They will explain how they felt, how they were treated, etc. They will be asked to do some research on the topic of migration within their families and to prepare a brief presentation on it in groups of four or five students. They have to collect their relatives' impressions, feelings, etc., and they can also explain some of their own experiences when travelling abroad (Tseng, 2002).

In the second session, they will present their findings by means of a power point presentation followed by a debate about migration and the feelings it provokes. The concepts of multiculturalism, intercultural competence, otherness and identity will be presented on the basis of their experiences.

Third session

Our while-activity will start in the third session. Students are provided with some extracts from *The Wandering Jews*. As Kramsch (2013:61) points out, human beings find who they are by means of their encounter with the Other and the understanding of others' experiences. However, in order to understand these experiences they must see them through the eyes of the Other. These are the selected excerpts:

They [Jews] wander away from friends, from familiar greetings, from kind words. They shut their eyes to deny what has just happened, which is to wander into a self-willed illusion of night. They wander away from the shock they have just experienced, into fear, which is the older sister of shock, and try to feel comfortable and at ease with fear. They wander into deception, and the worst kind of deception at that – self-deception. And they also wander from one branch of officialdom to the next, from the local police station to the central police headquarters, from the tax inspectorate to the National Socialist Party offices, from the concentration camp back to the police, and from there to the law court, from the law court to prison, from prison to the house of correction. The child of German Jews embarks on its extraordinary wanderings at a tender age, going from natural trustingness to suspicion, fear, hatred and alienation. It sidles into the classroom, past the benches from the front to the back, and even if it has a place, it still has the sensation of wandering. The Jew wanders from one Nuremberg Law to the next, from one newspaper stand to the next, as though in the hope of finding the truth on sale there one day. He wanders toward the dangerous bromide that says: “All things come to an end!” without thinking that he himself is liable to come to an end sooner rather than later. He wanders – staggers rather – into the fatuous hope: “It won’t be as bad as all that!” – and that hope is nothing but moral corruption. They stay, and at the same time, they wander: It’s a kind of contortionism of which only the most desperate prisoners are capable. It is the prison of the Jews. (Roth, 1976: 128-130)

The names of their [Jews'] brothers who fell for Germany are erased from monuments and memorials – in a two-pronged attack on the dead and the living – they are legally deprived of bread, work, honor, and property, but they

button their lips and carry on. No fewer than five hundred thousand people continue to live in this humiliated condition, go out on the peaceful street, take the street car and the train, pay their taxes, and write letters: There is no limit to the amount of abuse a man is prepared to take, once he has lost his pride. German Jews are doubly unhappy: They not only suffer humiliation, they endure it. The ability to endure it is the greater part of their tragedy. [...] Nothing would have damaged the National Socialist regime as much as the prompt and well-organised departure of all Jews and their descendants from Germany. (Roth, 1976:130-133)

They gave themselves up. They lost themselves. They shed their aura of sad beauty. Instead a dust-gray layer of suffering without meaning and anxiety without tragedy settled on their stooped backs. Contempt clung to them – when previously only stones had been able to reach them. They made compromises. They changed their garb, their beards, their hair, their mode of worship, their Sabbath, their household – they themselves might still observe the traditions, but the traditions loosened themselves a little from them. They became ordinary little middle-class people. The worries of the middle classes became their worries. (Roth, 1976: 14)

Once every student has a copy of the excerpts, they are given time to read through them and to comment on any linguistic difficulty they may have found. As it is important to work also the formal component of the language, in this third session we are going to review the following grammatical aspects through the texts: tenses, passive voice, relative pronouns, modality, expressions or unknown vocabulary, prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs and order of adjectives. In order to deal with these categories, the class will be divided into eight groups (one group per category) and each of them will search

examples of one category in the previous excerpts. One group, for instance, will have to handle tenses, while another one will aim to find examples of relative pronouns. The next step of the activity will be the explanation of each group's findings to the rest of the class in terms of translation and use of each structure, expression or word. They will show what they understand by giving an explanation about it and examples of its use. In turn, the oral component will be practised too. Once the teacher checks students' understanding of categories, s/he gives an explanation on weaker points and gives more examples if needed. Some specific examples of the previously mentioned categories are:

- Tenses: *has just happened, have just experienced, had lost, have damaged* (present perfect and the use of just); *embarks, has, wanders, says* (third person singular of present simple); *won't be* (future simple); *gave, lost, clung, made, became* (irregular past simple); *settled, changed, loosened*, (regular past simple).
- Passive voice: *are erased, are deprived*.
- Relative pronouns: *what, which, that*.
- Modality: *will, would, might*.
- Expressions: *to feel at ease, to come to an end*.
- Prepositional verbs: *embark on, fall for*.
- Phrasal verbs: *wander away, carry on, go out, give up*.
- Order of adjectives: *familiar greetings, kind words, local police, extraordinary wanderings, natural trustingness, dangerous bromide, fatuous hope, desperate prisoners, humiliated condition, peaceful street, well-organised departure, sad beauty, dust-grey layer, stooped backs, ordinary little middle-class people*.

At the end of the session, students will be asked to make a reflection for the next session by means of a reading journal on the following topics appearing in the text: the feeling of leaving all you have behind in order to find a better place to live, the levels of discrimination

immigrants suffer nowadays, and the abandonment of your traditions as the price to be a little bit better treated.

Fourth session

The fourth session will be devoted to sharing their reflections in class, engaging in a debate with their peers. In addition, and looking at the current political arena in Europe in terms of refugees, a comparison between their situation and that of Jews can be made. This gives students the opportunity to compare a latest reality with the similar situation experienced by Jews. At the end of the session, students will be asked to investigate on the topic of the work. That is, they will be divided into groups and they will look for literary works where the topic of the book is dealt with. They will select extracts from these works and prepare some activities to work on cultural aspects. The aim is to develop their abilities as "culture searchers" in the sense of dealing with cultural materials in class in an appropriate manner (Tseng, 2002). This is a crucial task because as Lee claims:

For pre-service teachers, however, there is no reason why learning to reflect should wait until the practicum. As pre-service teachers start their teaching practice in school, they often find it difficult to bridge the gap between imagined views of teaching and the realities of teaching. (2007: 322)

This is a key reflection for teacher trainers who should help student teachers foster critical and reflective thinking during the whole academic training at university and not only during the school practice period.

Fifth session

Students will present their conclusions in class in the fifth session so that every student can benefit from other students' findings, as well as work together in the revision or modification

of ideas. By means of this practice, students become 'culture creators', which is highly valuable for their training, rather than passive receivers of information.

Sixth session

In the sixth and last session, after presenting the previously developed didactic proposal in class, a final individual and anonymous test about the activity can be conducted as the evaluation of the activity (Eken, 2003: 57):

1. Have you found the experience useful? Why (not)?
2. To what extent has the experience helped you to improve your critical thinking skills?
3. To what extent has the experience helped you to improve your English?

We would like to add a couple questions more which are relevant to develop the self-awareness in their training process:

1. Would you say that your teaching skills have been improved with the activity?

2. Can you think of any other way of improving your teaching skills?

CONCLUSIONS

According to the literature that has been reviewed, the inclusion of multicultural literature has proved to be a valuable instrument when it comes to the introduction of culture in class. In addition, and especially in the case of Jewish literature, it may help students compare their own culture with others, and explore the different situations of migration that are now occurring in the world. However, teachers, as facilitators, need to have certain degree of knowledge when dealing with culture in class. That is why the training of intercultural competence in teacher training programmes is of paramount importance. Only with such inclusion will these programmes be able to connect pre-service teachers and, consequently their future students, with the reality of the controversial multicultural world we are immersed in today.

NOTES

1. See Royal Decree 1105/2014 (art. 6) which establishes the basic curriculum of Secondary Education and Upper Secondary Education

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WRITING ABSTRACTS FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION JOURNALS

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Ricardo Casañ-Pitarch (PhD in Applied Linguistics) holds a MA in English language for international trade (Business) and a BA in English Philology. He is currently an Assistant Teacher at the Jaume I University (Spain). His main research interests within applied linguistics are genre analysis and language acquisition. His most recent studies focus on the morphological and syntactic analysis of texts for specific purposes. These analyses also include the basic use of corpora (Wordsmith, Tropes, Antconc). The purpose of these studies is to develop standard or prototype forms of specific and hybrid documents with the aim of defining their main text structures and contents.

Abstract: The objective of this research is the analysis and definition of the language of abstracts in bilingual education journal papers regarding macro- and micro-structure. The present research involves an experiment based on the analysis of a genre in the field of bilingual education with a corpus of 56 abstracts published in indexed journals. Genre analysis helps determine and reproduce specific forms of language, creating basic rules about their use which enable individuals apply them to real contexts. Results show the most common features shared among the documents analyzed. Discussion of these results focuses on the elaboration of some guidelines on how to write abstracts addressed to bilingual education journal papers. Since the amount of genres is near infinite, these guidelines are actually expected to help researchers in this field write their abstracts in a more successful way.

Resumen: El objetivo de esta investigación es analizar y definir el lenguaje y sus formas en los resúmenes de revistas académicas sobre educación bilingüe, centrándose en el estudio de su macro y microestructura. Esta investigación se basa en un experimento en el que se analiza el género de la educación bilingüe mediante un corpus formado por 56 resúmenes publicados en revistas indexadas. El estudio de géneros ayuda a determinar y reproducir formas específicas del lenguaje; creando así reglas básicas sobre su uso y permitiendo su aplicación en contextos reales. Los resultados de este experimento muestran las características principales y más comunes entre los documentos analizados; siendo estos considerados el modelo estándar o prototipo de resumen en este campo. Estos resultados conllevan la elaboración de pautas sobre cómo escribir resúmenes de artículos en revistas de educación bilingüe. Dado que la cantidad de géneros es casi infinita, estas directrices son una guía sobre cómo escribir resúmenes dirigido a investigadores de este campo.

Keywords: Writing, abstract, research paper, genre analysis, bilingual education.

Palabras clave: Escritura, resumen, artículo de investigación, análisis de género, educación bilingüe.

INTRODUCTION

Learning how to write an abstract for a paper to be published in a journal is a necessary skill for writers since it summarizes and highlights the most important thoughts and ideas of their texts. Since research databases only contain abstracts,

it is vital to write meaningful descriptions to persuade other researchers to read the full paper and consequently increase the author's citation rate. There are several guidelines which explain how to write an abstract (Koopman, 1997; Pierson, 2004; Hall, 2012). In general, these guidelines specify the main instructions to write

any abstract, detailing information about content, extension or language, among others. However, the endless list of topics that can be researched and used to write a paper makes it difficult to find a guide that focuses on any specific topic giving precise and particular details. The suggested solution is genre analysis.

Genre analysis is studied in professional and academic contexts and focuses on the current communication needs in society. The aim of these linguistic studies is the creation of rules about language use which enable users apply them into real contexts. It can be defined as a multi-disciplinary task which involves different areas in the study of languages such as linguistics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, translation, and advertising, among others. These studies focus on what people do with language in specific situations and contexts. According to Bhatia (2004: 5), these types of generic studies enable communicators 'to make appropriate decisions as to the choice of lexicon-grammatical as well as generic resources to respond to familiar and not so familiar rhetorical situations.' Thus, the main purpose of this type of linguistic research is to reproduce discourse forms, showing a simplified view of the world and explaining why different specific discourse communities use the type of language the way they do.

This research focuses on a genre analysis of abstracts in bilingual education journal papers. The purpose of this research is to discuss form and content in abstracts within this particular genre. This article begins with a review of the theoretical framework. It continues with the methodology and the results obtained after the analysis of 56 abstracts in the field of bilingual education. At last, a discussion will be held on the features of abstracts in bilingual education papers published in research journals and an example of abstract will be provided according to the guidelines proposed here.

ABSTRACTS IN RESEARCH PAPERS

Abstracts are brief and concise summaries of longer pieces of work which stand on their own right. They tend to be placed in isolation from the main text and should be understandable without reference to the main piece (Simkhada, Van Teijlingen, Hundley and Simkhada, 2015: 262). Similarly, APA (2010) defines an abstract as a formal brief, comprehensive summary of the content of the article. Abstracts are used in literature reviews, journal articles, and research proposals or reports; thus, they are academic documents that are expected to be formal, objective, organized and well-structured (Harris, 2006: 136). The purpose of an abstract is to introduce a concise idea of the whole paper; this will enable the readers to decide if the paper is of their interest and whether it is worth investing time reading it (Pieper, 2014: 47). In addition, it enables abstracting and providing information services to index and retrieve articles (APA, 2010: 7). Their extension may vary, but they tend to range between 150 and 200 words (Koopman, 1997: 2; Landes, 1951: 1660; Lassenius, 2006: 21). They usually have one single paragraph, but on some occasions they can be divided into two or more (Bond, 2009: 3). According to Fortanet (2002: 40), there are different models of abstracts, the final choice depending on the field, interest, and purpose of the paper. She classifies the structure of abstracts into four categories (despite journals requiring specific features):

- a. Introduction + problem + solution
- b. Presentation of a system + method + description of main features / applications
- c. Introduction + method + results + conclusion
- d. General information + objectives + method + results + conclusion

Abstracts must be clear and genuine. According to Martin (2014: 949) there are some considerations any writer must ponder

before starting. Firstly, writers must examine the journal's audience and the main point of their manuscripts before taking any decision. They must introduce the text's main contents, objectives, results and conclusions. Authors should also emphasize and justify the originality of their contributions. The information in any abstract should be the one included in the paper; authors should not introduce any new information. In addition, abstracts in journals need to be accompanied by a series of key words below the main text. They usually include four or five words that are representative of the paper (Fortanet, 2002: 54); and they are also useful for the audience to search for papers in the field of interest on journals and Internet data bases (Leng, 2013: 136).

Regarding language features in abstracts, it shall be considered that the language must be descriptive and informative since the purpose of this document is to summarize contents (Raya, 1986: 14). In other words, the aim of an abstract is to provide a reader with the basic and necessary information from a paper. In addition, Raya (1986: 19) also suggests that negative forms should be avoided when writing abstracts. Concerning the use of verbs, Bond (2009: 5) points out that an abstract may combine both present and past tense. The first is mainly used in the introduction, results, and conclusion (e.g.: "the purpose/aim of this study is to investigate", "these results suggest/show/reveal"); however, the past tense can also be used in these sections (e.g.: "the project was designed to", "it was concluded"). On the other hand, the materials and method shall be introduced in past (e.g.: "This questionnaire investigated", "Interviews were conducted by").

There are further aspects that can be considered to define the genre of abstracts for bilingual education papers, such as morphology and syntax. The register of this genre is academic, thus they shall contain formal terminology and language structures (Snow, 1998: 244). In this

sense, Heylighen and Dewaele (1999: 4-6) stated that formal morphological categories include nouns, adjectives, prepositions and determiners. In contrast, the percentage of deictic categories should be low in the texts: pronouns, verbs, adverbs and interjections. Therefore, if abstracts are considered formal, they should be mostly composed by formal categories. Regarding the syntax in these texts Bond (2009: 2) points out that sentences should be simple but concise. In this sense, the best way to be simple is to use the most common and standard forms of the language involving *subject + verb + objects + complements*. Besides, if the language needs to be concise, the terminology should be based on well-accepted, relevant and meaningful concepts and terms (Raya, 1986: 18). The selection of the adequate words will make a text more comprehensible and solid to the audience (Perrin, 2013: 120).

METHOD

The study of genres aims at explaining the function of particular texts in specific areas. This research focuses on the study of abstracts in bilingual education journal papers. This section describes the process to implement and complete this research. As previously explained, the objective of this research is to analyze abstracts in bilingual education journal papers and define some guidelines to understand and reproduce these documents more accurately. The amount of documents included in our corpus for this experiment is 56. These documents focus exclusively on abstracts in bilingual education journal papers. The choice of these papers was based on the selection of different indexed journals dealing with the target topic. *Table 1* shows the corpus of journals considered and the amount of papers analyzed from each journal. In order to complete the experiment of this research, a model for the analysis of multi-genre structures (AMS) is used in order to identify and determine the main features of the target genre. The AMS

model analyzes the forms of the language and is divided into three broad sections: macrostructure, microstructure, and format (see Table 2). The results of the macrostructure and

the microstructure shall provide the necessary data to determine and reproduce the standard model of abstracts in bilingual education journal papers.

Table 1. Corpus of Journals

International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism	9	Language, Culture and Curriculum	4
LACLIL	9	Ibérica	4
Language Value	6	Porta Linguarum	3
Revista de Lengua para Fines Específicos	6	American Journal of Educational Research	2
Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education	5	Bilingualism: Language and Cognition	2
International CLIL Research Journal	4	Revista Electrónica de Investigación Educativa	2

Table 2. Model for the analysis of multi-genre structures (AMS) at linguistic level (Adapted from Casañ-Pitarch and Calvo Ferrer, 2015: 79)

Macrostructure	Quantification of forms and structures
	Moves and steps forming the genre
Microstructure	Type of language
	Morphology
	Syntax
	Terminology
	Formality
	Verbal and personal pronoun analysis

The analysis of the macrostructure focuses on the major structures and forms. This involves the analysis of moves and steps and the quantification of forms and structures. The first stage in this analysis consists in determining the moves and steps within the genre analyzed. In this case, this information needs to be collected individually; and then, results will determine which moves and steps are the most frequent. After establishing the moves and steps, this research continues with the quantification of forms and structures (paragraphs, sentences and words). In this sense, it will be possible to determine the amount of words per sentence, words per paragraph, sentences per paragraph, and paragraphs per text. The software used to quantify words, sentences and paragraphs is *Wordsmith Tools v.6* (Scott, 2012). Then, by

calculating the mean, median, mode and usual range, it will be possible to determine the form of each step regarding the elements analyzed. This analysis sets the basis and the main forms of the target genre.

Next, the analysis of the microstructure determines the language used, including morphology, terminology and formality. To start with this part of the analysis, it is necessary to focus on the language. This can be informative, persuasive, or promotional, depending on the main purpose of the text. In order to classify the type of language it is necessary to study in detail the purpose of each sentence, paragraph or the whole document. The collection of this information will be used to determine the type of language in each step. Secondly, regarding the

morphological content of the papers analyzed, the analysis has been manual. In this case, we have quantified words in groups of nouns, verbs, determiners, adjectives, conjunctions, adverbs, prepositions and pronouns; and it also provides a percentage of these values. On the other hand, the software *Tropes v8.4* (Molette and Landré, 2014) has been used to analyze the type of terminology used and classify it into broader categories. At last, the formula introduced by Heylighen and Dewaele's (1999: 13) will be used to determine the level of formality of these texts; this formula is based on word classes (Table 3).

RESULTS

This section introduces the results obtained from the analysis of the selected abstracts. Following the AMS model, the results are divided into macro and microstructure. The first item in the analysis of the macrostructure concerns the quantification of words, sentences

and paragraphs. Our corpus was formed by 56 abstracts; these documents contained 9,137 words, 333 sentences and 62 paragraphs. Concerning words, results show that the mean of words per text is 163.16, the median 152, whereas the mode is the range between 151 and 175 words. The corpus includes abstracts within a range of 70 and 300 words. It seems that the usual range of words per text is between 150 and 170. In reference to the words per sentence, our results show that the range goes from 16 to 58 words. The mean is 27.44 words per sentence, the median 28 and the mode the range between 25 and 30. Thus, it seems that sentences should contain between 25 and 30 words. Next, in reference to the sentences per text, results show that the mean is 5.95 sentences and the median and the mode are 6. These results suggest that abstracts of papers on bilingual education should contain 6 sentences. At last, the experiment has revealed that 91.07% of the documents analyzed contained 1 single paragraphs. These results are detailed in Table 4.

Table 3. Formula to analyze formality (Heylighen and Dewaele, 1999: 13)

$$F = (\text{noun freq.} + \text{adjective freq.} + \text{preposition freq.} + \text{Determiner freq.} - \text{pronoun freq.} - \text{verb freq.} - \text{adverb freq.} - \text{interjection freq.} + 100)/2$$

Table 4. Quantification of words, sentences and paragraphs

	Mean	Median	Mode	Minimum	Maximum
Words per text	163.16	152	151-175	70	300
Words per paragraph	147.37	150	151-175	55	300
Words per sentence	27.44	28	25-30	16	58
Sentences per text	5.95	6	6	2	12
Sentences per paragraph	37.5	6	6	2	12
Paragraph per text	1.11	1	1	1	2
9,137 words, 333 sentences and 62 paragraphs, 56 documents					

The second part of the analysis of the macrostructure concerns the moves and steps involved in this research. Since abstracts are relatively short documents, it has been found that this text is form by one single move: *summary of the contents*. All the abstracts analyzed aimed at this purpose. In order to

determine the steps, they have been identified as the introduction to the paper, objectives, method, results, and conclusion. Results in Table 5 show that there are different values and combinations. As it can be observed, there is not a clear prototypical structure. The only step that is available in all the samples analyzed is

the objective of the paper. Therefore, texts have been divided into two categories, empirical and theoretical studies. During the quantification

of forms, this division has not been applied since the nature of these texts does not seem to interfere significantly.

Table 5. Moves and Steps

Move	Summary of the contents		100%		(56/56)	
Empirical			Theoretical			
Step 1	Introduction	55.26% (21/38)				
Step 2	Objectives	100.00% (38/38)	Step 1	Introduction	94.44% (17/18)	
Step 3	Method	73.68% (28/38)	Step 2	Objectives	100.00% (18/18)	
Step 4	Results	73.68% (28/38)	Step 3	Structure	27.78% (5/18)	
Step 5	Conclusion	78.95% (30/38)	Step 4	Conclusion	55.56% (10/18)	
Mean: 3.82		Median: 4	Mode: 4	Mean: 2.78	Median: 3	Mode: 3

As it can be observed in *Table 5*, there are some differences regarding the most common steps analyzed in the abstracts for bilingual education papers. It seems that this depends on whether they are empirical or theoretical studies. On the one hand, results suggest that the most common abstracts for empirical studies should include 4 steps. The most frequent ones are the objectives, an explanation of the method used, the main results obtained and general conclusions. This type of abstract may also include an introduction to the research area, which should be the beginning of the document. On the other hand, theoretical research papers in this field start with an introduction and the purpose of the paper. This combination is the most usual (38.89%); however, in most cases these two steps are accompanied by a third one (61.11%), usually the conclusion with the main findings (55.56%).

Next, the analysis of the microstructure concerns the study of the type of language, morphology, syntax, terminology, use of verbs and pronouns, and formality. To start with the second part of the analysis, the type of language seems to be informative, descriptive and impersonal. There are different verbs and words that suggest that this text is descriptive: to describe/description (18), to explain/explanation (17), to state (15)

or the high percentage of adjectives (15.59%). On the other hand, the impersonality of the text seems to be reflected in the lack of pronouns (1.69%) and the use of the passive voice (15.03%). At last, since the purpose of all the abstracts analyzed aims at summarizing the contents of the paper and there is a lack of intention to promote or persuade, it seems that the purpose of the text is to inform.

As commented earlier, the content of any text is divided into different types of words. These can be nouns, determiners, adjectives, prepositions, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, interjections, and conjunctions. Analyzing the morphological categories within a corpus of texts can be a great help to determine their form. The elaboration of this analysis was carried out with no electronic support. The following table shows the number of words that were taken for this part of the study. The total amount of words analyzed was 9,137. As it can be observed in *Table 6*, the mean, median and mode are relatively close in all the categories. It seems that the prototype form of this type of abstract should be composed by approximately 28-30% of nouns, 14-15% of determiners, 13-14% of adjectives, 16-17% of prepositions, 2% of pronouns, 13-14% of verbs, 4-5% of adverbs and 5-6% of conjunctions.

Table 6. Morphology

	Nouns	Det.	Adj.	Prep.	Pron.	Verbs	Adv.	Inter.	Conj.
Mean	29.54	14.04	15.59	16.62	2.07	12.78	4.09	-	5.27
Median	29.09	14.03	14.84	16.84	1.84	13.02	4.41	-	5.52
Mode	28-30	14-15	13-14	16-17	2	13-14	4-5	-	4-5
Minimum	25.44	8.28	10.66	11.40	0	5.43	0	-	1.75
Maximum	37.89	16.84	21.89	20.56	5.27	19.09	9.97	-	8.88

Our study also included an analysis of the syntax in the abstracts. For this analysis, 28 research articles have been considered and analyzed individually. The papers included 168 sentences (182 clauses). In this sense, 91.67% of the sentences were simple and the remaining 8.33% compound. Results show that the extension of the predicator is longer than the subject in most clauses. In 88.70% of these sentences, the predicator was the longest; whereas the subject was more extended in 10.12% of the clauses. The remaining 1.18% of the clauses had the subject and the predicator with the same extension. See *Graphic 1*.

Furthermore, results have also revealed that the mean extension of subjects is 21.25% of the clause, the median 14, and the mode 11-15; whereas the extension of the predicator is 78.75% of the clause, the median 86, and the mode 86-90. Thus, it seems that writers should consider that the average extension of

the subjects should be between 10% and 20%, whereas the average extension of the predicator should be from 80% to 90% of the sentence. In other words, considering that results suggested that the extension of a sentence should be between 25 and 30 words, it seems that the subject should contain an average of 2-5 words and the predicator 20-23. This means that the extension of both subject and predicator could be longer, but the average extension of all the clauses within the text should coincide within this range.

In addition to the extension of the subject and the predicator, this research also focuses on the quantification of the most common functional items within the different sentences analyzed. As it can be observed in the following table, these sentences contained subject, verbs, direct objects, subject complements, prepositional objects, and adjunct or conjuncts. Indirect objects and object complements do not seem to be relevant in this type of document.

Graphic 1. Percentages concerning the extension of subjects and predicators

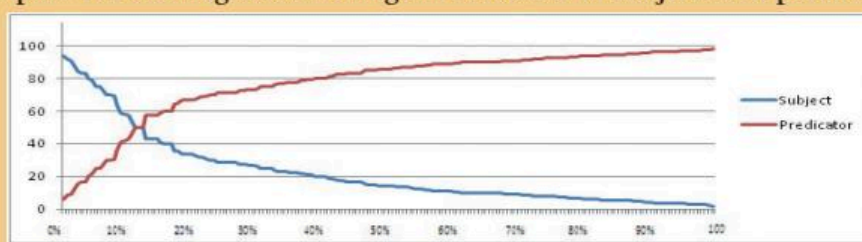


Table 7. Syntax

Subject	100%	Verb	100%
Direct Object	39.00%	Prepositional Object	15.30%
Indirect Object	2.20%	Subject Complement	15.30%
Object Complement	1.64%	Adjunct/Conjunct	50.30%

Besides, it has also been found that there are some sentence structures that are more common than others. However, it cannot be affirmed that there is a prototype form. Results reveal that the sum of the constructions 'S+V+DO' + 'S+V+C' + 'S+V+SC' is 49.45% among all the samples analyzed. This means that one every two clauses contains one of these structures.

Regarding the terminology in these abstracts, the software *Tropes* has identified 492

words related to education and work and 433 words about general concepts. This tool has also identified other words related to different fields such as properties and characteristics, arts and culture, or countries and locations, whereas the language of business is scarce. These terminological fields seem to be related to areas of teaching in the papers analyzed. *Table 9* shows the most frequent words within the corpus of texts used.

Table 8. Syntax

Structure	Percentage	Structure	Percentage
S+V+DO	23.08%	C+S+V+PO	4.95%
S+V+C	15.38%	C+S+V	2.75%
S+V+SC	10.99%	S+V+SC+C	2.20%
C+S+V+C	7.69%	C+S+V+SC	1.10%
S+V+PO	7.69%	C+S+V+SC+C	1.10%
C+S+V+DO	7.14%	S+V+O+OC	1.10%
S+V+DO+C	7.14%	S+V+OI+OD	1.10%
S+V	6.04%	C+S+V+PO+C	0.55%

Table 9. Nature of Terminology

Field	Quant.	Field	Quant.
Education and work	492	Numbers, time and dates	105
General concepts	433	Politics and society	102
Properties and characteristics	280	Behaviors and feelings	64
Arts and culture	267	Communication and medias	61
Countries and locations	229	Things and substances	59
Sciences and technology	132	People and persons	38

Next, following Downing's (2014: 325) classification of verbs, this experiment also focuses on determining the form and function of verbs. For this aim, it has been necessary to analyze the finiteness, tense, anteriority, mood, emphasis, aspect, polarity and voice of the verbs. Results are introduced in *Table 10*. As it can be observed, the present tense with active voice is the most usual verbal form. The use of past is only occasional; however it shall be acknowledged that some authors prefer to use the past when describing the process

of their experiment. In this sense, the simple aspect is the most usual; the appearance of progressive and perfective forms is simply occasional. It has also been found that it is very usual that sentences contain non-finite forms accompanying the main verbs, especially infinitives but also relevant is the presence of present and past participles. Regarding mood and voice, this section does not contain a high amount of modal forms and the main voice is active. These results suggest that the text is direct and assertive, giving the information

clearly and straightforward to the audience. As it was intuited, most verbs have positive polarity and there is no need for emphasis on

actions. This type of document is not persuasive and does not attempt to convince the audience about a product.

Table 10. Analysis of Verbs		
Tensed Verbs		
Active	Passive	
Pres. Simple: 36.15%	Pres. Simple: 7.20%	
Pres. Continuous: 1.12%	Pres. Continuous: 2.36%	
Pres. Perf. Simple: 2.98%	Pres. Perf. Simple: 0.75%	
Pres. Perf. Continuous: 0.25%	Pres. Perf. Continuous: -	
Active Present: 40.50%	Passive Present: 10.31%	
Total Present: 50.81%		
Past Simple: 6.83%	Past Simple: 1.99%	
Past Continuous: -	Past Continuous: 0.12%	
Active Past: 6.83%	Active Past: 2.11%	
Total Past: 8.94%		
Total Tensed Verbs: 59.75%		
Modal Verbs	Active	Passive
Simple Modal Verbs	6.09%	2.36%
Continuous Modal Verbs	-	0.25%
Total Modal Verbs: 8.70%		
TOTAL FINITE: 68.45%	TOTAL NON-FINITE: 31.55%	
	Infinitive: 15.16%	Imperative: -
	Present Part.: 9.94%	Past Part.: 6.46%
Positive Polarity: 96.89%	Negative Polarity: 3.11%	

Table 11. Analysis of Personal Pronouns						
		Subject Pronouns	Object Pronouns	Possessive Determiner	Possessive Pronouns	Reflexive Pronouns
First Person	Singular	I (9)	<i>Me</i>	<i>My</i>	<i>Mine</i>	<i>Myself</i>
	Plural	We (14)	Us (1)	Our (7)	<i>Ours</i>	<i>Ourselves</i>
Second case	Singular/Plural	<i>You</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>Your</i>	<i>Yours</i>	<i>Yourself</i>
Third Person	Singular	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>She</i>	<i>Her</i>	<i>Hers</i>	<i>Herself</i>
		<i>Masculine</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>Him</i>	<i>His</i>	<i>Himself</i>
		Neutral	It (27)	Its (16)	Its	Itself (4)
	Plural	They (24)	Them (5)	Their (43)	<i>Theirs</i>	<i>Themselves</i>

The next item analyzed is the use of pronouns. The general percentage of pronouns and possessive determiners within the abstracts is 1.69%. As it can be observed in Table 11, the percentage of pronouns is low if they are

compared with nouns (29.54%). There are no second person pronouns, whereas third person pronouns (79.87%) are more common than the first person ones (20.13%). These pronouns can be divided into categories.

Results show that most pronouns are subject (48.05%) and possessive determiners (42.86%), whereas object pronouns (6.49%) and reflexive pronouns (2.60%) are rare. Within the abstracts analyzed, no samples of possessive pronouns have been identified.

In addition to all these results, it is also possible to determine the level of formality in the abstracts analyzed with the data collected. The formula introduced by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999: 13) can bring results on formality based on the morphological structure of the text. Furthermore, the results obtained have been compared with the levels of formality in other genres analyzed by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999: 15-19). In this sense, the abstracts analyzed seem to be highly formal. Results have shown that the level of formality in abstracts for bilingual education papers is 78.43%, whereas Heylighen and Dewaele (1999: 15-19) introduced some examples in which the same formula was also applied: oral academic (44.10%), novels (52.50%), magazines (62.80%), and newspapers (68.10%).

DISCUSSION

After describing the results, this section suggests the standard features of abstracts in bilingual education papers following the results obtained. To start with, the results suggest that the average extension of an abstract for bilingual education papers should be 150-170 words; they should include one single paragraph for the whole text and the amount of sentences should be 6, with an extension ranging between 25 and 30 words. The abstract shall be a summary of the contents introduced in the paper and the sections within may vary depending on whether the abstract corresponds to a theoretical or an empirical study. If the paper is empirical, the sections shall include the introduction to the field or research, the purpose, the method, the results and the conclusion. By contrast, theoretical papers shall consist of the introduction to

the field or research, objectives and main conclusions.

The language should be informative, descriptive and impersonal. The content of the text should include approximately 28-30% of nouns, 14-15% of determiners, 13-14% of adjectives, 16-17% of prepositions, 2% of pronouns, 13-14% of verbs, 4-5% of adverbs, 5-6% of conjunctions. These should be structured following the standard syntactical order including subject, verb, direct object or subject complement, and then using complements at the beginning or end of the clause when necessary. The terminology in these abstracts should be mainly related to the fields of education and work and general concepts, being possible to add other categories as suggested in the results provided by the software *Tropes*. It shall also be necessary to consider that the most popular pronouns are both subject and object pronouns, being the third singular and plural person pronouns the most frequently used. Additionally, results suggest that most verbs should be introduced as active present simple, and these being accompanied by infinitives and participles. The text must be formal, with a percentage of formality around the average: 78.43%.

The abstract of this paper has been used as a model in which all the parameters suggested in this research have been taken into account in order to write it. *Table 12* shows a comparative of the suggested guidelines based on the results obtained and the application of these guidelines into a real example of empirical research. If these guidelines are compared with the abstract in this paper, the similarities between them are noticeable. As it can be observed, there are some minor differences between the two models that must be acknowledged. Results show that the macrostructure models are identical. Regarding the microstructure, results suggest that language is informative, descriptive and impersonal. Thus, the abstract of this paper has

been developed considering the need to inform about the paper, to describe the processes carried out and to be impersonal by avoiding the involvement of the writer in the text. The morphological structure of the text is based on the range of percentages previously suggested despite it would be considered acceptable that the new text contained the same morphological range or a maximum of one point in percentage above or below. In this sense, the level of formality in both cases is very similar, the difference between them being only 0.79. In reference to the level of terminology, we have

attempted to include the same type of lexicon; however, since the text is too short, it is difficult to maintain the same percentage. Regarding the analysis of personal pronouns and verbs, the text contains a similar structure, using some possessive determiners and subject pronouns as well as the present simple with the active voice accompanied by infinitives and participles. At last, concerning syntax, it seems that in these abstracts it is necessary to keep the standard structure of sentences in the English language, including subject, verb, object or subject complement, and complements.

Table 12. Summary of results and comparison of guidelines and experimental text.

Area	Item	Guidelines				Experiment			
Macro-structure	Quantification of forms and structures	Words: 150-170 Sentences: 6 Paragraphs: 1				Words: 160 Sentences: 6 Paragraphs: 1			
	Moves and steps forming the game	Empirical 1. Purpose 2. Method 3. Results 4. Conclusion		Bibliographic 1. Introduction 2. Purpose 3. Conclusion		Empirical 1. Purpose 2. Method 3. Results 4. Conclusion			
Micro-structure	Type of language	Informative, descriptive and impersonal				Informative, descriptive and impersonal			
	Morphology	No.	28-30	Pro.	2	No.	29.81%	Pro.	1.86%
		Det.	14-15	V.	13-14	Det.	14.29%	V.	14.91%
		Adj.	13-14	Adv.	4-5	Adj.	13.04%	Adv.	3.11%
		Prep.	16-17	Con.	5-6	Prep.	18.00%	Con.	4.97%
	Syntax	Subject, Verb, Direct Object or Subject complement, Adjuncts and Conjunctions Average extension Subjects: 2-6 Average extension Predicate: 18-24				Subject, Verb, Direct Object or Subject Complement, Adjuncts and Conjunctions. Average extension Subjects: 4-6 Average extension Predicate: 18-22			
	Terminology	1. Education and work 2. General concepts 3. Properties 4. Arts and culture				1. General concepts 2. Education and work 3. Arts and culture 4. Properties			
	Formality	78.43%				77.64%			
	Pers. Pron. Anal.	Subject and Possessive determiners				Subject (1) and Possessive determiners (2)			
	Verbal analysis	Present simple + infinitives + participles				Present simple (8) + infinitives (4) + participles (8)			

CONCLUSION

As it has been explained in this paper, researchers need to learn how to write abstracts tailored for a particular purpose and context. This research focuses on analyzing, determining and defining the language forms and structures

of abstracts for papers in bilingual education journals. This project has focused on a particular type of abstract, in contrast to other studies which have previously determined and defined them as a single unit or according to their main purpose. This research has carried out an experiment with a genre analysis with

56 abstracts from bilingual education journals published in indexed journals. Results have shown that there is a well established structure for these abstracts, in which the macro-structure may vary depending on whether they belong to theoretical or experimental papers. Then, the microstructure has been determined and a possible model suggested. As a means to implement the results obtained, the abstract of this paper has been designed according to the guidelines suggested, so as to be a prototype for this type of documents.

Before concluding, it shall be necessary to refer to the limitations found in this research and the possibilities for further research. The main difficulties are related to the use of software. It seems that the development of electronic tools which permit distinguishing and classifying words and sentences into

morphological and syntax categories can still be largely improved.

Despite this, it has been attempted to perform morphological and syntactic analyses with suitable programs such as *Tropes* or *Claws*, and we have found certain lack of precision that made manual analysis necessary. There are some word categories that the software used could not distinguish (i.e.: classifying verbs as nouns or vice versa such as phone, access, or chair). Regarding further research, this analysis could be extended with a study of semantics and pragmatics. This would give a more precise perspective of the function of language and context. Similarly, the same experiment could be carried out within other fields of research (i.e.: engineering, architecture, literature) in order to find differences in the abstracts as well as to provide additional samples.

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TOWARDS A REAL INTEGRATION OF CONTENT AND LANGUAGE IN CLIL

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Abstract: Over the last decades, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) research has largely focused on the analysis of the implementation and potential linguistic benefits and drawbacks of this approach. More recently, however, research studies are taking a step back and focusing on the key term integration in CLIL. This article aims at making a proposal for classroom practices that may help us turn this integration into a reality by bringing the language and the content paradigms closer together. In so doing, we will try to provide an answer to some of the challenges that CLIL raises by targeting the often forgotten element in the CLIL equation, namely subject content, and the possible detrimental effects of CLIL on studying a subject matter through a foreign language.

Resumen: Durante las últimas décadas, la investigación sobre el aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lengua (AICLE) se ha centrado principalmente en el análisis de la implementación de este enfoque, así como sus potenciales beneficios lingüísticos y desventajas. Sin embargo, recientemente, los estudios han dado un paso atrás y empiezan a centrarse en el término clave integrado de AICLE. Este artículo tiene como objetivo presentar una propuesta de prácticas en el aula que puedan ayudarnos a convertir esta integración en una realidad al acercar los paradigmas de lengua y contenidos. Al hacerlo, intentaremos dar respuesta a algunos de los desafíos que plantea AICLE a través del elemento más frecuentemente olvidado en este enfoque, el contenido no lingüístico, junto con los posibles efectos adversos de AICLE sobre el estudio de una asignatura no lingüística en un idioma extranjero.

Keywords: CLIL, subject content, integration, classroom practices.

Palabras clave: AICLE, contenido no lingüístico, integración, prácticas en el aula, destrezas básicas de comunicación interpersonal y lenguaje académico.

CONTEXTUALISATION

In recent years, we have seen a proliferation of research studies on CLIL practices mostly analysing their implementation and linguistic outcomes from various angles. Overall, these reviews and analyses of the CLIL approach have revealed largely positive effects on foreign language (FL) competence (see, e.g., Dalton-Puffer et al., 2010; Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Cenoz et al., 2013; Juan-Garau and Salazar-Noguera, 2015). Scant attention, however, has been paid to subject content learning. Existing findings in this regard show that no major detrimental effects are seen to derive from such an approach when properly implemented (see, e.g., Admiraal et al., 2006; Stohler, 2006; Grisaleña et al., 2009). Based on the conclusions drawn from the aforementioned studies, it may be assumed that learners in a CLIL programme can reach the end of their compulsory education having consolidated all of the basic and necessary content and language knowledge (see, e.g., Alonso et al., 2009), and that they might even do so with high standards, performing at times better than their non-CLIL counterparts (see, e.g., Lorenzo et al., 2011), possibly owing to a greater development of their high-processing skills and cognitive abilities (see, e.g., Jäppinen, 2005; 2006; Lorenzo et al., 2010). These beneficial outcomes come hand in hand with other gains such as students' motivation, confidence to use the FL or a heightened awareness of the world that surrounds them (Coyle, 2011). The suggestion has often been made that CLIL goes beyond the integration of content and language, as its methodology has the potential to elicit mental construction activities (see, e.g., Vollmer et al., 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2008).

One of the factors that has been frequently considered to play a crucial role in these favourable outcomes is the greater attention paid to students' needs (Harrop, 2012). Thus, Coonan (2007: 643) highlights that "*in CLIL [...]*

care is taken to nurture language growth through the content and the L1 is used as an instrument if needed to overcome learning difficulties". According to Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010), if a different methodology is used, disparate results between CLIL and non-CLIL students are to be expected as well.

However, despite the positive outcomes outlined, the question remains whether the students' linguistic skills are going to be insufficient to tackle content learning unless there is a prior simplification of materials or an addition of language teaching hours in order to cater for a more scaffolded teaching (see Hajer, 2000; Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Grisaleña et al. (2009) identify a series of weaknesses in CLIL implementation that include the lack of appropriate teaching materials, the difficulties associated with the acquisition of specific vocabulary, and the extra effort and time burden that both students and teachers face, among others (see also Yip, 2003; Yip et al., 2003; Airey and Linder, 2006).

In order to cope with these hardships and try to compensate for them, several authors underscore the essential "*co-operation and skills exchange between language and content teachers*" (Ravelo, 2014: 79). In fact, Lorenzo et al. (2010) pinpoint some additional positive effects of CLIL programmes acknowledging their potential to stimulate greater interdepartmental collaboration, cohesion in the school community and a creative environment that promotes the blossoming of new initiatives. What seems undeniable is that further efforts are required from both teachers and students, as well as from the whole teaching body behind the programme both at top-down (curricular planning) and bottom-up (in-class) levels, for CLIL prospects to come true (see, e.g., Elorza and Muñoa, 2008; Hüttner et al., 2013). Among other initiatives, language and content teachers need to adopt a series of teaching strategies, including thorough lesson co-planning, using classroom language,

matching learners' knowledge and capacities, and providing additional scaffolding through, for example, visual support. These strategies, which might be disregarded if the content subject is taught in the students' L1, are at the core of CLIL and, without their application, favourable results could hardly be achieved. All in all, in order to attain additional benefits, the adoption of appropriate CLIL teaching strategies is imperative. The problem that arises with such practices is that they might be too time-consuming and their application might prevent teachers from meeting the curricular requirements of the programme.

In this vein, our proposal aims at coping with the complexities of CLIL through embracing experts' recommendations (see, e.g., Lorenzo et al., 2010). We contend that by making the integration of the two components in CLIL –language and content– a reality, the possible subject content flaws mentioned above could be avoided (de Graaff, 2016: xv-xvi). Since the FL subject already benefits from CLIL in the sense that students practise the FL in the content subject, it would seem fair that, in return, some non-linguistic content could also be present in the FL subject to hone content knowledge. In fact, this is a practice acknowledged by Lyster and Ballinger (2011: 280) –based on Met (1991)– who present a continuum of content-based language teaching settings ranging from content-driven programmes, such as immersion, to language-driven options such as “language classes with thematic units” and “language classes with content used for language practice”. The latter options focus on the development of target language proficiency through subject content. We, therefore, suggest the adoption of a series of classroom practices in the FL subject that complement and help to facilitate the acquisition of the subject contents of a chosen subject delivered through a FL as part of a CLIL programme. In order to do so, we will first present in more detail what we believe is a plausible approach to overrule possible deficiencies in content learning, with teacher cooperation at the core. After that, some

further cognitive advantages derived from the forthcoming proposal will be outlined, which will then lead to the presentation of a practical application of our proposal to a content subject, Natural Sciences, to lastly finish with some conclusions and final reflections.

PROPOSAL

When a CLIL approach is adopted, the language of instruction of the content subject is assumed to be a FL, and the sole use of this FL as a tool for communication in the content subject is expected to lead to an upgrade in learners' linguistic command of it. Along with this, there might be an increase in their intrinsic motivation to learn the language, thus lifting some weight from the FL subject. Therefore, what the FL subject should do in exchange is to lighten the weight of the content subject. This could be accomplished by having the FL sessions provide more scaffolded support through thematically oriented activities, directing the topics of the FL subject towards the content subject syllabus. In this sense, the FL subject would assume the role of a crutch for the content subject, strengthening students' learning and dealing especially with the more language-related aspects, while simultaneously facilitating the consolidation of contents.

Moreover, one of the main concerns of FL teachers would find its own solution in such a practice. Among the difficulties they face in the design of class activities, there is often a lack of original and meaningful materials, and, as a result, they end up presenting topics as distant and diverse as *fashion*, *endangered species* or *the future of technologies* that lack solid ground, the goal being simply to be able to take part in a variety of written and spoken interactions, as well as using the language for a handful of purposes (see, e.g., *Conselleria d'Educació i Cultura*, 2008, for a comprehensive description of the FL curriculum in the Balearic Islands), without necessarily leading to any reflexive practice whatsoever.

Furthermore, the goal of this mutual commitment between language and content goes beyond what we commonly know as *everyday* language, which Cummins (1979) labelled as Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS), and targets students' formal academic language competence, which is referred to as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). A series of research studies in Canada have proved that, in second language acquisition contexts, immigrant children often acquire everyday conversational fluency in English within about two years of instruction, but require longer periods to develop academic English skills (Cummins, 1984; Collier, 1987; Cummins, 2008), due to their direct link with learners' cognitive development.

The difficulties that students have in the use of content area vocabulary in academic contexts (CALP) is a concern that has often been voiced by CLIL researchers. In this regard, in her 2010 article, Várkuti reports on the initial conclusions of a large scale empirical study that attempts to compare the conversational and academic language achievements of CLIL and non-CLIL secondary education pupils. The study looks into three main areas, revealing that: (1) CLIL students have significantly greater linguistic competence in comparison to their peers; (2) social or conversational language skills are acquired comparatively faster than more academically demanding linguistic competences; and (3) CLIL pupils do perform better in academic language tests than their non-CLIL counterparts. In fact, they have "a larger and more sophisticated vocabulary, better skills in applying grammar rules, as well as a greater confidence in and awareness of language use" (2010: 76).

Therefore, it appears that CLIL, particularly in combination with FL instruction enhanced with content-based activities, can provide an ideal blend between BICS and CALP: on the one hand, the acquisition of social language (BICS) for everyday interaction, which is

inherent to the very nature of the CLIL approach and of the FL subject, and, on the other hand, the development of academic language (CALP), not only in the content subject, the scope of which may be too vast, but also in the FL subject, which does not settle for simply acquiring the language and taps into higher-order cognitive processes through thematically oriented work.

In this line, our proposal benefits from a redefinition of the concept of knowledge. The acquisition of academic language does not only involve the understanding and use of scientific terminology. It encompasses other cognitively demanding skills, such as identifying criteria, justifying opinions, forming hypotheses and interpreting evidence, all of which tend to be present in a CLIL lesson, but are often lacking in FL sessions. In the 1950s, Benjamin S. Bloom developed what is known today as Bloom's Taxonomy (see Bloom et al., 1956), a framework that provided a classification of learning and thinking into six major categories in the cognitive domain (see Figure 1).

As Krathwohl (2002: 213) claimed, it is necessary to reconsider the objectives of learning as

[a]lmost always, these analyses have shown a heavy emphasis on objectives requiring only recognition or recall of information, objectives that fall in the Knowledge category. But, it is objectives that involve the understanding and use of knowledge [...] that are usually considered the most important goals of education.

As we can see in Figure 1, falling into the category of *Remembering* limits our potentialities severely. For long, FL teachers have worked on the lowest levels with activities enhancing memory and repetition, among others, and not even trying to scratch the surface of higher-order thinking skills. Instead, Bloom claimed that our final goal should always lie in reaching the top

of levels of thinking and intellectual behaviour. Taking on board his view, what teachers need to ensure is that CLIL helps students climb this stairway with questions, activities and tasks that challenge their thinking behaviour. This is where the FL subject can play a relevant role. The cooperation between different curricular subjects allows students to reach a deeper

understanding of the contents and go further in their learning. Due to the possible limitations of content subjects in CLIL previously mentioned, it may be difficult at times to reach the highest levels in Bloom's Taxonomy, but, thanks to additional exposure to content matter in the FL subject, these hardships may find a release.

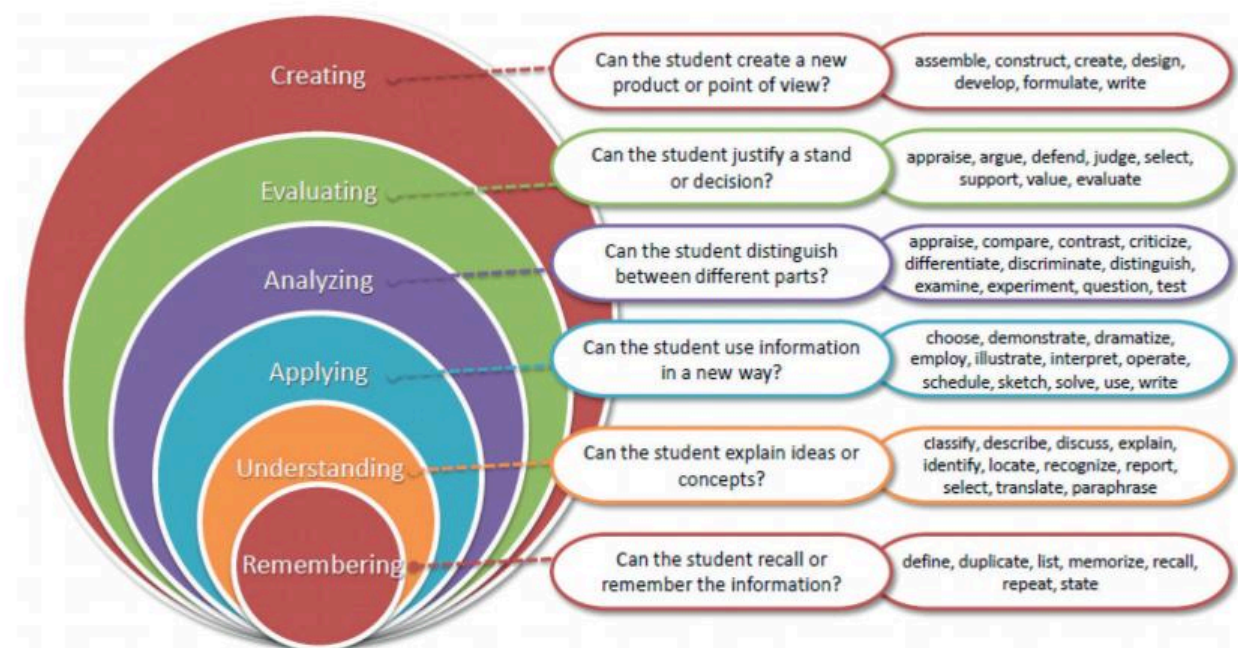


Figure 1. Bloom's revised Taxonomy (adapted from Anderson et al., 2001)

SAMPLE CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

A series of activities will be presented next so as to bring the present proposal closer to actual classroom practice. The sample activities included were first tested and then put into practice by the first author of this article during a three-month period spent as an English teacher in a state-run high school with a third-level Compulsory Secondary Education class, i.e. 15- and 16-year-old students. More specifically, they were part of the Natural Sciences subject and, in particular, of the unit entitled *Health and Disease*, which covered the subtopics of *diseases and types of infectious diseases*, *the immune system*, *antibiotics* and *vaccination*. Contents were first presented in the Natural Sciences class and, afterwards, English as a FL (EFL) lessons

incorporated the topic while integrating the different linguistic skills. Next, we display a sample of these EFL in-class activities.

Remembering and Understanding. *Going to the doctor I – Vocabulary and structures on the topic of health.* As an introduction to the topic, the students watch a short health-related video, do an activity to check comprehension, and then brainstorm on the different stages that we follow when we feel pain and need to go to the doctor. First, in groups of four, they think of the possible minor ailments that a person may feel (e.g. *to have a rash*, *a sprained ankle*, etc.). The teacher has some visual aids prepared to facilitate the understanding of new words/phrases. After that, and in order to concentrate on the vocabulary provided, they play taboo:

each group is divided into two pairs playing against each other. Each pair is allotted three minutes and given a deck of flashcards. One of the members has to pick one card at a time and describe its contents to his/her partner, who will try and guess the word/phrase, e.g. *it's what happens to you when you spend too much time under the sun without applying any sunscreen –you get sunburnt*. At the end of the three minutes, they count how many words they guessed and the winners are those with more correct guesses. Finally, again in pairs, they choose an ailment and develop a dialogue on going to the doctor and explaining their symptoms in order to get a treatment, thus reviewing questions and answers.

Applying. *Going to the doctor II – Role play.* Now that they have the outline of a dialogue and have learnt the vocabulary related to minor ailments, every student is assigned a role, either patient or doctor, and is given a set of cards with either the treatments or symptoms for a series of ailments. The patient randomly chooses an ailment, explains the symptoms to the doctor, and the doctor has to locate them in his set of cards and prescribe the treatment indicated there.

Understanding and Creating. *Learning about epidemics in the world I – Epidemics in the media.* The teacher writes a series of terms on the blackboard related to epidemics and their spread (e.g. *epidemics, pandemics, outbreak, quarantine, vaccination, etc.*) and elicits their meaning. Then, students watch a trailer of the film *Contagion*, which presents them with an epidemic outbreak. After that, they need to draw a storyline of the film, focusing especially on anything they hear relating to the words on the blackboard.

For the following lesson, they have to look for a piece of news in the media on an outbreak of a disease in the world in the recent past, for instance *ebola*. They should take notes and write a summary (around 100 words) on that piece of news and post it on the blog of the

subject, making sure they provide an answer to the questions on the *what, who, when, where, how and why* of the story. Some suggestions on what to be mentioned include: the location where it started; the disease and an explanation of it; the number of people infected and, if any, the casualties it cost; what treatments were administered; whether it was eradicated; and whether any prevention plans have been developed afterwards.

Analysing and evaluating. *Learning about epidemics in the world II – An interactive tool to monitor diseases around the world.* In the English subject's blog learners find a very comprehensive report on diseases that have spread around the world in recent times. They are next presented with a tool: www.healthmap.org, which consists of "*an established global leader in utilizing online informal sources for disease outbreak monitoring and real-time surveillance of emerging public health threats*". After watching a presentation video and checking comprehension with a listening exercise, in pairs students become familiar with the interface of the website and start to explore the applications it offers. They have to choose either a location, and track down the diseases in the area, or a disease, and track down its spreading pattern, taking notes of their findings, to share them with the class by the end of the lesson.

Understanding. *Becoming experts on a disease I – Searching the net.* Students are presented with the final project of the unit. In groups of four, they choose a disease, either viral or bacterial, from a given list. They subdivide the groups in pairs to enter the Internet so as to gather as much information as possible regarding its *cause, transmission, symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention*. The teacher suggests a series of sites to facilitate the task, such as the WHO organisation webpage.

Analysing and Evaluating. *Becoming experts on a disease II – Disease ID card.* With the information

previously collated, the students get together with their groups of four and put it all in common, making a schematic summary with the most relevant points, and fill in the Disease ID card

(see *Illustration 1*), which will then be uploaded in the English subject's blog so that everyone can access all of the Disease ID cards of the rest of their classmates.

DISEASE ID

NAME: *Tuberculosis (TB)*

- CAUSE:
 - ✓ Bacterial
 - *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*
- TRANSMISSION:
 - ✓ Through the air
- SYMPTOMS:
 - ✓ cough
 - ✓ weight loss
 - ✓ loss of appetite
 - ✓ fever
 - ✓ night sweats
 - ✓ lack of energy
- DIAGNOSIS:
 - ✓ Skin test
 - ✓ Blood test
- TREATMENT:
 - Medication:
 - ✓ Isoniazid
 - ✓ other antibiotics
- PREVENTION:
 - ✓ stay away from people who have the disease
 - If not possible...
 - ✓ Avoid long periods of time in enclosed rooms with someone who has TB
 - ✓ Air out those rooms regularly
 - ✓ Cover your face with a mask

DISEASE ID

NAME: *Hepatitis B (HBV)*

- CAUSE:
 - ✓ Viral
 - Hepatitis virus type B
- TRANSMISSION:
 - ✓ Blood or other body fluids of an infected person
- SYMPTOMS:
 - ✓ dark urine
 - ✓ loss of appetite
 - ✓ fever
 - ✓ abdominal pain
 - ✓ weakness
 - ✓ yellowing of eyes and skin
- DIAGNOSIS:
 - ✓ Blood test
- TREATMENT:
 - ✓ Antiviral medication (if chronic)
 - ✓ Immunoglobulin
 - ✓ Bed rest
 - ✓ Liver transplant (if severe)
- PREVENTION:
 - ✓ Hepatitis B vaccine
 - ✓ Avoid contact with blood of an infected person

Illustration 1. Disease ID cards: Tuberculosis and Hepatitis B examples

Applying and Creating. *Becoming experts on a disease III – Spoken production: oral presentation.* Students have to present the information gathered to their classmates as if they were researchers informing a body of doctors on a newly found disease and the treatments available in the market, together with the prevention measures that need to be adopted from now onwards. First, they watch a series of videos on real conferences to exemplify the task. After that, they develop a plan of the contents to be tackled, and once they have the teacher's approval, move on to develop their presentation with the help of some visual aids such as slideshows, to finally present it orally to the rest of the class.

Analysing, Evaluating and Creating. *Becoming experts on a disease IV – Diagnosing a disease.* In pairs, students are assigned a role: doctor or patient. They have to enter the English subject's blog where they have access to all of the Disease ID cards they developed in a previous

activity. The patient chooses one of the diseases randomly and simulates a visit to the doctor (practised earlier in the unit). From the patient's symptoms and by checking the cards, the doctor has to diagnose the disease and prescribe a treatment.

COMMENTS ON THE ACTIVITIES PROPOSED

As previously stated, we should not overlook the fact that since we are dealing with a linguistic subject, this proposal needs to combine language-related activities for everyday interaction with others more content-focused. Therefore, the first activities proposed serve the purpose of acquainting students with everyday vocabulary (BICS) on *Health and Disease*, and should include exercises that require the use of the different receptive and productive linguistic skills, as well as the use of the language through specific vocabulary and grammatical structures. After that, students retrieve the knowledge acquired in the

Natural Sciences sessions and put it into practice through a series of activities combining again receptive and productive skills while developing their academic language (CALP) further. Visual aids and collaborative tasks help make the content more cognitively accessible. The use of new technologies and, in particular, of a blog for the subject also contributes to engaging learners with the tasks and provides a space for them to share materials and comments, so that it is all stored and can be later retrieved to review the contents of the subject. A sample of this blog can be visited at: <https://englishclil3.wordpress.com>.

The activities presented herein have been named after the stages in Bloom's Taxonomy in order to reflect the suitability of this framework to accommodate the cognitive skills that the actual integration of content and language demands. Besides, they are designed in accordance with the 4Cs Conceptual Framework that encompasses the four essential categories presented by Coyle (1999), and intend to facilitate the integration of content learning (Content and Cognition) and language learning (Communication and Cultures) (see Coyle, 2006). New pedagogical approaches should have a sound theoretical basis and be always accompanied by reflective practice.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The classroom practices outlined in this article are in line with the view that CLIL stands as a

possible solution to increase FL knowledge, thus contributing to learners' desirable multilingualism (Merino and Lasagabaster, in press), if properly combined with formal instruction. Juan-Garau (2012: 234) refers to these two learning contexts being complementary, "so that the skills and forms learnt in one setting may be transferred to a different setting". While CLIL contributes to the development of language competences such as receptive skills, vocabulary and morphology (Dalton-Puffer, 2008), formal instruction contexts, i.e. FL lessons, are especially beneficial to the development of communicative skills and grammar. Juan-Garau (2012) concludes that the acquisition of the FL and the development of multilingual skills are maximised when we take full advantage of the complementarity of the diverse contexts of instruction.

With the present proposal we intend to take the *integration* that CLIL proposes further. While the integration of language and content in a single subject may not suffice, having the FL and the content subject work together and complement each other could have a higher potential of success. This is, in fact, what new trends in teaching are aiming (see, e.g., Jing, 2006; Nunn, 2006): to present a holistic configuration of lessons as close as possible to real life, where different abilities and contents are blended and where there are no boundaries to the development of the students' cognitive skills.

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CONOCIMIENTO, LENGUA Y COSMOVISIÓN: REFLEXIONES SOBRE AICLE Y LA EDUCACIÓN BILINGÜE

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Abstract: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) represents a revolutionary approach to knowledge in contexts of bilingual education: language is both a vehicle of communication and a tool to access disciplinary knowledge, i.e. the content of the subjects that make up the curriculum. In this article, we explore the concept of CLIL from a historical and critical standpoint, as a timely response to an age characterized by historical acceleration on an unprecedented scale in the history of humankind (except for the Industrial Revolution) and as a new educational approach that allows for a more holistic approach to human knowledge, which is itself a network of closely interrelated concepts, even if curriculum design appears to split it up into seemingly unconnected subjects or disciplines. In addition, we look at the innumerable reasons why it is necessary to learn languages (both modern and classical) in a new century and millennium, in a world whose main richness lies in the linguistic and cultural diversity of human ecology, in knowledge and in creativity.

Resumen: El Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) ha supuesto un verdadero giro de gran calado en el tratamiento del conocimiento en contextos de enseñanza bilingüe: la lengua se convierte en vehículo de comunicación y en herramienta de acceso a los saberes propios de las disciplinas de contenido que conforman el currículum escolar. En el presente artículo abordamos el concepto de AICLE desde un prisma histórico-crítico, como enfoque que responde a una época de aceleración histórica sin precedentes en la historia de la humanidad (exceptuando acaso la Revolución Industrial) y que posibilita un acercamiento más holístico al conocimiento humano, que es una constelación de saberes interrelacionados, aunque los diseños curriculares se empeñen en atomizarlo en áreas o materias aparentemente inconexas entre sí. Asimismo, reflexionamos acerca de la diversidad de razones por las que es preciso aprender lenguas (modernas y clásicas) en los albores de un nuevo siglo y milenio, en medio de un mundo cuya principal riqueza radica sin ambages en la diversidad lingüística y cultural de la ecología humana, en el conocimiento y la creatividad.

Keywords: AICLE, educación bilingüe, lengua, conocimiento, cosmovisión.

Palabras clave: CLIL, bilingual education, language, knowledge, worldview.

CRISOL DE LENGUAS: LA VOZ DE LA HUMANIDAD

La especie humana es políglota desde los comienzos de los tiempos, y el mundo es un lugar polifónico en el que se dejan escuchar

múltiples voces (humanas y no humanas)¹ en diversas lenguas. La lengua es una herramienta de comunicación e interacción con los demás, pero también es un poderosísimo instrumento para la construcción colectiva y social del sentido y del conocimiento humano. Como

tal, el conocimiento es poder y garantiza la supervivencia de la especie humana. La escuela participa de esa labor: de la perpetuación de la especie y de sus conocimientos, de una constelación de valores, de una cosmovisión, de la cultura con mayúsculas. Todo ello se transmite a las nuevas generaciones a través de la escuela como institución socializadora encargada de hacer perdurable todo cuanto consideramos preciado y que hemos ido conquistando tras sucesivas civilizaciones sobre la faz de la Tierra. Como apunta el filósofo Fernando Savater, la misión de la escuela es precisamente contagiar humanidad y vivir consiste en contagiarnos humanidad los unos a los otros. La escuela es una de las vías más decisivas y eficaces de propagación de esta necesaria enfermedad. Dice así Savater:

Los demás seres vivos nacen ya siendo lo que definitivamente son, lo que irremediablemente van a ser pase lo que pase, mientras que de los humanos lo más que parece prudente decir es que nacemos para la humanidad. Nuestra humanidad biológica necesita una confirmación posterior, algo así como un segundo nacimiento en el que por medio de nuestro propio esfuerzo y de la relación con otros humanos se confirme definitivamente el primero. Hay que nacer para humano, pero sólo llegamos plenamente a serlo cuando los demás nos contagian su humanidad a propósito... y con nuestra complicidad. La condición humana es en parte espontaneidad natural pero también deliberación artificial: llegar a ser humano del todo —sea humano bueno o humano malo— es siempre un arte. (1997: 11)

El ser humano es *homo loquens*, criatura simbólica que habla, y la lengua es, como apuntaba con gran clarividencia Martin Heidegger, “la casa del ser”.² Dicho de otro modo, el lenguaje define nuestra humanidad de modo inequívoco y nos distingue de las demás especies. Vivimos en un mundo plurilingüe y multicultural, en que conviven pueblos que hablan lenguas

diversas y abrazan distintas culturas desde tiempos inmemoriales. La escuela, en calidad de institución encargada de perpetuar el inmenso legado cultural de los seres humanos, no ha permanecido al margen de esta realidad insoslayable. De hecho, en la última década, hemos asistido a la democratización del aprendizaje de lenguas, a un proceso de cambio profundo sin precedentes en la historia de la humanidad. Si antes el aprendizaje de idiomas era prerrogativa de las élites, ahora la escuela trata de garantizarle a la ciudadanía el acceso universal a las lenguas, esas realidades que salvan abismos y acercan sensibilidades dispares. Asimismo, el enfoque AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas) o CLIL (*Content and Language Integrated Learning*) ha supuesto un verdadero giro copernicano en el tratamiento del conocimiento humano en las aulas: las lenguas extranjeras se convierten en vehículo de comunicación y en herramienta de acceso a los saberes propios de las distintas disciplinas que conforman el currículum escolar.

Como no podía ser de otro modo, y siguiendo las directrices en materia lingüística dictadas por la propia Unión Europea, las administraciones educativas han apostado por dar un impulso decisivo a todas las políticas encaminadas a reforzar la dimensión plurilingüe y multicultural que ha de impregnar necesariamente una educación de calidad en el contexto de la escuela pública. En el caso de Andalucía, en el año 2015 se cumplió una década desde que se aprobara el *Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo. Una política lingüística para la sociedad andaluza* (2005),³ un documento esencial del que han emanado diversas actuaciones que han reforzado la mejora de la competencia en comunicación lingüística en lenguas extranjeras del cuerpo docente y del alumnado. Y es que, en un mundo cada más globalizado, el dominio pragmático y funcional de idiomas abre puertas y ventanas, y nos acerca a la riqueza consustancial a la especie humana en sus diversas manifestaciones. El lema del nuevo Programa Erasmus+ (2014-2020), “Changing

lives, opening minds”, es elocuente en este sentido. Cambiar las vidas y abrir las mentes de criaturas cosmopolitas que viven en el mundo actual, o mejorar la competencia comunicativa intercultural de la ciudadanía: ese es el objetivo último del aprendizaje de lenguas en el siglo XXI. Probablemente, lo haya sido desde siempre.

Las lenguas del mundo conforman una suerte de ecosistema lingüístico de gigantescas proporciones que es preciso cuidar y cultivar con excelencia. Del mismo modo que es necesario conservar la biodiversidad, la riqueza de formas de vida (zoológicas y botánicas) que pueblan el mundo, también es preciso velar por que las lenguas se enriquezcan y por que la ciudadanía aprenda a comunicarse a través de estas herramientas vivas que posibilitan la expresión de infinitos significados. Más aún: las lenguas están inextricablemente unidas a la cultura y a toda una visión del mundo, de ahí que, como parte esencial del común legado humano, haya que cuidarlas, enseñarlas, pulirlas, convertirlas en sutiles herramientas de pensamiento y conocimiento. En este sentido, a propósito de la necesidad de preservar la diversidad lingüística que ha caracterizado al mundo desde tiempos inmemoriales, David Crystal sostiene en *Language Death* lo siguiente:

If diversity is a prerequisite for successful humanity, then the preservation of linguistic diversity is essential, for language lies at the heart of what it means to be human. If the development of multiple cultures is so important, then the role of languages becomes critical, for cultures are chiefly transmitted through spoken and written languages. Accordingly, when language transmission breaks down, through language death, there is a serious loss of inherited knowledge. (2002: 34)

Existen otras razones de índole pragmática por las que es preciso aprender idiomas. El aprendizaje de lenguas es beneficioso para el

cuerpo y la mente. Esto venía a decirnos un artículo de divulgación científica titulado “Gray Matter. Why Bilinguals Are Smarter”, de Yudhijit Bhattacharjee, publicado por The New York Times en 2012. Uno de los pasajes cruciales de ese artículo rezaba así:

Speaking two languages rather than just one has obvious practical benefits in an increasingly globalized world. But in recent years, scientists have begun to show that the advantages of bilingualism are even more fundamental than being able to converse with a wider range of people. Being bilingual makes you smarter. It can have a profound effect on your brain, improving cognitive skills not related to language and even shielding against dementia in old age. This view of bilingualism is remarkably different from the understanding of bilingualism through much of the 20th century. Researchers, educators and policy makers long considered a second language to be an interference, cognitively speaking, that hindered a child’s academic and intellectual development. They were not wrong about the interference: there is ample evidence that in a bilingual’s brain both language systems are active even when he is using only one language, thus creating situations in which one system obstructs the other. But this interference, researchers are finding out, isn’t so much a handicap as a blessing in disguise. It forces the brain to resolve internal conflict, giving the mind a workout that strengthens its cognitive muscles.

En el mundo en que nos ha tocado vivir es, pues, indispensable aprender otras lenguas aparte de la materna. De hecho, se calcula que entre la mitad y un tercio de la población mundial (casi siete mil millones de seres humanos) es bilingüe, esto es: es capaz de comunicarse con soltura y funcionalidad en al menos dos lenguas humanas.⁴ Existen innumerables razones por las que es preciso aprender lenguas:

(1) **Razones puramente cognitivas e intelectuales.** Los últimos avances de la neurolingüística han desvelado que el aprendizaje de lenguas es beneficioso para el cuerpo y la mente humana, pues contribuye a un decisivo aumento del rendimiento cognitivo, a una mayor flexibilidad mental al movilizar más áreas cerebrales, a una gran agilidad mental para asimilar conceptos lingüísticos y matemáticos, a una mayor concentración y capacidad de atención, a un elevado rendimiento en la ejecución de tareas diversas de forma simultánea (*multi-tasking*), y al retraso del deterioro cognitivo del cerebro y a la prevención de la aparición de enfermedades como la demencia senil y el Alzheimer.

(2) **Razones educativas, culturales y lingüísticas.** El aprendizaje de áreas no lingüísticas (ANL) a través de una lengua extranjera (L2) potencia la adquisición de contenidos, agudiza la conciencia lingüística del aprendiz hacia su propia lengua y otras lenguas extranjeras, mejora el rendimiento en las tareas escolares, supone una experiencia enriquecedora por el conocimiento de lo otro o lo diverso que cultiva la empatía y la solidaridad, cultiva en profundidad la competencia lingüística y plurilingüe (esto es: un *saber hacer* con las palabras palpable en las cinco destrezas comunicativas del *Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas*, habilidades de escucha, mayor capacidad de comunicación, comprensión metalingüística más profunda de la estructura de las lenguas), y estimula el diálogo intercultural (el interés y la curiosidad por otras culturas y tradiciones).

(3) **Razones personales, sociales y emocionales.** El aprendizaje de lenguas promueve la inclusión social y la integración de personas de distintos lugares del mundo, potencia la autoestima, la capacidad de socialización y el bienestar emocional de la persona.

Asimismo, aprender otras lenguas le permite al ser humano poder comunicarse con personas de otros entornos culturales y comprender la cosmovisión y la lógica de pensamiento de otras culturas; acceder a una ingente cantidad de información y conocimiento de interés cultural, científico y humano en entornos de aprendizaje formal, no formal e informal; viajar a otros lugares del mundo y moverse con soltura en multitud de circunstancias de la vida cotidiana; y abrirse puertas en el mercado laboral y en distintos escenarios del mundo por razones académicas, profesionales o de ocio.

LA ESENCIA DE AICLE: UNA PERSPECTIVA DIACRÓNICA

Do Coyle et al. definen AICLE en estos términos: “CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language”. (2010: 1) AICLE es, pues, un enfoque educativo en el que se integran el aprendizaje de contenidos de distintas áreas o materias curriculares y el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua. Esto es, se utiliza la L2 como herramienta de comunicación y de acceso al conocimiento de las denominadas ANL (“áreas no estrictamente lingüísticas”), áreas o materias de contenido. Se trata de fusión, integración o armonización de contenidos y lenguas, de un acercamiento más holístico al currículum, de una experiencia de aprendizaje más integrada e integradora para el propio estudiante. Este enfoque se está extendiendo en distintos sistemas educativos europeos (Holanda, Bélgica, Italia, Alemania y Noruega, entre otros) por el potencial que encierra, así como por sus bondades ya contrastadas por evidencias y estudios sólidos aportados por la comunidad científica internacional.

Con todo, AICLE no surge a partir de la nada (*nihil novum sub sole*), sino que tiene

sus precedentes históricos en la historia de la humanidad y no está desligado de la propia evolución de la educación.⁵ Existió una suerte de proto-AICLE hace siglos o incluso milenios.⁶ Aprender cualquier disciplina en una lengua que no es la materna es una experiencia tan ancestral como la propia humanidad, como el propio concepto de educación en sentido lato, que comienza a gestarse en Europa con la *paideia* griega. Desde la cuna del mundo occidental (esto es, desde la antigüedad grecolatina), encontramos ilustres ejemplos de aprendices políglotas: Lucio Anneo Séneca cursó estudios en latín y griego; Marco Aurelio escribió sus célebres *Meditaciones* en griego clásico, lengua vehicular de cultura, y empleó el latín para menesteres vinculados a la gestión del imperio; y el arqueólogo alemán Heinrich Schliemann, el descubridor de Troya o de los superpuestas ciudades de Troya en el montículo de Hisarlik, llegó a aprender varias lenguas clásicas y modernas de forma autodidacta con un método basado en la lectura de clásicos y en la traducción. También encontramos épocas sensibles a la diversidad de voces humanas: el latín como lengua de cultura en el Medievo, el amor por la palabra de los *umanisti* del Renacimiento europeo, y la fascinación por las lenguas que acompañó a la eclosión de la Filología a partir del siglo XVIII y del siglo XIX (véanse, en este sentido, el nacimiento de la Gramática Comparada, la búsqueda del origen de las lenguas humanas y el estudio del indoeuropeo como lengua madre de las habladas en este continente) son algunos de esos hitos esenciales en la historia europea.

En el mundo occidental, el aprendizaje de lenguas ha sido, además, señal inequívoca de una educación exquisita entre las clases pudientes.⁷ Pero no olvidemos que, desde siempre, ha existido un bilingüismo en las capas profundas de la intrahistoria, como ocurrió en los vastos territorios de la Roma imperial en su momento de mayor apogeo, en los que cualquier pequeño comerciante, soldado o esclavo era

bilingüe a un nivel funcional y pragmático,⁸ o como fue el caso de intelectuales y escritores de modesta procedencia social tales como Ezra Pound, Rainer Maria Rilke o Czeslaw Milosz, que se hicieron con el conocimiento de varias lenguas. Las familias con medios y grandes dosis de poder de la antigua Roma educaban a sus hijos en griego para que tuvieran más oportunidades en la vida social y profesional, para ostentar a lo largo de su *cursus honorum* responsabilidades vetadas a las capas más humildes. Pero, en nuestro *Zeitgeist*, está a flor de piel la conciencia de que el plurilingüismo y la multiculturalidad son dos de los grandes rasgos definitorios de la sociedad del siglo XXI. El acceso al aprendizaje de lenguas ya no es una prerrogativa de las élites o clases más privilegiadas. Somos testigos de una verdadera democratización del aprendizaje de lenguas en el seno de la escuela pública, fenómeno que se ha producido como resultado de la globalización, el impacto de las nuevas tecnologías y de cambios profundos en el tratamiento, almacenamiento y transmisión de la información y del conocimiento a escala planetaria.

EL ACERCAMIENTO HOLÍSTICO AL CONOCIMIENTO HUMANO

AICLE/CLIL es un enfoque que responde a los desafíos de una época o cambio de época en que estamos asistiendo a una verdadera aceleración en los cambios que afectan a la humanidad en su totalidad. En la era de la globalización (movimientos migratorios, mayor movilidad de la población a escala planetaria, la aldea global de la que hablaba Marshall McLuhan⁹), de la convergencia y divergencia económica, de las tecnologías de la información y el conocimiento (TIC), en la Sociedad del Conocimiento (que no es sinónimo de ‘información’), las grandes riquezas radican más que nunca en la inteligencia, creatividad e ideas humanas, en nuestra capacidad para afrontar de forma colectiva y solidaria los desafíos de un mundo cambiante a un ritmo vertiginoso, tales como

el cambio climático, la degradación del medio ambiente, la inestabilidad política, el abismo entre Norte/Sur, la desigualdad e injusticia, el terrorismo internacional y diversas formas de violencia estructurales y sistémicas.

AICLE permite llevar a cabo un acercamiento más global, integrado y holístico al conocimiento humano, más allá de los compartimentos estancos de las disciplinas que conforman el currículum escolar, que no deja de ser una estilización de la cultura, del conjunto de saberes considerados imprescindibles por una comunidad humana que deben ser transmitidos a los miembros más jóvenes de la tribu. AICLE no es trasvasar sin más los contenidos de las ANL a la L2, ni tampoco es un mero entrenamiento en la traducción a pesar de su valor incommensurable. Supone convertir el contenido de las ANL en motor y alma del aprendizaje de la L2 sin olvidar la necesidad de que el alumnado asimile los contenidos específicos de las áreas o materias curriculares; supone trabajar las cinco destrezas lingüísticas del *Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas* de forma equilibrada, integrada y sensata; implica colocar al estudiante en el centro mismo del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje y darle motivos suficientes para necesitar usar la L2 para comunicarse, para asimilar los contenidos de las ANL y aprender con un claro propósito. Pero AICLE también implica utilizar recursos auténticos extraídos de distintas fuentes para adaptarlos a las necesidades del aula bilingüe, emplear el libro de texto como una herramienta más de enseñanza-aprendizaje, y potenciar la adquisición y el desarrollo de las competencias clave, que subrayan la importancia del conocimiento en acción para la resolución de problemas en sentido lato de forma creativa. AICLE significa *hacer cosas con las palabras*: con ellas nos comunicamos, interactuamos, transmitimos nuestras ideas, hallazgos e intuiciones más valiosas, aprendemos, construimos de forma cooperativa el conocimiento, nos modelamos como aprendices y moldeamos nuestra propia

identidad, tarea compleja que se prolonga a lo largo de toda una vida. No se trata de enseñar una disciplina en una lengua extranjera, sino *con* o *mediante* esa lengua, sin olvidarnos ni del fondo ni de la forma, trazando puentes y vasos comunicantes entre las distintas áreas o materias que conforman el conocimiento humano, que es una unidad rica, poliédrica y cambiante. Se trata, pues, de un enfoque integrador que persigue la convergencia, la fusión y la integración, en vez de la fragmentación o atomización del conocimiento en parcelas aparentemente inconexas entre sí.

Una de las grandes bazas o fortalezas de AICLE es precisamente la autenticidad del propósito de aprender una lengua con fines concretos y claros. El aprendiz participa activamente en el aula, adquiere conocimientos y destrezas mediante un proceso indagador, reflexivo, movilizándolo procesos, mecanismos y resortes cognitivos simples y complejos. El docente de áreas no lingüísticas no es ya el depositario o garante absoluto del conocimiento en el aula, sino el facilitador, el mediador, el intermediario entre el estudiante y el saber. Es el que empodera al estudiante, lo acompaña y le muestra el camino. En este sentido, la metodología (esto es, los modos como gestionamos el conocimiento, la convivencia y las emociones en el aula) es crucial. Es preciso cuidar el contenido y la lengua con suma diligencia en el microcosmos del aula, y prestar una atención exquisita a los modelos discursivos, géneros textuales y recursos lingüísticos que activamos en el tratamiento del conocimiento en el aula, pero también a los procesos cognitivos, pues el cerebro sigue siendo el órgano del aprendizaje. En una clase AICLE, el alumnado no solo debe aprender los contenidos propios del área o materia, sino también la lengua con la que reflexionar acerca de ellos y asimilarlos, lo que implica aprender la lengua académica o el discurso propio de la disciplina, que no deja de ser una especie de lengua extranjera incluso en la propia lengua materna. En el modelo de las cuatro

C propuesto por Do Coyle et al. en *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (2010), la constelación decisiva la conforman el contenido (los saberes disciplinares que conforman el currículum), la comunicación (las lenguas de instrucción, materna y extranjeras, que son vehículo de comunicación y aprendizaje en el aula), la cognición (lo que ocurre en la mente, interés de la neurociencia) y la cultura (que es el otro elemento imprescindible ligado a la lengua). A menudo nos olvidamos de que la construcción del conocimiento es una actividad social que discurre por los cauces de expresión de las lenguas humanas,¹⁰ preciado legado que es preciso conservar, proteger y cultivar con excelencia. Y no hay mejor manera de honrar a una lengua que aprendiéndola.

Lo verdaderamente conmovedor de cuanto advertimos a propósito del enfoque AICLE/CLIL es una sensibilidad hacia todo lo humano y no humano en toda su diversidad y plenitud. Como anunciara Aristóteles en su *Metafísica*,¹¹ un texto seminal de la cuna de la Filosofía occidental, es propio de la esencia del ser humano aspirar a adquirir conocimiento sobre las cosas, por puro amor al saber – ese, intuimos, es etimológicamente el espíritu griego de la filosofía (φιλοσοφία) o el amor a la sabiduría –, de igual modo que existe una apetencia universal de felicidad común a todos los seres humanos, como anunciara Séneca en su brevísimo tratado *De vita beata*.¹² En el caso de AICLE nos hallamos claramente ante un enfoque humanista, sensible a la riqueza de la ecología humana y al potencial que encierra en sí todo individuo, no solo por el simple hecho de colocar a las lenguas y al conocimiento como expresión secular de todas las intuiciones y hallazgos valiosos de la humanidad en el centro mismo de la agenda educativa, sino porque, además, atiende a la propia diversidad humana que es palpable en el microcosmos del aula, no se olvida de los distintos estilos de aprendizaje e inteligencias múltiples de los aprendices, genera experiencias de aprendizaje memorables que impliquen

a todos y cada uno de los estudiantes como criaturas sensitivas y racionales, y persigue crear entornos de confianza que cuidan la construcción solidaria y cooperativa del conocimiento. En este sentido, en un inolvidable microrrelato titulado “Familia”, incluido en *Los hijos de los días*, el autor uruguayo Eduardo Galeano nos recuerda el sentido elemental de pertenencia a algo más complejo que nos trasciende en nuestra (a veces) mezquina subjetividad y nos vincula con todo lo vivo, que no es necesaria o exclusivamente humano:

Según se sabe en el África negra y en la América indígena, tu familia es tu aldea completa, con todos sus vivos y sus muertos.

Y tu parentela no termina en los humanos.
Tu familia también te habla en la crepitación del fuego,
en el rumor del agua que corre,
en la respiración del bosque,
en las voces del viento,
en la furia del trueno,
en la lluvia que te besa
y en el canterío de los pájaros que saludan tus pasos. (2012: 257)

Hace más de dos mil años, Platón llegó a proferir en la sección 314b del diálogo Protágoras las siguientes palabras: “μαθήματα δὲ οὐκ ἔστιν ἐν ἄλλῳ ἀγγεῖῳ ἀπενεγκεῖν, ἀλλ’ ἀνάγκη καταθέντα τὴν τιμὴν τὸ μάθημα ἐν αὐτῇ τῇ ψυχῇ•” En castellano, la intuición primordial de Platón viene a significar algo parecido a esto: “Es imposible llevarse el conocimiento metido en una vasija; una vez que has pagado el precio del saber, inevitablemente forma parte de tu propio ser”. Siglos más tarde, en uno de sus ensayos recopilados en *The Stubborn Structure*, el crítico literario y pensador Northrop Frye observó algo similar con su acostumbrada lucidez: “The knowledge of most worth, whatever it may be, is not something one has: it is something one is.” (1970: 3) El conocimiento más valioso, sea

cual fuere su naturaleza u objeto, no es algo que uno posea, sino algo que uno es. Llegamos a ser lo que sabemos, afirmaba Platón siguiendo los pasos de Sócrates. De estirpe claramente socrática, el enfoque AICLE nos recuerda que el aprendizaje sigue siendo la vocación última de los seres humanos de todas las épocas y latitudes, y que el verdadero conocimiento (no el superficial, que se queda en lo anecdótico y superfluo, sino el que indaga las ligaduras profundas en la urdimbre del saber humano) acaba por incorporarse al ser mismo del aprendiz. AICLE despierta en el alumnado la curiosidad por descubrir el mundo que le rodea y por perfeccionar el empleo de las lenguas como poderosas herramientas en su enfrente intelectual con la realidad, promueve entre los aprendices el interés por el conocimiento

(científico y humanístico) que han ido destilando las generaciones de hombres y mujeres que se han sucedido en la Tierra, e inculca en los estudiantes el valor inconmensurable de los múltiples alfabetismos (*pluriliteracies*) para poder integrarse plenamente a la Sociedad del Conocimiento. En los albores del siglo XXI, las grandes riquezas de nuestro mundo siguen siendo las que encierran los propios seres humanos dentro de sí: capacidades insospechadas para ampliar los dominios del conocimiento gracias a la creatividad, la cooperación y la solidaridad. Son precisamente todo ese bagaje de saberes y esa riqueza lingüística, cultural e intelectual de la vasta ecología humana los que AICLE, enfoque claramente humanista, hace visible, pone en valor y cultiva en el aula.

NOTAS

1. El mundo está plagado de voces no humanas como las de aves y diversas especies animales, pero también de voces no animadas como las de la lluvia, el mar o el murmullo del viento en las hojas de los árboles, así como de ruidos procedentes de un sinfín de máquinas que pueblan nuestros ecosistemas urbanos.
2. En *Unterwegs zur Sprache* (1959), escribe Heidegger: "Der Mensch spricht nur, indem er der Sprache entspricht. Die Sprache spricht. Ihr Sprechen spricht für uns im Gesprochenen. [...] Die Sprache ist das Haus des Seins". Veáanse p. 30 y p. 156 de la traducción al castellano. En una obra clásica como *Language* (1921), Edward Sapir decía palabras tan elocuentes y certeras como estas: "Language is the most massive and inclusive art we know, a mountainous and anonymous work of unconscious generations" (1921: 220). O lo que es lo mismo: la lengua es el arte más enorme e inclusivo que conocemos, una obra anónima de proporciones gigantescas, fruto de la labor callada de las innumerables generaciones que se suceden implacablemente en el tiempo. Y, a propósito de la unicidad de las lenguas humanas y de la grave pérdida que supone su extinción, el lingüista Michael Krauss afirma lo siguiente en el ensayo titulado "The World's Languages in Crisis": "any language is a supreme achievement of a uniquely human collective genius, as divine and endless a mystery as a living organism" A saber: "cualquier lengua es un excelso logro del genio colectivo propio de la humanidad, un misterio tan divino e infinito como un organismo vivo". Citado por David Crystal en *Language Death*, p. 36.
3. Como reza la introducción de este documento clave, "la lengua es un elemento clave de nuestras vidas: "Somos seres que sabemos pensar y expresarnos e intercambiar ideas, gracias al uso de la lengua, de ahí que cualquier debate que implique imaginar cómo tenemos que estar en una nueva

o renovada sociedad o civilización, se tiene que hacer necesariamente conociendo en qué lengua nos vamos a expresar, cuál va a ser la lengua común y de qué modo se utilizarán las lenguas de origen, cuya diversidad es fuente de riqueza y un patrimonio de la humanidad” (2005: 10).

4. A lo largo de los años han existido diversas tentativas de definición del concepto de “bilingüismo”. Por citar solo un puñado de las más relevantes, recordemos las célebres palabras de Leonard Bloomfield, para quien “ser bilingüe” significa estar dotado de un idéntico dominio de dos lenguas: “where ... perfect foreign-language learning is not accompanied by loss of the native language, it results in bilingualism, native-like control of two languages” (1933: 55-56). O las de Weinrich, para quien “The practice of alternately using two languages will be called ‘bilingualism’, and the persons involved, ‘bilingual’” (1953: 1). O, por último, las de David Crystal: “people are bilingual when they achieve native-like fluency in each language. But this criterion is far too strong. People who have ‘perfect’ fluency in two languages do exist, but they are the exception, not the rule. The vast majority of bilinguals do not have an equal command of their two languages... [...] Scholars now tend to think of bilingual ability as a continuum: bilingual people will find themselves at different points on this continuum, with a minority approaching the theoretical ideal of perfect, balanced control of both languages, but most being some way from it, and some having very limited ability indeed” (1997: 362).
5. En el contexto occidental, la extensión de la educación como derecho fundamental hasta alcanzar a todos los ciudadanos y ciudadanas constituye un hito histórico en el progreso y la evolución de las sociedades modernas. En este sentido, el derecho a la educación se ha ido configurando a lo largo de los tiempos como un derecho básico o elemental, y los Estados modernos han asumido su provisión como un servicio público prioritario. En las primeras grandes civilizaciones de la Antigüedad (India, Egipto, China, Mesopotamia) y en el mundo clásico grecolatino, la educación formal es un privilegio de los miembros de las élites sociales que llevan las riendas políticas y ostentan el derecho a la toma de decisiones que afectan a los destinos de los pueblos. Desde la Antigüedad hasta la Revolución Francesa de 1789, la educación formal se desarrolla en espacios aún más privativos que en la época clásica. Así, en plena Edad Media, la Iglesia se convierte en la gran custodia del saber atesorado durante siglos entre los gruesos muros de los monasterios. Habrá que aguardar hasta el Quattrocento italiano para que figuras como Petrarca redescubran el legado grecolatino y el valor edificante del estudio de las letras y las ciencias antiguas. Así lo reivindicaron los llamados umanisti en los siglos siguientes con el advenimiento del Humanismo y el Renacimiento. Pero ni siquiera la invención de la imprenta por Johannes Gutenberg logró democratizar el acceso a la cultura, que es una de las bases elementales en que se sustenta la educación. La educación siguió siendo un privilegio de pocos: de eruditos, hombres de Iglesia, nobles y aristócratas. A partir de la Revolución Francesa, se producen ya los primeros intentos de generalización del derecho a la educación como consecuencia de la Revolución Industrial, que precisaba de obreros y técnicos con una formación mínima específica. Así, la concepción de la educación como servicio público comienza a gestarse en pleno Siglo de las Luces, es hija de la Ilustración, y se ajusta a los moldes de la producción o montaje en cadena de las fábricas del siglo XIX, como ha demostrado convincentemente Ken Robinson en múltiples conferencias como “Changing Paradigms in Education”. Con el desarrollo de las sociedades post-industriales, se produce un proceso de democratización que facilita el acceso de toda la población a niveles de educación cada vez más elevados. Esta eclosión supone una gran conquista social en el siglo XX y se halla en un período de revisión profunda en los albores del siglo XXI.
6. En Uncovering CLIL, Mehisto, Marsh y Frigols apuntan lo siguiente: “CLIL practice has a much longer history. The first known CLIL-type programme dates back some 5000 years to what is

now modern-day Iraq. The Akkadians, who conquered the Sumerians, wanted to learn the local language. To this end, Sumerian was used as a medium of instruction to teach several subjects to the Akkadians, including theology, botany and zoology. If Sumerian instructors were true to the basic principles of CLIL, they supported the learning of Sumerian, as well as the learning of the content in theology, botany and zoology” (2008: 9). Así pues, el primer programa proto-AICLE se remonta cinco mil años atrás a lo que es la actual Irak. Los acadios, que conquistaron a los sumerios y deseaban aprender la lengua vernácula, emplearon el sumerio como lengua de instrucción para enseñar disciplinas tan diversas como la teología, la botánica y la zoología. Y si fueron fieles a los principios más elementales de AICLE, entonces enseñaron tanto la lengua sumeria como los contenidos propios de esas disciplinas al mismo tiempo.

7. Mehisto et al. reflexionan sobre este asunto: “In Europe, in more recent centuries, many people have understood the value of multilingualism. However, bilingual or multilingual education seemed, above all, a privilege belonging to the wealthy. The well-to-do hired governesses or tutors who spoke to their children in a foreign tongue with the express purpose of having them become fluent in another language. Some people sent their children abroad to study in private schools” (2008: 9). El aprendizaje de lenguas era, pues, una experiencia privilegiada reservada a las clases sociales que podían permitirse o bien tener a una institutriz o tutor que les hablase a sus hijos e hijas en otra lengua en una especie de inmersión lingüística doméstica, o bien enviarlos a estudiar a escuelas privadas en el extranjero. El caso de África, continente políglota y con una población en clara situación de desventaja económica, merece una especial mención aquí. El panorama actual sigue siendo de una desoladora desigualdad estructural: existe una estrecha relación entre el derecho de la educación y el desarrollo socio-económico de cada sociedad. Así, en los países subdesarrollados, el derecho a la educación se ve seriamente mermado por falta de una financiación adecuada, por la escasez de medios humanos y recursos materiales, por estructuras educativas desarticuladas, por una gran restricción en el acceso al sistema educativo, por una corta duración de la escolaridad básica y por una marcada desconexión con el sistema productivo.
8. En *Bilingualism and the Latin Language*, uno de los libros fundamentales sobre el bilingüismo en la antigüedad grecolatina, A. J. Adams afirma: “In the vast expanses of the Roman Empire, where mobility was high among such groups as the army, administrative personnel, traders and slaves, language contact was a fact of everyday life.” (2003: 1) En *Bilingualism in the Ancient World*, el mismo autor apunta lo siguiente: “ancient societies were constantly interacting and developing through language” (2002: 20).
9. En *Understanding Media* (1964: 6), el canadiense MacLuhan describe cómo la tecnología había hecho del mundo una aldea global. En sus escritos posteriores, siguió explorando el concepto de *global village* y reflexionando sobre cómo la posibilidad de enviar información de forma instantánea a cualquier lugar del planeta a través de distintos cauces tecnológicos había convertido a la Tierra en un lugar más pequeño e interconectado.
10. Que la lengua está ligada a la cultura e identidad de un pueblo, a toda una cosmovisión del mundo y al conocimiento humano es una de esas verdades sencillas que suelen pasar desapercibidas. Ortega y Gasset adivinaba la íntima conexión entre estos conceptos fundamentales en su ensayo “Miseria y esplendor de la traducción”: “Y es que el mundo que rodea al hombre no se presenta originariamente con articulaciones inequívocas. O dicho de modo más claro: el mundo, tal y como él se nos ofrece, no está compuesto de “cosas” radicalmente separadas y francamente distintas. Hallamos en él infinitas diferencias, pero estas diferencias no son absolutas. [...] Lo primero que el hombre ha hecho en su enfrente intelectual con el mundo es clasificar los fenómenos, dividir lo que ante sí halla, en clases. A cada una de estas clases se

atribuye un signo de su voz, y esto es el lenguaje. Pero el mundo nos propone innumerables clasificaciones y no nos impone ninguna. De aquí que cada pueblo cortase el volátil del mundo de modo diferente, hiciese una obra cisoria distinta, y por eso hay idiomas tan diversos con distinta gramática y distinto vocabulario o semantismo. Esa clasificación primigenia es la primera suposición que se hizo sobre cuál es la verdad del mundo, es, por tanto, el primer conocimiento. He aquí por qué, en un principio, hablar fue conocer. [...] Las lenguas nos separan e incomunican, no porque sean, en cuanto lenguas, distintas, sino porque proceden de cuadros mentales diferentes, de sistemas intelectuales dispares –en última instancia–, de filosofías divergentes. No sólo hablamos en una lengua determinada, sino que pensamos deslizándonos intelectualmente por carriles preestablecidos a los cuales nos adscribe nuestro *destino verbal*” (*Obras completas*, Vol. V, 1964, pp. 446-447).

11. La *Metafísica* de Aristóteles comienza literalmente con estas palabras: “Todos los hombres por naturaleza desean saber. Señal de ello es el amor a las sensaciones. Éstas, en efecto, son amadas por sí mismas, incluso al margen de su utilidad y más que todas las demás, las sensaciones visuales” (2007: 69).
12. Escribe Séneca al comienzo de su tratado: “*Todos los hombres, hermano Galión, quieren vivir felices*” (2004: 41).

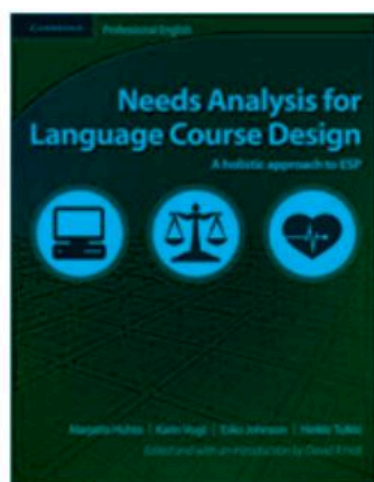
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NEEDS ANALYSIS FOR LANGUAGE COURSE DESIGN: A HOLISTIC APPROACH TO ESP. CAMBRIDGE: CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS

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*Cambridge University
Press, 2013*



In the last few decades, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has made considerable progress in an attempt to cater to the language and communicative needs of numerous professional and academic contexts. Needs

Analysis (henceforth NA) is considered the cornerstone of ESP in that, aiming at collecting information about the learners and the present and target situations in which the language will be used, it plays a vital role in the process of designing and implementing a language course. In fact this is highlighted by Mohammadi and Mousavi (2013: 1019) when they argue that “the efficiency of any ESP course depends, for the most part, on the quality of the NA.”

The concept of NA has evolved over the decades. At its initial stage it consisted in assessing the communicative needs of the learners and the techniques for achieving specific teaching objectives. At that time needs analyses were based on teacher intuitions and sometimes informal analyses of students’ needs (Paltridge and Starfield, 2013). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54), probably the first most thorough and widely known work on NA was John Munby’s *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978), for which he developed the *Communication Needs Processor* (CNP). As Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54) posit, “[w]ith the development of the CNP it seemed as if ESP had come of age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had

been provided and all that course designers had to do was to operate it.” Despite revolutionising the field of NA, this framework brought about much criticism, for it was too time-consuming and did not involve the learner: this model did not collect data from the learner, but rather about the learner. Considering this scenario, the work by Huhta, Vogt, Johnson and Tulkki (2013) has provided important insights for the field of ESP in general and for that of NA in particular. Drawing on former models of NA, these authors put forward a new, dynamic, collaborative and inclusive model for identifying the needs of the target workplace in which students will be embedded.

In their book, Huhta *et al.* (2013) start by reconceptualising NA and its importance in the elaboration of ESP programmes. After that, the authors identify the sections of the Common European Framework (CEF) that match the specialist content and the needs of English in the workplace and use this framework for providing benchmarks for course design and evaluation, which they employ for the creation of the *Common European Framework for Professional Profiles* (abbreviated to CEF Professional Profiles, and henceforth CEFPP). The aim of this Europe-wide

initiative was to devise professional, field-specific language proficiency profiles, which resulted in some generic profiles and the guidelines for their application in ESP course design.

Moreover, since Huhta *et al.* believe that the specificity of ESP is more a question of context reliance rather than occupation or profession, they suggest emphasising professional purposes and referring to the professional community contexts, thus coining the term *Language and Communication for Professional Purposes* (LCPP) –although for practical reasons they still use the term ESP.

In this line, we can say that the CEFPP broadens the field of Language and Communication for Professional Purposes (LCPP) or ESP in that its theoretical underpinnings are sociological rather than linguistic or pedagogical and it looks holistically at language and communication, including the sociocultural environment of the domain. Thus, it envisages interlocutors from a mix of professions and jobs, their communication objectives, specialist contents and discursive practices, which all materialise in language learning situations in which communicative events through texts of various genres play a central role. Huhta *et al.* (2013: 30)

claim that even though the CEFPP framework is largely based on the CEF –where the action-oriented approach is central–, the CEF is “too general to describe a specifically professional communication situation adequately”. Therefore, while the CEFPP are explicitly based on categories of the framework, they avoid the scales and descriptors. Rather, to create these profiles, the CEFPP project used a triangulation of sources and methods, resorting to both quantitative and qualitative data –the latter being predominant. The methods used were text-based analysis on the content of different kinds of informational material related to the professional domain such as job descriptions, curricula and syllabi for qualifications in the professional field, and semi-structured interviews (the questions are available at Huhta *et al.*, 2013: 29). As the authors explain, professionals working in companies and other organisations in various fields were interviewed, and language curricula of the institutes providing vocational and professional language and communication studies were examined. Professionals were requested to give information on the situations in which they needed languages and the extent of that need, as well as on the most typical and demanding situations in

which they were required to use the language.

Each CEF Professional Profile is divided into the following parts (Huhta *et al.*, 2013: 31):

- a) Target profession. This includes background information on the profile, the nature of the target profession, the training and qualifications necessary to enter the profession, and what specialisations can be pursued by professionals in the domain.
- b) Occupational information. This section includes examples of occupations in the domain, typical organisations or companies in which such professionals can be found working, typical examples of job descriptions that relate to overall tasks in the domain, and the role that the foreign language usually plays in this job. As the authors explain, this section is somewhat general and is meant to provide the novice language teachers with relevant background information of the occupational field with which they may not be familiar.
- c) Context information. This category is the one related to the CEF, and comprises aspects such as locations, persons,

- communities, companies and institutions, communicative situations (in terms of tasks to be accomplished) and texts, both for the work environment and for the prior training or study situation.
- d) The most frequent routine situations.
 - e) The most demanding situations. These two parts offer descriptions of professional communication situations in which communicative tasks have to be accomplished, ranging from the least to the most demanding.
 - f) Snapshots. This section describes “day-in-the-life” narratives, or snapshots, of the professionals in the domain. This snapshot can take the form of a story detailing the events in a single working day or, alternatively, an inventory of all the routines in

the current work of a professional.

As can be observed, the major concern of the framework has been to produce guidelines on how to apply the information in the profiles to design ESP courses. Moreover, as the authors explain, the profiles are meant to serve a twofold purpose: first, they seek to provide course designers with a solid empirical basis for curriculum planning; and second, they aim to provide the basis for tailor-made language courses in other fields.

The most outstanding elements of the framework are (1) its foundation on an evidence-based approach to NA, which provides detailed instructions on how to identify needs and design courses accordingly, and (2) its inclusiveness, as it involves all the stakeholders taking part in course design, thus

accommodating the different perceptions of students, teachers, sponsors, etc. from the macro- to the meso-level (section 2.3.2). Finally, the framework illustrates an action-oriented, task-based approach to NA which “goes beyond traditional approaches and which can provide a way forward for professionals in language for professional purposes and LSP in a complex world” (Huhta *et al.*, 2013: 7).

All in all, the book is reader-friendly in that it takes the reader from more general and theoretical aspects of ESP and NA, towards the description and application of the new model, which undoubtedly results in a useful toolkit for both ESP course designers and novice and learned researchers.

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