



---

# **Universidad de Valladolid**

FACULTAD de FILOSOFÍA Y LETRAS  
DEPARTAMENTO de FILOLOGÍA INGLESA  
Grado en Estudios Ingleses

## TRABAJO DE FIN DE GRADO

An account of EFL contexts in Spanish schools:  
methodologies, attainment and new approaches

Sara Arquiaga García

25 June 2015

Tutor: Raquel Fernández Fuertes

2014-215



## ABSTRACT

The present dissertation offers a panoramic view of the status of English as a foreign language in Spain. It focuses on some of the main aspects that influence the teaching/learning of English as a foreign language. These aspects include the following: the international and national language policies followed in the country, different methodologies used for the teaching of English as a foreign language, and the issues that affect the teaching/learning process. The final aim of this dissertation is to offer a diagnostic of the low English proficiency level in Spain, and to point to different methodologies, both implemented and more recent ones, for the teaching of English as a foreign language that can make an improvement and, therefore, change this low proficiency tendency.

**Keywords:** English as a foreign language, Spain, low proficiency, methodologies, CLIL, translanguaging.

## RESUMEN

La presente disertación ofrece una visión panorámica sobre la situación del inglés como lengua extranjera en España. La disertación se centra en diferentes aspectos que influyen en la enseñanza y el aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera, entre los que se incluyen los siguientes: las políticas internacionales y nacionales implantadas en el país, las diferentes metodologías utilizadas en la enseñanza del inglés y los diferentes factores que intervienen en el proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera. El objetivo final de esta disertación es ofrecer un diagnóstico sobre el bajo nivel de inglés que existe en España y señalar posibles metodologías para la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera, tanto las ya implementadas como otras más recientes, para la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera que puedan suponer una mejora y así corregir la tendencia del bajo nivel de inglés que existe en el país.

**Palabras clave:** inglés como lengua extranjera, España, bajo dominio, metodologías, CLIL, translanguaging.



## INDEX

1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. THE DIAGNOSTIC: THE STATE OF THE ART OF ENGLISH IN SPAIN .....	3
2.1 Knowledge of English: Foreign language policies.....	3
2.1.1 Strategies for multilingualism in Europe .....	3
2.1.2 Educational policies in Spain .....	6
2.2 Knowledge of English: How the information is brought to people .....	7
3. ENGLISH TEACHING IN SPAIN: METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES.....	12
3.1 Schema theory .....	13
3.2 Genre-based pedagogies .....	14
3.3 Bilingual education: CLIL .....	16
3.4 Translanguaging.....	19
3.4.1 How is translanguaging useful in pedagogy? .....	20
3.4.2 Effectiveness of translanguaging in pedagogy across nations .....	21
4. ISSUES AFFECTING THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH .....	22
4.1 Age .....	22
4.1.1 Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device (LAD) .....	23
4.1.2 Language acquisition vs. language learning .....	23
4.2 Proficiency .....	27
4.3 Motivation .....	28
5. ISSUES AFFECTING THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH .....	29
5.1 The role of teachers.....	30
5.2 Nativeness .....	31
5.3 Assessment.....	33
6. LANGUAGE AREAS FOR THE LEARNING/TEACHING OF ENGLISH.....	34
6.1 Morphology .....	34
6.2 Syntax/Grammar .....	35
6.3 Phonetics/Phonology .....	35
6.4 Lexicon/Vocabulary .....	36
7. CONCLUSIONS.....	36
REFERENCES .....	39



## 1. INTRODUCTION

English is recognized as one of the most important languages in the world, being in constant use all of the time in different places and situations. According to the website *Ethnologue* (2015), this language ranks as the third most spoken language in the list of *Languages with at least 50 million first-language speakers*, positioned after Chinese and Spanish. It is undeniably a very important tool and vehicle in this globalized world. However, it is surprising to find out that the general English level of proficiency performed by the Spanish population is quite low when compared to the rest of Europe, as it will be further discussed in this dissertation.

Even though the teaching of English is recently increasing in Spain – bilingual schools have become quite popular in the country, an idea that will be later developed – the truth is that Spanish people, on average, lack a good knowledge and understanding of this foreign language. In this respect, Lendoiro (2014) argues that nowadays parents' obsession is having their children to learn English; reality, however, shows that, even though Spanish children are exposed to this foreign language (also called second language or L2) since the age of three, once they grow up they just reach a medium level of English.

As Carter points out in a newspaper's interview (in Lendoiro 2014), there are big obstacles that Spanish people have to overcome when learning a foreign language. She is the founder of a website that encourages early bilingualism<sup>1</sup>, and in particular she identifies a pedagogical problem in the process used to teach the foreign language. She affirms that English is taught following the inverse process of the one we go through when learning our first language (also called native language or L1). Carter argues that the different language skills are not taught in the right order; we are first taught how to write, then how to read, to be taught how to talk later, and to listen in the end. From her point of view, the Spanish approach aims at understanding the language and not at being able to make oneself understood, thus lacking its communicative aspect.

This issue regarding the limited knowledge of English in Spain needs to be addressed. However, finding an adequate teaching system and, therefore, a solution is not simple. In the succeeding parts of this dissertation the actual situation of English in Spain will be

---

<sup>1</sup> The term *bilingualism* is quite loose as it has been defined in many different ways depending on the focus of study (see Butler and Hakuta 2004). In the present dissertation, the term *bilingualism* is used to refer to an institutional or educational context in which the native language (Spanish in this case) co-exists in a higher or lower degree with a non-native language (English in this case).

presented including a review of the different methodologies used, the objectives attained in each case and the new approaches that are being developed in the teaching of foreign languages. Section 2 is meant as a diagnostic of the situation of the teaching of English in Spain under a global perspective, including the different (national and international) policies and regulations adopted by the country. Section 3 provides an overview of some of the main approaches to the teaching of English as a foreign language, some of which are being implemented in Spain, with special attention to two approaches to bilingualism: CLIL and translanguaging. Sections 4 and 5 offer an analysis of the different issues affecting the learning/teaching of English as a foreign language from the perspective of both the students and the teacher. Moreover, section 6 includes a review of the language areas and skills since it is important to understand the complexity of language learning, and the factors involved in the two processes of teaching and learning a foreign language. Finally, section 7 provides a final conclusion of this contextualization and overview of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) contexts in Spain in general and in Spanish schools in particular.

Ultimately, the final aim of this dissertation is, by offering a panoramic view of the status of English as a foreign language in Spain, to point to possible alternatives that can successfully address the problem of low proficiency in Spain by implementing different, and possibly more effective, techniques that take up the teaching/learning of English from a different point of view.



## **2. THE DIAGNOSTIC: THE STATE OF THE ART OF ENGLISH IN SPAIN**

This section offers an overview of the situation of the English language in Spain, in the context of both national and international regulations, in order to provide a diagnostic of the country's attitude towards this language.

The language policies put forward by different official organizations and agencies that, in one way or another, diagnose or watch over the knowledge of English organizations are presented below. Finally, a more down-to-earth approach is adopted in that the general population is rarely aware of these regulations and policies themselves and is rather familiar with the information that in this respect appears in the media

### **2.1 Knowledge of English: Foreign language policies**

This section presents both the European and the Spanish regulations regarding the knowledge of foreign languages. The organizations discussed below are in charge of legislating the approaches to foreign languages that should be followed across the territory.

#### **2.1.1 Strategies for multilingualism in Europe**

In Europe, *The Council of the European Union* is responsible for enforcing the strategies for multilingualism that must be adopted at an international level. These regulations are published in the *Resolution of May 7 2014*.

The Council's Resolution considers a series of conclusions that were reached in previous meetings in order to develop its plan: first, the great need for implementing a bilingual education across Europe in order to improve the command of certain skills, as it was expressed in The Barcelona European Council meeting in March 2002; then, the recognition of the mastery of foreign languages as something crucial for the progression of European citizens and for the job market; and after this, and considering Europe as a place of heterogeneity and linguistic diversity, the identification of multilingualism as the medium of communication in the continent. Thus, multilingualism is set as every European citizen's goal since, even though there are visible progressions, there are still

great differences across countries regarding the degree of proficiency in foreign languages.

All in all, the Council agrees on a common framework for multilingualism in Europe which all European countries should follow in order to be able to build bridges across the different European nations. All this is planned so as to achieve a balanced command of foreign languages all across the continent. Moreover, the Council also created *the Common European Framework* which is established as the reference for all Europe. Its function is to evaluate and classify the levels of proficiency, making it possible to trace the progression of the learners. For this purpose, the Council created the *Common Reference Levels* which are general guidelines that frame the different levels of proficiency in a foreign language according to different criteria (as shown in Table 1 below). Therefore, countries, institutions, schools, and other organizations concerned with the teaching of foreign languages are able to categorize the different levels that are to be taught or that have been achieved by learners.

TABLE 1. COMMON REFERENCE LEVELS: GLOBAL SCALE

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Source: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment

Table 1 displays the three broad levels of proficiency which are A, B and C (basic user, independent user, and proficient user respectively), and the two sublevels in which each of them is divided. This creates a total of 6 different levels of proficiency in which language learners can be classified.

However, the aforesaid policies and regulations work at an international level, and every country must have its specific national legislations that comply with the European requirements.

### **2.1.2. Educational policies in Spain**

Spain has its own educational policies that must be adopted all across the country. It is important to analyze these educational policies in order to see the strategies followed for the incorporation of English in schools. The regulations made by the Spanish Ministry of Education of the Spanish government regarding education are what shape the methods implemented in all public schools of Spain.

As stated in the Organic Law of education 2/2006, issued by the Spanish Government through the *Boletín del Estado Español* (Official State Bulletin - BOE), one of the aims of the Spanish educational system is to enlighten students so that they become capable of communicating in the official, co-official, and foreign language(s). It establishes the last stage of pre-school, when children are three years old, as the point in which a first contact with a foreign language must be introduced. Moreover, it recognizes that communicative skills should begin to be used at this stage as well, being developed gradually in subsequent school years. However, it does not provide any specific indication on how these regulations must be put into practice. Every autonomous region shall approach the teaching of foreign languages in the way they consider to be the best.

Strikingly, the BOE does not specifically mention English, naming foreign languages in a broad way. It is then necessary to look at the autonomous region legislation to see how they establish the implementation of English in schools; and particularly to the regulation of Castile and Leon appearing in the *Boletín Oficial de Castilla y León* (Official Bulletin of Castile and Leon - BOCYL), specifically to the decree 52/2007 of May 17, supplement to N 99, which stipulates how the secondary education has to be organized.

This decree establishes the implementation of foreign languages in schools, at the same time as it regulates the creation of bilingual sections in public schools where students will attain knowledge about the subjects in both languages (in Spanish and in the foreign language). This means that Spain accepts two different approaches to foreign languages; one approach consists of introducing languages other than Spanish as a subject, and the other approach is that which integrates foreign languages in the process of teaching other subjects in the curriculum. In this last case, however, the integration of the foreign language is restricted to less than the 50% of the children's total school hours. By recognizing Spain as part of the European Union – a multicultural and multilingual continent – and in acknowledgment of the importance of foreign languages and

communication skills as a vehicle, it expresses the urge for Spain to adapt to the new European identity. It is, therefore, a fundamental goal to instill the value of the communicative aspect of foreign languages into the students. In this respect, and in order to facilitate the development of linguistic, pragmatic and socio-pragmatic competences, the teaching plan of foreign languages has been divided into four sections: 1) listening and speaking, 2) reading and writing, 3) knowledge of the language, and 4) socio-cultural aspects. The criteria used for the evaluation of the students' progress with regards to these foreign languages is the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (see Table 1 above) following the model used across Europe.

Even though the decree names two different methodologies in order to incorporate foreign languages to the Spanish schooling programs, there is no clear and explicit statement towards the relevance of English as *lingua franca*. It is considered as one of the foreign languages that must be taught, but it is not differentiated from French or Italian. Neither the BOE, nor the BOCYL stressed the great value of English in their publications, nor did they provide clear principles or a common methodology for its implementation.

It is important to say that the studies and reports that organizations such as the Spanish government and the Council of the European Union elaborate are rarely read by common people. The data and the statistic studies that these organizations gather and create are presented to us in an indirect way, as shown in section 2.2.

## **2.2 Knowledge of English: How the information is brought to people**

Newspapers and magazines are the link between the agencies and organizations above mentioned and the general population. They are in charge of disseminating all kinds of facts about what is happening in the world; they are what people read because they consider them to be reliable and accessible sources of information. These publications are the key to raise people's awareness about languages, their importance, and their country's situation in this respect. This section includes some pieces of information presented by different newspapers about Spain's situation regarding English level.

Spanish people seem to underestimate the importance of English as a vehicular language as there has not been real concern about the low level of this foreign language

in Spain. The Spanish newspaper *El Mundo* published in 2012 that only over a 35.5% of the population affirmed to know English; and within that percentage, only 2 out of 10 people mastered the language at a high level. According to this article, these data were provided by the INE<sup>2</sup> throughout a survey that was last carried out in 2007, when the results showed that those having certain knowledge on English comprised 30% of the population. This means that in a period of 5 years, from 2007 to 2012, the percentage of people knowing this foreign language only increased by 5% in Spain. At the same time, the article concludes that age acts as an important factor in the learning of a language, being the younger population the one that is most engaged in this activity.

The rather passive attitude towards English adopted in Spain is undeniable. However, the Spanish working and economic situation is changing, and Spanish people need to find alternatives. Frangoul (2013) argues that Spanish people are becoming more interested in learning this foreign language than ever before, mostly because of the recession happening in the country. In this regard, English is seen as an important and positive aspect when it comes to hiring someone for a job. People with a good knowledge of English seem to be more qualified and prepared for certain types of jobs, mostly those belonging to the business world, as their knowledge of the language works as an important bridge of communication between enterprises and customers. What all this shows is that the former situation of English in Spain was that of a language that did not raise great interest, and that it is going through a period of prosperity only because of Spain's difficult social and economic circumstances.

Even though the number of English speakers has barely increased in Spain, it has been enough to place the country in a good position regarding the level of English on a global scale. As published in *La Vanguardia* (2014), from 2007 to 2012 Spain is the 23<sup>rd</sup> country on the world rank for non-English speaking countries according to the EPI<sup>3</sup> study

---

<sup>2</sup> The *Instituto Nacional de Estadística* (the Spanish Statistics National Institute), created in 1945, is the institution that works for the Spanish Ministry of Economy, but as an autonomous organism. It is responsible for the creation and composition of statistical reports.

<sup>3</sup> *English Proficiency Index* is the first world classification of English proficiency, created by the organization Education First. This classification is published annually, and it studies the level of English across the world in the educational, professional and social spheres.

carried out by the EF<sup>4</sup> organization. These figures are good regarding the world average, as it is a list of 63 countries and Spain is positioned in the “medium level” classification.

Nowadays, in the year 2015, the EPI shows a progress in Spain with respect to the knowledge of the English language, having moved up 3 positions in the rank of non-English speaking countries referred to in *La Vanguardia* (2014). As shown in Figure 1 below, this is a positive improvement that should be kept in the same line, encouraging the learning of the language by presenting it as a powerful, helpful and fundamental tool in everyone’s life. English should be shown as an opportunity, as a chance for opening the doors to the real world, a way of communicating, teaching, and learning about the world itself from a different perspective.

FIGURE 1. INTERNATIONAL RANK BY LEVEL OF ENGLISH



Source: EF EPI índice del nivel de inglés (2015)

Figure 1 shows that Spain stands in the middle of the international rank by level of English. It is placed in the 20<sup>th</sup> position, which recognizes the level of English as average.

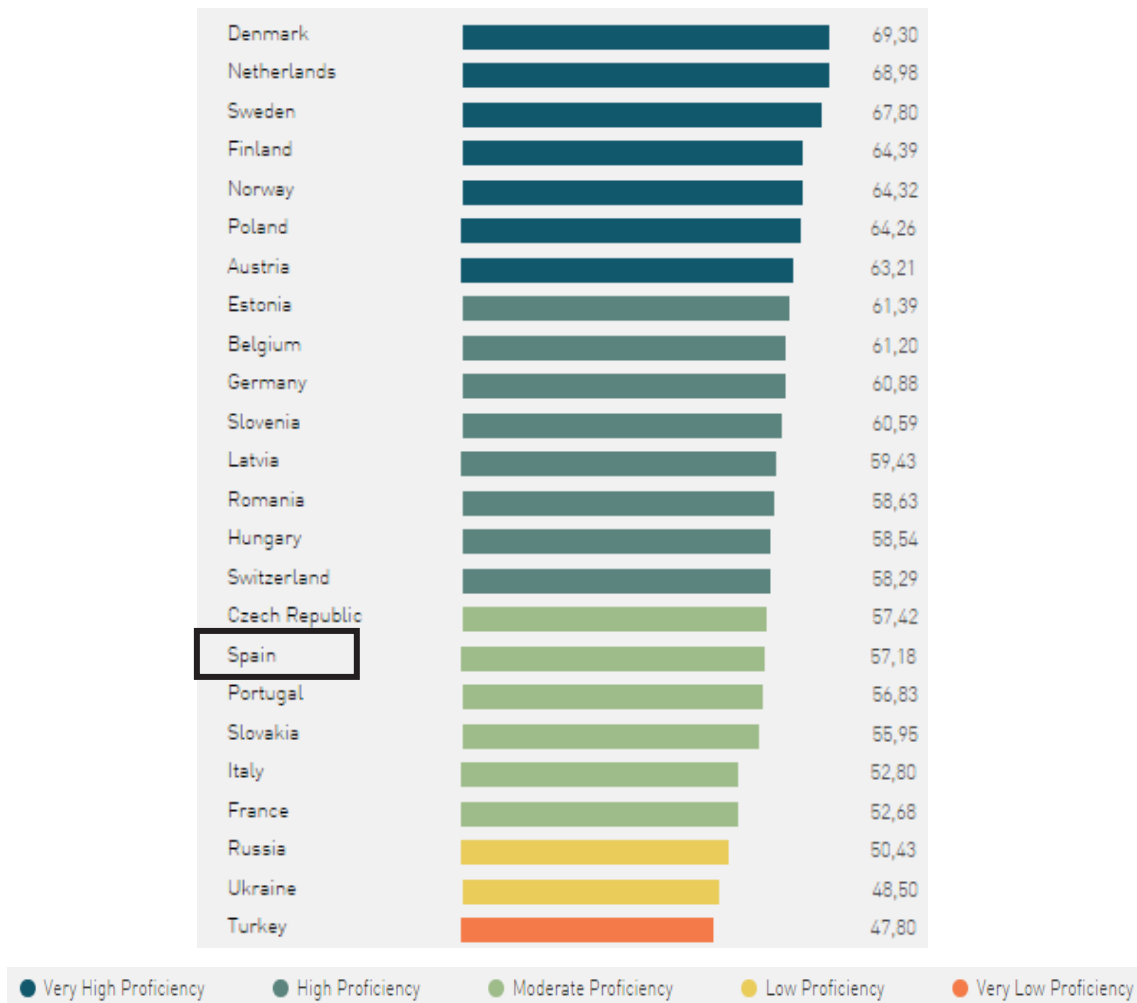
<sup>4</sup> *Education First* is an international company created in 1965 by the Swedish business man Hult. EF began its career over 50 years ago, and the philosophy followed is that experiences enhance the learning experience. Ever since, it has developed its strategies by covering the world of businesses, organizing educative tours and exchange programs with the aim of bringing cultures together.

Nevertheless, what is shown above is still insufficient concerning the general level of the European Union. By 2014, as published in *La Vanguardia* (2014), Spain still stood as one of the worst European countries regarding the level of English. Spanish average English level is B1, taking as the reference the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (see Table 1 in section 2.1.1); this is still far from the proficiency performed by the Nordic countries and those in the central, and east-central Europe (being Sweden, Norway, Holland, Estonia, Denmark, Austria, Finland, Poland, Hungary and Slovenia the top 10 countries of the list). In the same article, McCormick, the director of EF, also identifies the Spanish crisis as the element that triggered the implication in a more active learning of English, just as Frangoul (2013) had done. However, McCormick also acknowledges that Spain is making great improvements in its educational policies (see section 3), and advocates for reasonable and responsible cutbacks, if they have to be made, that do not affect this progression.

The current situation of Spain is that it now stands in the 17<sup>th</sup> position in the EF EPI study list of 24 European countries, as seen in Figure 2 below.



FIGURE 2. EUROPEAN RANK BY LEVEL OF ENGLISH



Source: Europe EF EPI Score (2015)

Figure 2 shows that Spain is in the bottom part of the list for English proficiency in Europe, being in the 17<sup>th</sup> position out of 24. This indicates that, regarding the European level of English, Spain is behind most countries and in the moderate proficiency group together with countries like Portugal, Italy and France.

The Spanish newspaper *20minutos* (2015) published in its online version that Spain is, however, improving its numbers in relation to the learning of English. As a matter of fact, it has been recognized by the EF organization as one of the six countries worldwide that has improved most; Spain has been making progresses in this matter for over seven years now, although there is still a long way to go. In the same way, the article indicates that, as the knowledge of English is graded by the EF organization, the Spanish average is of 57.18 points, slightly above the European average which is 56.92. However, it is also discussed that people ranging from 33 to 44 years old seem to be better prepared and

possess a better knowledge of English than the younger generations, say 25-year-old people. This “generational gap”, as it is referred to in the article, is quite striking, mostly because, as the country’s general interest in this language has increased, so were expected to do the younger generations’. As *Universia*<sup>5</sup> (2015) publishes in its news portal, the recession is still present in the country and so is the unemployment suffered by a considerable percentage of the population. This is why the demand for learning English and for going abroad is increasing; people see that job opportunities will most likely come when there is a better command of this foreign language. Nonetheless, this sudden and temporary migration to English-speaking countries did not need to happen, as it could be seen as something complementary rather than as the only way, if Spain included better foreign language policies as part of its educational system.

There are many and various reasons as to why English needs to be a language Spanish people should be fluent in, as argued by Manivannan (2006). It gives those who speak it great power and control at many different levels because it is a potential bridge to other countries and societies.

It is because of this, and because the teaching systems presently used are rather insufficient, that a more practical, and certainly different approach to the teaching of a foreign language is absolutely necessary. For that to happen, we have to look into the actual teaching situation in Spain.

### **3. ENGLISH TEACHING IN SPAIN: METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES**

After the former evaluation of Spain’s place in the world and in Europe, as well as the actions taken by the Spanish Government in relation to the introduction of the foreign language (i.e. English) in the country, the present section focuses on the approaches to English teaching that are actually being implemented in the classrooms. The description of some innovative approaches to English teaching such as the schema theory approach, the genre-based pedagogies, CLIL, and translanguaging is provided here. They are revolutionary in the sense that they differ from the traditional methods and tackle the situation from a different perspective. However, while the schema theory, the genre-based

---

<sup>5</sup> The most important network of universities in Ibero-America. It is composed of 1345 universities from 23 different countries, and its mission is to work as a bridge between these Ibero-American communities, helping universities to create common projects. It promotes the job market by encouraging university students to initiate their career before graduating.

pedagogies and the CLIL method have all been implemented in Spain to a greater or lesser extent, translanguaging has not yet made its way into the Spanish educational system as it is discussed below.

### **3.1. Schema theory**

The schema theory approach is applied to the teaching of one specific language skill, i.e. reading, although it can be used for the teaching of other language skills such as speaking as well. It works based on the belief that meaning is not something inherent to the text itself, but rather it is the result of each individual's mental processing and association of concepts. This association is possible thanks to the individual's background knowledge. Reading "is a sampling process in which the reader takes the advantage of his knowledge of vocabulary, syntax, and the real world" (Ajideh 2003: 1).

The German philosopher Kant already introduced the idea that our previous knowledge plays an important role when we have to find meaning in new things; he argued that we mentally depict and store representations of things we know from experience (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983: 553; Ajideh 2003: 3). These mental representations are called schemata (plural for schema).

The schema theory approach takes advantage of the schemata of foreign language learners for teaching reading. Students are expected to comprehend the text through cognitive processing and the mental representation of concepts that are drawn from their schemata. In this respect, Stott (2001) argues that, more frequently than not, textbooks attempt to activate the learners' schemata through the process of reading. However, as Carrell (1983) (in Stott 2001) points out, there are two types of schemata: formal and content schemata. While the former schemata consider the background knowledge of the rhetorical structure of the language, the latter refer specifically to an individual's cultural background knowledge. Therefore, the understanding of a text, and the reading and comprehension problems depend, not only on the topic being treated, but also on the cultural knowledge of the students (Stott 2001).

Since cultural differences can create different perspectives, or lead to misunderstandings of what is being read (Stott 2001), assuming that the students will automatically use their schemata is not enough. It is necessary to stimulate the already

existing schemata, and help to the creation of new background knowledge by carrying out specific pre-reading activities that can enable the comprehension of the text learners are about to read, as proposed by Carrell (1988) (in Stott 2001).

Nonetheless, Stott (2001) also stresses the importance of “extensive reading”, where learners are presented with a multitude of texts from which they can also extract valuable information that can be useful for the comprehension of new texts. This extensive reading, thus, creates new knowledge that complements the learners’ schemata.

The implementation of schema theory as a pedagogical technique, and how it can be used in the teaching of English as a foreign language can be seen in Hu’s (2012) study. Hu (2012: 284-285) carried out a three-month experiment on two different groups of students so as to prove the effectiveness of schema theory in the teaching of English listening skills in China in comparison to the traditional methods. The final results showed that the experimental group, who followed the schema theory-based approach, performed better in the post-test of listening comprehension than the control group, whose teacher followed the traditional approach (Hu 2012: 286).

### **3.2. Genre-based pedagogies**

Before analyzing genre-based pedagogies and what they are, it is important to refer to Hyland’s (2007) definition of genre first:

Genre refers to abstract, socially recognized ways of using language. It is based on the idea that members of a community usually have little difficulty in recognising similarities in the texts they use frequently and are able to draw on their repeated experiences with such texts to read, understand, and perhaps write them relatively easily (149).

This approach looks at the different linguistic and social conventions that compose texts depending on their context and purpose (Tuan Trong 2011: 123). Teachers are the ones who possess schemata of “more specialised text genres such as lesson plans, students reports, and feedback sheets bringing a degree of expertise to the ways we understand or write familiar texts” (Hyland 2007 : 150).

Genre-based pedagogies aim at making students aware of the different linguistic aspects and patterns present in the creation of texts, considering them to be a societal product, rather than just a series of words put in order to build ideas.

A genre-based pedagogy study was carried out by Posteguillo and Palmer (2000) in the Spanish university Jaume I so as to show that, in pedagogy, theory and practice can be integrated at the same time. Posteguillo and Palmer (2000) identify a problem in the language teaching process, which is the fact that “theoretical linguistic input is systematically taught separately from practical methodology” (3). They argue that the teaching/learning process should be a thoughtful process; this means teaching students by making them undergo a thinking process where they can make use of their own background knowledge in order to understand the features of the texts they are presented with (Posteguillo and Palmer 2000: 4). In the course ran by Posteguillo and Palmer (2000: 6-7-8) students were provided with research articles, *Byte* articles (a popular scientific magazine in America), and popular science articles they had to analyze. They were asked to focus on the linguistic features of each genre, how these vary across genres, and the characteristics that the three types of genres (i.e. research articles, *Byte* articles, and popular science articles) have in common. Among the many conclusions that could have been reached, students were able to draw, for example, a distinction in the register used in the research articles in comparison to the popular science articles. Apart from that, they were also able to identify that the different articles were addressed to different types of readers. Posteguillo and Palmer (2000: 8) concluded that genres vary from text to text, and that successful learning can be achieved by understanding these differences.

Fan (2014: 8) refers to the success of a genre-based project carried out in Australia. In this project language learners studied the texts first by identifying the characteristics that compose the texts; then they composed a similar text together with the teacher, in order to do the same later but this time individually. As Fan (2014) points out, after this activity, students felt more confident of their language skills. In the same respect, Firkins, Forey and Sengupta (2007) proved in an experiment that the genre-based approach is successful and effective in language teaching for children with learning disabilities as well. Firkins, Forey and Sengupta (2007) argue that they chose to follow this methodology because “language was seen in context and was presented to the learners as part of a complete text and not as unrelated sentences” (3).

All of the aforesaid confirms that genre-based pedagogies turn out to be a beneficial teaching strategy that works by making learners understand the different purposes and features of each genre so that they can later reproduce a text with similar characteristics. Analyzing the texts from the genre-based perspective helps the understanding of its

features, and how these features are used to achieve the different intended purposes, which is a positive aspect to be considered in the sphere of education. The three studies that show how genre-based pedagogies are put into practice (Posteguillo and Palmer 2000; Firkins, Forey, and Sengupta 2007; and Fan 2014) stress that the value of this approach does not only lie in the benefits it has for students; it can also help teachers to decide what genres are the best for the teaching objectives of their classes.

### **3.3 Bilingual education: CLIL**

As stated by Dalton-Puffer (2007: 1), CLIL nowadays is used, mostly in Europe, as an umbrella-term that refers to educational models of bilingualism implanted in this new century. The line that distinguishes what CLIL is and what it is not is difficult to draw. This section aims at giving a general picture of this pedagogical approach, including its implementation in Spanish classrooms, always taking into account that it is not a methodology with strict rules and parameters.

The term CLIL stands for Content and Language Integrated Learning, a teaching methodology that has been implemented in many countries and that uses a foreign language as a language to teach subjects other than the foreign language itself. As Dalton-Puffer (2007) argues, “in Europe [...] the CLIL trend has become particularly visible since the early 1990’s” (2), and it can be defined as a “task-based instruction and assessment of knowledge, skills, and academic language within a content area” (Sherris 2008: 1). This means that the foreign language is integrated in the teaching of different subjects.

According to Marsh (2000), the key is that “CLIL offers opportunities to allow youngsters to use another language naturally, in such a way that they soon forget about the language and only focus on the learning topic.” (6). Therefore, the main role of CLIL is, as Marsh argues, that it creates a natural environment for the language in which students are enabled to learn content in a different context where language works as an important part. Consequently, it is possible to state that the role of CLIL consists of teaching school subjects through the use of a foreign language. It is a twofold strategy because it is double-focused: it seeks the reinforcement of the non-native language, at the same time that it searches for an improved system that helps students to build their knowledge in a consolidated way.

CLIL is not restricted to the implementation of English exclusively but rather of any other foreign language, so that, for instance, in Spain not only English but also French and German are incorporated in the CLIL methodology. However, since this dissertation deals with the teaching/learning of English, all of what follows considers English as the foreign language to be used.

When talking about how CLIL has been implemented in Spain, it is important to begin by saying that, as it has been said before, CLIL is a methodology that does not follow a fixed model. How the foreign language is integrated in the teaching of school subjects differs from place to place. In fact, Spain is a country with many different autonomous regions, and how each one of them is undertaking the CLIL methodology varies. The distribution of Spain consists of 17 autonomous regions and the autonomous cities of Ceuta and Melilla. This vast distribution accounts for great cultural and linguistic diversity, considering that there are monolingual and bilingual regions inside Spain. Therefore, the implementation of a foreign language in Spain takes two forms, as outlined by Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010: x-xi). For already bilingual regions, the implementation of CLIL supposed an improvement in their already established models of bilingualism (for the official and co-official languages.). On the other end, monolingual regions copied the way of proceeding in the bilingual regions, as they were the closest experienced example of how two languages can co-exist in an educational context.

The uncertainty regarding what specific method should be followed in order to integrate English in schools has led educational institutions to take different approaches. Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010: xi) offer a panoramic view in this respect and, for example, they argue that regions such as Andalusia follow the *Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo*, while in La Rioja there are several policy lines such as *Proyectos de Innovación Lingüística en Centros* being set up.

In the case of Castile and Leon, as explained by Gutiérrez (2008: 39) the region got engaged in a cross-cultural approach as early as 1996, signing an agreement between the Spanish Ministry of Education and Culture and the British Council. This offered a direct and real contact with English, and enabled future exchange programs. Moreover, the foreign language experience is reinforced by the figure of a native speaker in the classroom (the so-called language assistants). In the case of elementary schools, these native speakers are called “asesores lingüísticos”, while in secondary school they are referred to as “auxiliares de conversación”. The incorporation of these assistants follows

the same rationale as that of the AETs (Assistant Language Teachers that will be discussed in section 5.2).

Moreover, Gutiérrez (2008: 39-40) points out the Spanish/French model as being pioneer in this practice; it integrated the use of French for the instruction of content subjects such as social sciences or physical education. This served as an example for different educational institutions across the region, and by 2009 there were already 249 schools engaged in a similar project.

However, this new methodology has some weak points that still concern teachers and the educational sphere in general. Berjón Reyero (2008: 122) points out that there might be an important difference between the competences regarding the foreign language that children are expected to achieve and what is expected from them regarding a subject such as social sciences. This means that when CLIL is used to teach social sciences through English, if children's competences in English are significantly lower than those of social sciences, then there exists a gap between the language skills and the subject. Part of the students' linguistic abilities is restrained because they are unable to expand the contents and generate new statements. As Llinares and Whittaker (2007: 90) defend, they are unable to develop ideas and further elaborate a discourse of their own by connecting concepts that create an original content-related output.

It is certainly true that the teachers' formation for an optimal job performance is one of the biggest concerns (Gutiérrez 2008: 43). However, there are different formation courses available as those offered by the University of Valladolid both in Valladolid and in Palencia (Crespo, Fernández Fuertes, González-Cascos 2008: 21).

This model of bilingualism seems to create certain skepticism among people, and parents in particular, as they believe that it does not provide students with the optimal input in order to become bilingual. Sánchez Ludeña (2013) points out that, as Gutierrez (2008) already argued, there is real concern about the lack of proficiency found in the teachers themselves; a problem that can hinder the children's ability to achieve a native-like level in the foreign language. However, in terms of scholastic achievement, CLIL has been proved to be beneficial for both the learning of linguistic and content knowledge, regardless of the fact that there are some linguistic barriers that are still to be overcome.



### 3.4 Translanguaging

The aforementioned CLIL methodology is a means to bilingualism that has already made its way into the Spanish classrooms. However, there exist other models that have never been used in Spain. That is the case of translanguaging, a brand new approach to teaching in these so-called bilingual educational environments that has been implanted in very few countries so far.

Translanguaging is an emerging method which has recently been treated by many experts concerned with bilingualism. It happens to be a growing means of integrating two languages at a time. García (2013) provides the following description:

The term translanguaging was coined in Welsh (*trawsieithu*) by Cen Williams. In its original use, it referred to a pedagogical practice where students are asked to alternate languages for receptive or productive use; for example, students might be asked to read in English and write in Welsh and vice-versa. (2013).

This implies that translanguaging works at different cognitive levels, allowing those who use it to make connections, thus making sense of things, extracting information and creating complete and utter meanings by making associations between the two languages; and this happens because they are able to “incorporate the language practices of school into their own linguistic repertoire freely and flexibly”, as defended by Park (2013: 51).

Concerning the sphere of education, García (2013) describes the use of translanguaging as follows:

A process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include ALL the language practices of students in order to develop new language practices and sustain old ones, communicate and appropriate knowledge, and give voice to new sociopolitical realities by interrogating linguistic inequality.

García’s statement is essential to understand the importance of translanguaging in pedagogy. The fundamental part lies on how students are enabled to apply their own first language practices and knowledge in order to generate new ones that can be implemented in the other language. This system considers both languages (the L1 and the L2) to be at the same level, opposing traditional methods where both languages are treated as separate rather than equal and, what is more, where the use of the L1 needs to be avoided at all costs. At the same time, it helps in the learning process because it immerses children in a mental state where they have to think, and retrieve already existing knowledge in the L1

in order to comprehend the contents. This way the obstacle of understanding is solved because it is the students themselves who manage to draw their own conclusions, hence being able to build their own knowledge from language.

### **3.4.1 How is translanguaging useful in pedagogy?**

In relation to the school strategies used for the teaching of languages, Beres (2015) reviews how the notion of translanguaging has developed over time and across nations in the educational framework. She argues that for a long time “schools have separated the languages used in learning [...] stemmed from a belief that any mixing of two languages might confuse learners and therefore hinder their progress” (Beres 2015: 103), identifying it as the main problem regarding the progression of bilingualism. Spain can relate to this approach to foreign languages, as it has traditionally treated Spanish and English as two separate entities that should never be mixed for teaching purposes.

As far as translanguaging is concerned, bilingualism occurs when the two languages are regarded “as fluid, flexible, and permeable” (Beres 2015: 104), which is the contrary of what has been happening in the past. The idea is that these two languages can be used uniformly, making them work at the same level so as to facilitate the learning process for students. As Parker (2013: 51) explains it, “the languages are, thus, utilized flexibly and strategically so that classroom participants can experience and benefit from the permeability of learning across languages”. Translanguaging aims at promoting the student’s mental processes of learning by allowing them to work in a bidirectional way. The goal is to successfully make both of them interact in order to apply the knowledge of one into the other. Furthermore, García (2013) supports the idea that students should be able to rationalize the complexity of the English language when used in different contexts and situations, putting into practice that incorporation of “linguistic repertoire freely and flexibly” (Park 2013: 51). Nonetheless, she vindicates that the aforesaid is a method that finds several obstacles in its attempt to gain importance in the pedagogical world.

### 3.4.2 Effectiveness of translanguaging in pedagogy across nations

It is difficult to measure the effectiveness of translanguaging in the same terms that would be used for other approaches. This is a new pedagogy that is still being experimented, and whose real outcome is yet uncertain. Nonetheless, those who have experienced their implementation refer to positive results. As a matter of fact, Menken (2006) (in Beres 2015: 106-107) discusses how he found a school in the United States where the teaching of Spanish had not been removed, boosting its use in favor of those students who needed it in order to succeed academically speaking. It was this school which “had increased 50% performance on standardised tests” (Beres 2015: 107). The reason that explains this is that, since this school enabled their students to use their complete knowledge in their native language, they could then reach their full potential by making sense of things in the other language. Moreover, Esquinca (2011) (in Beres 2015: 110), evaluating the learners’ writing productions, was able to conclude that “two Spanish-English college students [...] used a number of resources to help them create mathematical meaning”. Specifically, they were able to discuss about the text in their native language so that they could draw their own mind-map about the subject afterwards. This is, again, the main advantage of translanguaging: it facilitates the mental withdrawal of information.

What can be said is that it is an innovative approach that results to be beneficial for both the learning of languages, and for the acquisition of knowledge through the individual’s own understanding and practices of information processing. Beres (2015: 112) accounts for numerous reasons why translanguaging has been found to be favorable when used in a pedagogical context. The reasons that summarize and highlight the great value of the notion of translanguaging are the following:

- “Translanguaging allows students to use their personal skills and repertoires as they naturally do in their bilingual world”.
- “It is about using this linguistic repertoire in a flexible way in order to gain new knowledge, develop new skills and enhance language practice”.
- “Allowing students to flexibly choose those aspects, which work for them at the time, [...] boosts their confidence as well as their skills”.

Translanguaging aims at reaching an equal understanding of both languages, rejecting the idea that there is a first and a second language totally independent and separated from each other; the native language is just a means of reaching balance between the two of them. It is an approach that has been introduced in classrooms where there are minority groups of bilingual students, such as those in the US with Spanish-speaking children (García 2013). However, that does not mean that the use of translanguaging should be restricted to those groups. Its principles can be applied to foreign language teaching contexts whose target is also bilingualism and bilingual education. In fact, the goals and objectives of translanguaging are, as it has been discussed, not that different from CLIL methodologies.

#### **4. ISSUES AFFECTING THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH**

It is true that the way in which each country and its institutions address the issue of teaching very much influences the outcome of the children's mastery of a subject. The country and its policies, the schools, and the teachers are the external agents that play an important role in education. However, it is also important to look at those issues that affect the learning process of children. Among these issues the following will be discussed below: age, proficiency, and motivation.

##### **4.1 Age**

One of the most important questions in education is when the best time for children to be first exposed to the learning of a foreign language is. Age becomes a determining factor when it comes to the process of learning a foreign language; it delineates how students assimilate the knowledge they have to acquire. Human brains are innately predisposed to develop and attain linguistic structures, as it is discussed in section 4.1.1 below. However this predisposition deteriorates over time.

In order to understand how and why age is a determining factor when learning a foreign language, it is important to refer to Chomsky and his Language Acquisition Device theory first as it will lead to the crucial distinction between acquisition and learning.

#### 4.1.1 Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device (LAD)

Chomsky proposed the theory of the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) in 1950 as an explanation to the rapid and excellent ability of children to acquire a language and to be able to understand structures at very early ages. Chomsky believes that there is a natural predisposition in every individual's brain to learn and understand a language (Diamond 2015). It is an innate ability all individuals use for communicating; this does not mean that children merely copy what they hear, as "they are able to produce proper and unique/novel language" (Malone 2012: 2).

The LAD accounts for the capacity that enables the construction and understanding of language. It applies to all people regardless of their place or culture (Malone 2012: 2), and it is something exclusive of humans, distinguishing us from the rest of living creatures. The more grammatical correlation of the LAD is the notion of Universal Grammar.

Therefore, following Chomsky's theory, the outcome of learning a foreign language will be very different when a child is exposed to the language in earlier stages than when it is introduced in later stages. This is an important argument to consider in the pedagogical sphere where sometimes language exposure is delayed until late ages.

#### 4.1.2 Language acquisition vs. language learning

There are two terms linguists use to differentiate the attainment of languages depending on the age at which first exposure is produced. Age is relevant here because the LAD will make the child gain knowledge of a first language from birth in a different way from that of a foreign language (FL), given that exposure to a FL happens later when the child is older. The distinction is captured in the terms "acquisition" and "learning" and, although they are sometimes used interchangeably, they refer to two different processes of language attainment.

- **Language acquisition:** it refers to the subconscious process happening at early stages (i.e. from birth) through which a language is assimilated without even realizing it is happening (Haynes 2005; Anderson 2007: 1). Children who acquire a language are not aware of the fact that they are actually acquiring it or its linguistic and grammatical rules. Children are unable to explain the rules, but they

know that there are some structures they can perceive as “right” and others as “wrong” (Krashen 1982: 10; Haynes 2005). That is, assuming the innateness of language (i.e. the LAD and Universal Grammar), children acquire their first language from birth, progressively and without the need of instruction; as Anderson (2007: 1) puts it, they undergo language acquisition and can effortlessly produce linguistic output.

- **Language learning:** on the contrary, the learning of a language is a totally different procedure. In this case, children (and adults) undergo a conscious process where they are aware of the knowledge they are learning, and they can talk about the rules they have been taught, as in a metalinguistic process (Haynes 2005). This means that children have a previous base knowledge of a language, namely their first or native language, and they later learn a new language (the second or foreign language), understanding its structures step by step and in most cases relying on the first language structures.

Haynes (2005) points out an important distinction between these two processes: while language acquisition is communicative, language learning is not. This means that acquiring is an innate process through which children learn to communicate by using a specific language. He highlights the fact that learning the rules of a language (language learning) does not imply perfect speaking and writing abilities; as a matter of fact, these learners can lack a good command of these skills. Since acquiring implies a natural and innate method of language learning, it is the one through which a person will be able to attain perfection (i.e. native competence), even though in the initial stages of acquisition imperfect (i.e. non-adult-like) structures are also produced.

Consequently, in order to acquire a language, rather than to learn it, early age exposure is essential. In this regard, Muñoz (2006a) discusses the relation between age and foreign language learning, and refers to the critical period hypothesis. Muñoz (2006a) points to Penfield and Roberts (1959) as the first people to state the existence of said period, and their idea that “there is a critical age for language learning that finishes before puberty (1). However, Penfield and Roberts’ statement was not supported by any actual evidence; it was Lenneberg (1967) who provided scientific evidence that age was relevant (neurologically speaking) since, for instance, neurological recovery was faster for those who had suffered brain damage before puberty. Nonetheless, Muñoz (2006a: 1) believes that the clearest proof that shows that age is an important factor comes from the

acquisition of sign language where evidence “suggests that morphology and syntax may be affected by late acquisition” (1).

Muñoz (2006a: 4) argues that the theories that explain the Critical Period Hypothesis are diverse, and that many researches have tried to explain the notion of the Critical Period (CP) from different perspectives. For example, Penfield and Roberts (1959) refer to the notion of brain plasticity in early ages; Bley-Vroman (1989) believes that adults do not have access to Universal Grammar; and DeKeyser (2000) states that implicit logical reasoning is possible only at early stages (see Lenneberg 1967; Felix 1985; or Long 1990, in Muñoz 2006a: 5 for more hypotheses on the CP). These theories differ with respect to where the learning ability for early learners comes from; however, all researchers agree on seeing late learning as a disadvantage in the process of language learning.

The idea of the CP, mainly used in the case of first language acquisition, is applied to second language learning as well. In this respect, Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979) (in Muñoz 2006a: 2) drew a distinction between *rate* and *ultimate attainment* for late and early second language learners. As Muñoz (2006a: 1) explains it, while older learners may start learning at a higher rate, the early learners will eventually perform better in the long term. This premise was proved to be true in Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle’s (1978) (in Muñoz 2006a: 3-4) study which showed younger learners started to outperform older learners after a long-term exposure to the second language (Dutch in the case of Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle’s study). However, it is still difficult to reach a consensus about what is the age limit for second language learning to be actually successful. There are many theories that point to different age limits (see Lenneberg 1967; Seliger 1978; and Long 1990, in Muñoz 2006a: 6), though they all agree on the existence of a CP crucial for second language attainment. It is important that children are exposed to a foreign language at early stages, and, as Patkowski (2003) (in Muñoz 2006a: 7) argues, it is also essential that the learning of said language is continued over time.

Muñoz (2006a: 7-10) presents diverse evidence coming from school settings that show the early learners do not actually have a great advantage over late learners. However, although this evidence proves that early learners only outperform late learners in some language skills, and that late learners have an advantage due to their mental maturity (see Cummins and Swain 1986; and Turnbull et al. 1998, in Muñoz 2006a: 8), those findings refer to a context of limited exposure to the foreign language. Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) (in Muñoz 2006a: 10) claim that when there is a long-term

exposure, in a naturalistic environment, the old learner's advantage disappears, and it is early learners who start to perform better.

Muñoz (2006a: 13-35) carried out a study to test the effect of age on English learning in a school in Catalonia (Spain). Given that the aim of the study was to see if early exposure was a determining factor in the attainment of a foreign language, two main groups of study, and three subgroups were formed (Muñoz 2006a: 14). The two main groups were composed of learners that began learning English at ages 8 and 11; the three subgroups were as follows: 1) very early learners who began learning English at ages ranging from 2 to 6 years old (although this group was part of a separate sub-study because they belonged to infant and primary education); 2) students who started learning English at age 14; and 3) adults that began learning English at age 18 or older. These groups were tested on the four main language skills: speaking, writing, listening, and reading; and the data were collected at three different points along the study (i.e. after 200, 416, and 726 hours of exposure). Comparisons were drawn between the groups depending on their age of onset (i.e. age at which they began to be exposed to English), classifying the participants as follows: 1) adolescents and adults (ages of onset 14, and 18 and older); 2) learners that began learning English at the beginning of puberty (age of onset 11); and 3) early learners (age of onset 8). Muñoz (2006a: 34) was able to conclude that, even though late learners (ages of onset 14, and 18 and older) outperformed the other two groups the first time the data were collected (after 200 hours of exposure), by the end of the study it was the early learners (age of onset 8) who surpassed the other two groups. This conclusion is in line with the one reached by Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) (in Muñoz 2006a: 10) who stated that the advantage that late learners have is only due to a limited and restricted language exposure.

The research carried out by Muñoz (2006a) on how age affects the learning of a foreign language makes two aspects clear: 1) that early exposure has a positive outcome in language learning— which also proves that there certainly exists a critical period for second language attainment; and 2) that the time of exposure should be prolonged to see real progress in the attainment of a second language.

Therefore, after acknowledging Chomsky's LAD, the distinction between learning and acquiring a language, and Muñoz's (2006a) research on the relation between age and foreign language acquisition, it is reasonable to state that the sooner a person starts being in contact with a language (a foreign language for what concerns this dissertation) the

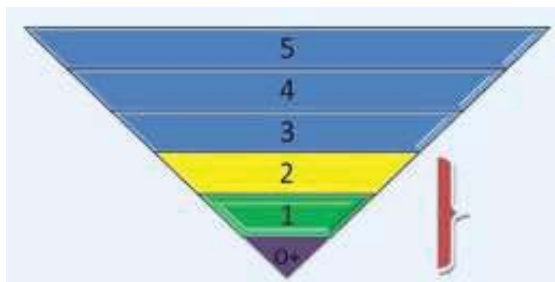


better he will perform. In the case of Spain, the implementation of English in early years is, therefore, fundamental for the attainment of a native-like level of proficiency.

## 4.2 Proficiency

The term “proficiency” has been defined by the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI) to refer to “a person’s ability to use a language for a variety of purposes” including all four language skills (see section 6); that is, in other words, the overall level of competence achieved. It is measured following specific classifications that look at the attainment of the different linguistic aspects that are fundamental in order to have a fluent and coherent command of a language. In the case of the United States, the US department of State created the Interagency Language Roundtable (IRL) scale, as Herzog explains, which is reflected in Figure 3 below.

FIGURE 3. IRL SCALE

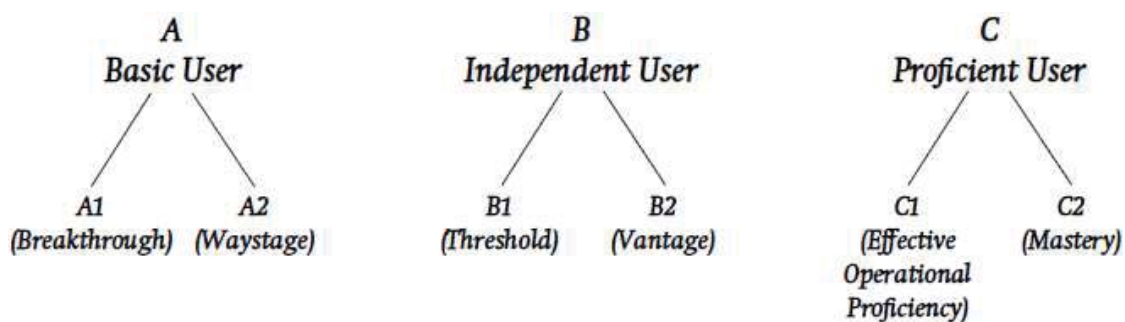


Source: Interagency Language Roundtable

The IRL scale above distinguishes five different levels of proficiency; the lowest level (1) corresponds to a basic level, and the highest (5) corresponds to a native-like level.

In the case of Europe, the level of proficiency is generally measured following the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages aims at creating a common frame that can work as a reference for the assessment of the mastery of languages all over the continent. This framework comprehends three levels of proficiency: A, B, and C (see also Table 1 in section 2.1.1). Each of these three levels is divided into two subcategories, resulting in three broad levels and six sublevels, as shown in Figure 4 below.

FIGURE 4.



Source: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment

In Figure 4 above, the three broad levels of language proficiency are subdivided into six sub-categories – each broad level being divided into two subcategories – that range from the basic level, A1 (Breakthrough), to the most proficient level, C2 (Mastery).

These frameworks of proficiency level enable a unified and common categorization across nations, at the same time that the different levels work as the next goal to be reached. The idea is that, as language learners move up from level to level, they gradually improve all their language skills, reaching the C2 level of mastery of a language. This development or improvement is, of course, mediated by instruction, although other factors also play a role, as it is being shown in the different subsections in section 4.

### 4.3 Motivation

Among the different factors that influence foreign language learning, motivation is one of the most important ones. In this case, the teacher has to act as the triggering element that stimulates students (Harmer 2007: 20; Wang 2009: 98; Sung 2013: 19). The instructors are the ones who have power in the classroom to positively influence students into wanting to study or know more about a subject; they are the **intrinsic** motivation that Harmer (2007:20) refers to. He states that teachers have it in their hands to create a friendly environment for children who are in the process of learning a new language; some of the resources that are useful, as he argues, are their teaching methods and activities in which the students can participate. Moreover, he also distinguishes an **extrinsic** motivation that come from the student's life outside the school, but this one is more difficult to control since teachers have no power over the children outside the classrooms.

Sung's (2013) study highlights age and gender as two traits that might play an important role in the motivation of a child who is learning a foreign language, as argued by different researchers, too. Regarding gender, Sung and Padilla (1998), Williams, Burden, and Lanvers (2002), Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh (2006), and Ghazvini and Khajehpour (2011) (in Sung 2013: 20) all concluded from their studies that females showed greater motivation than males; regarding age, Sung and Padilla (1998), Baker and MacIntyre (2000), Williams, Burden, and Lanvers (2002), and Sung (2010) (in Sung 2013: 21) determined that the younger the students, the more motivated they were, meaning that motivation deteriorates as students grow up. Nonetheless, Sung was not able to point to a definite conclusion as the experiment he carried out in this study did not show any differences between these two traits (i.e. age and gender). Moreover, as opposed to the studies aforementioned, there were other studies that stated the contrary (see Kobayashi 2009; Ryan 2009; and Polat 2011) suggesting that maybe age and gender were also determined by other factors such as society and culture.

A more global approach to a student's motivation is Gardner's (1985) proposal "that motivation for language learning can not only include goal orientation but the combination of effort, desire to achieve the goal of learning the language and favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (in Wang 2009: 98). Wang (2009: 98) also refers to an issue of great relevance: the fact that motivation is closely related to proficiency, an aspect that also concerns the learning process. What this indicates is that all issues influence one another, and that achieving a balance between them means achieving great mastery of the language. Motivation constitutes one of the fundamental elements in language learning; it is essential that students feel motivated and encouraged to start learning. However, motivation is a complex matter in which many different factors interact (e.g. age, gender, society, culture, proficiency).

## **5. ISSUES AFFECTING THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH**

As suggested in the previous section, the act of learning is never unidirectional. There are two main agents in the learning process: the student and the teacher; hence, learning becomes irrevocably connected to teaching. There is a feedback process where the teacher is the one in charge of correcting and guiding students in the right direction. They are the

visible figure in children's education and, therefore, they must be properly qualified. This section analyzes some of the main aspects that affect the leading figure of the teacher.

### **5.1 The role of teachers**

Teachers are not only a figure of power existing in the class. As Harmer (2007: 24) describes it, teachers have to embody a mixture of their real personality and who they are as instructors. They have to represent the role of a person who is in control of the class, but at the same time they have to be someone who is accessible enough for students. Teachers have to impose their authority without being intimidating; the aim is that they transmit to the students that they are competent for their job, and that they are there to help rather than to become an obstacle for them. In this regard, Harmer (2007: 25) recognizes four main roles that teachers should perform in the classroom: prompters, assessors, resources, and tutors.

- The role of prompters refers to the figure of the teacher as the one who can foster children's interest on the language inside the classroom. It is part of their job to transmit and inculcate the love and passion for the language. Teachers have to cherish their students' achievements and encourage them to keep going. They have to inspire learners in order to awake in them the want to learn more.
- Teachers are also assessors in view of the assessment each teacher has to do of their students' work (see section 5.3 below). Teachers have to evaluate and grade the progress of children in the classroom. It is a role that requires high responsibility and formality. It is important that students consider the teacher as a friendly figure. However, it is also advisable to establish certain boundaries that let students know that the teacher is responsible for their grades, and that these go according to their qualifications.
- As resources teachers are the one person in the classroom who can provide students with language information. Being language learners implies being unaware and uncertain of many linguistic aspects, and teachers are expected to solve any doubts that may arise.
- As tutors their role is to guide their pupils. There are some times when the students become confused with language: sometimes they just do not know

how to solve a problem or if they are doing things right. It is the teacher's role to tell them (directly or indirectly) what to do and how to do it, leading students through the learning process and making it easy for them.

Teachers have to be sufficiently flexible to know that there are situations where they have to show an authoritative personality, and others where they have to be more permissive and adapt to the student's needs. The combination of these different roles and appropriate use of them is what makes a teacher a good teacher.

## **5.2 Nativeness**

The question of whether it is better to have a native teacher or a non-native teacher of English has been frequently posed and debated (Gill and Rebrova 2001; Lasagabaster and Sierra 2005: 22-23). Most people would agree that, ideally, the best teacher when it comes to learning a foreign language would be one who is a native speaker teacher. However, in English teaching that premise is difficult to accomplish because non-native speakers already outnumber native speakers; for instance, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) recognized there being "4 non-native speakers of English for each English native speaker" (22), a number that has presumably increased over the years. Moreover, they argue that this preference for native speakers is sometimes counter-productive; the objective of having a native speaker teacher can lead to hiring someone who is certainly not qualified for a job as a (language) teacher. The categorization of teachers as native speakers or non-native speakers is actually seen by some authors as a way of discrimination (Sutherland 2012a: 60). It is only an excuse for employers to reject those who are non-natives because native speaker teachers are seen as high skilled instructors in comparison to them.

Lasagabaster and Sierra's statement about native speaker teachers being overestimated is also a focus of discussion. Al-Shammari (2011) presents a list of advantages and disadvantages of having non-native English speakers (NNES) and native English speakers (NES) as teachers. She reviews those aspects that have been discussed throughout the years by different scholars and a brief summary of her review appears in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF NNES AND NES TEACHERS

NNES		NES	
ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Ability to empathize with students	Good knowledge sometimes is not enough (e.g. judging acceptability)	More fluent in the language than NNES	Sometimes lack of linguistic and grammatical knowledge
Possibility to use the first language	Their capability is often questioned when there is something they do not know	Their presence enhances a nice language learning environment	Native does not equal expert
Sharing the same first language enables a quick identification and correction of mistakes	Trying to be too proficient makes them inflexible, sometimes rejecting structures that would be acceptable for a NES	Do not rely so much on textbooks, focusing on the language and not on the rules	Sometimes inaccurate use of language
Students and teacher share the same background, thus sharing culture and behavior			May not always adapt well to teaching methodologies that are different from their own.
Better grammar teachers as they had to learn the rules themselves			NES fail to understand the students' needs
			Students are less responsive to NES' commands because these cannot use the learner's first language

The results of the comparison in Table 2 show that, as a matter of fact, non-native English speaker teachers have more advantages and less disadvantages than native English speaker teachers. This proves that there is an actual misconception on which one is better. Students have so many needs when learning, that all of them would only be solved if both native and non-native English speaker teachers worked together in the same classroom. Indeed, the idea of having both teachers together has actually been put into practice for some years now.

Some countries are introducing in their classrooms this new practice called AET (assistant English teachers), as it is the case in Japan since the 1970s, as a measure to

improve oral proficiency (Sutherland 2012b: 177). AET is a language teaching plan that involves two people giving class. The first one is the teacher, the one who shares the same first language as the students; the other person is an assistant that provides students with the “native” aspects of language (e.g. pronunciation). It merges the positive factor of sharing the common background and mother tongue, at the same time that it has a space for all the linguistic aspects relevant for the learning of a language.

This shows that being a native speaker may not be a fundamental element for the teaching of a language as non-native speakers can be greatly qualified to be teachers. Both types of teachers lack features that the other one has, which makes them perfectly complementary as in the case of the AET plan.

### **5.3 Assessment**

Another important element for the progression of students in the process of learning is assessment. A good definition for assessment in the sphere of education is the one provided by Kellaghan and Greaney (2001). They define assessment as “any procedure or activity that is designed to collect information about the knowledge, attitudes, or skills of a learner or group of learners” (Kellaghan and Greaney 2001: 19). Therefore, it is the method teachers use to reflect their evaluation of the advances and improvements of students’ learning process. The most common way of assessment is assigning a final mark to each student at the end of the course; it is the so-called summative assessment, which is the assessment of learning (Takahashi 2015).

Nonetheless, as proposed by Takahashi (2015), there are two other ways in which teachers can evaluate students and that can be used in the classroom: formative assessment, and assessment along the learning process. The formative assessment used for learning is carried out as part of an activity in which the teacher can “adjust classroom instruction upon the needs of the students” (Takahashi 2015), providing them with feedback afterwards. The assessment as learning follows a similar process to the formative assessment, and here it is the students who have an active role in the evaluation.

All in all, this latter method is more motivational because students can self-assess their own progress, and this way both teachers and students can be appraised of the evolution of their learning process.

## **6. LANGUAGE AREAS FOR THE LEARNING/TEACHING OF ENGLISH**

The learning and teaching of a language is hence a complex process, as sections 4 and 5 have shown. To this we may add the different linguistic areas that make up a language and that, therefore, constitute different micro-learning and teaching processes in themselves. In fact, when dealing with language and whenever a person is presented with a piece of information, it becomes necessary to find meaning in the words that compose that information. It does not matter if it is in written or spoken form, the individual needs to make sense of those words in order to understand the message. The same could be said when the objective is to produce a message either in written or spoken form: meaning has to be turned into words.

This section briefly examines the essential elements for language learning to take place, namely the different language areas, and, taking into account the importance of age in the learning process (see section 4.1) the influence that age may have in each of them.

### **6.1 Morphology**

In linguistics the term “morphology” refers to the study of the form of words (Aronoff and Fudeman 2011: 2); being the morphemes the different units, and the smallest pieces of information that compose a word (Adedimeji and Alabi: 3). When Harper (2007) argues that “a speaker’s knowledge of a word also includes an understanding of how the shape of that word can be altered so that its grammatical meaning can be changed” (61), he is making reference to something very important in language learning: foreign language learners need to learn rules of word formation, because once words are understood language will be easier to decipher and to combine.

Muñoz (2006b: 107) argues that foreign language morphology is said to be acquired in ordered sequences as proposed by Krashen (1977). These sequences remain unchanged regardless of the age of exposure; late language exposure only favors a quick rate of acquisition because high cognitive levels have been reached (Muñoz 2006b: 121).



## **6.2 Syntax/Grammar**

Carnie (2001) identifies syntax as “the level of linguistics organization that mediates between sounds and meaning, where words are organized into phrases and sentences” (20) and grammar as “the set of rules that generate a language” (20). Therefore, grammar is important because using the right rules leads to syntactic correctness, something fundamental for a good command of the language.

Regarding the relation between age and the learning of syntax, Patkowski (1980: 449) proposes the existence of the “sensitive period” as the period after which achieving a native-like proficiency of syntactic structures is unlikely to happen. The sensitive period refers to that early period where there is greater predisposition to learn structures at an almost-native rate. Thus, after puberty the chance of learning syntax at a proficient level virtually disappears (Patkowski 1980: 450).

## **6.3 Phonetics/Phonology**

A clear output makes communication easier, and that is why the development of phonological skills is a very important area of language learning, both for language production and for language understanding. Many conclusions have been made on when it is the best time to foster the development of these skills. The most wide spread theory is that of the Critical Period (CP) stated by Lenneberg (1967) (in Fullana 2006: 41) (see section 4.1 for a review on the Critical Period) after which the child’s innate predisposition towards language vanishes (as discussed in section 4.1 above).

Fullana (2006: 41) proposes Flege’s (1995) Speech Language Model (SLM) in opposition to the theory of the CP as a better account of the L2 phonetics/phonology learning process. For Flege, the most important factor is that phonetic categories are established in the L1 (native language), which in consequence enable the development of the L2 (foreign language) phonological system. Students’ L1 phonetic categories are, therefore, the basis for the creation of the L2 phonological system. Even though SLM rejects the idea of the Critical Period, it considers age as a determining factor. Flege (1995, 1991) identifies ages 5 to 7 as the starting point for a native-like phonological system to be developed; it is at that age that the L1 phonological categories are established

and, therefore, these could be used as the trigger to build up the L2 phonological categories. (Fullana 2006: 42).

#### **6.4 Lexicon/Vocabulary**

Vocabulary refers to the words that make up the lexicon of a language. In this case, Miralpeix (2006: 89) refers to the relation between age and vocabulary acquisition as not being significant in contexts where English is taught as a foreign language. In fact, it is only in naturalistic contexts that early learners eventually outperform late learners. She quotes Hulstijn's (2003) statement about vocabulary in "that most vocabulary in L1, as well as in L2, is acquired in an incidental fashion, as a by-product." (Miralpeix 2006: 89-90). Hulstijn's statement points to two important facts about the learning of lexicon: vocabulary is expected to be indirectly acquired through the development of other activities and skills, and the learning of vocabulary is not so much concerned with age.

The subsections above deal with different issues concerning language learning/teaching that are in fact integrated in one another. So much so that, for instance, the learning of vocabulary (section 6.4) is directly linked to the learning of the morphological properties of the different vocabulary items (section 6.1); and the learning of morphological properties dictates in a way the various syntactic structures (section 6.3) that can be produced. What this suggests is that the division in these different language areas serves methodological purposes but they are in fact all integrated in the language learning and teaching processes.

### **7. CONCLUSIONS**

This dissertation has offered an account of EFL contexts in Spanish schools from different complementary perspectives: language policies, language teaching methodologies, the issues that affect the teaching and learning of English, and the areas for the learning/teaching of English. First, a diagnostic of the situation of English as a foreign language in Spain has been provided; this includes the international and national policies that are being followed in the country, and which so far have been proved to be insufficient to attain the ultimate goal: reach native-like proficiency in English as a

foreign language (section 2). Then, the focus has been placed on the classrooms, and on the different methodologies that are being used for the teaching of English. In particular, there have been two methodologies – CLIL and translanguaging – that have turned out to be more efficient, in the sense that they understand English teaching as a way to bilingualism (section 3). Moreover, the issues affecting the teaching/learning process, along with the language areas that must be covered when teaching/learning English have been discussed (sections 4, 5, and 6). This has been done in order to prove that the teaching/learning process is a complex process which involves many different intertwined factors, and that each of them plays an important role in the final outcome.

What can be said is that, considering all of the issues discussed in this dissertation, it is certain that Spain is a country where English does not have much weight in reality (although it does have on paper), as we have seen in section 2. However, we are making great improvements to address this situation, and we are doing it in the best possible place to start changing things: the very classrooms. This is, nonetheless, not possible if there is no previous thorough reflection work on the very nature of learning and teaching.

The process of teaching and learning English (or any foreign language) has been proved to be complex and difficult. There are many factors and variables that influence the process of teaching and the progress of learning, and they do not only depend on the student or on the teacher. As we have seen, Spain is implementing bilingualism at schools as a measure aimed at fulfilling the European expectations that we should all be able to communicate in more than one language, and in a fluent way. In Spain, this new concept of bilingualism is introduced by giving the foreign language a space in the school learning curriculum. The foreign language is therefore integrated as a tool, or as a means, of teaching subjects of varied specific content, i.e. the often called CLIL methodology (section 3.3).

CLIL students reach a great understanding of the foreign language, achieving a level of performance in which they can express themselves naturally and with a certain degree of fluency (Biel Gimeno, Gil García and Álvarez Bardón 2008: 109). This means that it turns out to be a beneficial approach to bilingualism and bilingual education. Moreover, as proved by Linares and Whittaker (2007: 90), CLIL is an effective approach regarding content learning as well.

Therefore, CLIL can be considered as a positive approach that should be continued, developed and improved over time. Regarding its improvement as methodology, and in view of the problems CLIL arises regarding the difference between language and content knowledge (Berjón Reyero 2008; section 3.3), some adjustments need to be made. Taking into account that CLIL aims at making students undergo complex thinking and comprehensive processes by teaching not only the language but also the content of some subjects, then maybe it is right to think that the new notion of translanguaging can be useful in that respect. By including translanguaging in CLIL, the language-content gap problem can be solved; an association, or merging, of these two methodologies could therefore be possible. Translanguaging not only covers the different language areas, it uses the innate linguistic knowledge of the individual's mother tongue in order to overcome the linguistic barriers of the foreign language. Moreover, teachers can find a more flexible way of teaching language and content, not being restrained to a constant use of a language neither they nor their students are fluent in, which is a problem that arises great concern (sections 5.2 and 3.3). Both CLIL and translanguaging aim at prompting and fostering bilingualism from different perspectives. Therefore, taking advantage of their most beneficial features in order to create a more balanced system of bilingual education is plausible.

However, these changes cannot be made without the help of the national and regional institutions in charge of stipulating the principles that must be followed and of creating the necessary context and environment for the different strategies to be implemented. Greater emphasis needs to be placed on the English language, and on the teaching methodology that should be used. Implementing a new methodology that combines the best features of two already-existing models of bilingual education that have been proved to be effective can have a positive impact on society. Therefore, by presenting an innovative approach to bilingualism such as the one suggested above (namely, merging CLIL and translanguaging), we could redirect the complex path that leads to the attainment of the foreign language in which different factors intervene and interact, both external to the learning/teaching process (e.g. language policies) and internal to it (e.g. methodologies, linguistic areas).

## REFERENCES

- Adedimeji, M. A., and Alabi, T. A. Undated. *Basic Elements of Analysing Language and Grammar*. Web. 28 May 2015  
<http://www.unilorin.edu.ng/publications/ADEDIMEJI/M.A.%20ADEDIMEJI%20AND%20T.A.pdf>
- Ajideh, P. 2013. "Schema Theory-Based Pre-Reading Tasks: A Neglected Essential in the ESL Reading Class". *The Reading Matrix*. 3 (1): 1-14. Web. 24 May 2015  
<http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/ajideh/article.pdf>
- Al-Shammari, S. 2012. "Investigating Views of "Nateness" of English Teachers in a Multilingual, Multicultural Setting". *American University of Sharja*. Web. 23 May 2015  
<https://dspace.aus.edu:8443/xmlui/bitstream/handle/11073/2713/29.232-2011.06%20Sarah%20Al-Shammari.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Anderson, D. 2007. *Adult Language Learning*. Web. 20 May 2015  
[http://www.ling.cam.ac.uk/Li2/AdultLang\\_DA.pdf](http://www.ling.cam.ac.uk/Li2/AdultLang_DA.pdf)
- Aronoff, M., and K. Fudeman. 2011. *What Is Morphology?* Oxford: John Wiley & Sons. Print.
- Baker, S.C., and P.D. MacIntyre. 2000. "The Role of Gender and Immersion in Communication and SL Orientations". *Language Learning*. 50: 311-341. Print
- Beres, A. M. 2015. "An Overview of Traslanguaging: 20 Years Giving Voice to Those Who Do Not Speak". *Translation and Translanguaging in Multilingual Contexts*. 1 (1): 103-118. Print.
- Berjón Reyero, L. 2008. "Aportación nº 1. Seis Propuestas sobre la Implantación del Programa de Centros Bilingües en Castilla y León". In Consejo Escolar de Castilla y León (ed.) *Las Lenguas Extranjeras en la Educación Escolar de Castilla y León. VII Seminario del Consejo Escolar de Castilla y León*. Web. 01 June 2015.  
<http://www.educa.jcyl.es/cescolar/es/informacion-especifica/publicaciones/consejo-escolar-castilla-leon/vii-seminario>
- Bhatia, T. K., and W.C. Ritchie. 2004. *The Handbook of Bilingualism*. Oxford: Blackwell. Print.
- Biel Gimeno, F., F. Gil García, and J. Álvarez Bardón. 2008. "Una Experiencia de Calidad: Bilingüismo". In Consejo Escolar de Castilla y León (ed.) *Las Lenguas Extranjeras en la Educación Escolar de Castilla y León. VII Seminario del Consejo Escolar de Castilla y León*. Web. 01 June 2015.  
<http://www.educa.jcyl.es/cescolar/es/informacion-especifica/publicaciones/consejo-escolar-castilla-leon/vii-seminario>
- Bley-Vroman, R. 1989. "What is the Logical Problem of Foreign Language Learning?". In S. Gass and J. Schachter (eds.) *Linguistic Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Print

- Butler, Y. G., and K. Hakuta. 2004. "Bilingualism and Second Language Acquisition". In T. K. Bhatia, and W. C. Ritchie (eds.) *The Handbook of Bilingualism*. Oxford: Blackwell. Print.
- Carnie, A. 2012. *Syntax: A Generative Introduction*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Hoboken, New Jersey: Wiley-Blackwell. Print.
- Carrell, P.L. 1983. "Some Issues in Studying the Role of Schemata, or Background Knowledge, in Second Language Comprehension." *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 1:81-92. Print.
- Carrell, P.L. 1988. "Interactive Text Processing: Implications for ESL/Second Language Reading Classrooms". In P. L. Carrell, J. Devine, and D. E. Eskey (eds.). 1988. *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Carrell, P. L., and J. C. Eisterhold. 1983. "Schema Theory and ESL Reading Pedagogy". *TESOL Quarterly*. 17 (4): 553-573. Web. 26 May 2015. [http://203.72.145.166/tesol/tqd\\_2008/VOL\\_17\\_4.PDF#page=25](http://203.72.145.166/tesol/tqd_2008/VOL_17_4.PDF#page=25)
- Carter, C. 2000. *Cincoeditos*. Web. 06 April 2015. <http://www.cincoeditos.com/>
- Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment 2001. *The Council of the European Union*. Cambridge University Press. Web. 10 May 2015. [http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework\\_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework_en.pdf)
- Crespo Aullé, M. J., R. Fernández Fuertes, and E. González-Cascos Jiménez. 2008. "Reflexiones Teóricas sobre la Enseñanza/Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras y la Educación Bilingüe: Aportaciones desde la Universidad". In Consejo Escolar de Castilla y León (ed.). *Las Lenguas Extranjeras en la Educación Escolar de Castilla y León. VII Seminario del Consejo Escolar de Castilla y León*. Web. 01 June 2015. <http://www.educa.jcyl.es/cescolar/es/informacion-especifica/publicaciones/consejo-escolar-castilla-leon/vii-seminario>
- Cummins, J., and M. Swain. 1986. *Bilingualism in Education*. London: Longman. Print.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. 2007. *Discourse in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins. Print.
- DeKeyser, R. 2000. "The Robustness of Critical Period Effects in Second Language Acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*". 22 (4): 499-533. Print.
- Diamond, A. Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device: Definition, Lesson & Quiz. *Study.com*. Web. 23 April 2015. <http://study.com/academy/lesson/chomskys-language-acquisition-device-definition-lesson-quiz.html>
- Dörnyei, Z., K. Csizér, and N. Németh. 2006. *Motivation, language attitudes, and globalization: A Hungarian perspective*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters. Print.
- EF EPI - Resultados de España en el Índice de Dominio del Inglés. *EF EPI*. Web. 25 February 2015. <http://www.ef.com.es/epi/>

En España Mejoramos con el Inglés, Pero Persiste una Gran Brecha Generacional. 2015. *20minutos*. Web. 10 March 2015

<http://www.20minutos.es/noticia/2377841/0/dominio-ingles/espanoles/canarios-madrilenos/>

España. Consejería de Educación. *Decreto 52/2007, de 17 de mayo, por el que se establece el currículo de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria en la Comunidad de Castilla y León*. 17 May 2007. Web. 18 May. 2015

<http://www.educa.jcyl.es/es/resumenbocyl/decreto-52-2007-17-mayo-establece-curriculo-educacion-secun>

España. Ley Orgánica 2/2006, de 3 de Mayo, de Educación. *BOE*, 4 de mayo de 2006, núm. 106. Print.

España Sigue entre los “Peores de la UE” en Inglés. 2014. *La Vanguardia*. Web. 25 February 2015 <http://www.lavanguardia.com/vida/20140129/54400628154/espana-sigue-entre-peores-ue-nivel-ingles.html>

España Tiene Uno de los Más Bajos Niveles de Inglés de Europa. 2014. *Universia*. Web. 25 February 2015 <http://noticias.universia.es/en-portada/noticia/2014/08/22/1110153/espana-bajos-niveles-ingles-europa.html>

Esquinca, A. 2011. “Bilingual College Writers’ Collaborative Writing of Word Problems.” *Linguistics and Education*. 22: 150-167. Print.

Fan, C. 2014. *The Effectiveness of Genre-based Pedagogy in Developing Students’ Academic Literacy in Hong Kong EMI Secondary Schools*. The HKU Scholars Hub – The University of Hong Kong. Web. 14 June 2015

<http://hub.hku.hk/bitstream/10722/209663/1/FullText.pdf?accept=1>

Firkins, A., G. Forey, and S. Sengupta. 2007. “A Genre-Based Literacy Pedagogy: Teaching Writing to Low Proficiency EFL Students”. *English Language Teaching Journal*. Web. 14 June 2015

[https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Arthur\\_Firkins/publication/251241907\\_Teaching\\_writing\\_to\\_low\\_proficiency\\_EFL\\_students/links/545b93ce0cf249070a7a755d.pdf](https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Arthur_Firkins/publication/251241907_Teaching_writing_to_low_proficiency_EFL_students/links/545b93ce0cf249070a7a755d.pdf)

Flege, J. E. 1991. “Perception and Production: The Relevance of Phonetic Input to L2 Phonological Learning”. In T. Huebner and C.A. Ferguson (ed.) *Crosscurrents in Second Language Acquisition and Linguistics Theories*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Flege, J. E. 1995. “Second Language Speech Learning: Theory, Findings and Problems”. In W. Strange (ed.) *Speech Perception and Linguistic Experience*. Timonium, MD: York Press.

Frangoul, A. 2013. Why Spain Is Experiencing an English Language Boom? *Newstatesman*. Web. 24 February 2015

<http://www.newstatesman.com/politics/2013/07/why-spain-experiencing-english-language-boom>

Fullana, N. 2006. "The Development of English (FL) Perception and Production Skills: Starting Age and Exposure Effects". In C. Muñoz (ed.) *Age and the Rate of Foreign Language Learning*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters. Print.

García, O. 2013. Translanguaging to Teach English in Nepal. *Nelta Choutari – Nepalese ELT Practitioners Meet the World*. Web. 17 May 2015.  
<https://neltachoutari.wordpress.com/2013/07/01/translanguaging-to-teach-english-in-nepal/>

Gardner, R. C. 1985. *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation*. Great Britain: Edward Arnold Publishers. Print.

Ghazvini, S. D., and M. Khajepour. 2011. "Attitudes and Motivation in Learning English as a Second Language in High School Students". *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 15: 1209-1213.

Gill, S., and A. Rebrova. 2001. "Native and Non-native: Together We're Worth More". *The Weekly Column*. 52. Web. 23 May 2015  
<http://www.eltnewsletter.com/back/March2001/art522001.htm>

Gutiérrez Fernández, E. 2008. "Propuestas de la Consejería de Educación de la Junta de Castilla y León". In Consejo Escolar de Castilla y León (ed.) *Las Lenguas Extranjeras en la Educación Escolar de Castilla y León. VII Seminario del Consejo Escolar de Castilla y León*. Web. 01 June 2015. <http://www.educa.jcyl.es/cescolar/es/informacion-especifica/publicaciones/consejo-escolar-castilla-leon/vii-seminario>

Harmer, J. 2007. *How to Teach English*. Harlow: Pearson Longman. Print.

Haynes, J. 2005. Language Acquisition vs. Language Learning. *EverythingESL.net*. Web. 20 Mayo 2015  
<http://www.everythingsl.net/in-services/language-acquisiti-vs-language-02033.php>

Herzog, M. Undated. An Overview of the History of the ILR Language Proficiency Skill Level Descriptions and Scale. *Interagency Language Roundtable*. Web. 23 May 2015 <http://www.govtilr.org/Skills/IRL%20Scale%20History.htm>

Hu, X. 2012. "The Application of Schema Theory in College English Listening Teaching". *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*. 2 (2): 282-288. Web. 06 June 2015  
[https://www.google.es/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCYQFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.js.academypublisher.com%2Findex.php%2Ftps%2Farticle%2Fdownload%2Ftps0202282288%2F4250&ei=0HhtVZyPMMP\\_ULKTgLG&usq=AFQjCNGzi2Q2QyC2oC7vOWX6WKRrMZr-xA&sig2=r1jm-Rn0i0ahx4SLhheV6g&bvm=bv.94911696,d.d24](https://www.google.es/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCYQFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.js.academypublisher.com%2Findex.php%2Ftps%2Farticle%2Fdownload%2Ftps0202282288%2F4250&ei=0HhtVZyPMMP_ULKTgLG&usq=AFQjCNGzi2Q2QyC2oC7vOWX6WKRrMZr-xA&sig2=r1jm-Rn0i0ahx4SLhheV6g&bvm=bv.94911696,d.d24)

Hulstijn, J. H. 2003. "Incidental and Intentional Learning". In M. H. Long and C. Doughty (eds.) *Handbook of SLA*. Oxford: Blackwell.



- Hyland, K. 2007. "Genre Pedagogy: Language, Literacy and L2 Writing Instruction." *Journal of Second Language Writing*. 16: 148-164. Web. 24 May 2015.  
<http://www2.caes.hku.hk/kenhyland/files/2010/12/Hyland-genre-teaching.pdf>
- Instituto Nacional de Estadística. Web. 20 May 2015  
<http://www.ine.es/ss/Satellite?c=Page&p=1254735910183&pagename=INE%2FINELaYout&cid=1254735910183&L=1>
- Kellaghan, T., and V. Greaney. 2001. Using Assessment to Improve the Quality of Education. *UNESCO: International Institute for Education Planning*. Web. 21 May 2015  
[http://www.ineesite.org/uploads/files/resources/Using\\_Assessment\\_to\\_Improve\\_the\\_Quality\\_of\\_Education.pdf](http://www.ineesite.org/uploads/files/resources/Using_Assessment_to_Improve_the_Quality_of_Education.pdf)
- Kobayashi, Y. 2002. "The Role of Gender in Foreign Language Learning Attitudes: Japanese Female Students' Attitudes towards English Learning". *Gender and Education*. 14 (2): 181-197. Print.
- Krashen, S. D. 1977. "Some Issues Relating to the Monitor Model". In H. Brown, C. Yorio and R. Crymes (eds.) *TESOL '77*. Washington D.C.: TESOL. Print.
- Krashen, S. D. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon. Print
- Krashen, S. D., M. Long, and R. Scarcella. 1979. "Age, Rate and Eventual Attainment in Second Language Acquisition". *TESOL Quarterly*. 9: 573-582. [Reprinted in S. D. Krashen, R. C. Scarcella, and M. H. Long (eds.) 1982. *Child-Adult Differences in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers. Print].
- Lasagabaster, D., and J. M. Sierra. 2005. "The Nateness Factor: An Analysis of Students' Preferences". *ITL International Journal of Applied Linguistics*. 148: 21-43. Web. 23 May 2015  
[http://www.laslab.org/upload/the\\_nateness\\_factor:an\\_analysis\\_of\\_student%20B4s\\_preferences.pdf](http://www.laslab.org/upload/the_nateness_factor:an_analysis_of_student%20B4s_preferences.pdf)
- Lasagabaster, D., and Y. R. Ruiz de Zarobe. 2010. *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, Results and Teacher Training*. UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing. Print.
- Lendoiro, G. 2014. ¿Por Qué Hablamos los Españoles Tan Mal el Inglés?. *ABC*. Web. 06 April 2015 <http://www.abc.es/familia-educacion/20140405/abci-hablar-varios-idiomas-201404041054.html>
- Lenneberg, E. H. 1967. *Biological Foundations of Language*. New York: Wiley.
- Lewis, M. P., G. F. Simons, and C. D. Fennig (eds.). 2015. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*, Eighteenth edition. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. Web. 24 February 2015  
<http://ethnologue.com/statistics/size>

- Llinares, A., and R. Whittaker. 2007. "Talking and Writing in a Foreign Language in CLIL contexts: A Linguistic Analysis of Secondary School Learners of Geography and History". *Revista española de lingüística aplicada*. 1: 83-91. Print.
- Long, M. 1990. "Maturational Constraints on Language Development". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. 12 (3): 251-285. Print.
- Malone, S. 2012. Theories and Research of Second Language Acquisition. *SIL International*. Web. 22 May 2015  
[http://www.sil.org/sites/default/files/files/theories\\_and\\_research\\_of\\_second\\_language\\_acquisition.pdf](http://www.sil.org/sites/default/files/files/theories_and_research_of_second_language_acquisition.pdf)
- Manivannan, G. 2006. Importance of the English Language. *UsingEnglish.com*. Web. 05 April 2015 <http://www.usingenglish.com/articles/importance-english-language.html>
- Marsh, D. 2000. *Using Languages to Learn and Learning to Use Languages; An Introduction to CLIL for Parents and Young People*. Web. 19 May 2015  
<http://archive.ecml.at/mtp2/CLILmatrix/pdf/1UK.pdf>
- Menken, K. 2006. "Teaching to the Test: How No Child Left Behind Impacts Language Policy, Curriculum, and Instruction for English Language Learners." *Bilingual Research Journal* 30 (2): 521–547. Print.
- Miralpeix, I. 2006. "Age and Vocabulary Acquisition in English as a Foreign Language (EFL)". In C. Muñoz (ed.) *Age and the Rate of Foreign Language Learning*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters. Print.
- Muñoz, C. 2006a. "The Effects of Age on Foreign Language Learning: The BAF Project". In C. Muñoz (ed.) *Age and the Rate of Foreign Language Learning*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters. Print.
- Muñoz, C. 2006b. "Accuracy Orders, Rate of Learning and Age in Morphological Acquisition". In C. Muñoz (ed.) *Age and the Rate of Foreign Language Learning*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters. Print.
- Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. 2014. *Assessment for World Languages*. State of Washington. Web. 22 May 2015  
<http://www.k12.wa.us/worldlanguages/assessment/default.aspx>
- Park, M. S. 2013. "Code-Switching and Translanguaging: Potential Functions in Multilingual Classrooms". *The Forum*. 13 (2): 50-52. Print
- Patkowski, M. S. 1980. "The Sensitive Period for the Acquisition of Syntax in a Second Language". *Language Learning*. 30 (2): 449-472. Web. 27 May 2015.  
<http://academic.brooklyn.cuny.edu/english/patkowski/PATKOWSKI-03.pdf>
- Patkowski, M. 2003. "Laterality Effects in Multilinguals during Speech Production under the Concurrent Task Paradigm: Another Test of the Age of Acquisition." *International Review of Applied Linguistics*. 41 (3): 175-200.

- Penfield, W., and L. Roberts. 1959. *Speech and Brain Mechanisms*. New York: Atheneum. Print.
- Polat, N. 2011. "Gender and Age Differences in Motivation and L2 Accent Attainment: An Investigation of Young Kurdish Learners of Turkish". *Language Learning Journal*. 39: 19-41. Print.
- Posteguillo S., and J. C. Palmer. 2000. "Reflective Teaching in EFL: Integrating Theory and Practice". *TESL-EJ*. 4 (3). Web. 12 June 2015 <http://www.tesl-ej.org/ej15/cf1.html>
- Ryan, S. 2009. "Ambivalence and Commitment, Liberation and Challenge: Investigating the Attitudes of Young Japanese People towards the Learning of English". *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. 30 (5): 405-420.
- Sánchez Ludeña, E. 2013. Bilingüismo. *Otras Políticas*. Web. 06 April 2015 [http://www.otraspoliticass.com/educacion/bilinguismo?utm\\_source=feedly&utm\\_medium=feed&utm\\_campaign=Feed%3A+OtrasPoliticass+%28OTRAS+POL%C3%8DTICAS%29](http://www.otraspoliticass.com/educacion/bilinguismo?utm_source=feedly&utm_medium=feed&utm_campaign=Feed%3A+OtrasPoliticass+%28OTRAS+POL%C3%8DTICAS%29)
- Seliger, H. 1978. "Implications of a Multiple Critical Period Hypothesis for Second Language Learning". In W. Ritchie (ed.) *Second Language Acquisition Research: Issues and Implications*. New York: Academic Press. Print.
- Sherris, A. 2008. Integrated Content and Language Instruction. *CAL Digest*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. Web. 18 June 2015 <http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/integratedcontent.html>.
- Snow, C., and M. Hoefnagel-Höhle. 1978. "The Critical Period for Language Acquisition: Evidence from Second Language Learning". *Child Development*. 49: 1114-1128. Print.
- Stott, N. 2001. "Helping ESL Students Become Better Readers: Schema Theory Applications and Limitations". *The Internet TESL Journal*. 7 (11). Web. 06 June 2015 <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Stott-Schema.html>
- Sung, H., and A. Padilla. 1998. "Student Motivation, Parental Attitudes, and Involvement in the Learning of Asian Languages in Elementary and Secondary Schools". *The Modern Language Journal*. 82 (2): 205-216. Print.
- Sung, Y. K. 2010. "Language Attitudes among American College Students in Chinese Language Classes". In J. Chen, C. Wang, and J. Cai (eds.) *Teaching and Learning Chinese: Issues and Perspectives*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing. Print.
- Sung, Y. K. 2013. "L2 Motivation in Foreign Language Learning". *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*. 9 (2): 19-30. Print.
- Sutherland, S. 2012a. "Native and Non-native English Teachers in the Classroom: A Re-examination". *Arab World English Journal*. 3 (4): 58-71. Web 24 May 2015 [https://www.academia.edu/2331022/Sutherland\\_2012\\_-\\_Native\\_and\\_Non-native\\_English\\_teachers\\_in\\_the\\_classroom](https://www.academia.edu/2331022/Sutherland_2012_-_Native_and_Non-native_English_teachers_in_the_classroom)

Sutherland, S. 2012b. “Real English” in Japan: Team Teachers’ Views on Nativeness in Language Teaching”. *Journal of English Studies*. 10: 175-191. Web. 25 May 2015 <https://publicaciones.unirioja.es/ojs/index.php/jes/article/view/186>

Takahashi, K. 2015. Assessment For, Of, and As Learning. *Thames Valley District School Board*. Web. 22 May 2015 <http://www.tvdsb.ca/webpages/takahashid/techdia.cfm?subpage=128207>

The Council of the European Union. Council Conclusions of 20 May 2014 on Multilingualism and the Development of Language Competences. *Official Journal of the European Union*. 20 May 2014: (2014/C 183/06). Web. 12 May 2015. [http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=1433199559815&uri=CELEX:52014XG0614\(06\)](http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=1433199559815&uri=CELEX:52014XG0614(06))

Tuan Trong, L. “Teaching Writing Through Genre-based Approach”. *BELT Journal*. 2 (1): 121-136. Web. 30 May 2015 <http://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/25529726.pdf>

Turnbull, M., S. Lapkin, D. Hart, and M. Swain. 1998. “Time on Task and Immersion Graduates’ French Proficiency”. In S. Lapkin (ed.) *French Second Language Education in Canada: Empirical Studies*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press. Print.

Un Tercio de los Españoles Sabe Inglés. 2012. *El Mundo*. Web. 03 March 2015 <http://www.elmundo.es/elmundo/2012/11/29/espana/1354200086.html>

Universia. Web. 15 May 2015 <http://www.universia.net/nosotros/quienes-somos/>

Wang, B. 2009. “Motivation and Language Learning”. *Asian Social Science*. 5 (1): 98-100. Web. 25 May 2015. <http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ass/article/viewFile/541/522>

Williams, M., R. Burden, and U. Lanvers. 2002. “French is the Language of Love and Stuff: Student Perceptions of Issues Related to Motivation in Learning a Foreign Language”. *British Research Journal*, 28 (4): 503-508. Print.