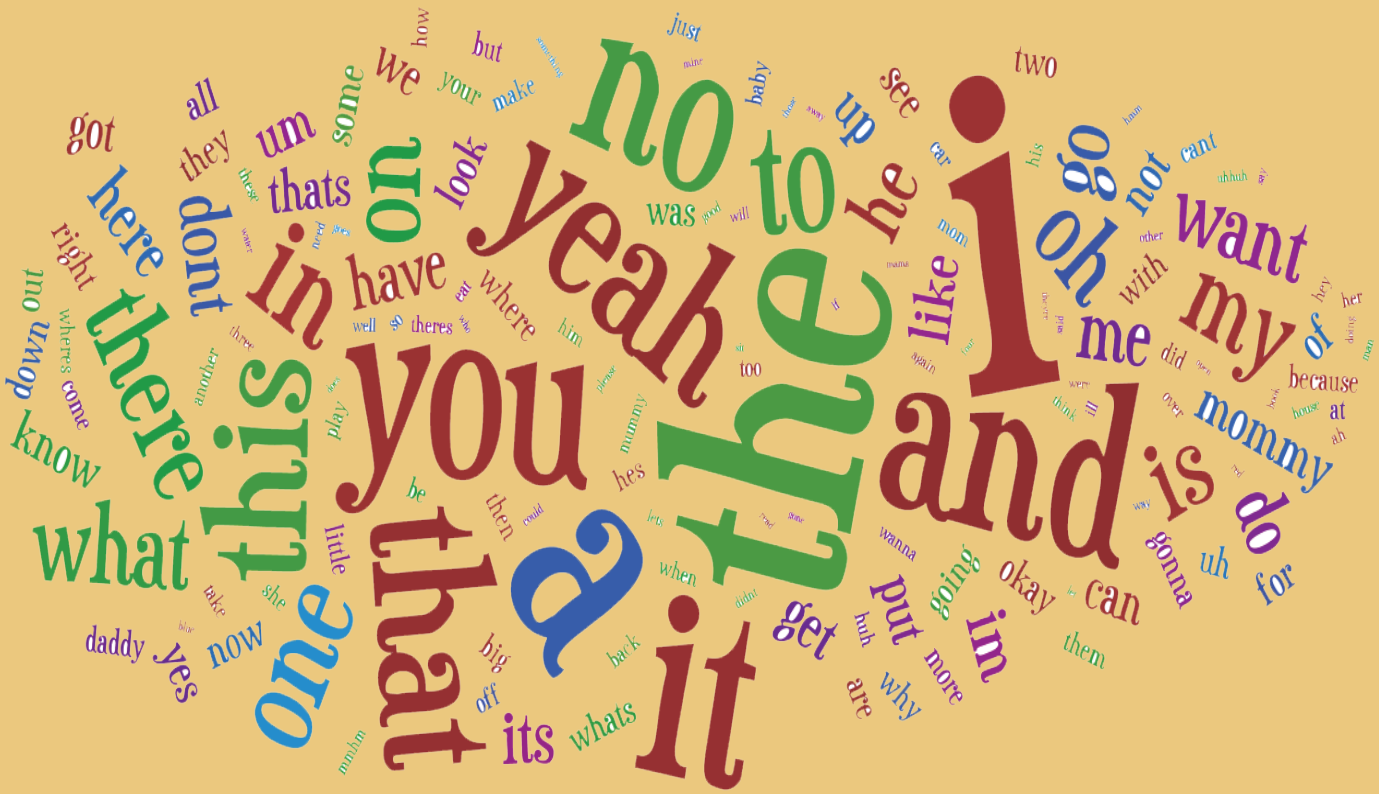
EXPLORING STUDIES ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Teaching, learning, acquisition, and Analysis of the foreign language



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Refletir sobre os caminhos e descaminhos da educação, realizar um intercâmbio de experiências bem sucedidas relacionadas à área, e pensar novas formas de obtenção de conhecimento formam o tripé de ações que devem passar por atualizações constantes. A Série "Saberes e Fazeres da Educação" vem cumprir esse papel e ainda pretende ir além, quando propõe despertar os agentes escolares para a realização de diferentes e necessárias propostas educacionais. Com meta arrojada, mas possível, a série visa à transformação e à transposição de conhecimentos para a promoção da justiça social. A Editora Via Dourada disponibiliza esta obra à população cearense, com o intuito de divulgar as experiências acadêmicas, estimular mais produções e levar a sociedade a uma reflexão mais profunda sobre os saberes e fazeres da educação.

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EXPLORING STUDIES ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

TEACHING, LEARNING, ACQUISITION, AND ANALYSIS OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Série

Saberes e Fazeres da Educação

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SUMÁRIO

APRESENTAÇÃO DA SÉRIE

Os diretores

Saber fazer dos conhecimentos cognitivos e torna-se o saber e fazer educativo na rotina das transposições desses históricos conhecimentos para professores e estudantes na atualidade, suscitará várias modalidades didáticas e um currículo que corresponda aos desafios sociais, políticos e culturais na atual conjuntura do estado brasileiro.

Os desafios à sociedade brasileira em sua diversidade regional e de características peculiares frente à organização metodológica da educação em que a política partidária determina o que se deve ensinar e o que se deve aprender a "Série Saberes e Fazeres da Educação", composta por coletâneas de artigos produzidos por pesquisadores docentes e discentes de cursos de pós-graduação stricto-sensu e lato-sensu tem por objetivo, apresentar os caminhos e descaminhos percorridos pelas propostas para o desenvolvimento da educação no Brasil em suas diversas modalidades nas alinhas da Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação - LDB 9394/1996 e alterações decorrentes das ações que suscitaram políticas públicas de alcance as demandas sociais ignoradas e as especificidades didáticas e curriculares para grupos anteriormente excluídos.

Para a construção dessa tarefa, em primeira instância, houve a motivação de um grupo de professores na busca por uma agência que se prontificasse a editar uma coletânea de atualização educativa que tenha em seu conteúdo as expressões

das experiências de pesquisadores, orientadores e estudantes agentes na educação escolar e universitária.

Frente a isso, e da união de vários atores-autores, surgiu a idealização de rever e atualizar questões que permeiam vontades docentes sobre as histórias e amplitudes do saber fazer educativo, intentando oferecer progresso às instituições e ao progresso da nação brasileira o resultado de anseios de professores, através do conhecimento que possuem, e da doação a quem busca, e estes, posteriormente, darão de si àqueles/as que se tornarão estudantes, pesquisadores e profissionais em uma teia das forças de trabalho nas profissões diversas as quais o país necessita, tendo em vista o que conquistaram.

Neste caso, a conquista dos títulos universitários é resultado de anos de dedicação aos estudos, pesquisas e práticas. Sonhos de alguns, meio caminho para outros e realização de poucos. A publicação das produções intelectuais da pesquisa tem custos pessoais de elaboração, revisão, impressão de artigos, pôsteres e participação em seminários e congressos. A elaboração, edição e publicação de um livro, então, é um desafio que só pouquíssimos superarão, pois, é um processo que precisa ser bem elaborado e reelaborado.

Por haver tantos por menores, é que a Série Saberes e Fazeres da Educação surgiu, inicialmente, como idealização dos/da professores/a, organizadores/a Dr. Estanislau Ferreira Bié, Dr. Henrique Cunha Junior e Ma. Maria Saraiva da Silva, como proposta de revisão e revitalização da educação na diversidade comunitária, motivando gestores, educadores e educandos à realização de diferentes propostas educacionais pelo confronto de experiências.

Esta série, em sua variedade de temas, enseja segundo os/as organizadores/as chegar às mãos de profissionais da educação e comunidade para que os conteúdos definidos de forma simples tenham alcance múltiplo nos sistemas de ensino e para que o saber fazer didático dos/as docentes possa estar amparado por bases teóricas sólidas.

Os títulos além de revisão da história da educação brasileira contemplam temas inéditos, que se adequam ao tempo presente em que os docentes necessitam apropriar-se de saberes convergentes com as culturas e conjunturas dos meios sociais e educacionais e os modifiquem.

As coletâneas são estruturadas por organizadores professores/as doutores/as, mestres/as e especialistas, com trabalhos provenientes de várias universidades com os quais chamam a atenção para a leitura envolvente que permeia experiências. São condutas curriculares que, por suas posturas, apresentam-se na história e memórias educativas como caminhos a seguirem modificando-se quando novos conhecimentos foram desenvolvidos, aprendidos e ensinados.

Da educação de crianças à educação com adultos, as pedagogias e as docências são aqui apresentadas com o intuito de que os saberes e fazeres da educação sejam o saber fazer da paz interior, o saber fazer das memórias históricas, o saber fazer da sociabilidade nas diversidades, o saber fazer dos diálogos na construção das políticas educativas, o saber fazer de sociedades e meios de ambientes saudáveis.

A Série Saberes e Fazeres da Educação, como projeto de ampliação dos olhares didáticos para as concepções pedagógicas, tem por meta a transformação e transposição de conhe-

cimento em vista da justiça social a partir das avaliações dos contextos atuais das instâncias educacionais.

Compreendemos que a justiça social para a educação em estado democrático de direito, no caso do Brasil, não tem alcançado as propostas construídas há décadas, tendo dentre as causas, as transmutações políticas partidárias que definem, constantemente, as posições para cada seguimento de ensino. São idas e vindas que avançam e, por vezes, retrocedem, carecendo de aportes firmes que sustentem os conjuntos de manifestações empíricas que constam nas vontades dos educadores em estabelecer mudanças no pesar a educação desde a graduação nas licenciaturas às escolas na prática docente.

Os Saberes e Fazeres da Educaçlão requer dos/as docentes decisões de embarcar na história social e política da educação. É um convite ao ponto crucial do que se pretende realizar com e para os/as educandos, pois, educar pressupõe amar-se e amar. Dar e receber. Tornar-se responsável pela motivação do aprendizado de quem, sem apoio familiar e social, espera da escola e dos/as professores/as o melhor.

Educar para um mundo de tomada de decisões, de participação e construção de uma nova sociedade em que a dignidade, o respeito e o amor nasçam, floresçam e deem os frutos de prosperidade.

CHAPTER 1

THE EFFECT OF INTERLINGUAL HOMOPHONES ON BILINGUAL LEXICAL ACCESS

Leticia Rodrigues de Sousa[1]

1 INTRODUCTION

Costa (2020, p. 10) stresses that "bilingualism is the rule rather than the exception in the sense that the majority of the world's population can communicate in more than one language." Although appearing to have become more prominent over the past decades, it is not recent that the phenomenon of bilingualism has been observed in most countries including all levels of society and age groups (GROSJEAN, 2013).

Conversely, it is worthwhile to mention the overlooked variety of languages in many countries that are considered to be monolingual nations even though many languages are spoken. In Brazil, for instance, with over 200 languages being spoken (OLIVEIRA, 2008), Portuguese is considered to be the only official language regardless of all the native indigenous people and individuals who live in immigrant communities. Furthermore, people have constant contact with other languages in international border zones.

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Thus, bilingualism may be classified in various ways (BLOOMFIELD, 1983; GROSJEAN, 2013; LAMEIRA et al., 2020), but irrespectively of the definition, the general agreement has always been that bilinguals are not two monolinguals in one (GROSJEAN, 1998 apud BASSETI; COOK, 2011). That is, L2 users have other possibilities of language use, and thus may process language differently from monolingual people.

Over the past decades, psycholinguistic studies have aimed to investigate how bilinguals and multilinguals process and organize their languages considering different aspects such as word recognition, word production, lexical access, code-switching, and translation. In order to understand bilingual language processing, such investigations have been done through varied experimental paradigms which have participants perform a linguistic task from which data is collected and analyzed. Research on this area has investigated, for example, how bilinguals process words which share semantic, orthographic, and phonological similarities across their languages.

Taking this into account, the present work aims at reviewing different experimental studies which investigated the processing of interlingual homophones and strengthen understanding of this research domain still little explored in many languages. First, a theoretical background about bilingual lexical access and the role of phonology on language processing is addressed. Second, an explanatory presentation is provided to answer research questions about the findings of the studies, and finally a list of interlingual homophones in the language pair of Brazilian Portuguese and English will then be suggested for future research. The present study is also relevant for being

the first to offer a tentative list of interlingual homophones across these two languages. Thus, the discussion follows and is guided by three main Research Questions (RQs):

(RQ1): What experimental techniques have been used to investigate the effect of interlingual homophones on bilingual lexical access?

(RQ2): What language pairs have been examined in interlingual homophone studies and what results have been found?

(RQ3): What words could serve as stimuli to investigate the effect of interlingual homophones across Brazilian Portuguese and English?

The following section discusses the relevant theoretical framework underlying the background information for this paper.

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

One question of particular interest in psycholinguistic research has been how bilinguals access words in their mental lexicon while undergoing a certain linguistic process, such as reading. One of the most traditional experimental tasks used in such studies is the lexical decision task, which requires participants to make a decision about a presented visual input (EYSENCK; KEANE, 2015). Usually, they have to decide whether a letter string forms a word in a target language. Other commonly used tasks are naming, in which participants have to read or name a stimulus out loud; and priming, in which the

word the participants have to give a response to is preceded by a related stimulus in order to check its influence or interaction.

Depending on the stimulus item, results regarding their performance reflected in response times (RTs) and accuracy rates can shed light into language processing of people who speak more than one language. It has been found, for instance, that cognate words, which share form and meaning across languages, are more easily processed than other words by bilinguals and multilinguals. This is reflected when participants take less time and make fewer mistakes when responding to such words. (SCHWARTZ; KROLL, 2006; DIJKSTRA et al., 2018; TOASSI; MOTA; TEIXEIRA, 2020).

In addition to semantics, orthographic and phonological codes also interact in the processing of words. Studies that examined the processing of cognates, interlingual homographs, and interlingual homophones have shown that overlap in all levels of representation play a role in visual word recognition (DIJKSTRA; GRAINGER; VAN HEUVEN., 1999; LEMHÖFER; DIJKSTRA, 2004; VAN ASSCHE; DUYCK; BRYSBAERT, 2020). Interlingual homographs are words that share the same written form across languages, and interlingual homophones are words that have high phonological overlap across languages with different meanings and orthography. An interlingual homophonic example between Brazilian Portuguese and English would be the word pair *pai* - pie (/paj - paɪ/).

However, as Carrasco-Ortiz, Midgley and Frenck-Mestre (2012) pointed out, although researchers have broadly agreed that orthography, semantics and phonology all play a role in bilingual word processing, few studies have investigated pho-

nological processing on the bilingual context. Research on this area has mostly focused on investigating orthographic and semantic overlap across languages and, even when interlingual phonological overlap is addressed, specific investigations on the effect of interlingual homophones seem to have received little attention in comparison to other stimuli so widely researched (GOLLAN; FORSTER; FROST., 1997; JARED; KROLL, 2001; JARED; SZUCS, 2002; MARIAN; SPIVEY; HIRSCH., 2003).

Additionally, the studies which indeed had interlingual homophones as critical stimuli have shown some conflicting results (further detailed in section 3). Furthermore, these deviating results may require the investigation of the effect of interlingual homophones on bilingual lexical access using different language pairs than the ones already investigated – a recommendation once made by Lemhöfer and Dijkstra (2004). The following section addresses the debate on how bilinguals access lexical representations in their mental lexicons.

2.1 BILINGUAL LEXICAL ACCESS

Lexical Access is related to the process of word recognition and refers to the retrieval and selection of words in one's mental lexicon, entailing both input identification and output production (DIJKSTRA, 2005; DE GROOT, 2011). Dijkstra (2005, p. 180) defines lexical access as "the process of entering the mental lexicon to retrieve information about words." As De Groot (2011) explains, lexical access is the word processing stage which takes place after a match between the printed/spoken input and one of the orthographic/phonological forms stored

in the lexicon; and where "all the information stored with this form, including the syntactical and morphological specifications of the word and, most importantly, its meaning, become available for further processing." (p. 155).

Because bilinguals have to manage more than one language, how they access lexical representations in their two languages has been one of the most debated questions in the literature. Scholars have been interested in knowing whether bilinguals store languages separately or not, and whether they activate words only in the contextually relevant language or in both of their languages when they come across a printed or spoken input. Importantly, ample evidence suggests that bilinguals and multilinguals cannot select only one of their languages while undergoing a certain linguistic process, e.g., recognizing words. (SCHWARTZ; KROLL, 2006; DIJKSTRA et al., 2018; TOASSI; MOTA; TEIXEIRA, 2020).

Different models of bilingual language processing have been proposed to account for the evidence representing the organization of the mental lexical of people who know more than one language. According to Multilink (DIJKSTRA et al., 2018), the most recent model accounting for bilingual and multilingual word recognition and translation, it is assumed that bilinguals and multilinguals have an integrated lexicon. The lexicon, where information about words is stored (EYSENCK; KEANE, 2015), is assumed to share and have all the multilingual's languages active at the same time, in parallel coactivation.

According to this model, rather than having to first select the lexicon of a language to then access information about one of its words, bilingual lexical access is language nonselective.

This means that "when an input word is presented, lexical candidates from different languages compete for recognition" (DIJKSTRA et al., 2018, p. 660). In this process, the representational levels of orthography, semantics and phonology all interact and influence the bilingual processing of words in a language nonselective way.

In an opposite perspective, though, it is assumed that bilingual lexical access is language-selective (GERARD; SCARBOROUGH, 1989; RODRIGUEZ-FORNELLS *et al.*, 2002). According to this view, when undergoing a certain linguistic process, activation of lexical candidates will be restricted to the context-relevant language – the one the bilingual intends to use – so, when a bilingual reads a text in L1, for example, only L1 words would be potential candidates for recognition.

However, as discussed above, empirical research has provided evidence standing against this account. For example, when the presentation of a word in one of the bilingual's language has an effect on the processing of a similar word in the other language, whether it is interference, facilitation or inhibition, this indicates that both languages are coactivated in parallel. According to the assumptions of Multilink, in bilingual or multilingual lexical access,

> orthographic representations activated on the basis of the input activate their associated semantic representations. In turn, semantic representations activate linked phonological representations in a language nonselective way [...]. For instance, the meaning 'HOOD' will activate its phonological representation /hʊd/ in English and /kap/ (for KAP)

> in Dutch. Other simultaneously active semantic representations will activate THEIR translations; for instance, if the meaning of FOOD is active (because FOOD is a neighbor of HOOD), it will activate the Dutch phonological representation /vutsel/ for VOEDSEL, meaning food. (DIJKSTRA et al., 2018, p. 659).

Implementations of Multilink have focused on cognates and homographs. The model also assumes that orthographic representations are linked to phonological representations across languages only through semantics. As the authors themselves acknowledge, some aspects of phonological representations still need to be further developed in future versions of the model. The role of phonology in word processing is further discussed in the next section.

2.2 THE ROLE OF PHONOLOGY IN WORD PROCESSING

Regarding the processing of printed words in reading, there are two main views that diverge on their assumptions for the role of phonological processing in visual word recognition. On the one hand, the weak phonological model (COLTHEART et al., 2001 apud EYSENCK; KEANE, 2015) proposes that phonological processing is slower than orthographic processing and is not essential in word recognition. In this theory, phonological processing is more indirect and happens through a non-lexical route where an additional conversion from orthography to phonology takes place (COLTHEART et al., 2001

apud DRIEGHE; BRYSBAERT, 2002).

On the other hand, the strong phonological model (FROST, 1998) assumes that phonology plays a primary role in word processing and predicts that it may be rather mandatory and automatic. Monolingual studies using homophonic stimuli showed that words and pseudowords[2] with the same pronunciation as the targets influenced naming and decision latencies, providing evidence for phonological processing of words. (VAN ORDEN, 1987; LUKATELA; TURVEY, 1994; RASTLE; BRYSBAERT, 2006 apud EYSENCK; KEANE, 2015).

These studies have used the method of priming, which can be defined as "facilitating the processing of (and response to) a target by presenting a stimulus related to it some time beforehand." (EYSENCK; KEANE, 2015, p. 238). The first presented stimulus is referred to as the prime, and the last stimulus as the target – an item which participants usually have to give a response to, whether simply identifying it or making a decision required by an experimental task.

Typically, a priming experiment will include a manipulated prime, related to the target in form or concept, and a control prime, unrelated to the target. If the participants' responses to the target are different for the two types of stimuli, an interference or influence effect is found due to the type of relationship between prime and target. Discussing about the monolingual phonological priming research, Dimitropoulou, Duñabeitia, and Carreiras (2011, p. 186) better illustrate these experiments when they explain that

2 A pseudoword is a pronounceable string of letters that looks like but does not form a real word. If this item is a homophonic stimulus, it is called a pseudohomophone.

> These studies have shown that when a target word is preceded by a word or a pseudoword prime with complete or extensive phonological overlap and reduced orthographic overlap with the target (called *homophones* and *pseudohomophones*, respectively), participants make faster and more accurate lexical decisions on the target than when it is preceded by a phonologically unrelated prime or by a prime with equal orthographic but less phonological overlap [...].

Thus, such results demonstrate that the phonological code may automatically mediate and facilitate the recognition of words, and such effects have been found both with highly phonologically similar words (homophones) and with highly phonologically similar pseudowords (pseudohomophones).

In another domain of experimental studies which investigate reading processes, Slattery et al. (2011) remark that the literature on Eye-tracking research provides evidence indicating that phonological processing takes place even before the reader fixates sight on a word. Nevertheless, while it has been evidenced that phonology plays an important role in reading, Eysenck and Keane (2015) note that studies investigating patients with damaged phonological processing have shown that visual word recognition is not dependent on phonology.

Still, further evidence against the weak phonological model was also provided by bilingual studies which found that bilinguals reading in one of their languages activate and are influenced by spelling-sound correspondences of the other (nontarget) language even when the task only requires them to read in one language. (see VAN ASSCHE; DUYCK; BRYS-

BAERT, 2020, for a recent review.)

Brysbaert, Van Dyck, and Van Poel (1999) observed that Dutch-French bilinguals reading in their L2 (French) identified words more easily when they were briefly preceded by stimuli that were homophonic to the target words if pronounced according to the grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules of their L1 (Dutch). The same pattern of results was found when Van Wijnendaele and Brysbaert (2002) replicated the experiment with French-Dutch bilinguals identifying words in their L1 being preceded by stimuli that were homophonic to the target words according to the pronunciation rules of their L2.

Moreover, Duyck (2005) examined the activation of grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules of the nontarget language using stimuli that were homophonic not to the target words, but to their translation equivalents (experiments 1, 2, 5 and 6) or to associated words that belonged to the other language (experiments 3 and 4). In this study, Dutch-English bilinguals recognized L2 words (e.g., back) faster when they were briefly preceded by an L1 pseudoword (e.g., ruch) that had the same pronunciation as the target's L1 translation equivalent (rug /rʏx/). Furthermore, L2 word processing (e.g., church) was also facilitated when preceded by an L1 pseudohomophone (e.g., pous) of an L1 associated word (e.g., paus /pɑus/, which means pope).

In line with the previous findings of Van Wijnendaele and Brysbaert (2002), Duyck also obtained the pseudohomophone translation priming effect (Experiments 1 and 2) when the language pair was reversed, that is, with L1 targets being preceded by L2 pseudohomophone primes of their L2 translations.

However, this effect was stronger from L1 on L2 than from L2 on L1, and in the pseudohomophone associative priming (experiments 3 and 4), the priming effect was not significant with L1 targets and L2 primes that were pseudohomophones of L2 associated words. Duyck argued that L2 phonological coding during L1 reading may have taken place in this last experiment, but not strongly enough to activate semantic representations.

Furthermore, the author repeated experiments 1 and 2 with primes and targets in the same language (experiments 5 and 6). This time primes were homophones, not pseudohomophones. It was examined, for example, if L2 targets (e.g., corner) were influenced by L2 primes (e.g., hook /hʊk/) that were homophones to the target's L1 translation (hoek /huk/). Duyck found that L2 word recognition was facilitated with L2 primes that were homophonic to their L1 translations if primes were more frequent than targets, indicating that L2 phonological representations activated both their L1 and L2 meanings. However, this effect was not found when the language of primes and targets was reversed. Duyck interpreted the failure of L1 phonological representations to activate their L2 meanings during L1 processing as indicative of a weaker L2 semantic mapping for such ambiguous words.

In other studies that examined the reading of orthographically similar and phonologically conflicting words across languages in an English naming task (JARED; KROLL, 2001; JARED; SZUCS, 2002), English-French and French-English bilinguals showed strong evidence that phonological representations from the nontarget language are activated while reading out loud in their L2, but in L1 reading this was only observed

after naming a block of L2 filler words. Conflicting with the results of Van Wijnendaele and Brysbaert (2002), the results from these naming experiments rather suggest that phonological representations of the nontarget language may be more weakly activated during L1 processing.

In a study which investigated lexical access by Hebrew-English and English-Hebrew bilinguals, Gollan, Forster and Frost (1997) also reported a strong priming effect from L1 to L2, but not from L2 to L1. Interestingly, this study used cognate and noncognate words as the critical stimuli, finding a stronger priming effect for the former. Cognates are words which share form and meaning across languages, differently from noncognates, which only shared meaning in this experiment. Because Hebrew and English have different scripts and thus very limited graphemic overlap, the authors attributed this effect to phonological overlap. As to the effect absence in the L2-L1 direction, the authors claimed that bilinguals rely more on phonology when they read in their L2 than in their L1.

The few studies reviewed so far have provided results that are much more inclined to support strong phonological models of visual word recognition and reading, suggesting that phonological coding happens early and automatic both for monolinguals and bilinguals, and even when exclusively homophonic stimuli are not used in the experiments. Additionally, they suggest that bilinguals cannot suppress the grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules of a nontarget language when they read in one of their languages. Nevertheless, some studies have found difference in effects when the language direction of the experiments was reversed from L1-L2 to L2-L1.

Still, similar effects in both language directions were robustly obtained by Brysbaert and colleagues, and this pattern of results was later replicated by Dimitropoulou, Duñabeitia, and Carreiras (2011) in a study with Greek-Spanish bilinguals, in addition to other studies that investigated other languages with different scripts in the priming paradigm (e.g., ZHOU et al., 2010; LEE; NAM; KATZ, 2005).

Van Assche, Duyck, and Brysbaert (2020, p. 52) remark that it is harder to observe influence from L2 to L1. However, these effects are the most important "because they indicate that the first learned, dominant language is not impervious to a later acquired language." It is important to note that difference in results across studies may be due to the use of different methods, including task demands and the stimuli list used in the experiment. Experimental techniques are further discussed in section 3.

3 EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUES

This section is meant to answer the first research question of the present paper: What experimental techniques have been used to investigate the effect of interlingual homophones on bilingual lexical access? The discussion debated here focuses on studies which specifically investigated the processing of homophones, pseudohomophones, or at least highly phonological similar words across languages. Studies that investigated phonological overlap with interlingual homographs or cognates will not receive much attention, unless homophonic stimuli made part of their experimental lists.

Overall, the effect of interlingual homophones in bilingual lexical access research has been investigated with different techniques, including the most traditional ones, such as the lexical decision task (e.g., NAS, 1989; HAIGH; JARED, 2007), naming (e.g., KIM; DAVIS, 2003; LEE; NAM; KATZ, 2005), and priming (e.g., BRYSBAERT; VAN DYCK; VAN POEL, 1999; VAN WIJNENDAELE; BRYSBAERT, 2002; DUYCK, 2005; DIMITROPOULOU; DUÑABEITIA; CARREIRAS, 2011).

Other methods like the generalized lexical decision task (e.g., DOCTOR; KLEIN, 1992; LEMHÖFER; DIJKSTRA, 2004), the Stroop task (e.g., TZELGOV et al., 1996), progressive damasking (e.g., DIJKSTRA; GRAINGER; VAN HEUVEN, 1999), gating (e.g., SCHULPEN et al., 2003), and the recording of neurophysiological measures like event-related potentials (ERPs) in Electroencephalography (EEG) studies (e.g., CARRASCO-ORTIZ; MIDGLEY; FRENCK-MESTRE, 2012; CHRISTOFFELS et al., 2016) have also been used to examine the effect of interlingual homophones.

The mentioned techniques and the findings of the studies will be described along the discussion. It should be noted, however, that most studies make use of more than one technique in different experiments, or even combine them in one experiment alone. Table 1 exemplifies this specification in some relevant studies, chosen by the criteria that they focused on the investigation of interlingual homophonic stimuli in word processing.

Table 1 – Specification of experimental techniques used to study interlingual homophones

STUDY	TECHNIQUES
NAS (1983)	Lexical decision
DOCTOR; KLEIN (1992)	Generalized lexical decision
TZELGOV et al. (1996)	Stroop task
BRYSBAERT; VAN DYCK; VAN POEL (1999)	Masked priming with perceptual identification
DIJKSTRA; GRAINGER; VAN HEUVEN (1999)	• Progressive Damasking • Lexical decision
VAN WIJNENDAELE; BRYSBAERT (2002)	Masked priming with perceptual identification
SCHULPEN et al. (2003)	• Gating task • Cross-modal priming with lexical decision.
KIM; DAVIS (2003)	Masked priming with: • lexical decision • naming • semantic categorization
LEMHÖFER; DIJKSTRA (2004)	• Lexical decision • Generalized lexical decision
DUYCK (2005)	Masked priming with lexical decision
LEE; NAM; KATZ (2005)	Masked priming with naming task
HAIGH; JARED (2007)	Lexical decision
ZHOU et al. (2010)	Masked priming with: • naming • lexical decision
DIMITROPOULOU; DUÑABEITIA; CARREIRAS (2011)	Masked priming with lexical decision
CARRASCO-ORTIZ; MIDGLEY; FRENCK-MESTRE (2012)	Semantic categorization with the recording of event-related potentials (ERPs)
ANDO et al. (2014)	Masked priming with lexical decision
CHRISTOFFELS et al. (2016)	Word-translation naming task with the recording of event-related potentials (ERPs)

Source: Own elaboration.

As depicted in Table 1, the most used techniques have been either the priming method, lexical decision, or a combination between these with other experimental tasks. Because lexical decision has been used both by itself and with other tasks in many studies, it will be the first to be explained, followed by progressive demasking, masked priming, and other less used but not less important techniques that remain to be contemplated: cross-modal priming, gating, Stroop task, and event-related potentials (ERPs).

3.1. LEXICAL DECISION STUDIES

In the **lexical decision task**, participants have to decide as quickly and as accurately as possible if a presented sequence of letters forms a word in a target language or not. The items are presented on a screen one after the other, and the participants usually have to respond by pressing a "yes" or a "no" key button. Thus, the experimental stimulus list will include both words and nonwords (or pseudowords). These require participants to respond "no", while the target words require a "yes" response.

Notably, a nonword in the target language may be a real word in the nontarget language, but in the **language specific lexical decision task**, the participants have to respond "yes" only for items that are words in the language the experimental instructions demand. In another bilingual version of this technique, in the **generalized lexical decision task**, participants have to give a "yes" response for items that are words in either of their languages and reject items that are nonwords in both of them.

Such experiments are usually done by presenting the stimuli to the participants on the screen of a computer, while a software measures the participant's reaction times (RTs) in milliseconds (ms), also recording accuracy and error latencies. Faster and more accurate responses are indicative of a facilitative effect, whereas slower and less accurate responses indicate an inhibitory effect for a certain type of stimulus (e.g., homographs, homophones, or cognates) in comparison to control words.

Depending on what the subject of interest on a study is, experimenters may manipulate the condition of the target list or the pseudoword list to compare with control items and exa-

mine effects that may arise due to similarities across languages, for example, if responses to homophonic stimuli are different (e.g., slower, faster, less or more accurate) from those to control words. Furthermore, the nature of the stimulus list and the experiment might not be revealed to the participants in order to avoid biased responses or strategic effects.

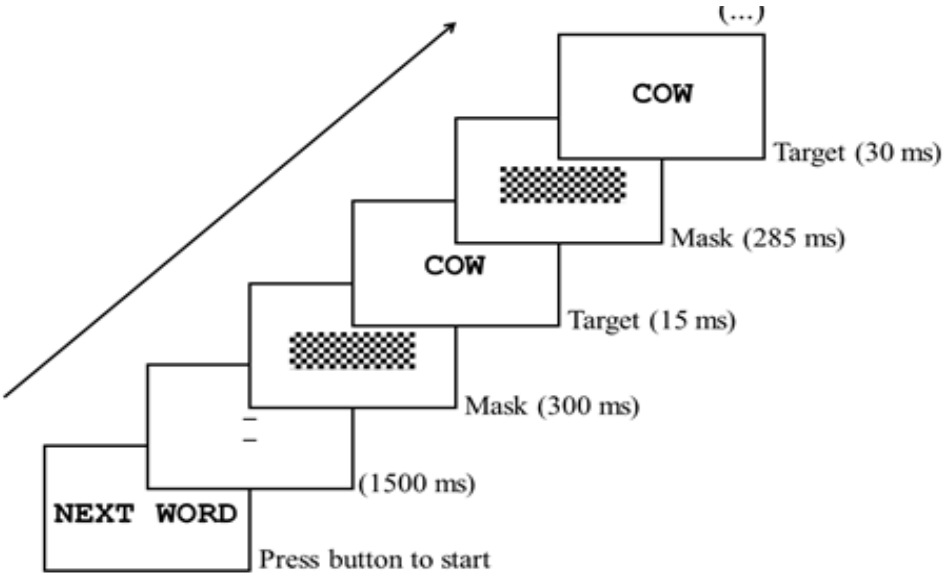
In a language specific lexical decision task, Nas (1983) had Dutch-English participants decide if presented items were real English words, that is, responding "yes" for letter strings that were words in this language, and responding "no" to pseudowords. Because the participants had to accept items that were words only in English, the task implied that all items were read according to the grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules of their L2 (English). Nevertheless, participants could not suppress the activation of lexical representations of the non-target language (L1 Dutch) when having to respond "no" to interlingual homophonic stimuli. Without their awareness, the nonword list also included pseudohomophones (pseudowords that sounded like Dutch words if read with English pronunciation rules). Participants made more mistakes and took longer to reject pseudohomophones (e.g., snay), which sounded like a Dutch word (e.g., snee /sne:/), than to reject a control nonword (e.g., rolm) that did not overlap in phonology across languages.

In the study of Doctor and Klein (1992), English-Afrikaans bilinguals performed a generalized lexical decision task, deciding whether items were real words in either of their languages. The word list had three conditions: interlingual homophones, interlingual homographs, and words exclusive to only one of their languages. The nonword list was divided between

control nonwords and pseudohomophones that sounded like words either in English or Afrikaans. In relation to homographs, interlingual homophones had an inhibitory effect in lexical decision, that is, participants responded more slowly and less accurately to these words. In addition, pseudohomophones that sounded like Afrikaans words were more difficult to reject, evidencing the activation and interaction of phonological codes.

Inhibition effects for interlingual homophones were also reported by Dijkstra, Grainger, and Van Heuven (1999) in a progressive damasking task (experiment 1) and in an English lexical decision task (experiment 2) with Dutch-English bilinguals. The **progressive demasking task** has been much less used in such studies. In this technique, participants had to press a response key as soon as they identified the presented word, which was gradually displayed while the duration of a mask covering it progressively decreased. The task display is exemplified in Figure 1.

Figure 1 - Progressive demasking task



Source: Own authorship, based on Dijkstra, Grainger, and Van Heuven (1999, Experiment 1).

Each rectangle represents the screen event displayed to the participant. The order of the sequence is represented from bottom to top, so the trial first started with the title "next word", when the participant had to press a button to start. A fixation screen appeared for 1500 ms, and a checkerboard pattern mask then covered all the target word and started alternating with it changing time durations in 15 ms. After the participant pressed the key button to indicate the word had been recognized, they had to type it in a dialog box that appeared for them to enter the word in order to check identification accuracy.

This study examined responses to cognates and false friends that varied in their orthographic, semantic, and phonological overlap. One of the word conditions was the non-homographic homophone false friend: a word that only overlapped in phonology across English and Dutch, for example the word "cow /kau/" that sounds like the Dutch word "kou" /kɑu/, meaning "cold". The results showed that these words led to inhibition, increasing error rates and reaction times (RTs) in word recognition, whereas interlingual semantic and orthographic overlap led to faster and more accurate responses. The same pattern of results was obtained in their second experiment with lexical decision.

While cognate words have been universally found to facilitate word processing, it is hard to have a consensus about the polarity of the interlingual homophone effect, because studies have reported deviating results. Contradicting the findings of Dijkstra, Grainger, and Van Heuven (1999), other lexical decision studies failed to find an inhibitory effect for interlingual homophones (LEMHÖFER; DIJKSTRA, 2004; HAIGH; JARED,

2007).

Importantly, Lemhöfer and Dijkstra (2004, experiments 1 and 3) used the same critical material as Dijkstra, Grainger, and Van Heuven (1999) with another group of Dutch-English bilinguals performing an English-specific lexical decision task and a Dutch-English generalized lexical decision task. The only differences between these lexical decision experiments and that of Dijkstra and colleagues (1999) were the different participants, and the exclusion of cognate words. Both tasks could not replicate the inhibition effect for phonological overlap found in the previous study, even though they used the same critical material.

Accordingly, Haigh and Jared (2007) rather found that interlingual homophones were responded to more quickly and more accurately than control words when French-English bilinguals performed a lexical decision task in their L2 (English). That is, a facilitatory effect was found. They observed, in addition, that the homophone effect in reaction time may be influenced by factors such as the composition of the experimental list, and the target language of the task: whether it is their dominant or nondominant language.

After the addition of pseudohomophones as distractors in their experimental list, the interlingual homophone effect had only a weak inhibitory trend in the latency data, but remained facilitatory on the error data, that is, participants still made fewer mistakes with interlingual homophones than with control words. When cognates, interlingual homographs and filler words were added, the homophone effect remained facilitatory in the error data but no significant effect was found in

the latency data.

Furthermore, Haigh and Jared observed that bilinguals activated phonological representations from both of their languages when reading in their L2, but obtained weak evidence that this happened when reading in the L1. When English-French bilinguals performed the task in their L1 (English), they only found a weak facilitatory impact of L2 phonological activation in the error data, even with participants who were highly proficient and lived in a bilingual environment.

It seems that facilitation and similar effects in both language directions (L2 to L1 or L1 to L2) have been more consistently found in studies that used the **masked priming paradigm** (VAN WIJNENDAELE; BRYSBAERT, 2002; LEE; NAM; KATZ, 2005; ZHOU et al., 2010; DIMITROPOULOU; DUÑABEITIA; CARREIRAS, 2011), which is further discussed in the following section.

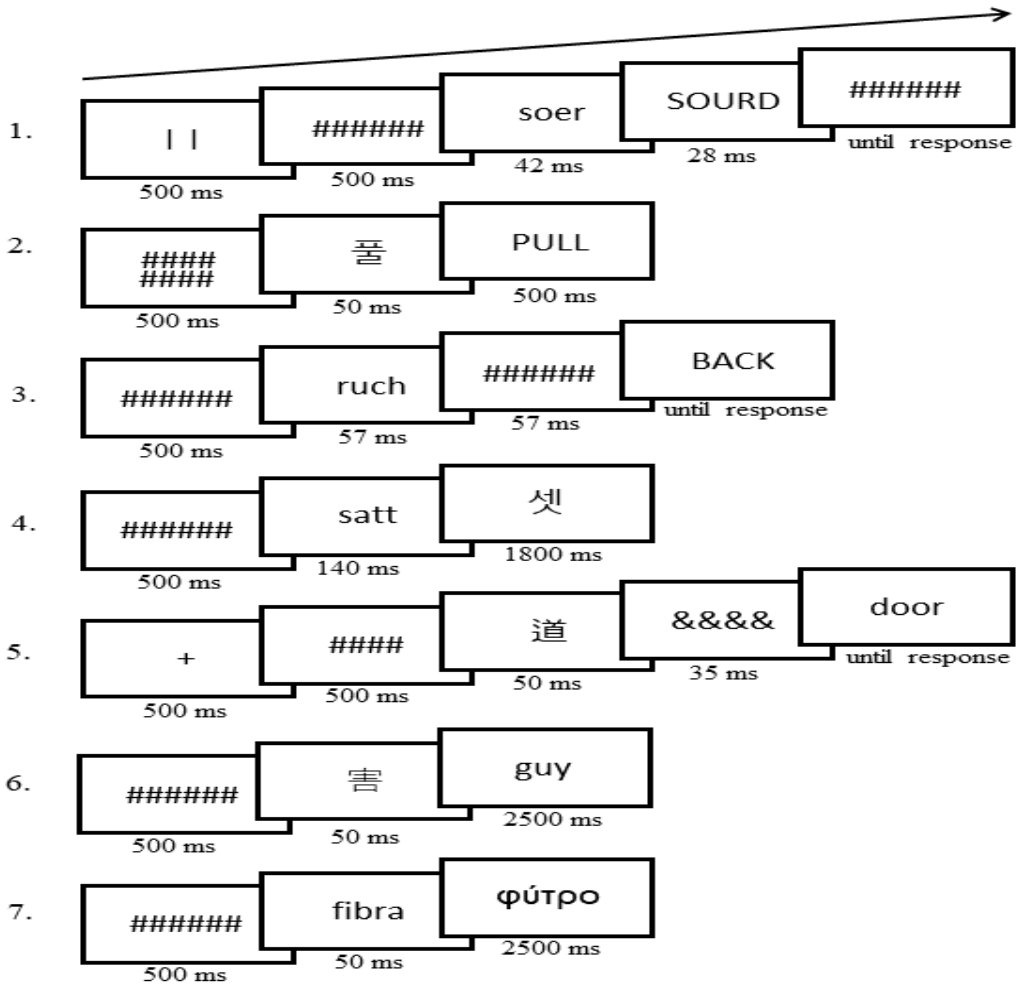
3.2. MASKED PRIMING STUDIES

The general rationale for the priming method was already given in section 2.2, but it must be specified that, in masked priming, a visual mask is also displayed before a stimulus (forward mask) or after it (backward mask). Differently from the progressive demasking task, though, mask and target are not flashed alternatively.

Particularly, there is a prime which is presented too briefly to be consciously noticed and participants aren't typically informed of its presence, only being told that they must react to the target word. Even so, responses to targets are modula-

ted by their relationship with primes. This has also been one of the most extensively used techniques to investigate lexical access, and experiments which used it to examine interlingual homophones that were so far cited in this paper are illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2 – Masked priming experiments



Source: Own authorship, item 1 based on the experiments of Brysbaert, Van Dyck, and Van Poel (1999), and Van Wijnendaele and Brysbaert (2002); item 2 based on Kim and Davis (2003); item 3 based on Duyck (2005); item 4 based on Lee, Nam, and Katz (2005); item 5 based on Zhou et al. (2010); item 6 based on Ando et al. (2014); item 7 based on Dimitropoulou, Duñabeitia, and Carreiras (2011).

Occasionally, a fixation sign will be first displayed on the screen, represented by central vertical lines, or a central cross that lasts for 500ms. Normally, a forward mask also displayed for 500 ms then precedes the prime, which is then followed by the target. If a backward mask is used, it usually appears after the prime (as in items 3 and 5 of Figure 2) or after the target (as in item 1 of Figure 2). The pattern of the mask – whether it is presented by symbols, scrambled letters, a mosaic or a dashboard pattern – may vary across studies, but its primary role is to completely cover the stimuli. At last, the target may also serve as a backward mask (SÁNCHEZ-CASAS; GARCÍA-ALBEA, 2005) and its presentation lasts until the participant makes a response, or up to a time limit around one or two seconds.

The first item of Figure 2 illustrates the second experiment of Brysbaert, Van Dyck, and Van Poel (1999), which was later replicated by Van Wijnendaele and Brysbaert (2002). The participants had to perform a **perceptual identification task**: trying to identify French words that would very briefly appear in uppercase letters, without being informed that they would sometimes be preceded by a nonword prime that sounded like the target if read according to the pronunciation rules of the nontarget language (Dutch). Even though they believed they were reading and performing a task only in French, both Dutch-French and French-Dutch bilinguals could not prevent themselves from activating phonological information of the nontarget language and identifying the French target word “sourd / suʁ/” more easily when it was preceded by the pseudohophone “soer” than when it was preceded by a graphemic control (siard) or an unrelated prime (chane).

Moreover, Kim and Davis (2003) used the priming paradigm illustrated in the second item of Figure 2 with Korean-English bilinguals performing different response tasks to the target word: deciding whether it formed a real English word (lexical decision), reading it aloud (naming), or deciding whether it belonged to a category, (semantic categorization). In the **semantic categorization task**, the name of a category (e.g., fruit, clothing, vegetables, etc.) appeared before the forward mask, and the critical stimuli composed the negative response set, i.e., the words that did not belong to the categories. It was found that Korean homophonic primes (e.g., 풀 /pul/) facilitated responses to English targets (e.g., pull /pʊl/) in lexical decision and naming, though it was only statistically significant in the later. Nevertheless, the results evidenced phonological priming effects across different-script languages and showed that priming can also be modulated by task type.

Item 3 of Figure 2 exemplifies experiment 1 in the study of Duyck (2005), which used masked priming in combination with lexical decision. In this case, the English target "back" was primed by the pseudohomophone "ruch" that sounded like the target's Dutch translation equivalent (rug /rʏx/) if read according to the pronunciation rules of the nontarget language (Dutch). Pseudohomophone priming effects were also found with L2 primes and L1 targets, although effects in the reversed language direction (L1-L2) were stronger.

In another study, illustrated in item 4 of Figure 2, Lee, Nam, and Katz (2005) had Korean-English bilinguals perform a naming task for targets preceded by pseudohomophone primes. This time, prime durations were longer than in other

studies (lasting for 140 ms), but according to the authors it was still too brief to be consciously noticed. The results showed that naming Korean targets (e.g., 셋 /set/) was facilitated by nonword primes (e.g., satt) that were homophonic to the target if read according to English pronunciation rules. The same pattern of results was obtained for Korean pseudohomophone primes preceding English target words.

Interlingual homophone priming in both language directions with languages of different scripts were also obtained by Zhou et al. (2010) with Chinese-English bilinguals, and by Ando et al (2014) with Japanese-English bilinguals, illustrated in items 5 and 6 of Figure 2, respectively. Zhou et al. found that Chinese logographic primes (e.g., 道 /dao/) facilitated responses to English targets (e.g., door /dɔː/) and vice versa, both in lexical decision and naming, with no influence of L2 proficiency on priming effects. These findings were later extended to Japanese and English in the study of Ando et al., which also found facilitative phonological priming effects in both language directions with no influence of L2 proficiency or frequency of the target word.

At last, item 7 of Figure 2 illustrates the masked priming experiment of Dimitropoulou, Duñabeitia, and Carreiras (2011), which examined interlingual homophones across Greek and Spanish with lexical decision. Besides finding similar interlingual homophonic effects both with L1 and L2 targets, this study also observed that, differently from word pairs that overlapped only in phonology and differed in orthography, words that were related both phonologically and orthographically did not facilitate lexical decisions to targets. Thus, priming was found

with fibra - φύτρο (/fiβra - fitro/), but not with ocio – όριο (/oθio - orio/), providing evidence that orthographic similarity also influences the priming effect of interlingual homophones.

3.3. OTHER TECHNIQUES

Beyond such priming experiments that use masked visual stimuli, the **cross-modal priming paradigm** rather includes auditory primes. Schulpen et al. (2003) used this technique with Dutch-English bilinguals performing a lexical decision task to visual English targets being preceded by English or Dutch auditory words that were either interlingual homophones or monolingual controls. The results showed that both Dutch and English versions of auditory homophones (e.g., the spoken English word "leaf" /li:f/ or the spoken Dutch word "lief" /li:f/) primed lexical decisions to visual English targets (e.g., "LEAF") in comparison to unrelated prime-target pairs (e.g., /spu:n/-LEAF or /spu:t/-LEAF). However, this effect was smaller than that of the monolingual control condition, in which English primes that did not have a Dutch interlingual homophone equivalent preceded visual English targets (e.g., /freɪm/-FRAME), indicating that interlingual homophones were more difficult to process than monolingual controls.

Additionally, Schulpen et al. also observed that participants were sensitive to sublexical cues (e.g., aspiration and final devoicing) in the recognition of auditory interlingual homophones, which may not be the case in the visual domain of word recognition. This sensitivity to sublexical cues was evidenced by the finding that targets preceded by Dutch versions

of interlingual homophones were responded to more slowly than those preceded by English primes. This was further supported by the results of another experiment in the same study which used the **gating task**. In this technique, the participants hear increasing speech fragments of words (called gates) which they have to identify and report how confident they are about their answers. Similar to the progressive demasking task, the time presentation of the stimuli keeps getting longer in each gate, until the whole word can be heard.

In the gating experiment of Schulpen et al., Dutch-English bilinguals had to first indicate which word they thought the fragment would be from. Second, they had to report on their word choice confidence, and then indicate the certainty with which they told whether the word was in English or Dutch. The comparisons between identification point (the gate duration where the word was correctly recognized) and language decision suggested that bilinguals are sensitive to sublexical cues in auditory word recognition and that the identification of the language of a target item in spoken word recognition might even happen prelexically, i.e., before it has been recognized.

Another technique that has been less used in interlingual homophone studies but has been quite famous in bilingualism and cognitive control research is the **Stroop task**. In this task, participants have to name the ink color of visual words and ignore their names. As exemplified in Figure 3, the task typically includes a congruent condition in which color names and ink colors are matched, an incongruent condition in which color names are presented in mismatching ink colors, and a neutral condition in which non-conflict items are displayed. The incon-

gruent condition is usually more difficult to process, and participants take longer to respond to such mismatching stimuli. This interference phenomenon is called the **Stroop effect** (DE GROOT, 2011).

Figure 3 - Stroop task conditions

Congruent	Incongruent	Neutral
RED	RED	TABLE
YELLOW	YELLOW	CHAIR
GREEN	GREEN	FORK
BLACK	BLACK	SPOON
SILVER	SILVER	HOUSE
WHITE	WHITE	BOOK

Source: Sabourin and Vīnerte (2020).

Tzelgov et al. (1996) found the stroop effect in a color naming stroop task with Hebrew-English bilinguals. Participants having to name the printed color of a presented letter string in L1 responded slower and less accurately for pseudohomophones that sounded like a different L1 color name according to the L2 pronunciation rules. For example, when the participants saw the letter string “kahol”, which sounds like the Hebrew word for the color blue presented in an incongruent condition with a mismatching ink color that should be reported in Hebrew, their responses were slower and less accurate, showing that spelling-to-sound rules of the nontarget language could not be suppressed when retrieving the color name in the target language.

Finally, beyond the behavioral responses like decision making accuracy and reaction times (RTs), the effect of interlingual homophones on bilingual lexical access has also been

examined with electrophysiological measures such as the recording of **event-related potentials (ERPs)** that are captured by EEG (Electroencephalography) electrodes placed on the scalp of the participants. ERPs can be understood as a "small voltage change in the brain's electrical activity that is induced by a particular stimulus (the 'event')." (DE GROOT, 2011, p. 450). These signals, also called components, provide precise temporal information of the occurrence of cognitive processes time-locked to the presentation of a certain stimulus.

Cortical responses referent to such events can be registered with no required behavioral response, namely with participants merely reading or hearing the critical items, but these studies have often been done in combination to experimental tasks (DE GROOT, 2011). Of particular interest to the domain of language processing is the **N400 component**, a negative wave that has its peak at around 400 ms after stimulus onset, known to reflect semantic integration, having larger amplitudes when participants read sentences in which a word does not match with the context (EYSENCK; KEANE, 2015).

Carrasco-Ortiz, Midgley e Frenck-Mestre (2012) observed reduced N400 amplitudes in responses to interlingual homophones for French-English bilinguals, but not for English monolinguals in a semantic categorization task. Participants had to press a key button if the presented item was the name of a city or country while interlingual homophones (e.g., English "Knee /ni:/" and French "nid /ni/") constituted the negative response set of the task.

The authors concluded that, in line with behavioral studies which have reported facilitatory effects for interlingual

homophones (e.g., HAIGH; JARED, 2007), the reduced N400 amplitude adds further support for an interlingual homophonic processing benefit, since in other studies greater amplitudes of the N400 component have been generated by items that involve efforts to inhibit lexical competitors, por example with orthographic neighbors, and reduced N400s have been found with words known to involve facilitated processing, like frequent words and cognates. (MIDGLEY; HOLCOMB; VAN HEUVEN; GRAINGER, 2008; MIDGLEY, HOLCOMB; GRAINGER, 2011 apud CARRASCO-ORTIZ; MIDGLEY; FRENCK-MESTRE, 2012).

In contrast, CHRISTOFFELS et al. (2016) investigated interlingual homophone effects in word production and rather observed increased N400 amplitudes. In their experiment, Dutch-English bilinguals performed a word-translation task in which the responses they had to speak up were interlingual homophones. For example, saying the English word “leaf / li:f/” (homophonic to Dutch “lief” /lif/) in response to the Dutch word “blad”. They found enhanced mistakes and increased N400s both in L1 and L2 production, but amplitudes were more negative in forward translation (L1-L2) than in backward translation (L2-L1). The authors concluded that the N400 modulation suggests an inhibitory effect due to semantic conflicts in output production of these homophones, which were more difficult to process when they performed in their nondominant language. As can be seen, dissimilar effects regarding language direction have been found not only with behavioral studies, but also with brain responses. The next section addresses the language pairs investigated in the studies discussed in section 3.

4 LANGUAGE PAIRS

This section is specifically meant to synthesize the answer to the second research question of the present study: What language pairs have been examined in interlingual homophone studies and what results have been found? The review of the experiments provided above somehow have already provided such response, which is summarized in Table 2, specifying the languages of the participants for each study.

Table 2 - Investigated language pairs

STUDY	PARTICIPANTS
NAS (1983)	Dutch-English bilinguals
DOCTOR; KLEIN (1992)	English-Afrikaans bilinguals
TZELGOV et al. (1996)	Hebrew-English bilinguals
BRYSBAERT; VAN DYCK; VAN POEL (1999)	Dutch-French bilinguals
DIJKSTRA; GRAINGER; VAN HEUVEN (1999)	Dutch-English bilinguals
VAN WIJNENDAELE; BRYSBAERT (2002)	French-Dutch bilinguals
SCHULPEN et al. (2003)	Dutch-English bilinguals
KIM; DAVIS (2003)	Korean-English bilinguals
LEMHÖFER; DIJKSTRA (2004)	Dutch-English bilinguals
DUYCK (2005)	Dutch-English bilinguals
LEE; NAM; KATZ (2005)	Korean-English bilinguals
HAIGH; JARED (2007)	English-French and French-English bilinguals
ZHOU et al. (2010)	Chinese-English bilinguals
DIMITROPOULOU; DUÑABEITIA; CARREIRAS (2011)	Greek-Spanish bilinguals
CARRASCO-ORTIZ; MIDGLEY; FRENCK-MESTRE (2012)	French-English bilinguals
ANDO et al. (2014)	Japanese-English bilinguals
CHRISTOFFELS et al. (2016)	Dutch-English bilinguals

Source: Own elaboration.

As depicted in Table 2, only 3 of 17 studies examined the effect of interlingual homophones with language pairs that did not include English: Dutch-French, French-Dutch, and Greek--Spanish. The rest majority all investigated L1 or L2 speakers of English, probably due to the prestige and global status of this language, or maybe because other different bilingual speakers have so far been overlooked in this research domain of experimental studies in psycholinguistics.

Still, as seen in section 3, interlingual homophone effects have been observed with languages that are fairly similar, such as Dutch and English which both have Germanic roots, with languages that share the same alphabetic script such as English and French, and also with languages that have completely distinct writing systems, such as English and Hebrew, and logographic Asian languages.

Moreover, similar effects were found in both language directions (with L1 influencing L2 and vice versa) in all language pairs reported here, except for French and English. Haigh and Jared failed to find significant L2 to L1 influence with these languages even with highly proficient bilinguals, although such result may be attributed to other factors rather than the French language itself. Besides, as noted by Van Assche, Duyck, and Brysbaert (2020, p. 18), "The dominant language (typically L1) has a stronger effect on the nondominant language (typically L2)".

Moreover, Dutch-English interlingual homophone investigations have provided diverging evidence either for facilitation or inhibition effects using the same language pair, and even with the same experimental material (DIJKSTRA; GRAIN-

GER; VAN HEUVEN., 1999; LEMHÖFER; DIJKSTRA, 2004).

In their Greek-Spanish study, Dimitropoulou, Duñabeitia, and Carreiras (2011) argued that a pure phonological effect may be more reliably observed with different script languages, because they have only minimal or no orthographic overlap, which may enhance inhibitory effects and even prevent the appearance of phonological activation due to competition at the orthographic level. Accordingly, they found facilitatory effects for prime-target pairs that overlapped in phonology, but not with prime-target pairs that overlapped both in phonology and orthography.

Haigh and Jared (2007) also discuss about the influence of orthography in the effect of homophones in lexical decision. They report that, according to the results of monolingual studies which investigated intralingual homophones, stronger inhibitory effects are found when the members of the homophone have similar spellings (HAIGH; JARED, 2004; PEXMAN et al., 2001, apud HAIGH; JARED, 2007).

With everything considered, it is assumed that the 17 studies presented in Tables 1 and 2 make up, or at least sample, the substantial research on interlingual homophone effects in bilingual word processing, but together they have only examined 9 different language pairs. It would be worthwhile to examine the effect of interlingual homophones with other language pairs to investigate, for example, how Brazilian Portuguese--English bilinguals behave with such type of stimuli in lexical access. The following section addresses interlingual homophone characteristics and offers a tentative list of words that could serve as this type of stimulus for future research.

5 PORTUGUESE-ENGLISH INTERLINGUAL HOMOPHONES

This section aims at answering the third research question of the present paper: What words could serve as stimulus to investigate the effect of interlingual homophones across Brazilian Portuguese and English? Factors took under consideration in the selection of items in the previous studies will be addressed, and a list of word pairs to be refined and applied in future research will be proposed.

Christoffels et al. (2015, p. 629) defines interlingual homophones as "words in the first and second language that have a different meaning, but a very similar pronunciation". For Carrasco-Ortiz et al. (2012, p. 532), they are "words that enjoy substantial phonological overlap across languages but have different spellings and meanings". Note that none of these definitions describe that interlingual homophones have to be identical.

If one takes a close look at the material lists of the studies reviewed above, it becomes observable that words often differ in vowel sounds (e.g., bun /bʌn/ - bonne /bɔn/ in the study of Haigh and Jared) and even consonant sounds (e.g., fibra /fiβra/ - φύτρο /fitro/ in the study of Dimitropoulou, Duñabeitia, and Carreiras). However, the authors argue that these might be just slight differences of sounds that bilinguals actually group in a same L1 phonemic category, just as sometimes Portuguese-English bilinguals pronounce the TH sound as /f/ or /d/, for example.

Indeed, finding words that can serve as homophonic stimuli across languages that may have very contrasting phonemes, can be quite challenging. The prerequisite reasoned by

Dimitropoulou, Duñabeitia, and Carreiras (2011) is that word pairs have extensive phonological but limited orthographic overlap.

In addition, when constructing the experimental list, in interlingual homophone studies care has also been taken to avoid semantic overlap and, if graphemic overlap is present, matched control words that usually share the same frequency and number of letters are used to isolate such influence (BRYSBAERT; VAN DYCK; VAN POEL, 1999).

Taking these considerations into account, Table 3 provides a tentative list of words that could serve as stimuli to investigate the effect of interlingual homophones across Brazilian Portuguese and English.

Table 3 - Interlingual homophones across English and Brazilian Portuguese

	PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTIONS		INTERLINGUAL HOMOPHONES		PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTIONS	
N°	BRIT	AME	EN	PT	SP	RJ
1	/kæn/		**can**	**quem**	'ke?	'kẽj
2	/'sent?(r)/	/'sent?r/	**center**	**senta**	'sẽj.t?	'sẽ.t?
3	/'k?l?(r)/	/'k?l?r/	**color**	**cola**	'k?.l?	'k?.l?
4	/k??ɹ/	/k??ɹt/	**court**	**corte**	'k??.t?i	'k?x.t??
5	/'s?ɹi/	/'s??i/	**city**	**cite**	'si.t?i	'si.t??
6	/de?/		**day**	**dei**	'dej	
7	/'deɹ?/	/'de??/	**data**	**deita**	'dej.t?	'dej.t?
8	/fju?/		**few**	**fio**	'fiw	
9	/'h??p?(r)/	/'ho?p?r/	**hoper**	**roupa**	'?o.p?	'xo.p?
10	/leɹt/		**late**	**leite**	'lej.t?i	'lej.t??
11	/le?/		**lay**	**lei**	'lej	
12	/'liɹd?(r)/	/'li??r/	**leader**	**lida**	'li.d?	'li.d?
13	/miɹn/		**mean**	**mim**	'mi?	'mĩ
14	/'nev?(r)/	/'nev?r/	**never**	**neva**	'ne.v?	'ne.v?
15	/p??s/	/pæs/	**pass**	**pés**	'p?s	'p?j?
16	/p??st/	/pæst/	**past**	**peste**	'p?s.t?i	'p??.t??
17	/p??/		**push**	**puxe**	'pu.?i	'pu.??
18	/pa?/		**pie**	**pai**	'paj	
19	/se?/		**say**	**sei**	'sej	
20	/s??/		**saw**	**só**	's?	
21	/si?/		**sea**	**si**	'si	
21	/'sel?(r)/	/'sel?r/	**seller**	**cela**	's?.l?	's?.l?
23	/?uɹt/		**shoot**	**chute**	'?u.ti	'?u.t?
24	/'?nd?(r)/	/'?nd?r/	**under**	**anda**	'?.d?	'?.d?
25	/'vælju?/		**value**	**velho**	v'?.??	

Source: Own elaboration. Phonetic transcriptions were consulted on the online

Oxford Learner's Dictionaries (available at: https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/), and ASHBY et al's (2012) Dicionário Fonético proposed by Portal da Língua Portuguesa (available at: http://www.portaldalinguaportuguesa.org/index.php?action=fonetica), including variations from São Paulo (SP) and Rio de Janeiro (RJ).

The items proposed in Table 3 were chosen attempting to make the word pairs as phonological similar as possible, but it would be relevant to further refine the list in subsequent studies. For instance, in tasks such as lexical decision, the participants should know the words used in the critical stimuli, so it is relevant that the experimental list is composed by high-frequency words, which was not controlled in the elaboration of the present list.

6 FINAL REMARKS

The present study provided an overview of psycholinguistic experimental research that investigated the effect of interlingual homophones in bilingual lexical access, covering important theoretical points in this research domain, such as phonological activation, word recognition, and experimental techniques used in a sample of 17 different studies. The variety of studies reviewed in section 3 constitute substantial evidence of the effect of interlingual homophones in bilingual language processing in different techniques, including visual word recognition, spoken word recognition, brain responses, and word production.

It should be remarked, however, that the literature analysis in the present paper has focused mostly in lexical access on bilingual reading. Although one study on spoken word recog-

nition was included, there are still other works which investigated phonologically similar words with auditory stimuli that were not covered here, but, because it would be unviable not to narrow the present analysis, it was deemed feasible to only include the auditory word recognition study of Schulpen et al. (2003).

Interestingly, as experiments differed in some aspects including task type, stimulus list, and language pairs, some results were also discrepant regarding, for example, L2 to L1 influence, and facilitative or inhibitory effects. Regardless of such divergencies, it became evident that phonology plays a crucial role in bilingual word processing, supporting strong phonological models of visual word recognition and language nonselective bilingual lexical access, even though phonological processing has received little attention by researchers in comparison to semantics and orthography (CARRASCO-ORTIZ; MIDGLEY; FRENCK-MESTRE, 2012).

Nonetheless, considering the few language pairs presented in section 4, it would be relevant to extend such experimental studies to interlingual homophones in other languages that have not been investigated yet, such as Brazilian Portuguese and English, which so far have been restricted to cognate studies (TOASSI; MOTA, 2014, 2018; TOASSI; MOTA; TEIXEIRA, 2020). Section 5 provided a list of possible stimuli words to investigate the effect of interlingual homophones in this language pair, but it also should be refined in future studies.

It would be interesting to examine, for example, if Portuguese-English bilinguals would show effects from L1 to L2 and vice versa, whether they would show facilitation or inhibition

effects, whether they would be sensitive to sublexical cues in auditory word recognition, or even if interlingual homophones would activate semantic representations of the other language in a translation or associative task. Future studies could also use a different experimental list with longer words to investigate, for example, if word stress would have any impact on effects of the critical stimuli, or more importantly to investigate bilinguals that are not necessarily English L2 speakers, including minority languages which would enrich the literature even more.

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CHAPTER 2

MONOLINGUALISM IN THE US LANGUAGE POLICY: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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1 INTRODUCTION

Recent research has been concerned with the effects and consequences of monolingual views in countries that emphasize monolingualism in English, especially in a world-wide power such as the United States of America.

Globalization has spread multilingual practices and it has contested the connections between monolingual ideologies and the notion of a one-language-one nation. Especially when people think about a country that is characterized as an English dominant, we first think about the United States. Recent research has shown the need for employers to speak other languages different from English as a BBC article from 2018[1] mentions a report from New American Economy found that adverts for bilingual workers in the US doubled between 2010 and 2015. Einar Haugen (1972) "America's profusion of tongues has made her a modern Babel, but a Babel in reverse.

The criteria for the selection of the articles herein analy-

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zed relies on investigation of the effects, characteristics that monolingualism have on society in the US. What frame(s) of society this ideology affects? What impacts monolingualism have in the education system? What generates monolingualism in the USA? After all, what problems does multilingual students and citizens face while living in a monolingual society/system? What alternatives do these researches give in order to overcome the problems engendered by monolingual policies and ideologies? What are the relevant issues that restrain language learning , namely bilingual education?

One of the purposes of this research was that teachers, future teachers and researchers need to be more aware of the implication policies (or having any) and movements have in students, teachers present and future.

The studies herein analysed inform about the need of exploring and cultivating one's first language. They also promote the exercise of exploring and understanding the linguistic diversity in today's world. They manage to provide insights on the importance of language learning in a society where many people are discouraged to maintain, develop, and cultivate their own cultural heritage by addressing issues related to immigrant and minority rights. It should be said that the selection of texts herein analysed are separated by themes and not chronologically.

Substantial efforts are currently underway to explore, produce research that can shed some light on the topic of monolingualism, promote the rights for minority languages, the importance of learning languages, and the advance of appropriate language education for multilingual students. This paper

aims to report and analyze these current efforts by demonstrating studies from the area from the past decade. To accomplish these goals this study raises the following research questions:

R1: What issues do the researches herein analysed reveal about the nature of the monolingualism phenomenon? Is it social, political, economical, linguistic or other?

R2: What solutions are addressed by the researchers in order to overcome problems faced by monolingualism?

The previous questions act as a starting gate for launching some fundamental issues about the phenomenon of English monolingualism. First, it begins by surveying some aspects of the differences between monolingualism and multilingualism in a historical overview of the researches in the area, then I will discuss how monolingualism ideologies are related to language policies in education, the third part of this paper will present the studies analyzed and their findings, and the last part presents a general perspective on what we can expect for the future on monolingualism studies. 1. https://www.bbc.com/worklife/article/20180808-what-is-the-future-of-english-in-the-us

2 MONOLINGUAL AND MULTILINGUAL PERSPECTIVES

In the past few years, we have been confronted with the idea that we must learn many languages in order to get more opportunities for our future. Even though monolingualism is often assumed as being the norm (Pavlenko, 2000), it is often assumed that most people across the world are multilingual

(Edwards 1994). The language barriers broken by immigration and their multicultalirity embrace our present in manners we so used to confront that these lead us to take it for granted. We are often blind to understand the impacts communication has in people's lives. Facing the needs of the present and future in relation to reality of globalization we are still faced with societies and nations that agree and enhance values that share monolingual systems to develop an ideal of standard language (Silverstein 1996:284) Such is the case in Europe, England, which was evaluated as the worst country at learning other languages - https://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/home--news/uk-worst-country-europe-learn-language-world-first--video-dictionary-a7329641.html .

There is a contradiction in countries and nations where an ideal of Standard language is shared while the evidence of societal plurilingualism is everywhere about us'. In this section, the definitions and some of the assumptions related to both terms will be addressed in order to shed some light on the topic of this paper.

To start we need to understand the meaning of the terms Monolingualism and Multilingualism. According to Kemp (2009), the term Monolingualism designates people who are only able to speak one language and may be proficient at using a number of different varieties of the language together with different registers in the variety or varieties they know. Ellis (2006) uses the term Monolinguality that describes the psycholinguistic state of an individual knowing one language. In this paper, the studies analyzed mainly make use of the latter.

The definition for multilingualism is also followed by

many observations but is usually described as a person who has "the ability to use three or more languages, either separately or in various degrees of code-mixing. Different languages are used for different purposes, competence in each varying according to such factors as register, occupation, and education" (McArthur 1992:673; see also Edwards 1994; Vildomec 1963). Multilinguals may not have equal proficiency in or control over all the languages they know. The term 'polyglot' and plurilingual is also sometimes used to describe multilingual individuals. Nowadays the term has covered people who speak more than one language, being a general term to bilinguals as well.

Research on multilinguals claim that Li Wei and Wu (2009, 193) 'codeswitching is the most distinctive behavior of the bilingual speaker.' Multilingual speakers use semiotic resources, which include their linguistic resources, in creative ways both in face-to-face interaction and when they use online social networks. This idea is completely different from the one enhanced by the idealized monolingual speaker.

2.1 MONOLINGUALISM IN THE USA

The lack of importance and attention to language use and learning in the United States is an evident reality seeing that according to the K12 foreign language enrollment survey report from 2017, foreign language enrollments account for approximately 20% of the total school age population. A total of 11 states have foreign language graduation requirements; 16 states do not have foreign language graduation requirements. There are several reasons that explain the US monolingualism.

Recent research rely on the ideals of Nationalism coming back from the time of the beginning of the 20th century; spread of English dominance in a global scale;

Wiley (2004) lists the following possible reasons that the founders of the U.S. chose not to designate English as the official language:

(1) The dominance of English was self-evident, rendering an official policy unnecessary; (2) The founders respected linguistic diversity and minority rights when U.S. was aiming at attracting more immigrants to settle down; (3) Hesitant to offend minorities who had supported the revolutionary cause, the founders opted for a tolerant approach (Wiley, 2004, 320)

Regardless of the thinking of the US founders, the English language has functioned as the official language throughout the history of the US.

Monolingualism researches are mostly concerned with analysing the ideals inside the belief and policies that emphasize and make use of this monoglot standard guide to teach, learn and understand each other through communication in a multicultural/lingual community. These researches are concerned with showing the disadvantages for economic incomes for US citizens when keeping up policies derived from monolingual ideologies;

However as pointed out by Ellis (2008) there is little systematic investigation of monolingualism: Romaine pointed out in 1995 that she would find it strange to see a book with the title 'Monolingualism'. Thinking about this we should clarify the difference of meaning between the two terms: Monolingual and Multilingual and the connection between both.

2.2 DEBATES AROUND THE INTERSECTION OF MULTILINGUALISM AND MONOLINGUALISM

Afterwards, what is the relation between monolingualism and multilingualism? The spread of English in the Globalized World as stated by Nettle and Romaine 2000, is seeing as the promotion of monolingualism in English, a factor that contributed to the loss of other languages, even though most of the world's population are bilingual. English utterly developed around the world because of its dominance as an international language.

One of the debates around the intersection of multilingualism and monolingualism usually involves the rights of minority languages and language conflicts. Joseph Lo bianco (2016) mentions the two kinds of relationships in language conflict, he cites the fast-acting and slow-acting, the latter being the effect of ignoring or denigrating the home language of children "such as when Indigenous and immigrant children are taught in languages that they don't know, with no effort to help them learn the dominant or officcial language, and complete neglect of their home languages".

Another debate concerning these two notions is the treatment of approaches inside bilingual educational programs and the differences between bilingual/multilingual and monolinguals communication towards fluency.

The debates over the withdrawal of bilingual programs and the introduction of English only programs with the monolingual movements that accompanied these novel programs.

In order to distinguish the previous notions we should address the role language policies carry in the USA.

3 LANGUAGE EDUCATION POLICY IN THE UNITED STATES

Kaplan and Balduf define language policy as a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve the planned language change in the societies, group or system." (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997). Johnson D.C. (2013) defends that language policy is what a government does either officially through legislation, court decisions or policy to determine how languages are used, cultivate language skills needed to meet national priorities or to establish the rights of individuals or groups to use and maintain languages. He also adds that "language policies do not need to be enacted by an authoritative body – they can emerge from a bottom-up movement or grassroots organization – and not all language policies are intentional or carefully planned.

Language policies are usually developed to solve linguistic problems in multilingual communities where language diversity and minority languages are often approached as a social problem. In other scenarios language education policies are created to strength the learning and teaching of specific languages. Such is the case of Switzerland, Canada and the Basque Country.

Danping Wang (2016) regards that language policy, therefore, is not only found in public and official acts and docu-

ments, it is also found in simple, every day speech. To mention one example of language policy that arose from bottom-up movements is the English Plus. Language policy has social and political impacts, for instance it directs the (re)construction of national identity, delimit or promote linguistic human rights, addresses the education of linguistic minorities, promotes language revitalization and has a role in legitimizing linguistic practices and cultures of particular groups while enhancing others.

Language policy impacts language use and education. Wiley (2002) and Macias and Wiley (1998) add to Kloss's (1998[1977]) schema categorizing educational language policies regarding minority language rights according to the purpose or orientation of a language policy and cite (5) Null Policies (the absence of policy recognizing minority languages or varieties, which Farr and Song point out "a null policy, or having no explicit/overt language policy at all, is actually a type of language policy, one which results from ignoring the language differences and needs of minority language speakers (Wiley 2002). A representation of the impacts language policy have in society and education is the case of French in Louisiana which was deemed as a foreign language in schools despite being more present than English "French could only be a foreign language class and such classes were often not available."[2]

According to Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) the main issues of language education policy are the targeted students, the teachers and their training, the syllabus and curriculum, the methods and materials, the economic resources and last but not least, assessment and evaluation. Language policy in different

countries is usually reflected in the curriculum time devoted to the teaching of different languages as a subject and the teaching of other subjects through those languages. Gorter and Cenoz (2017). Language as a subject and the teaching of other subjects (math, science) through those languages. Thus it reflects the medium of instruction in schools.

3.1 BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN THE USA

Here and now I will address the differences between bilingual education and dual language programs. Are bilingual education more concerned with teaching English to non English speakers or with the teaching of languages?

Dual language is a form of education in which students are taught literacy and content in two languages. These are considered “additive” bilingual programs because they “add” a second language for students, instead of trying to extinguish a minority language and move a student to exclusively use English.

Hinton (2016) declared that bilingual education in the United States teaches English. In bilingual educational programs the use of other languages is merely transitional and the focus of the language policy is in English. “It can be useful to acquire literacy in other languages but a high level of literacy in English is indispensable for external examinations and for access to higher education. “

4 LANGUAGE IDEOLOGIES AND LANGUAGE MOVEMENTS

Language ideology is a field that developed from Alan Rumsey's definition, based on Silverstein (1979) which sees language ideologies as "shared bodies of common-sense notions about the nature of language in the world "(1990: 346). Language ideologies, then, connect the linguistic with the social, and they do so in the interest of a particular, usually powerful, social position(Kroskrity 2000; Schieffelin et al. 1998).

Language ideologies have followed two main lines of thought. Standardization and Monolingualism. To understand the notion of standardization we need to go back to the ideals spread by the French Revolution which enhanced the notion of 'national language' and created a sense of aversion over minority languages before promoted by the Church and the monarchy.

Thus, Farr and Song (2011) claim that monolingualism in a standard language became the desirable norm and a widespread, deeply rooted language ideology. As we can see there is a close alignment of an ideology of standardization with an ideology of monolingualism. We can consider Standard English the absence of stigmatized linguistic forms, not the presence of particular forms (Farr and Daniels 1986). Thus particular linguistic forms become marked out as non standard due to the social categories of people they indicate, and not because of their own characteristics. Farr and Song (2011) acknowledges that the culture of monoglot Standard naturalizes the indexical links between linguistic features and social categories of people. Standard English becomes the main tool underlying the promotion of English (Only) in the U.S. and is promoted by particular language policies.

Language ideologies are beliefs about language and these beliefs are inseparable from education. Thus language ideologies are interconnected with language policies since the former influences the latter directly and implicitly.

The origins of the English officialization movement has its roots in the achievements of the English only movements from the 1980s, it has also followed the abolition of the Bilingual education act. Bilingual education has been fully concerned with the transition of non english speakers from bilingualism to full literacy in English. It is not the purpose of the bill to create pockets of different languages throughout the country, but just to try to make those children fully literate in English" (Cruz 1998, 29).

First there are few facts that support the causes of English only proponents relying on the assumption that the English language is being threatened. Favoring English as the official language, in itself, should not be equated with racism. Yet, racist attitudes toward Latinos, in particular, have been closely associated with this movement.

An example of a racist attitude is the declaration given by John Tanton, a member of the U.S English movement, that said

> "Gobernar es poblar" translates "to govern is to populate." In this society where the majority rules, does this hold? Will the present majority peaceably hand over its political power to a group that is simply more fertile? Perhaps this is the first instance in which those with their pants up are going to get caught by those with their pants down!
>
> (**Crawford, 2000, 23**)

5 RECENT RESEARCH ON MONOLINGUALISM IN THE U.S. LANGUAGE POLICY

A growing body of previous research of literature interests in the field of monolingualism as it has been the scope of many previous researches (references). The purpose of examining monolingualism varies since it touches many points in education, politics, human rights, etc. However we can state that these studies are mostly concerned with language problems that may include analysing the disadvantages these ideologies carry on immigrants, loss of heritage languages and linguistic intolerance, unsuitable environment for ELLs.

Marcia Farr and Juyoung Song (2011) inform language teachers and other educators about the language ideologies that underlie current educational policy in the US and around the world. They discuss the existent conflict between language ideologies and the effect they have on policy and in pragmatic sociolinguistic realities. Their goal was to improve the teacher's understanding of learners' multilingual practices and develop a critical perspective toward language policies in their local contexts that better suit their multilingual students.

They claim that language ideology influences language policies and the former has social and political consequences since it reflects and differentiates power within a society such is the case of multilingual students within an English Only setting of school. The authors examine European-origin ideologies' historical context to make a comparison with US language policies to contrapoint the globalized reality of multilingualism in sociolinguistic realities.

The authors pointed out that the notion of the culture of monoglot Standard English naturalizes the indexical links between linguistic features and social categories of people leading to the promotion of English (only) in the U.S. and this is promoted by particular language policies. They also show that top down language policies, that generally overpower teacher's practices and intentions, are sometimes pressured by bottom--up initiatives to alter the policy. An example of alteration could come from research findings that show that non-English speakers need 5–7 years to acquire academic English (Cummins 1979, 1981) while bilingual education policy in Chicago limits it to 3.

The study mentions the argument that policy makers must recognize vernacular varieties of English since it reduces the gap between students' plurilingual realities and the monoglot standard ideology underlying language education policies. The large number of bilingual speakers in the U.S. (and elsewhere) and a more flexible view of proficiency must also be recognized since rarely do they develop the same level of proficiency in both languages. This way proficiency should be understood as the appropriate use of the language in context. This a manner to enhance teacher's decision of language inside classrooms since they (Farr &Song) (2011) produce, affirm and/or disconfirm language policies every day – when they allow or disallow the use of one language or variety rather than another, when they choose to use a particular variety of a language to communicate with their students. The authors claim teachers must be aware of their power in language policies.

Ester J. de Jong (2013) investigates the discourses that

underlie the policy discourses of linguistic diversity in schools. She differentiates the pluralistic and assimilationist discourses by taking them as a societal conversation. The article proposes a discussion in order to construct alternative pluralistic discourse that advocates more equitable outcomes.

First the study describes the discursive frames that characterize pluralist and assimilationist discourses. The pluralist approach's main purpose is to highlight the benefits bi- and multilingualism have for society's well being at the economic, political, cognitive and educational level where cultural and linguistic diversity is the norm to develop one's own language and to support the others. On the contrary the assimilationist discourses stress the importance of having one (official) language to maintain sociopolitical unity and prosperity. One key characteristic of this monolingual perspective is that they may tolerate the use of a student's native language in class but not with the intention of developing this language.

The article then traces how U.S. language policies have come to the current dominance of monolingual discourses in language-in-education policies for English Language Learners (ELLs). The study mentions that the tentatives of blocking the spread of other languages in place of English passed through different periods of time and the support to multilingualism in the US history came and went through laws. The renaming of the federal Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs to "Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students" makes a clear return to an assimilationist focus.

The article adds that pluralist language-in-education policies continue to create multilingual spaces in schools despite the hegemony of monolingualism. The two-way immersion programs enroll both majority and minority language speakers and aim for high levels of bilingualism and biliteracy for all students". These efforts continue to position the maintenance and development of multiple languages as a resource (Ruiz, 1984) an asset for the individual and the community at large.

To sum up she emphasizes that practices such NCLB have not brought the positive impact it had expected and actually has led ELLs to higher drop outs. The author advocates principles for policies and practices desired to achieve the educational equity by adopting texts and textbooks accessible to students culture identity and implementing curriculum that reflects cultural and issues relevant to students' cultural experience; students' home and school languages are viewed and used as a resource for teaching and addresses that schools improve plans that pay attention to the impact linguistic and cultural diversity have for the connection of students, parents and communities.

This study is extremely relevant since it acknowledges various aspects inside current policy and decision making towards language education. It draws not only american silence towards questions of multilingualism and cultural value but the world's attention.

Lilian Paternina (2013) reviewed Spanish language and educational policies related to bilingual education in the border states between the US and Mexico. The author believes federal language policies in the US are nonexistent and at the same

time implicitly favors monolingualism. She analyses the current Spanish situation and its legislation in Arizona, California, and Texas to present some of the anti-immigrants feeling that exists in these states that lead to restrictions of use of Spanish and other languages as well.

The author then mentions the attention movements such as English Only have in the legislation of border states between US and Mexico, that led to the approval of laws that forbid bilingual education in California and Arizona during 1998 and 2000. It is important to mention the setback of the implementation of the NCLB act that made for anti bilingualism laws of California, Arizona and Massachusetts.

The author concludes that there is a dissonance between US linguistic policies, or the lack of it, and the border states actual language contexts. The little linguistic legislation the country carries in validating the diverse languages determines the prejudices and lack of engaging suitable contexts to Spanish and other languages students.

The author highlights the relevance of the spanish population in the state borders, and points out their importance in the economic spectrum. With the exception of New Mexico that declares itself as a bilingual state, the other contexts analysed showed a concern with the officialization of the English language in a place where the Spanish speakers cannot be considered a minority. The article describes the absence of practice of these policy amendments since many official documents are still translated into various languages.

The author provides the example of the English For the Children Proposal 203 that declared the abolishment of bi-

lingual programs and demanded Limited English Proficiency students to immerse in a one year monolingual environment. Statistics of the National Assessment of Educational Progress revealed this policy has not affected the students improvement in mathematics and reading abilities.

The study shows a concern with the type of plurality discourse these states are perpetuating in a century managed by respect of the civil and human rights, which includes linguistic rights. A behaviour which sounds contrary to a country so diverse as is the United States.

Schwarzer & Christian's (2014) study is an attempt to reconstruct the role of monolingual teachers who work with students who are mostly multilingual and transnational inside mainstream classrooms. The authors showcase two activities that can be used in mainstream classrooms to activate discussions about multilingualism and multilingual literacy.

They display the need teachers must carry to bridge the gap between multilingual and transnational nature of student communities and the mostly monolingual teacher body (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). The study believes that in order to make curricular changes in the classrooms it is important to understand the reality of US multilingual nature. One good example of this diversity is that a single school has about seventeen languages spoken and these speakers are invaded by submersion approaches that lack support to maintain their first language.

What they propose is a new role for monolingual teachers that aims to incorporate at least some of the resources available in students' native languages, even if they do not have a working knowledge of those languages. The authors descri-

be two activities involving students and teachers own heritage languages and culture to support learning and rely on the practical implementation that would enhance awareness of and development of different languages within a monolingual instructional environment.

The first practical activity is called (FLUT) Family Language Usage Tree, created to tap into all the family language resources of individual students. The second one is the Community Language Usage Tree (CLUT) which fulfills all the community language resources (including the school community).

The aim of the first activity is to show teachers and students the nature of students' language backgrounds and its relationships to students' cultures. "The goal is to discover unknown aspects about their own linguistic and cultural backgrounds ..."

The article reveals the importance CLUT would make in achieving students and teachers' awareness of the prevalence of languages other than English in their everyday life and that would lead to an enhanced appreciation and understanding of their importance in their future.

The authors advise the following three steps of a successful implementation of the FLUT And CLUT: 1) Modeling teachers' own FLUT/CLUT;2) Researching students' FLUT/CLUT; 3) Sharing students' FLUT/CLUT.

By modelling the teachers own research of FLUT and CLUT this would inspire and help students to visualize their final product. In step two students dive into their family and community language usage in order to bridge students' linguistic realities. Here students are asked to complete a questionnai-

re after observing and interviewing members of the immediate family and/or community, complete tables that will summarize the data collected during the interviews and the last one involves the answering of another questionnaire which calls for students reflections during the accomplished process.

The authors declared that sharing the FLUT or CLUT is to get students interested in other students' family and community backgrounds; to celebrate the diverse nature of our classrooms; and to start paying attention to the role languages other than English play in our daily life.

In the mainstream classroom the FLUT could be used to teach vocabulary and to make lessons more culturally relevant and connected to student's realities, such as connecting it to the family structure in Spanish (such as mother, father, brother, grandma). Schwarzer & Christian (2014).

This study develops and increases students and specially teachers awareness presenting an empowered activity that provides both learning of particular cultural and linguistic aspects and understanding of the multilingualism still alive in many people inside communities and surroundings.

Danping Wang (2016) provides an overview of the process of English in the history of language education policies and language movements in the United sSates in an attempt to interpret today's English-Only movement in ESL classrooms. She analyses language policy planning during the years of "English officialization", "Bilingual education", and "English Plus" with the goal of clarifying the debates of education language policies that could create a justifiable space for multilingual learners to learn through their mother tongues

Wang's exploration of the language movements and tentatives of officializing the English language in the country shows these attitudes led to more racist ideologies from the people in U.S society. In contrast she emphasizes the economic advantages of the English Plus movement which enhance international competitiveness and national security in current globalized society. This would be a crucial step in language policy to promote language learning that serves the individual's national interests..

The author also elucidates the reasons why ESL teachers need to learn how to "maximize" the use of the target language with adequate knowledge of classroom management skills in order to motivate students that are currently immersed in an unknown environment surrounded by English. She quotes Phillipson's (1992) "Five Tenets", which described and criticized the common assumptions about ESL teaching and learning.

"English is best taught monolingually; The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker; The earlier English is taught, the better the results; The more English is taught, the better the results; If other languages are used much, standards of English will drop." The author reveals that some schools and teachers even devised a penalty system to punish any use of students' mother tongues.

The study mentions (Paulo Freire (1996) which pointed out that the content of the curriculum of adult education is drawn from participants' life experiences and invites reflection on these experiences.

To conclude the article argues that the monolingual approach for English language learning should be rejected be-

cause it denies students the right to draw on their language resources according to the sociocultural theory in language learning. The study adds an interesting overview of current demands educational language policy must have in order to attend its whole population. Following researchers should focus on more practices to help students multilinguals necessities in monolingual schools.

The author mentions that considering the matter of the country's acceptance and openness to immigrants, the United States needs to promote bilingualism in order to exploit the diversity and encourage ethnic tolerance.

Hinton (2016) claims that adopted labels ("mainstream" (Pettit, 2011), "regular" (Cook, 1996), "normal" (Cummins, 2008), and "English-Only" (Restrepo et al., 2010) for English medium education are inadequate and inaccurate. Encouraged by the discursive shift of the term emergent bilingual (Garcia et al., 2009) the study proposes renaming English medium education to the term monolingual education, a transformation that would make this inadequacy explicit to these curricula's subtractive nature.

By providing an overview research on discourse, framing, normality and bilingual education the author analyzes social and cultural contexts of existing labels of English medium education in the US. The study points out that these discursive labels influence policy that supports emergent bilinguals even more when labels refer to a non bilingual set of education. She says that certain categorizations are plainly false and with the implementation of a discursive change to the term monolingual the system's lack of attention and support to emergent

bilinguals would become evident. The study then points out three reasons to name these programs monolingual and then lists a number of implications this report would address.

The first one highlights the system failure where white students have easy access to different types of dual language bilingual education whereas immigrant children are left in transitional bilingual models that work reducing students' first language while adopting intense use of English in class as is the case in NCLB programs. The choice of a more accurate label could help students to achieve a substantial awareness whether a school is promoting biliteracy and equity.

The author associates the decline in the number of monolingual English speakers with the fact that most people studying English in most parts of the world are acquiring additional languages, at the same time the growing number of high achieving students acquire other languages through dual language bilingual education. Information that recognizes the untruth of the belief that academic success can only be achieved by English monolingualism.

Thus perceiving multilingualism in relation to its economic benefits to universities, companies, and cosmopolitan culture, its value to social cohesion and civic participation would lead to progress. The author also emphasizes the contrast between the notion of considering monolingualism as the normality and multilingualism as unusualness.

It is important to mention that switching teacher's license names would be a positive change to communicate the type of education they are able to conduct "Regular Education" license could be called Monolingual Education license since they

are not valid for bilingual classrooms.

Gorter & Cenoz (2017) examines the relationship between language policy and assessment in multilingual educational contexts. They analyze examples from the USA, Canada and Basque country bilingual policies contexts to reveal this relationship. The authors also investigate the shift from language isolation policy in language teaching and assessment to holistic approaches that consider language-as-resource and promote the use of the whole students linguistic repertoire.

The authors provide examples of different contexts which show the strength language policy and assessment carry and also how languages can have stronger or weaker roles in the curriculum as well as in external assessment and university entrance requirements. They point out that Spanish plays a weak role compared to English in the US even though it is widely spoken around the world. On the contrary of the language policy of the Basque language that can be used to assess content at all levels, including university studies.

The authors claim that holistic approaches in language education policy and multilingual assessment need to substitute more traditional approaches that isolate languages. They mention how language-as-resource can potentially be a more effective policy than isolating languages in separate compartments.

An example is given by Swain who identified three main functions of the L1 when French immersion students were carrying out a collaborative task. The first function was managerial and was useful to understand what they had to do. The second function was for focusing attention of form (lexical gaps,

etc.) and the third was for interpersonal use. This is a good example of using the students' linguistic repertoires resources.

They point out the benefits of implementing holistic programs in the future curricula, and mention the benefits assessment of educational interventions that promote a multilingual focus in increasing learning. The authors also contribute to a more holistic view of promoting multilingual learners with the proper assessment in their languages by citing the translanguaging approach in assessment. Gorter & Cenoz (2017) If teaching is going in the direction of a multilingual focus, assessment should also follow the same path. They believe tests should match actual language practices (see also Shohamy and Menken 2015).

Oteiza and Achugar (2009) points to the ways in which the print media in the community of El Paso reproduces the dominant monolingual English-only ideology and at the same time it opens up spaces for multilingual language ideologies. They showed how lexicogrammatical and discursive resources function in media texts to reproduce and challenge monolingual ideologies.

Their goal was to establish the discursive ways in which hegemonic ideologies are challenged in contexts where it is not likely to happen, such as in the consolidated corporate media level like the newspaper they investigated."

The methodology used by the author was an analytic framework called appraisal which deals with the language of evaluation that translates interpersonal meaning in a text i.e. it investigates the linguistic resources used to negotiate and accommodate ideological positions. The author made a discourse

analysis of the local newspapers of El Paso, El Paso Times and selected only the articles written by local journalists about local themes related to language, Spanish, and bilingualism in the corpus.

The study divided the analyses of the attitudes towards languages, its users and language learning in three topics: minority language in the workplace (the role of Spanish as a minority language in the workplace); Education (the type of education appropriate to children in the community); Language loss (the loss of language in the community). Thus the study observed the resources of engagement realized through a configuration of concession, polarity, and modality choices inside the positions of the community in relation to monolingual and multilingual ideologies.

One interesting observation made by the authors was that it seemed for english monolinguals learning a foreign language seems like an almost impossible task while ELLs are expected to operate in all spheres of life in English. The results demonstrated that monolingual ideologies are associated to individual's responsibility e.g. bilingualism is seen as a problem that interferes in the process toward English monolingualism, while multilingual ideologies construct bilingual education as dual language development to achieve bilingualism, which implies an expansion of linguistic resources and opportunities.

The authors analysis of the lexicogrammatical and discursive resources of concession, polarity, and modality accompanied by lexis with attitude revealed that multilingual ideology is valued, but is still not mainstream. The processes of investigation also claim that challenging the monolingual ideolo-

gies has had more success in work related areas such as hiring practices and job qualifications. However in the educational spectrum the development of Spanish language competencies is still not perceived as a priority when imagining educational success and achievement.

The study of Bacon (2020) offers a framework for exploring teachers' language ideologies based on written reflections, surveys, data and reported practices of 127 preservice beginning teachers involved in SEI methods coursework. The framework works as an analysis of monolingual ideologies across educational police, practice and teacher preparation.

The author reveals that previous studies lack researching the role played by monolingual ideologies across teacher's past experience, coursework, and educational practice. The author used mixed data for distinct but interrelated purposes, from three different phases of implementation, around and iterative development of a framework for beginning teacher's ideology. The phases were divided as lived ontologies that analysed participant language autobiographies; the second was an analysis of three pedagogical orientations such as pedagogical confidence, agency and language resource validation in order to draw on teachers manifestations of language ideologies. The last one was the analysis of the final course written reflection that revealed particular contextual filters which appeared to facilitate or block the enactment of certain language ideologies.

The findings of this study showed that lived ontologies of language (Phase 1) inform teachers' pedagogical orientations (Phase 2) that were facilitated or disrupted by certain "filters" in educational contexts (Phase 3).

The author finds out that there is a need for more in-depth discussion toward positionalities of races, class, and other forms of privilege that may differentiate teacher's viewpoint from those of their students as the survey demonstrates that monolingual preservice teachers constructed the idea of being bilingual in a generalized sense of acquiring an additional language by choice, through classes and study-abroad programs.

It is important to mention the need for monolingual discussion since teachers not only have to problematize students' diversity but they also need to question their own monolingualism in order to understand the historical foundations of this language ideology.

The third phase of the framework reveals that certain filters seemed to act upon particular pedagogical orientations of the participants and the monolingual manifestations inside these filters show that symple knowing best practices, taught in the coursework, does not appear to be sufficient when put into practice.

The author noticed monolingual ideologies manifestations in participants' reports where they compare the service provided to emergent bilinguals as the support given to students with learning disabilities. Then speaking another language was framed as a barrier (at best) or a disability (at worst)—a deficit perspective that went largely unquestioned as participants negotiated SEI in practice.

The author advocates, by analysing the filter phase, that teacher preparation should equip teachers with strategies to grapple the filters they are likely to encounter since they play a key role in negotiating these filters (policies, practicalities and

content area language practices) in language policies.

Kaplan (2015) discusses the arguments in defense of the American English language in the emerging USA to demonstrate existent evidence that show the misunderstanding of issues inside debates over multilingualism and monolingualism policies.

The author points out the reasons that directed American towards monolingualism through the history of patriotism and the literary examples that witnessed the English language detachment from the standards of British English into a unique variety of the language that encapsulated the patriotic, economic, artistic and cultural forces of the emerging USA.

The goal of the study was to report on some of the positions espoused by the governmental agencies with the intention of understanding the impacts they have on the choice of the medium of instruction, the fate of minority languages, second and foreign language learning. To accomplish this goal the author goes through a series of comparisons between the purposes of English only and English Plus movements. He lists a dozen problems inhibiting the successful teaching of English as a second language in schools, and adds reasons why English Only movements have not increased opportunities for learners to acquire English proficiency.

"Children of primary-school age may not be prepared to undertake early language instruction, especially when the target language is an isolated school activity unsupported by use in the environment in which the children live."

Thus the author advocates that the debates over monolingualism and multilingualism are hardly never concerned

with language, on the other hand he claims that there is a misunderstanding when the worry regards "manifestations of deeply held ideas about what benefits may accrue to the population depending upon which view the population holds of any given benefit and its allocated use (Kaplan 2015). He mentions the example of political decisions concerning language as in the case of many polities in Asia that decided that knowledge of English will provide children with the best access to the world's opportunities. Thus the choice of being monolingual or multilingual is related to social, political, economic and even theological issues usually independent of language.

6 CLOSING REMARKS

This systematic review has presented research in the area of English monolingualism in the USA. It addressed investigations on the effects, and characteristics that monolingualism have on society in the US. US linguistic policies carry a discrepancy between the lack of and the existent prejudices and absence of engaging suitable contexts to Spanish and other languages students. An omission that can be guided by a type of null policy, that is the inexistence of US linguistic policies together with the English-Only movements in ESL classrooms follow a subtractive approach in student's curricula. Treating languages isolated when accommodating English in ELLs education is one of the matters faced and reinforced at the language policy level; Another point that makes speakers of other languages face difficulties is the consequences of language movements on making English the official language in the USA. One

of the key interests of the revised works is the role languages other than English play in society and what this can disturb in ELLs present and future. facts about this phenomenon is that it shows the strength language policies play on the role of languages.

We can understand from the paper that the concerns of the researchers are not attached with banning the English language, rather it tries to show if those remaining languages are being treated equally and appropriately. And if not, what consequences and issues does these speakers face.

Moreover, the language movements caused by the tentative of English officialization and the states actual linguistic context is another symbol that is connected. We see a connection between language ideologies and the use of Spanish. Knowing the anti-immigrant feelings that exist in these states that lead to restrictions of use of Spanish and other languages as well.

To sum up there is also the lack of teacher's preparation to accommodate the multilingual reality in the classroom. An issue that could have more attention by the political authorities to create a more equal future to these children and learners. U.S. educational policy has often ignored research findings that declare importance on building on the children's mother tongue to develop their second language.

Even though the dominance of monolingualism is evident, pluralistic views continue to rise and resist monolingual approaches. Such is the case of programs English Plus, that promotes the learning of other languages rather than English and also emphasizes the learning of it by the outside commu-

nity.

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CHAPTER 3

DECISION-MAKING FOR NEXT LESSON PLANNING BASED ON PREVIOUS CLASS: EXPERIENCE REPORT ON A PEDAGOGICAL RESIDENCE PROJECT IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASS IN BRAZIL

Marcelly de Souza Silva[1]

1 INTRODUCTION

This paper reports the experience lived in the classroom through the English Language Pedagogical Residence. This project took place in a municipal public school in Fortaleza located in the periphery. My role was twofold: to observe and conduct English classes for 7th and 9th grades. This opportunity provided a very relevant experience for my development as a pre-service teacher because it added knowledge that cannot be acquired only with the theories studied at the undergraduate program at the university. Some important aspects worth mention are the reality of public school, the context of students and the direct influence on their performance. Also, the importance, in practice, of the teacher's role in the teaching-learning process. The Pedagogical Residency project aims to provide the public school with an informed pedagogical inter-

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vention in English classes, in a tentative to avoid the traditional teaching model to promote a more conducive environment for learning English with higher quality.

From this perspective, after a fourth month period of observation, the Recreation in English Project was proposed. The pedagogical intervention project proposes the integration of activities/dynamics in English classes through games. The classes were held in the computer lab. The 77 students were divided into 04 groups/class of 9/10 and the conclusion/participation in the activities/games proposed in each class resulted in points for the groups. These points were accumulated throughout the project in 12 activities and in the end, the group with the highest score won a prize. The scoring system and groups were proposed so that define rules to prevent students from using Portuguese during games and/or misbehaving in class. These criteria also contributed to a balance between the competitive and the collaborative spirit in the teams. The objective of the project was to enable contextualized verbal interaction as well as reducing students' pressure and anxiety levels, making foreign language learning more effective, interesting and enjoyable.

The lack of interest in foreign language discipline in public schools is noticeable. This is due to the restriction of English language classes that do not meet students' expectations. It is not difficult to hear questions about the purpose of studying English in Brazil. The prejudice about the teaching English as a foreign language in public education is real and something that I could experience during this period of practice in the pedagogical residence. Awakening students' view of the fact that the

English language opens a door to the globalized world and can considerably expand their professional and academic possibilities is yet another task in the role of a teacher.

Given this scenario, this paper aims to investigate the importance of a daily reflection on each class taught and its influence on the construction of an informed teaching methodology, and strategy for the following classes. More specifically, we investigated the impact of these reflections on my repertoire as a pre-service teacher; how the goals and expectations influenced the lessons; and the opportunity to make teaching more appropriate to the context and needs of that particular class instead of just follow a lesson plan without taking into account student feedback even indirectly. The aspects discussed were the following: content observance, student behavior, participation and interaction between groups.

2 THE REFLECTIVE APPROACH AS A TOOL FOR TEACHER PLANNING

The reflective approach consists of a retrospective look at classroom actions (Santana and Gimenez, 2005). This approach enables the teacher to understand something new from the practice of the class, leading to informed adaptations in predetermined activities. For the teacher this generates autonomy and a more critical position in relation to theories, in addition to making him or her create own more human and developmental theories of students. Tsui (2003) states that there are three phases of teaching: *Pre-active, Interactive* e *Post-active*.

> "... the period before teaching, when teachers are planning the lesson and evaluating and selecting teaching methods and materials. The later refers to the time when teachers are interacting with students in the classroom. (...) the "post-active" phase, to describe the period when teachers reflect on their teaching after a lesson and make decisions about subsequent teaching." (2003, p. 22)

It is essential in this approach the exercise of reflection and criticism so that the teacher not only realizes what his students were able to learn or to go beyond the simple idea that the goal of the class was achieved. In addition, what the teacher himself can learn from that practice, where he was successful and what he needs to rethink/change in the pedagogical strategies used in teaching, and can be done to meet the demands of the reality presented at that time by those students and setting. After all, the methods and strategies we have learned in college will not necessarily be used, because they cannot predict the different contexts we will encounter in teaching practice (RICHARDS AND FARREL, 2011). Thus, in teacher education program is not completed at the end of the degree course and his/her graduation at the university. However, this is a process of continuous development that occurs in the practice of teaching. From both teacher and student perspectives, the teaching-learning process is dynamic.

3 METHODOLOGY

For this qualitative study, data collection emerged from the experience of classroom practice and consisted of analyzing

the positive aspects of the answers students to activities proposed. The practicum occur in English language classes in the computer lab (students at this school have two weekly English classes: one in the traditional classroom and the other in the computer lab). The classes in the lab presented the same content taught in the mainstream class but using the technological tool. This is an attempt to use a different instructional methodology and make learning more attractive. Initially, a diagnostic assessment was performed to assess the students' level of knowledge. From thereon, in the face of the required curriculum, a schedule/curriculum with the content was defined to be worked on each class, as below:

Chart 1 – Schedule - Content 7th Grade

Diagnostic Assessment	All content of the past grade
Grammar	Verb to be
Grammar	Can/can't
Grammar	There is/are
Parcial Assessment	Verb to be, Can/can't, There is/are
Grammar	Imperative
Vocabulary	Kinds of music – music instruments
Grammar	Present Continuous
Vocabulary	Holidays around the world
Grammar	Simple Present
Grammar	Simple Present
Grammar	Adverbs of frequency
Parcial Assessment	All content until the moment
Grammar	Adverbs of frequency
Parcial Assessment	All content of semester
Project Conclusion	Award

Source: elaborated by the author.

Chart 2 – Schedule - Content 9th Grade

Diagnostic Assessment	All content of the past grade
Grammar	Simple Present
Grammar	Phrasal verbs
Grammar	Simple present - Phrasal verbs
Parcial Assessment	Simple present - Phrasal verbs
Vocabulary	Health Problems
Grammar	Review
Grammar	Modal verbs
Grammar	Modal verbs
Vocabulary	Natural disasters
Vocabulary	The weather
Grammar	Present Perfect
Parcial Assessment	All content until the moment
Grammar	Present Perfect
Parcial Assessment	All content of semester
Project Conclusion	Award

Source: elaborated by the author.

For the analysis, two instruments were used: 1. Diagnostic Assessment (applied at the beginning of the semester) and 2. Project Assessment applied at the end of the semester). These evaluations were applied to the two experimental classes, 7th B and 9th A grades and to two control classes 7th C and 9th B grades. The control classes are from the same grade and have the same number of students from the experimental class. The data collected from the experimental classes will be compared with the data from the control classes. They reveal quantitatively if there has been any gain in the performance of the students who received the project. For the qualitative analysis, the instrument used was the reflective "protocols" as can seen following. The reflection process began intuitively since the first

class, by observing how each group behaved in the face of the proposed activity. In a notebook, I recorded the score of each group - since each activity generated a score - as well as their behavior and involvement. At the end of the class, my resident classmate and I met in the teachers' room and started talking about everything that had happened in the classroom and the notes made. We clearly realized the need to make some changes in the activity for next class. The notes and this reflective moment eventually became part of our after-school routine. Of the 15 lessons scheduled, 15 were completed successfully in both grades. Which resulted in 07 reflective "protocols" by each lesson, all of them written notes. The activities/dynamics were defined and adapted throughout the semester by both external and institutional factors (i.e. changing class hours, standstill protests, unavailability of the lab, school events, etc.). As well as due to internal factors such as student performance, misbehavior, and receptivity activities, etc.

Over time, I could notice that the notes taken during and after classes and the reflective moments after classes were directly influencing in the activity already set for the next class. Thus, the reflections brought the need for a reevaluation of the activities proposed. With this in mind, a form called "Como foi sua aula?" was created to record these facts, to be completed at the end of each class. This form is composed of the following categories for class analysis: 1 -achievement of content (yes/no), student participation (low/medium/high), student motivation/task performance (low/medium/high) and group interaction with the whole (yes/no); 2 - Description of the events; 3 - Focal events: positive/negative; 4 - What changes can be

suggested? Based on this information, the strategies and methodologies were adapted to the rhythm of class development. Therefore, sequence of steps to the routine after class was designed and adopted. This sequence will be referred here as the *Adaptable Reflexive Cycle*.

This cycle begins from the starting point: the lesson planning. In this first step, we considered the students' context and profile to establish the most appropriate activity and didactics. However, despite all the planning, the teacher cannot predict everything, much less the outcome. This is due to the human factor that naturally generates unpredictability. Thus, the teacher enters the classroom with an expectation of results, but only at the end of the class will have data that reveal the effectiveness or not of his or her planning. According to Woodward (2001, p. 181), "Thinking about your lesson and courses too far ahead an in too much detail can be a waste of time. This is because things change [...]. Thing you prepared earlier can turn out to be irrelevant or unsuitable". The author also highlights that "Planning in too much detail can also cause inflexibility in a program, crippling the teacher's ability to respond to students". This inflexibility in the planning leads to the mechanic practice of the teaching. It doesn´t allow to teacher reevaluate him or her previews decisions for those students. The result probably will be a frustration for both teacher and student. Woodward notes that the planning is an important and essential step. It is the moment when the teacher organizes his ideas, activities, necessary material, establishes the time for each lesson step, researches according to his needs, etc. On the other hand, one notices the need of this planning to be reevaluated and, if appli-

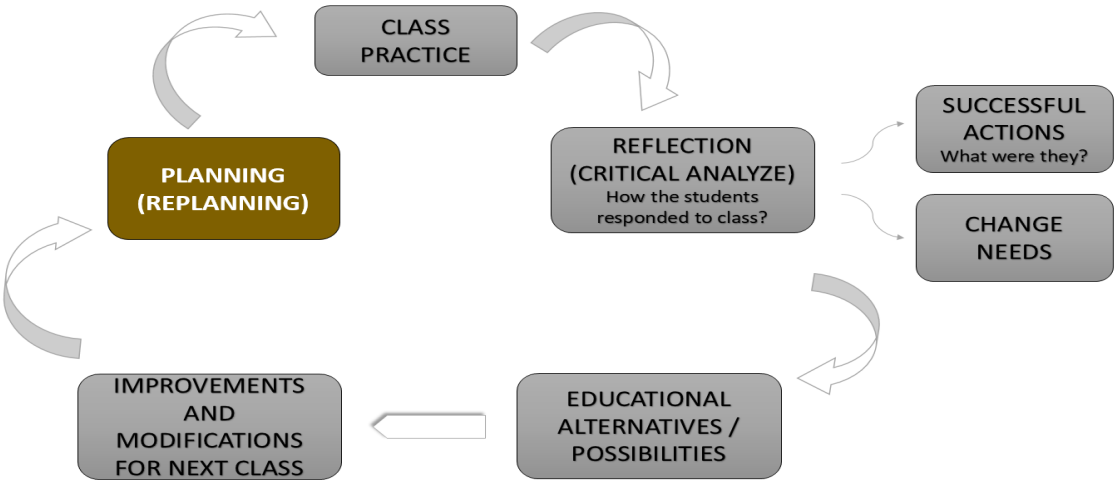
cable, modified into long of the course. As soon as this reevaluation is made, it will be better for the students learning process result, because, in the end, this is the focus.

The second step is the teaching of the class. It is when the teacher tries to execute everything that has planned. And thus, when the pre-service teacher is able to find out if the planned theory will succeed. Although planning has happened not everything can be predicted in class, and chances of encounter with "surprise factors" are likely to come to play. Some factors as emotional, family, physical, economic and social may influence in the interaction flow between teacher and student. Only when in direct contact with students the answers can emerge.

After the lesson practice, the teacher was lead to the third step: the reflection on your lesson. In this part very important of the process, the teacher needs to be open mind to analyze critically his performance in the classroom and the students' response to activity that was proposed. He should look closely at both mistakes and hits made by him. Cause these positives and negatives information that will lead him to think of alternatives and new educational possibilities. It is important to define which aspects will be analyzed in this reflection. For this study, the aspects analyzed were those that directly affected the project objectives for this specific school. After a reflective analysis of the lesson practice and analysis of the data obtained in the form "*Como foi sua aula?*" the teacher goes back to the starting point and rethinks his planning and the need for change. It was noticed that with the habit of reflection after lesson the teacher became more sensitive and able to interpret and analyze both

his actions and from students. All information collected in this step was recorded on the form "*Como foi sua aula?*" This form have revealed the improvement and / or modifications need in the activity and in the didactic set for next class.

Figure 1 - Adaptable Reflexive Cycle



Source: elaborated by the author.

3.1 RESULTS

The project evaluation was based on data collection through a Diagnostic Evaluation carried out in the first week of class (with questions about the content of the previous year, the focus was to evaluate the student level). In addition, in the last week of class, a Final Project Assessment was conducted with questions addressing all the semester content (2019.1). Not all participating students were accounted for, as some missed one of the assessments. The table below further clarifies these numbers:

Chart 3- Assessments Accounted

Grade	Total Students	Disregarded	Accounted for
7 B	38	07	31
7 C	38	05	33
9 A	39	05	34
9 B	39	07	32

Source: elaborated by the author.

Based on the scores from the Diagnostic Assessment and Final Assessment, we classified the results into 03 Grade Groups:

Group 1 – students below average (grade 0 to 4,9)

Group 2 – students average (grade 5 to 6,9)

Group 3 – students above average (grade 7 to 10)

The same evaluations were applied to two other 7th and 9th grade classes (control classes) who were not receiving any projects from the pedagogical residence.

Experimental Classes: Grade 7 B and Grade 9 A

Control Classes: Grade 7A and Grade 9 B

Age of participants: from 12 to 16 years old.

The grades of these classes were compared to the grades of the classes that received the project to see if there was an evolution of the latter compared to the others. We presented below the demonstration detailed by class:

Table 1 - Grade 7 B – Data Experimental Class

	Diagnostic Assessment (DA)	%	Project Final Assessment (PFA)	%
Group 1	09	29	17	54,8
Group 2	09	29	06	19,4
Group 3	13	42	08	25,8

Source: elaborated by the author.

Table 2 - Grade 7 C – Data Control Class

	PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTIONS		INTERLINGUAL HOMOPHONES		PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTIONS	
N°	BRIT	AME	EN	PT	SP	RJ
1	/kæn/		**can**	**quem**	'ke?	'kẽj

Source: elaborated by the author.

According to the data above, we compared the performance between the two classes and observed that both had a drop in their performance. However, the control class regression was much higher than the experimental one, since the 7th B in DA had in G1 09 students and in PFA this number almost doubled going to 17 students. At 7th C, there were 07 students in G1 in DA and in PFA this number soared to 26, it is almost quadrupled. We can also see that the number of students left in Group 3 in PFA is much higher in the experimental class than in the control class.

Table 3 - Grade 9 A – Data Experimental Class

	Diagnostic Assessment (DA)	%	Project Final Assessment (PFA)	%
Group 1	25	73,5	18	52,9
Group 2	07	20,6	10	29,4
Group 3	02	5,9	06	17,7

Source: elaborated by the author.

Table 4 - Grade 9 B – Data Control Class

	Diagnostic Assessment (DA)	%	Project Final Assessment (PFA)	%
Group 1	24	75	17	53,1
Group 2	06	18,75	10	31,3
Group 3	02	6,25	05	15,6

Source: elaborated by the author.

From the tables above, it can be noted that both 9th grade groups had grades within Group 1 before to project implementation. In addition, it is noticed that this percentage decreased in both classes at the end of the project. However, it can be seen that the experimental class performed better than the control class since the percentage of students in Group 1 is smaller and in Groups 2 and 3 are higher. It is necessary to say that the behavior of the class during the project implementation went from a remarkable apathy to a controlled enthusiasm when they realized that their performance was improving.

In terms of the protocol reflections, of the 7 forms "*Como foi sua aula?*" completed for each grade, only 2 were considered for this analysis (appendices 1, 2, 3 and 4). Let's look at the positive aspect that an after-class reflection generated in the next class. Appendices 1 and 2 refer to the first class in which audio was used into the activity in both grades. The reflective action revealed that the use of this resource had a positive response from the students, as they became more focused, and the level of participation increased for those students who most frequently displayed indiscipline. Aspects as Attention, Commitment, and Participation were the ones most positively impacted according to the observations collected by the teaching student. The outcomes suggest that this resource should be used again to confirm if the student response would still be positive.

The second class in which this audio resource was used, the content covered and the proposed activity were different from the previous class (appendices 3 and 4). The observations made in this class reveal that the use of audio in the activity

was again well received by the students. They were interested and eager to accomplish the task. The level of attention, commitment and participation remained high. It is remarkable in the observations made the participation by the shyest students. They showed to be comfortable to participate, even saying a few words before their colleagues without the fear of making mistakes nor being embarrassed. In general, the project gave positive results in the experimental classes.

4 CONCLUSION

Observing is more than looking at reality. By the teaching student perspective, the observation of pedagogical practice brings effective gains. A very relevant reason worth mention is it allows us to be in constant process of self-knowledge. Besides, it assists in promoting the improvement of pedagogical theories learned in the university. It is no use only to reflect on the practice. It is necessary to take action and do something about what was reflected. This early stage of teaching practice is a time for many discoveries. The teaching student needs to have open mind to these discoveries and flexible to the need for redesign that sometimes context and reality will require. Reflection is an exercise that helps the teaching student understand himself better as a teacher. This will contribute for your shaping and maturity process. This exercise must be done apart from arrogance; otherwise, the teacher will continue to reproduce actions that are inefficient that he does not admit. It will be necessary to take a critical look at oneself, distancing oneself for better understand. Humility is an essential element

for the changes required by reflection to be put into practice. These changes will have to be planned and designed to meet the demands of the students and setting. They will also reveal to the student teacher the knowledge and skills required to be a good teacher and how to put methodologies and activities in practice. Teaching Experience is something that is built through its realization in practice.

This reflective action (protocol) shows that teacher development is a dynamic and collective learning. Dynamic because every class he perceives and collects new information. It is collective because its students participate, albeit indirectly. In addition, informal dialogues with the head English teacher and other content-knowledge teachers, and the experience with everyday situations of the school, also contribute to the teaching student's view broaden.

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CHAPTER 4

THE CHALLENGES FACED BY ENGLISH UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS INWRITING THEIR FINAL PAPERS

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1 INTRODUCTION

This work has the objective of analyzing the main difficulties perceived by the students of an undergraduate program (English Major) at the Universidade Federal do Ceará. It also aims to analyze these difficulties based on google forms questionnaires. The answers provide information related to the problems faced by the students at the final stages of the program.

We verified that when students have to write in a foreign language, specifically English, they feel unprepared because they often do not master L2. We also investigated if the lack of confidence of not being able to express exactly what is aimed may come to hinder their academic writing.

The idea for this research gained strength in the first semester of the English program at the UFC during break conversations with colleagues at the campus. I noticedthat many were not confident about delivering their final papers, espe-

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cially written in English. The desire to expand the understanding of the process and to investigate what could be done in order to help other students who may face the same challenges startedat this period.

In spite of the importance of academic English for Brazilians who are taking their undergraduate program, the subject has not been studied deeply. According to Bowers, Fitts and Jung (2010, p. 96), teaching academic English is almost always a novelty for elementary school teachers, English language students as a second language learners are submitted to a considerable pressure in order to achieve literacy in English rapidly. Generally, students complain not having the opportunity to practice academic writing during high school grades. Halliday (2005) states that grammar, word and meaning wereintegrated into some overall framework. This concept is referenced as a systemic functional linguistic (SFL). Mohan and Beckett (2003) state that SFL has to do more withmeaning and grammatical form in context rather than making a transition from errors in rules to the correct form of rules. According to Lauer, (1994, p. 494), "learners avoid words which they perceive as difficult (whether phonological, grammatically, or semantically) and prefer to use general and frequent words rather than infrequent and specific ones". This study investigates through google form questionnaires and followup interviews the types of difficulties faced by the students enrolled in this program.

According to A. Oshima, and A. Hogue (2007) Academic writing in English is probably different from academic writing in your native language. The words and grammar and also the way of organizing ideas is probably different from what you are

used to. It is likely that this is one of the main reasons why undergraduate students feel so frightened when they have to face this necessary and obligatory task in an undergraduate course. This work certainly does not intend to solve the problems related to academic writing, but maybe bring more light on the subject identifying some aspects so that new ideas can arise and contribute to a better understanding.

According to Lazzarin (2016), some specific aspects of academic writing were identified in order to taking an under--graduation degree in a different language, the aspects were narrowed into: vocabulary, ABNT standards, grammar and punctuation, text structure, cohesion, coherence, referencing and citation, avoiding plagiarism and others. Of course, we do not intend to finish all the matter related to this important subject, as it would be impossible to fulfil all implications. The intention of this study is to bring light to a theme that many times is not at the center of discussion, but deserving of attention.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing in academic English is difficult even to native speakers of the language, and it becomes even more complex to non-native. There are many factors that may have influence in the writing ability of ESL students, for example anxiety, strict deadlines, having to deal with pressure, motivation, self-confidence and others. ESL students' background also takes a very important role in this process, since the abilityand exposure to the target language may help to developed other abilities necessary to academic writing, as to read a research and para-

phrase more efficiently for instance.

Nunan (1989) argues that writing is "an extremely difficult cognitive activity which requires the learner to have control over various factors". These factors vary from academic background and personal interest of the writer to various psychological, linguistic and cognitive phenomena (Dar & Khan, 2015; Haider, 2012). As we can see it is not just a matter of writing on a sheet of paper, it requires a lot of effort from the students, mental and psychological ones. There are many factors that can be challenging to students when having to write their final papers in English, and to identify these factors becomes relevant, because it can increase our understanding of the process itself.

According to Halliday (1981), if the individuals believe that they will do poorly related to academic writing and do not want to take courses that stress writing, it does not matter how capable or skilled they are, they will probably fail in the task. So, it is veryimportant that students acquire confidence in themselves according to their progression on writing assignments.

Writing apprehension is an important factor which may interfere on academic writing (Cheshire, 1984); sometimes students avoid situations where they will be required to write in a second language because they fear to fail the task. Self-esteem in language learning and writing is another factor that causes emotional frustration to the ESL students, occasionally causing them to drop out. According to Lawrence (1981), self-esteem is the person's effective evaluation of the sum of both mental and physical characteristics. Robison-Awana, Kehle, and Jenson (1986) also define it as the person's evaluation of himself.

The person is not always right about the evaluation that he/she does about themselves; there are many factors which may have great influence on this evaluation, for example, what others says, the feedbacks received during scholarship life. According to Lavelle (2001), low self-efficacy occurs when the student doubts his capacity hence, he sees the writing activity as something difficult and painful. This abilityto recognize oneself as a good writer can greatly influence the performance of the taskof writing.

Lavelle (1997) described students' approaches to learning as "reflective of the relationship between the student and the task". The same notion has been applied to college writing at the graduate level. However, further research is required to explore and examine the factors that affect writing skills of the students, because issues inwriting can be more efficiently addressed if the factors that generate them are identified (Hyland, 2003). According to Lavelle (2001), writing does not occur in a tidy and linear sequence, the beliefs and writers' intentions must to be taken in consideration. When students write their works, it is their perception and beliefs that is put on the paper, although academic writing is not a personal work it becomes impossible to separate the creation from the creator.

Students' approach to learning strategies on academic writing is linked to the beliefs and intentions that students at UFC have when writing their academic papers. When the function of writing and the purpose of writing are understood by students it becomes much easier and satisfactory to write their academic papers. The assumption has been that students' beliefs may affect strategies they would choose which in turn may

affect their learning outcomes (cf. Van Rossum and Schenk 1984).

According to Lavelle (2001) there are two main approaches to academic writing. "The basic distinction is between a deep, meaningful approach based on seeing the taskas a whole and proactive engagement in learning, and a surface approach based on reproduction of information and memorization". These motivational factors maintainstudents' focus or alter their level on academic writing tasks.

When student's intentions are just to fulfil the task proposed the cognitive engagement is very low and makes use of mere memorization or repetition, and a linear and superficial outcome. This is what Lavelle calls surface approach. As Lavelle (2001) attests: "when the intention is to fully engage the task based on a need to know, the focus is at a higher conceptual level, geared toward manipulating layers of meaning, a deep approach". These approaches are explained by Biggs (1999, p. 45):

> When students feel this need-to-know, they automatically try to focus on underlying meanings, on main ideas, themes, principles, or successfulapplications. This requires a sound foundation of relevant prior knowledge, so students needing to know will naturally try to learn the details, as well as making sure they understand the big picture. In fact, the big picture is notunderstandable without the details. When using the deep approach in handling atask, students have positive feelings: interest, a sense of importance, challenge, exhilaration. Learning is a pleasure. Students come with

> questions they want answered, and when the answers are unexpected, that is even better.

As we can notice, students have to be motivated in order to learn the content more efficiently to continue improving during this process.

The framework used for coding in this study outlines some of Lavelle's (2001) factors that may influence student's achievement related to academic writing. Factors asthe "**Elaborative**", the "**Low Self-Efficacy, Reflective-revision, Spontaneous- impulsive** and the **Procedural-approach are mentioned.** The Elaborative factor is a search for personal meaning, self-knowledge; it happens when students see the process of writing as a deep investment. The low self-Efficacy happens when students see the writing process as something painful, and have a feeling of doubt about the ability of accomplish the task. The Reflective-Revision is when students have a deep writing process based on revision, rebuilding makes part of the process all the time, the focus inthe process of writing is high in order to make the writing meaningful to oneself and to the audience. The Spontaneous-impulsive factor occurs when students work in animpulsively and unplanned manner. This approach is defensive. The Procedural approach occurs when students tries to please the teacher more than oneself, the rules are strict followed but with minimal involvement from the student.

Although we can define students approaches as deep and surface approaches, it does not mean that students cannot shift their approaches during the writing process. Students may

start by using a superficial approach and go to a deeper approach when they feel familiar with the subject they are working with.

In the present study we tried to investigate how these factors influence the way students face their tasks regards writing, and also if others emerge.

3 METHODOLOGY

This is an exploratory research, by which the objective was to identify the main difficulties encountered by undergraduate students (English Majors) from Universidade Federal Do Ceará when writing their final papers. The goal was to identify and analyze the causes of these difficulties, how students deal with them and suggest strategies.

The analysis adopted for the study was both qualitative and quantitative. Data were collected in three stages, For Stage one, the first focus group was requested to answer a google form questionnaire. For Stage two, the second focus group wasrequested to answer a google form questionnaire. For the third stage, a follow up interview was conducted where the interviewees could describe their experience in moredetail. The Two focus groups that participated in the survey are described as Group 1 and group 2. Group 1 is formed by ten alumni recently graduated and group 2 consistsof seven senior students.

A total of seventeen instruments were used for data collection. The first questionnaire aimed to identify whether students really have difficulty with academic writing. To this end, students were asked to answer four questions as follows: “what

are your feelings regards academic writing? And to rate them according to the level of difficulty. They had to choose their answers according to the scale: Easy, difficult, very difficult, neither easy nor difficult". The five Questions that composed the questionnaire can be found in the appendix. The second questionnaire was sent to the two groups students, now with the objective of identifying in which areas of academic writing the students feel most difficulty. The questionnaire consisted of seven objective questions and one open question. This questionnaire can also be found in the appendix.

The open question was: Qual foi a maior dificuldade enfrentada na escrita acadêmica do TCC? Eighty percent (eight of the ten students) from the focus group one answered this question, their answers will be discussed in the findings section. The question proposed to the focus group two was: Qual a maior dificuldade que você está enfrentando no momento na escrita acadêmica do TCC? One hundred percent (Seven of the seven) students answer this question, their answer will be discussed in the findings section.

The third step in data collection was a follow up interview, which aimed to know student's experiences regards academic writing before and during this academic program. four students from both groups were chosen to participate in a follow up interview.

3.1 SCENARIO AND CONTEXT

The research was carried out at Universidade Federal Do Ceará, the subject of the study were seven students and ten

former students of the English course nocturnalof the same university. Students in both groups answered the same multiple-choice questionnaire containing seven closed questions and one open about the main difficulties encountered by them as they wrote their final course paper.

After the students had answered the proposed questionnaire, four of those students who had very similar answers to a given topic were invited to participate in a follow up interview. To assure confidentiality, students names are not identified. The interview was of great value in order to deepen the knowledge regarding the academic writing. The follow up interview questions were: 1- How was writing for you in elementaryschool? Did you enjoy it? 2- How could writing skills be improved in your opinion? 3- What would you suggest teachers to do to help students improve academic writingskills?

4 RESULTS

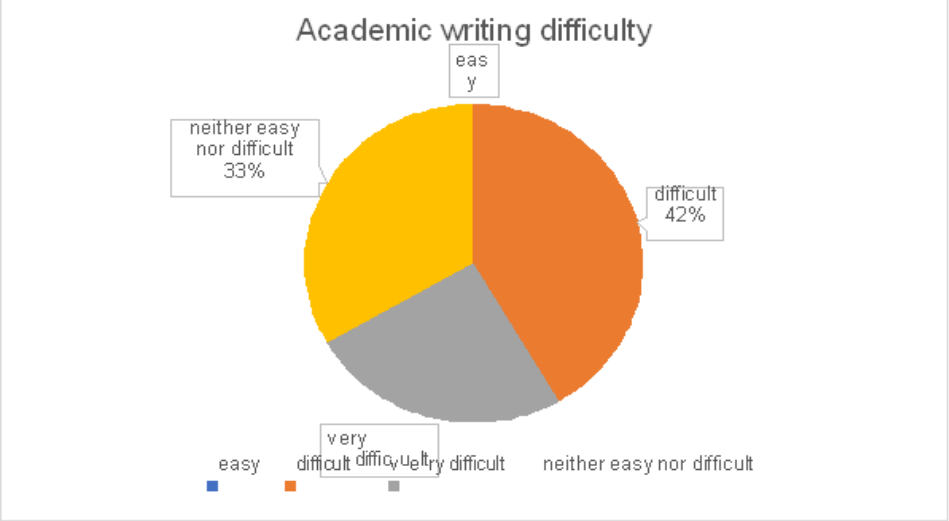
In this Section, the results obtained are presented. They are organized on graphics and tables. As said earlier in regards of student's writing ability in L2, specifically English, may influence his or her choices when writing in that language. Also, the extent to which the lack of confidence of not being able to express exactly whatone wants in that language, could influence in their academic writing ability. According to the questionnaire 67% of students find that academic writing is difficult or very difficult

Hypothesis one is that students perceive writing as a difficult task. Hypothesistwo is that students feel they lack

confidence and fluency in English, and few practices on writing in English in general. The results confirmed these two hypotheses, since all students who participated in the research at some point described these difficulties. The students who participated made it clear that the lack of practice concerning academic writing in English before and during their academic life was a determining factor for some failures during this period.

Figure 8, which deals with grammar and punctuation, showed us a big difficulty in the answers given by the students in the two focus groups.

Figure 1. Academic writing difficulty.



According to what was stated before, writing is an extremely difficult activity, and the results confirmed the difficulty, As can be seen in Figure 1 most of the students find writing academic English to be difficult or very difficult. A complete description reveals that 42% of the students find it difficult, 25% very difficult, and 33% neither easy nor difficult. None found it easy.

Graphics from the first group of students (ten alumni recently graduated).

Figure 2 Lack of support and resource.

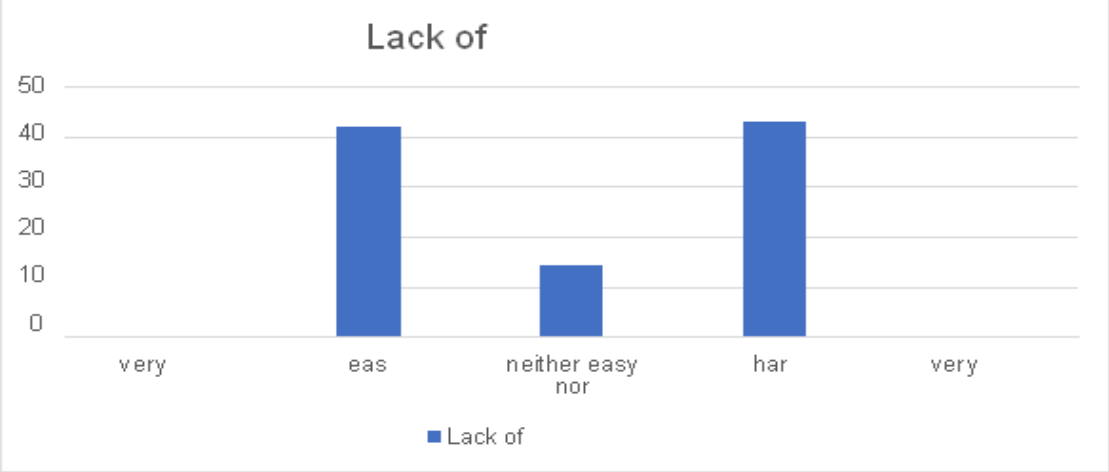
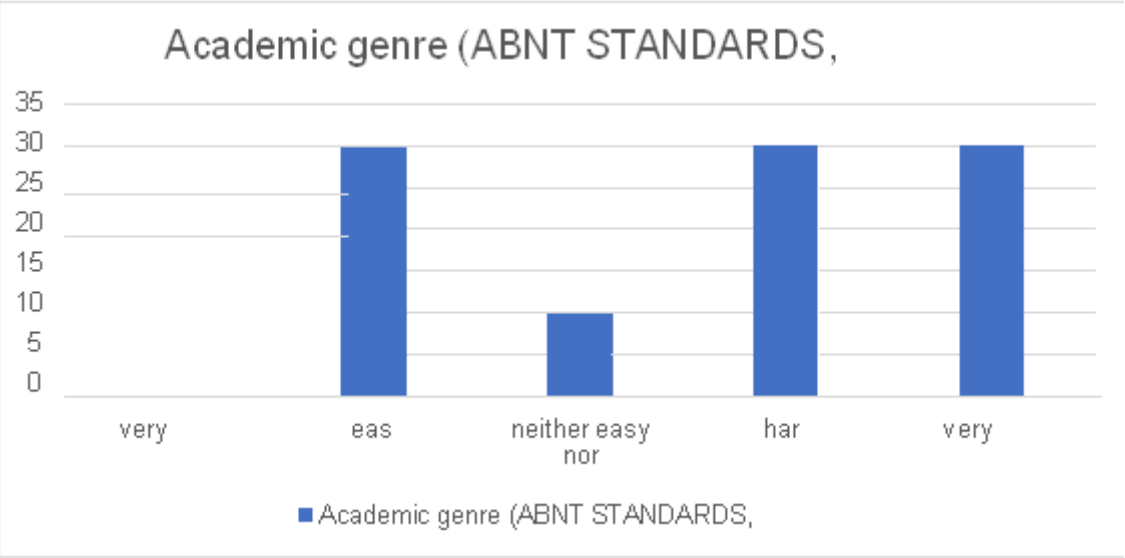


Figure 3. Academic genre (ABNT standards, formatting)

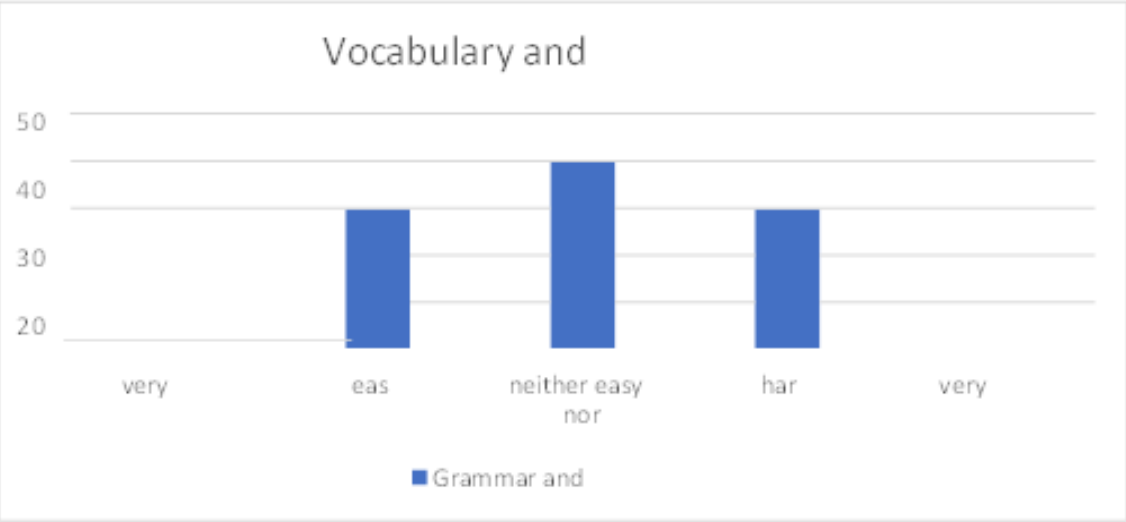


As we can see in the graph above, approximately half of the students who answered the first questionnaire experienced difficulties with support and resources.

Figure 3 reveals the main problem reported by newly graduated students who answered the questionnaire. This di-

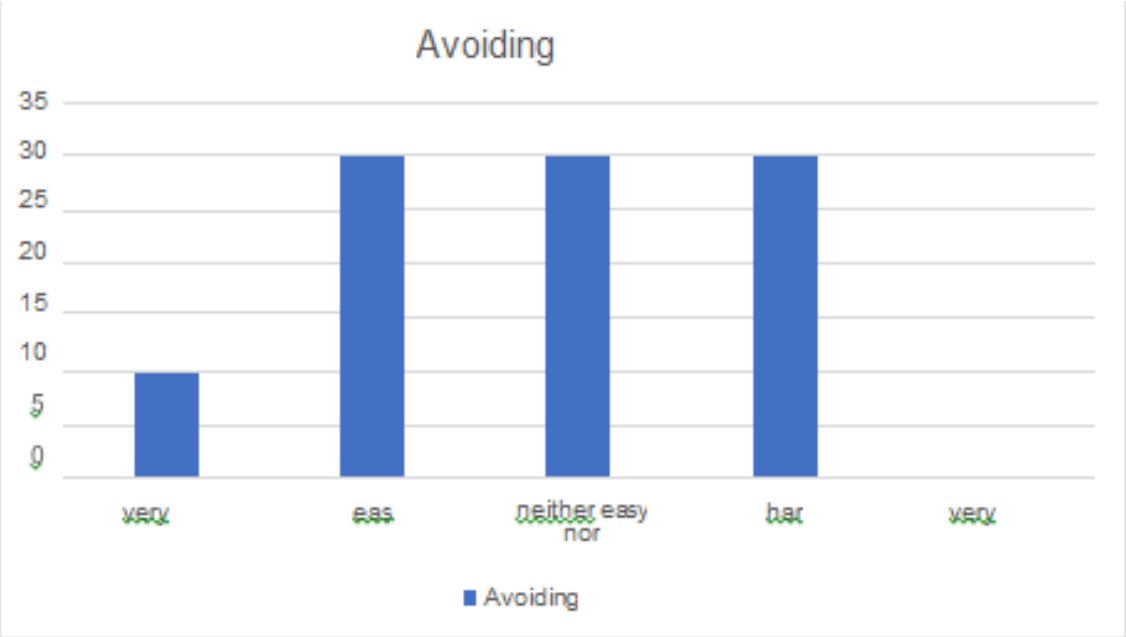
fficulty was also manifested by the students who were interviewed. This difficulty was also manifested by the students who were completing the program.

Figure 4 Vocabulary and punctuation.



According to the students who answered the first questionnaire (newly graduatedstudents), vocabulary and punctuation was not one of their main problems.

Figure 5 Avoidance of plagiarism.



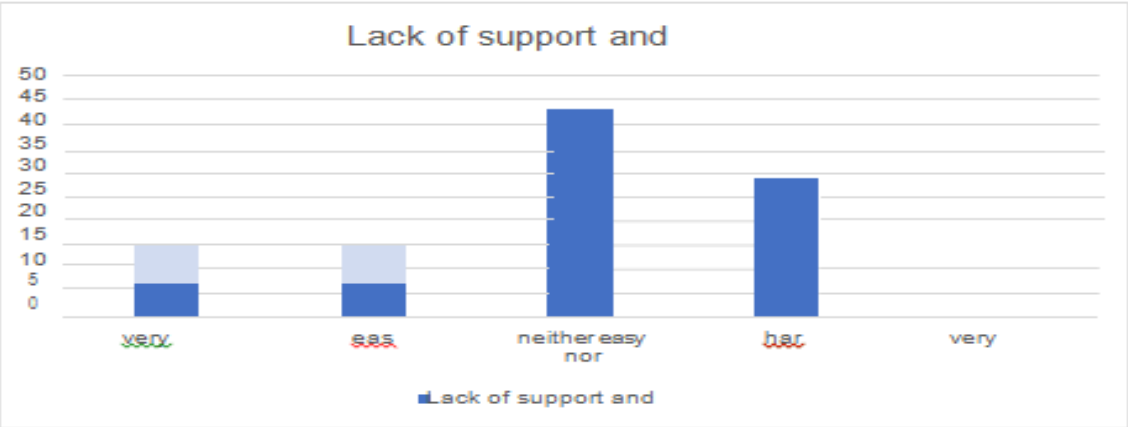
Thirty percent of students who answered about plagiarism from the first group of students who answered the questionnaire found it difficult to avoid it.

Dead line pressure (time).
Acredito que algo que me preocupava bastante era fugir do tema/perguntas de pesquisa previamente delimitados pra minha pesquisa. Apesar de isso não ter sido um problema real durante o processo de produção, era algo que me preocupava muito na época.
Em suma, as maiores dificuldades foram produzir o texto sem torná-lo maçante e repetitivo, e encontrar os autores certos para meu trabalho.
Minha maior dificuldade sempre foi "esquecer" a estrutura da língua materna e incorporar a estrutura da língua-alvo.
Minha maior dificuldade foi ter dúvidas em relação a gramática. Durante os anos que passei estudando no meu curso de graduação eu tive quase nada de feedback sobre a minha escrita nos trabalhos feitos.
Conseguir um número suficiente de participantes nos testes

As we have said before, these are only the graphics we found relevant to the study made, of course there were other graphics analyzed during this study, for example: text structure, referencing and citation and so on. The next table shows the answers of the novice teachers for the open question: Qual foi a maior dificuldade enfrentada na escrita acadêmica do tcc? This question was the last question on the questionnaire answered by the first group of students.

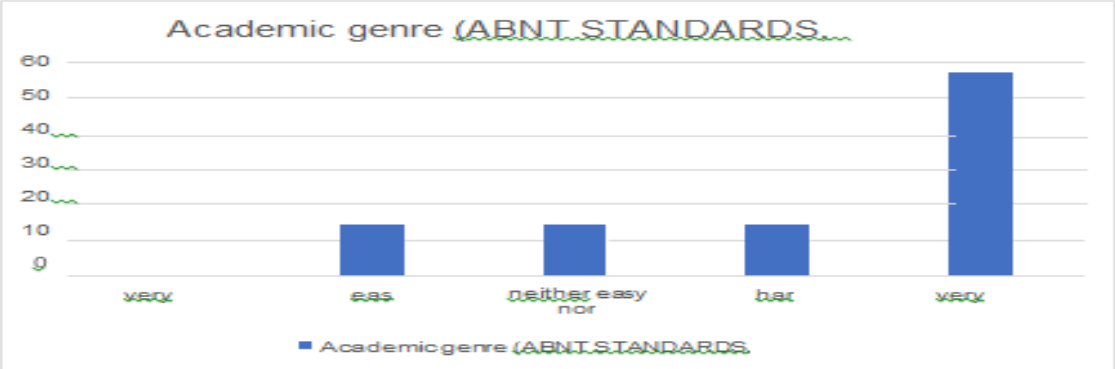
Graphics from the second group of students (undergraduate students.)

Figure 6 Lack of support and resource.



Unlike the first group of students who answered the same questionnaire, studentsin the second focus group feel that they have had more support and resources in writing their final assignments.

Figure 7 Academic genre (ABNT standards, formatting).



As the first group of students who participated in the research, the second groupalso showed great difficulties with this aspect of the language.

Figure 8 Vocabulary and punctuation.

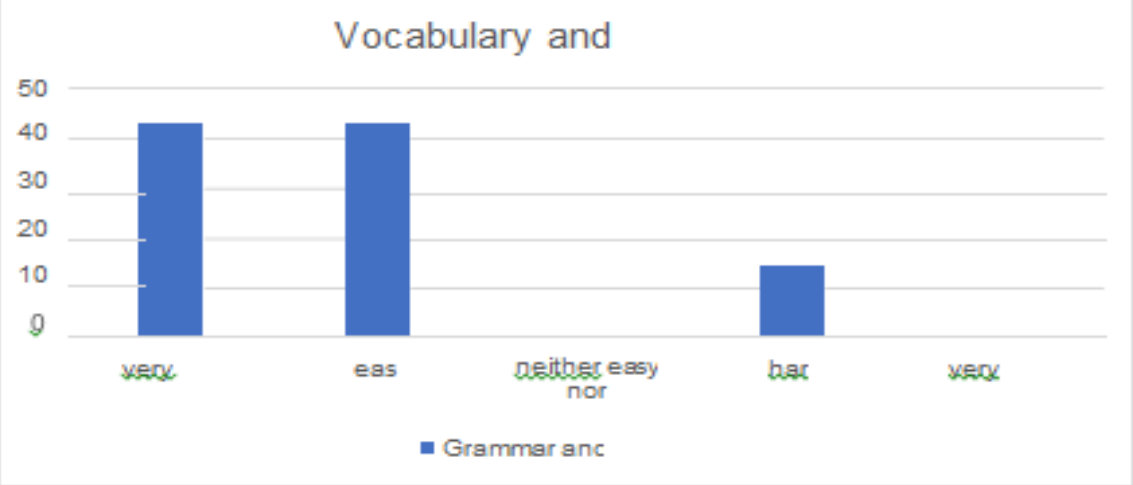
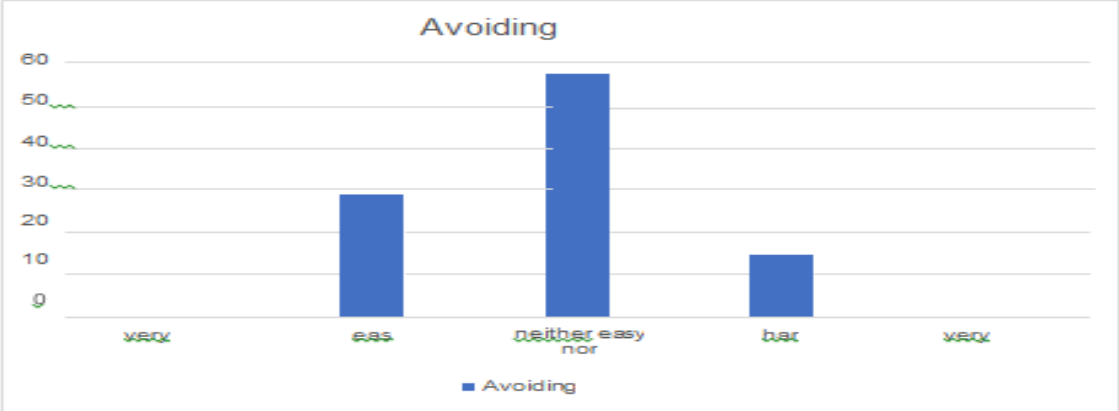


Figure eight shows a relevant difference when compared to the responses of students in the first focus group. According to the answers given by the students in the second group, this is not an aspect of academic writing that they find very difficult.

Figure 9 Avoidance of plagiarism.



This is another graph in which a relevant difference can be noticed in the answersgiven by the two groups of students. The graph shows that this group of students had nodifficulty with this aspect of academic writing.

The table below shows the answer of the second group (undergraduate students), to the open question: Qual a maior dificuldade que você está enfrentando no momento na escrita acadêmica do tcc? This question was the last question on the questionnaire answered by the second group of students.

Tempo
A falta de motivação para escrevê-lo.
Vocabulary
Tempo para desenvolvê-lo
Devido ao pouco contato ao longo do curso com a questão de realizar citações e referências, essa tem sido uma das minhas dificuldades. Obs.: Não lembro de ao longo do curso ter tido muitos trabalhos escritos onde isso fosse necessário ser utilizado, portanto, ter que utilizar algo que não foi muito bem explorado ao longo do curso é complicado. Talvez trazer esse conteúdo mais fortemente nas disciplinas de escrita acadêmica ou diluidamente ao longo do curso (que talvez fosse ideal) amenizasse essa dificuldade que parece "pouca", mas que conta devido ao curto espaço de tempo que temos para produzir um TCC (sou graduanda do Letras-Inglês Noturno). E muito boa pesquisa Ferreira. Espero ter ajudado!
A maior dificuldade foi na delimitação do tema, foi o que me tomou mais tempo e reflexão. Tive dificuldade em escolher um tema que me inspirasse a escrever.
Organizar o tempo para progredir na escrita e análise dos dados. Gramática e vocabulário também são pontos que me dão um pouco de dificuldade.

This section presents the results of the follow up interviews, the third stage of the research. After the questionnaires and the open question had been answered, four students were chosen to participate in an interview, the objective of the interview was to understand how students background influences in students choice regards skills they use during the process of writing their final papers, it also has the objective to come up with suggestion on improvement in the disciplines related to academic writing in the academia. Below we have students answers to the interview.

Student one: How was writing for you in elementary or high school? Did you enjoythe activity? Answer: During elementary and high school I didn't like writing at all. We were never asked to be creative, concerning writing, during elementary school and then, suddenly, we were asked to write 15-to-30-line compositions focusing on Enem.
Question two: How could writing skills be improved, in your opinion? Answer: I think my skills would be improved if I were asked to write more, not only in high school but alsoduring the under-graduation.
Question three: What would you suggest teachers to help them improve academic writing skills? Answer: I think that, in order to improve our writing skills in a foreign language, it is really important for us to know about writing strategies, which applies for writing not only in a foreign language but also in our native language, and practice as much as possible.
Student two: How was writing for you in elementary or high school? Did you enjoy
the activity? I have always enjoyed writing and it was a pleasure for me to write in elementary and high school.
Question two: How could writing skills be improved, in your opinion? Writing can only be improved through reading.
Question three: What would you suggest teachers to help them improve academic writing skills? Read more and practice whenever you can.
Student three: How was writing for you in elementary or high school? Did you enjoy the activity? I didn't have many activities in Elementary and in high school. We did exercisesin our English book. Just it...To be honest, I never did composition or things like that.
What would you suggest teachers to help them improve academic writing skills? Eu penso que deve haver um esforço mútuo, tanto do professor em ensinar, treinar e pedirtrabalhos, quando do aluno em aprender novas palavras e usá-las em seus trabalhos.
Student four: How was writing for you in elementary or high school? Did you enjoy the activity? In elementary and high school, writing in Portuguese was never problematic; meaning: I would do it, without any problem, whenever it was required from me like writing essays and short paragraphs. Regarding writing in English, there wasn't really many chances of it once most of it was writing test answers which was also never problematic.
I would say "enjoy the activity" is going too far when talking about writing. I never disliked it but I also didn't love it. Like I said before, I would do it whenever it was necessary.
How could writing skills be improved, in your opinion? I think anyone can improve their writing skills, a productive skill, by practicing a lot of its counterpart, reading, a receptive skill. In this respect, when you get in contact, by reading, with written productions you sort of start improving your own.
What would you suggest teachers to help them improve academic writing skills? I believe that if learners got in contact with academic writing from the beginning of their courses, they would eventually get less scared of doing it. Then, they would write more and also fail more which would give room for improvement.

5 DISCUSSION

The study presented here so far has confirmed the first hypothesis that students who have to write in a language, even when it is the case that the language fits into the category of the second language they major in, may encounter difficulty. Also, it is common to feel a sense of inability to write in this language. This does not mean that these students are not able to write properly in terms of grammar, but sometimes it isjust because other factors may influence their choices while writing their final papers even in an undergraduate program. One limiting aspect for the conclusion of this work was the fact that students who are in the process of finishing their under--graduation program have significant time limitations. It is not because those students are not willing to participate but because they are overwhelmed by their own activities in college and workload.

We can notice a tendency to the procedural approach during the production ofthe final paper by the students, the students who participate in this research try to be very straight forward and follow the rules but with minimal involvement. In addition, students have to deal with the deadlines and pressure for completing and summittingthe task on due date. Confirming what Lavell says (2001, p. 377), "The procedural approach reflects wanting to please the teacher rather the intention to communicate or reflect". The graphics one to six also demonstrated that students from the two focus groups who participate in the research have very similar issues related to academic writing. Another factor that became clear was wri-

ting apprehension, as it has to do with lack of background from students and also (according to the students) lack of support onhow to write academically. The comments made for this study refer not only while in college but mainly before they enter in college. It is a perception, To the majority of the students interviewed, that if they have had the opportunity to practice more frequently composing in elementary and high school, for example, the process of academic writing in college would be easier if they had more opportunities of previous practice.

The undergraduate students interviewed also have different perceptions withsome aspects of academic writing. For some students, academic writing seems somewhat distant from their realities, while for others it is just an extension of their student life. What seems interesting to point out is the fact that students who had a goodbackground in writing essays also demonstrated a good performance to academicwriting. Just to demonstrate this factor we can see these different answers reflect very different levels of difficulties to academic writing. One participant who demonstrated a high level of anxiety and apprehension to academic writing said: I didn't have many activities in Elementary and in high school. We did exercises in our English book. Just it...To be honest, I never did composition or things like that. The other student who always had a high performance's level related to academic writing said: I have always enjoyed writing and it was a pleasure for me to write in elementary and high school. We can notice here a very different background from these two students and how the previous opportunities of practice can influence their performance in writing.

Analyzing the results, it seems that although there are some differences between the two focus groups we may notice more similarities than differences. The main difference found between the two focus groups was regarding the avoidance of plagiarism and also regarding grammar and punctuation. It was noted that alumnirecently graduated students, have a greater concern with plagiarism and grammatical errors. Perhaps because they already have more experience with the subjects listed.The results showed that many factors mentioned by Lavell occur. One aspect that was frequently pointed was the lack of confidence during the process of academic writing. This challenge was an issue which appears in the both focus Four of them from a total offour, mentioned during the interview that it occurs because they had no or only few opportunities of practice during their student's life.

What makes the work of academic writing in English a complex task, according tothem, was the fact that they have few or no chances to practice at all. Just to point it out,some of the answers for the questions How was writing for you in elementary or high school? Did you enjoy the activity? Were: 1. During elementary and high school I didn't like writing at all. We were never asked to be creative, concerning writing, during elementary school and then, suddenly, we were asked to write 15-to-30-linecompositions focusing on Enem. Another answer 2. from a different student was: How was writing for you in elementary or high school? Did you enjoy the activity? I didn'thave many activities in Elementary and high school. We did exercises in our English book. Just it...To be honest, I never did composition or things like that. This is just a few examples

from the interviews, but there were many other answers like that.

As students do not have exposure to practice writing classes before college, it reflects in the way they see the process of writing during college. The outcome is theydo not feel comfortable when being asked to make compositions, essays, etc. Another aspect that cannot be neglected is the academic genre and ABNT standards. According to the findings, it became clear that the majority of the students do not know how to writeusing ABNT standards or do not know if what they have written is adequate according tothe standards, and it let students apprehensive in a first time.

Another frequent complaint mentioned by the students was time. They consider that the time to submission of their final research projects has much influence on the quality of their academic work. The deadline becomes short because according to the students interviewed, there are just a few subjects during the course focused directlywith academic writing.

Another factor that seems to exert a lot of influence on the academic writing of students who participated in the research was the Spontaneous-impulsive approach. According to Lavell (2001) the Spontaneous-Impulsive approach represents overestimating skill and fear of fully dealing with what the writer perceives as limitations; the approach is defensive. Often these students underestimate themselves, largelybecause they have not practiced writing during their student life.

The figure two and six also pointed to another extremely interesting data, the lackof support and resource felt during the undergraduate course, according to the participants in this

research, the lack of support and resource is directly linked to the number of disciplines that focus on academic writing.

The need to maintain a standard and follow certain rules during academic writing has proven to be a problem for certain students, sometimes the concern to be able to maintain a high level of standards in relation to the ABNT norms takes away thecreativity of these students in writing their academic work, during interviews with these students the fear of following these rules became evident.

5 FINAL REMARKS

During this research it became clear that academic writing requires a significant cognitive effort. This is so, as writing is an activity that requires a lot of discipline, concentration and even willpower. It was also clear during this study that students often do not know how to put their voices into the text. It is then that creativity tends to disappear.

The objective of this research was to identify the main difficulties experienced by undergraduate students (English majors) at the Federal University of Ceará. And it became clear that their main difficulties are related to the mastery of the English language. Those students who had a greater opportunity to practice the language beforecollege also had great advantages during their journey in college.

One way to improve academic writing performance could be to have more subjects that focus on academic writing from the very beginning of the undergraduate program.

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CHAPTER 5

PERCEPTIONS OF ENGLISH TEACHING IN PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN BRAZIL

Arthur Paiva Pereira Honório[1]

1 INTRODUCTION

The teaching of the English language in middle and high school in Brazilian public and private schools carries a great discredit among students, parents and also teachers of this language. Studies show that the majority of concluding students do not learn the language by the end of their school life in Brazil. The teaching of English started losing its importance in schools specially after the educational resolution of 1961 that placed foreign language teaching as optional in the curriculum. Which led schools to leave the subject aside or even neglected. As said by Machado, Campos and Sanders (2007) "The lack of obligation to teach foreign languages in schools, formally made true by the new LDB of 1961, was a step backwards for the development of language teaching in Brazil. Despite the acknowledgement of the importance of foreign language teaching by all sectors of society, educational policies did not ensure a quality teaching of this subject at schools. In search of this quality,

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the economic privileged classes have always sought to guarantee their language learning in language schools or with private teachers, but the unpriviledged classes remained virtually excluded from this knowledge and similar abilities. ”(MACHADO;CAMPOS;SANDERS,2007, my translation).

Only in 1996 with a new set of educational laws (current LDB) did language teaching become mandatory again. Schools are obligated to add a foreign language to its curriculum starting at 5th grade, and from 6th grade on, English must be included, but the weekly hours have astonishingly diminished throughout time, from 8 hours a week in 1930 to 2 hours a week in current educational policy terms. Despite this neglect with English teaching, the population is constantly and increasingly bombarded with propaganda of the importance of learning English to both personal and professional life.

This apparent contradiction can be better understood when we take private teachers, language teaching courses and the most recent bilingual systems into consideration. The most privileged class has access to these alternatives and is not ultimately excluded from the demands of a globalized world.

As supported by Cox and Assis-Peterson (2008), in the years following the 1961 LDB, there was a huge increase in the amount of private language schools offer due to the demand coming from the upper classes, and the communicative method seemed to have worked well with homogeneous, small classes. However, the less privileged class who could not afford these services had to rely on a quality language teaching provided by their schools and teachers.

English teaching lack of success in schools is due to many factors according to a British Council study of 2015, Such as,

little class time, lack of motivation from the teachers and the students, low payment, lack of support from the coordination and the school's planning. However, the focus here will be on the foreign teaching system and curriculum itself, which is decentralized and unregulated, as supported by a recent study (SILVA, QUEVEDO, 2017, v.1, n.2, p. 266) highlighting that "Dealing specifically with English, some recent advances in documentation and legislation have to be recognized. However, the decentralized structure of its teaching can be appointed as one of the responsible for the problem we have been facing for decades."

English teachers learn in college the most effective and modern methods to instruct the students and guide them successfully to language acquisition/learning. They are prepared to help language learners find their own way to develop and become world citizens at the same time. However, we want to investigate whether the teachers feel they are able to apply, on their practice, what they learn in the university.

2 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

RANKINGS DO EF EPI

27	Argentina	57,58	**59**	Peru	49,32
36	Costa Rica	55,01	**60**	Colômbia	48,90
37	República Dominicana	54,97	**61**	Bolívia	48,87
40	Uruguai	53,41	**65**	Equador	48,52
46	Chile	52,01	**69**	Honduras	47,80
53	Brasil	50,93	**70**	El Salvador	47,42
55	Guatemala	50,63	**72**	Nicarágua	47,26
56	Panamá	49,98	**75**	Venezuela	46,61
57	México	49,76			

By taking into account the number of years that English is taught in public and private schools in Brazil and comparing with the number of students that leave school with a good level of knowledge of English, we perceive an alarming reality of failure. According to a research conducted by EF - Education First published in 2018, in a ranking of 70 countries, Brazil occupies the 41st position, behind countries like Chile, Uruguay and Argentina. (www.ef.com/epi)

According to a research done by the British council, 2015. "The teaching of English is not properly regulated and its offer presents little consistency. This scenario makes it difficult to implement evaluation processes and a measurement of English teaching in a national level." The law leaves gaps and room for misunderstandings. In an official document that guides language teaching in Brazilian schools, the PCN (National curricular parameter) for middle school, is stated that oral production is not to be imposed on the students, whereas in the PCN for high school, it is stated the paramount importance of leaving school being able to communicate in the foreign language. It seems that we have come to the understanding, that according to the output theory, production of language is necessary for the students' development because through practice they will be able to test language hypotheses and correct their own mistakes and with that, acquire language more effectively as stated by Swain (1985):

> Production challenged learners to focus on the means of expression when they realize it is necessary to enhance and develop the target language level, and it is just then, when language output can contribute to language acquisition.

Teachers and teaching materials designers have to operate in these grey areas that the laws and guidelines leave for them. (British council, São Paulo, 2015)

We also know that input needs to be clear, constant and challenging to an extent as to keep students motivated. According to Krashen (1982)

> "We acquire language when we understand messages, when we understand what people tell us and when we understand what we read"

One more aspect worth mention is that social interaction is extremely relevant for intake as is noticeable when we take into consideration the ZPD (zone of proximal development). Its most accepted definition is (Vygostsky, 1978) "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers". Another principle we have reached is that language has to be meaningful as said by Ausubel (1968) the new information to be easily assimilated has to connect to previous knowledge so the student can make relations faster and therefore learn faster.

All these theories and guidelines help us understand now as CLT (communicative language teaching) which takes all the mentioned aspects into consideration by aiming to promote an environment where students' will be able to produce and receive language in a meaningful and comprehensible way while interacting and making use of L2 in life-like contexts.

The constitution, through the LDB and the National Curricular Parameters (PCNS), delegates the responsibility of education to the states and City Halls and with that they have choice to some extent to teach the subjects as they see fit, as long as they comply with the requirements of LDB and PCNS. However, if the documents are not in line with one another, it diminishes the effectiveness of applied theory.

English teaching in Brazil has suffered many changes throughout the years since it was first institutionalized in 1855. Brazil's first LDB, from 1961 removed the obligation of schools to provide any kind of language teaching thus promoting a view of a second language as something unimportant despite its growing necessity due to the upcoming globalization. Only with the last LDB in 1996 has language teaching become a mandatory subject in schools and considered an important part of the formation of a citizen.

The most recent PCN+ (National Curricular Parameters of high school guidelines) adds to that concept of citizenship by reading: "There is no way of accepting an individual that, at present, by finishing high school, whether he/she pursues an academic career or not, is incapable of making use of the foreign language in contemporary life situations, in which the gathering of information is necessary. "(PCN+, 2006).

Given this scenario, the focus of this investigation is to discover what hinders language teaching success in schools. Our hypothesis is that teachers are being better and better prepared, and the theory that guides their teaching is becoming more and more effective and supported. However, schools' curriculums have not evolved alongside theories of language

acquisition leaving a big gap between what is theorized in teaching courses and what can actually be applied in schools' contexts. Therefore, in order to promote a better language acquisition/learning process and a more complete citizen formation/education of our students, we need to adapt and overcome the obstacles that prevent theory from becoming practice.

3 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The majority of articles that address English teaching in Brazilian schools, focus on public schools. However, aside from the recent phenomenon of "bilingual schools", that can only be reached by upper class families due to its high price, regular private schools face the same problems as public schools in what language teaching structure is concerned. The lack of fluent students by the end of high school is critical. There are of course different difficulties, but taking into consideration only the rate of students who leave school having acquired/learned a foreign language, the situation is similar.

The teaching of Modern Languages has come a long way in Brazil. Starting around 1855, the methodology was based on the translation of texts and grammatical analysis. Around that time, the lack of regulation of the teaching of foreign languages initiated the degradation of language teaching in Brazilian schools. The amount of time dedicated to language teaching was constantly dropping. In 1925, there was a relative obligation to learn either English or German, however it was just counterfeit, for as said by (Chagas, 1957). "If before, languages that were optional weren't studied, at that point, not even the

mandatory languages were learned, simply due to the anachronism of the methodologies added to the almost certain gratuitous approvals".

In 1931, Brazilian schools saw a change in methodology. The direct method, which aimed to teach the language by using the target language, finally came to Brazil. At that time, there was a visionary teacher called Carneiro Leão, who introduced a set of guidelines to teach modern languages more effectively.

Such as, "Language learning must follow the sequence hearing, speaking, reading and writing.", "Language teaching must have a practical character and be taught in the target language, making use of the direct method since day one".

This initiative promoted a greater relevance of foreign languages in schools.

Looking from a historical perspective, the decades of 40 and 50, under the Capanema reform were the golden years of foreign languages in Brazil. (LEFFA, 1999). With the LDB from 1961, represented the beginning of the decline of foreign languages because the hours dedicated to foreign languages was diminished by 2/3. The next LDB from 1971 had more emphasis on professional qualification and graduation in schools dropped from 12 to 11 years. The teaching of foreign languages suffered another loss in class time.

In 1996, with the new LDB, language teaching became mandatory, making schools add it to their curriculum. However, given the grey areas previously mentioned, the teachers have to make due with limited time to develop the interaction suggested by the PCNS and confusing mixed messages from the teaching regulations laws. As stated by the PCN for middle

schools:

"One must consider average class conditions, with crowded rooms, reduced work time and lack of language fluency from the teachers. With that, focusing on reading, would be comprehensible." On the other hand, the PCN from high school suggests pluralism of ideas and pedagogic concepts. This contradiction and limitation is therefore, debatable, as education in general is becoming increasingly important and discussed in a world scale. Teachers have been blamed throughout this educational process that was documented, however, "We are just now discovering, that the teacher is not the problem, but the solution, and that there is a greater gain in investing on the teacher and their betterment, than in methodology" (LEFFA, 1999)

4 METHODOLOGY

In order to gather the data to study what are the obstacles that prevents theory from becoming practice, a questionnaire was crafted and sent to English teachers of private and public schools in November 2018. More answers were in order to have more data for the research. However, the study had to continue with the answers of the 22 participants that we were able to gather within 2 months. The idea was to gather the opinions and reflections of in-service teachers. The English teachers were asked whether they were able to perform in practice according to what they have learned in college and what they thought was in the way of successful teaching in schools.

This is a qualitative research that aims to open a dis-

cussion with the objective to ultimately influence positively the discredited scenario of English teaching in Brazilian regular schools.

We compared the teachers' answers with the methodology and principles taught in teachers' training courses for teaching English and checked for any impediment of applying theory in the classrooms by taking their opinions and reflections in consideration.

Since the study conducted will test if pedagogic theories are applied in practice, the subjects that answer the questionnaire have to be undergraduates or currently taking an undergraduation in any English teaching course. We also needed to ensure teachers had knowledge of their own practice and whether they made use of tools and theories required for an effective teaching. In order to achieve those goals the 10-question questionnaire went as follows: **1. How long have you been teaching English in schools?** The goal was to know whether they were experienced teachers. **2. What is your qualification in English language teaching?** The goal was to make sure that all respondents are currently studying or have already studied how to be an English teacher and are all familiarized with the theory behind the practice. **3.What is your proficiency level according to the Common European Framework?** The goal was to prove that one of the impediments of effective teaching would not be their language competence. **4. Where do you teach?** The goal was to have teachers from both sectors answering the questions. In that way we would be able to evaluate their teaching aside from the environment. **5. What is the methodology used?** The goal of the question was to

have the perceptions of teachers that used different approaches towards teaching, so that the approach itself would not be analyzed. **6. Which grades do you teach?** The goal was to have the knowledge that in fact we had a homogeneous group. **7. How would you evaluate your capacity to apply theory learned in college into practice?.** The goal was to have the teachers evaluate their own practice and reflect upon it. **8. What teaching strategies do you apply in your classes to promote praxis?** The goal was to study the answers and make sure teachers were aware of the theory they have learned and whether they applied them in their classroom. **9. In your opinion, which aspects interfere negatively in the way English is taught?** The goal was to learn what actually is in the way of effective teaching in a scenario where teachers know what they are doing and are aware of their own practice. **10. In your opinion, which aspects have a positive impact in the way English is taught?** The goal was to gather their opinions on how to change and improve the way English is taught.

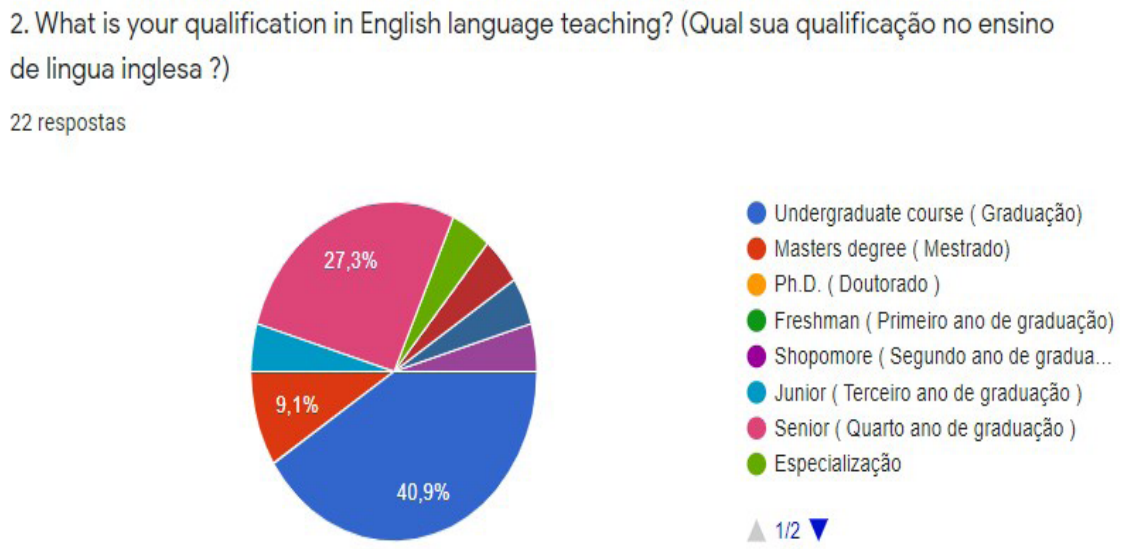
5 FINDINGS

Data collection comprised 22 participants. Questions will be analyzed holistically with a greater focus on the teachers' practice which was the goal of this research. All teachers studied, or were currently studying in an English teaching preparation course. 60% of the teachers who were interviewed already had a degree in English teaching. Therefore, allegedly they had theoretical knowledge about how to properly teach and assist their students' learning. It would be ideal to document the

teachers' development in the classroom in practice, however, a questionnaire was more viable due to the lack of time to closely follow a vast number of teachers. An important characteristic of a good teacher that is constantly reminded in college is to have a reflexive attitude and promote constant improvement in one's own practice. Thus, for this study, answers will be considered as a valid self-evaluation. "As teachers, we will inevitably find ourselves telling our students that if you don't occasionally fail, you can't grow. The reality is that we need to take this advice to heart ourselves. If we as teachers don't evaluate our successes and failures, we can't grow as teaching professionals. If you don't self-evaluate, you fall in danger of falling into a rut in your teaching." (Tustin, Rachel, Study.com, 2017).

Some capability testing answers were also important for us to be able to dismiss the incompetence factor for the lack of teaching success in schools.

We found for example that only 1 of the participants was level A in the Common European Framework. 13 were level B and 8 were C. So as we can see the vast majority were linguistically capable of teaching.



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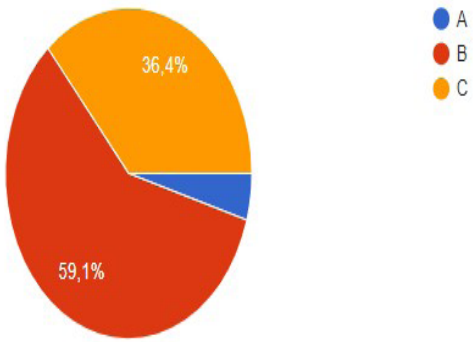
3. What is your proficiency level according to the Common European Framework? (Qual seu nível de fluência de acordo com o Quadro Comum Europeu?)

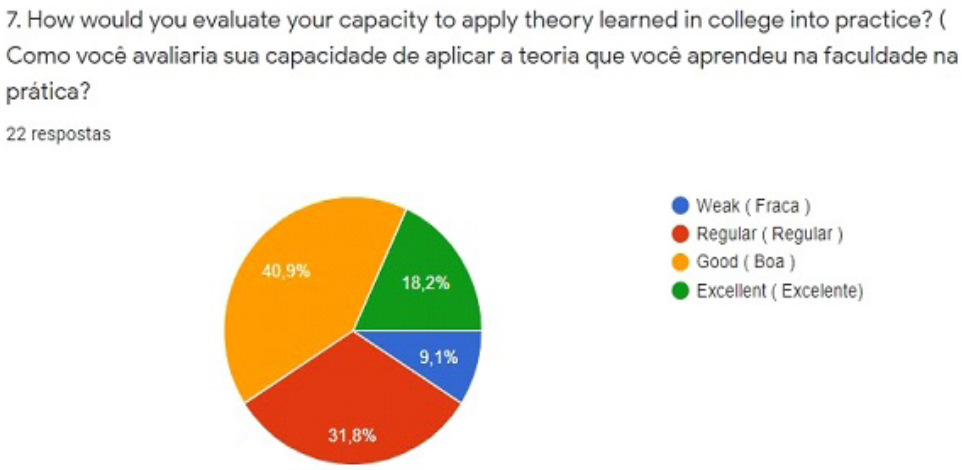
22 respostas



From 22 participants, 9 of them had finished their graduation course, 7 were half way through their graduation and 5 had specialization or master's degree. Again, the majority of teachers had at least some years of teaching experience, because by the end of the course students must teach in actual schools, under the guidance of an experienced teacher in order to graduate.

12 taught in private schools, and 10 in public schools. 7 of them taught in bilingual schools and 15 taught in a traditional environment. Since the group studied was heterogeneous, we were able to analyze different environments and opinions from people with varied background and work conditions and were surprised to know that even within such plural backgrounds, the difficulties were similar.

The teachers that answered the questionnaire, in general, showed an excellent knowledge of the theory behind teaching. They answered using terms and keywords that refer to theorists and theories learned in college.



In numbers, 2 teachers deemed their Praxis weak and 9 teachers considered their praxis good. An interesting fact was that even the teachers who thought their praxis was weak were able to manifest considerable feedback on why that happens. One of them mentioned that he used the "ppp" approach to communicative language teaching which refers to the well-known presentation, practice and production, that is considered the most effective approach because it aims to make the language meaningful to the student. The other teacher that answered he had a weak praxis, mentioned he tried to contextualize the content, in yet another reference to communicative language teaching which always atempts to focus on meaning and not form. The other teachers that considered their praxis to be regular, good or excellent, also made references to theories learned in college. Such as, ludic classes, pair-work, use of technology, peer correction, realia, TPR (total physical response), individual learning skills, providing meaningful input, drill, role play, speaking practice, and the practice of the four abilities (speaking, writing, reading and listening).

All these concepts were mentioned when they answered

question 8 of the questionnaire that read: “What teaching strategies do you apply in your classes to promote praxis?”.

8. What teaching strategies do you apply in your classes to promote praxis ? (Quais estratégias de ensino você aplica nas suas aulas para promover Práxis?)

22 respostas

No meu caso são aulas mais lúdicas, incentivando mais a participação dos alunos.

Principalmente a promoção das quatro habilidades comunicativas, mesmo que sejam empregadas técnicas de repetição e memorização.

Aplico as TIC usando o laboratório de informática, data show com vídeos, música. Anualmente, na escola fazemos um dia dedicado à cultura inglesa com apresentações musicais e teatrais

Levo músicas e projetos. Por exemplo: fiz uma "timeline" com eles. Eles tinham que me entregar um trabalho com fotos e frases em inglês abaixo das fotos, desde criança até os dias de hoje. Outro projeto foi o de criação de banners. Eles tinham que criar banners com tema livre e seria escrito em inglês. Eles adoram esses projetos.

Use of games to get students motivated to learn.

Speaking strategies and giving students input in the target language

As a follow up question, with the intention of understanding what goes wrong when theory is being applied in the classroom, question 9 reads: “ In your opinion, which aspects interfere negatively in the way English is taught ?”.The aspect that was mentioned the most was lack of time (class time is limited) . Closely followed by the amount of students in a single classroom (too many students per class). The third most mentioned aspect was the apparent unimportance the subject has to the students and the school. (English seems to have a dimished importance when compared to the other subjects).

9. In your opinion, which aspects interfere negatively in the way English is taught? (Na sua opinião, quais aspectos interferem negativamente na forma com que inglês é ensinado ?)

22 respostas

Pra mim a pior coisa é o inglês ser visto como uma matéria não muito importante, tanto pela escola quanto pelos alunos.

Estrutura física das escolas, pouca motivação dos alunos, tempo limitado de aula (este último principalmente).

A carga horária é muito pouca por sala (50 minutos por semana), não há livros didáticos para todos, não há capacitações propostas pelo Estado do Ceará. Sou o único professor da disciplina e esse isolamento é negativo.

No estudo apenas da gramática.

Large number of students per classroom;
English classes happen in ordinary classrooms (I mean, there's no a specific room with an "English environment" for teaching English)

"The importance of English teaching is low. It never fails students and is considered complementary. In the same level as arts, religious studies, physical eduation and Spanish." (British council, São Paulo, 2015).

With the 10th question we were aiming for solutions for the problems mentioned. In spite of the intention, the answers were satisfactory because they showed that the teachers are really aware of the limitations and obstacles English teaching in schools has to overcome.

10. In your opinion, which aspects have a positive impact in the way English is taught ? (Na sua opinião, quais aspectos tem um impacto positivo na forma com que o Inglês é ensinado?)

22 respostas

Um aspecto positivo na aula bilíngue é a quantidade de hora/aula por semana. Uma maior exposição a língua aumenta o aprendizado.

O estágio antes do ingresso no mercado de trabalho é um bom início. Depois, um núcleo gestor comprometido com a aprendizagem dos alunos e um corpo docente que pratique a iterdiciplinaridade.

A liberdade de utilizar a metodologia que eu quiser para conseguir os resultados. O interesse dos alunos em aprender um novo idioma.

Quando ele é ensinado naturalmente

Resources such as digital books and videos; use of ludic activities; use of L2 as much as possible.

Possibility of interactive teaching strategies and also interacting with native speakers through social networks.

Da a possibilidade de contato com a segunda língua e sua estrutura para muitos alunos que não teriam outra oportunidade. Mesmo ensinando em uma escola particular, é uma escola de periferia, os pais não teriam condições de pagar a escola e um curso para os filhos.

In the same chain of answers, we had the mentioning of more class time in a bilingual school as a positive aspect, and the importance of learning English in schools for less privileged classes, since they cannot afford bilingual schools nor private English courses. The mentioning of commitment from the school's management team was also something interesting, since as mentioned before, English tends to be an overlooked subject in regular schools. All these contributions corroborate what were considered problems with English teaching in schools.

6 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to find whether teachers were able to use the theory learned in their training programs inside their classroom, and as was found, all 22 participants were able to pinpoint theoretical aspects about their own practice. They seemed to know what hinders their students' development as well, giving specific feedback on what they believe the problems were.

Giving solutions to an extremely complex and rooted issue is not easy and one cannot be naive as to think there is only one simple and unquestionable answer. However, acknowledging the problem, discussing possible solutions and moving towards an improvement is paramount and that was the initial intention of this research. It is clear that the amount of participants was not ideal, but it can be considered as a representation of the whole. The fact that the same problems (lack of class time, amount of students and the apparent little importance English has for the students and for the schools) were mentioned repeatedly may shed a light on understanding what the problem is.

It seems that in regular private schools, privileged classes have the option to enroll in private language courses. so they are not interested in learning a subject that they will already learn out of school. In public schools, English is too distant from their reality. According to a research done by The

British Council in public schools, the second most mentioned problem in the

public system was that English was seen as unnecessary

and disconnected from their environment. Bilingual schools are showing positive results, but the price factor prevents them from being a viable solution. For Andreis – Witkosk (2013) "the teaching of bilingualism in middle school is important, for the language contributes for an identity formation, being decisive for the cognitive development of children and their learning potential. Thus, in the context of schools, teachers make use of oral and written language, and listening to promote the teaching of bilingualism, searching to integrate all students in this process of learning." Taking this into consideration it is important to include every student possible, whether they are from private or public schools in the bilingual system, or at least offer viable solutions. The gap between privileged and less privileged classes will tend to increase in this scenario, and that cannot be allowed.

The LDB itself allows a simple and not so costly solution. According to section 24.IV, "Classes can be organized with students from distinct grades, with equivalent levels of development on a subject, for the teaching of foreign languages, arts, and other curricular components." Another solution that was set in motion in some states in Brazil are language centers that are available to students from the public system. Yet another solution that some private schools created was to have their own language course inside the school for the students to have English classes after their regular classes. Those students would not have to take regular English classes, diminishing the amount of students per class.

Regardless of one solution or another, the problem is there for all to see and the objective here was to show there is

more than one side to the lack of success of English teaching in schools. The teachers, the students, the schools, the educational laws and culture all play important roles for the improvement of English fluency in Brazil. As shown, the scenario needs improvement. According to our research teachers seem to be aware of their role. But we need all parts of this mechanism to work properly, because as said by Finardi,

Prebianca and Momm (2013) "In the age of information and in the globalized world we live in, where most of the information is available in English and online, it is necessary to promote literacy in these two languages (English as an international and technological language) in order to guarantee access to information as a way of digital and social inclusion with the consequent exercise of a global citizenship."

Further repercussions of this studies will be to study the viability of the solutions presented in the conclusion as well as analyzing the possibility of insertion of bilingual systems in public schools.

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CHAPTER 6

ANTIGONE AS A RADICAL FEMINIST SYMBOL: A BRIEF STUDY

Monnalysa Fontinele Lima[1]

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 FEMINISM

It is difficult to pinpoint exactly when feminism started, but the quest against the oppression of women probably started together with humankind. The organized movements have evolved from the eighteenth century until the many facets which exist nowadays. A general definition for feminism is found in the online *Oxford* dictionary as "the advocacy of women's rights on the ground of the equality of the sexes." Although this is a very broad definition, it gives a general idea of the movement. The word derives from the French *féminisme*, a social movement with the goal to emancipate women. The French socialist Charles Fourier was the first person to use this word in 1837, in order to name the women's struggle for emancipation and a better future.The first known use of the term in English was in the magazine *De Bow's Review of the Southern and Western*

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*State*s (Vol 13, 1852).

In 1914, a definition for feminism by Carrie Chapman Catt was published by *The New York Times*:

> WHAT is feminism? A world-wide revolt against all artificial barriers which laws and customs interpose between women and human freedom. It is born of the instinct within every natural woman's soul that God designed her as the equal, the co-worker, the comrade of the men of her family, and not as their slave, or servant, or dependent, or plaything. (WEISS, S. 2015)

Catt's concept embraces the general characteristics of the nomenclature and makes clear the women's fight and need for equality and recognition as an equal. In her quotation, the importance of the movement is perceived by the way she justifies women's rights as a birth right. The definition is simple: feminism englobes women's freedom and voice, regardless of its different divisions.

1 .2 FIRST WAVE

The First Wave of feminism emerged with the French Revolution, in 1789, and fought for political rights, seen at the time as an exclusively male right created by men. The new French Constitution, promulgated in September 1791, assured citizenship for all; it also foresaw the equality of all people above law, census voting, confiscation of ecclesiastical lands, among others (FURET, 1996). Mary Wollstonecraft made the

first protest about women's subordination, educational rights, and citizenship in 1791. Back then, women were seen socially as slaves or non-citizens at best, with no rights or power to make decisions by themselves.

This wave occurred between the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. This period included a large amount of activities in the United States and the United Kingdom. Women protested against arranged marriages, ownership of properties, economic rights, among others. An example of a strike made in this period was the one in 1909. While some female workers of a factory went on strike to reduce the labor time and achieve better payments, they were murdered by their bosses and the police (GITAHY, MATOS, 2008). In August 27, 1910, Clara Zetkin approved during the Second International Congress of Women the creation of Women's International Day, March 8. This tribute was made to the North American workers mentioned above. (GITAHY, MATOS, 2008).

According to Alambert (1997), after the First World War, women of twenty-onecountries conquered the right to vote. Large international feminist organizations worked to preventa new war and for the rights of female workers and women in general. Some of these rights included the well--being of female workers and equal work conditions between men and women.

1.3 SECOND WAVE

The Second Wave of feminism, from 1950 to 1990, put gender issues as a priority. According to Mills and Mullany

gender

> pre-exists the individual and is negotiated by them in their performance of their identities.This performativity is a constant process rather than something which is ever achieved: that this reiteration is necessary is a sign that materialization is never quite complete, that bodies never quite comply with the norms by which their materialization is impelled. (MILLS. MULLANY, 2011)

According to the European Institute for Gender Equality, gender issues relate to "any issue or concern determined by gender-based and/or sex-based differences between women and men" (EIGE, 2014). Those issues were discussed in the second wave of feminism. The publicationof *The Second Sex* by Simone de Beauvoir in 1949 is considered the mark of the beginning of the second wave. Although Beauvoir at the time claimed not to be linked with the women's movement, by 1972 she said in an interview she considered herself a feminist (GRAY, 2010). In her book she clarifies that a woman is not born a woman; rather, that she learns to become one. In her point of view, the work of feminism was to "transform society and women's place in it"(SCHWARZER, 1984).

This wave also fought for sexuality and reproductive rights. Adrienne Rich explained the goals of this wave as:

> Feminism means finally that we renounce our obedience to the fathers and recognize that the world they have described is not the whole world.... Feminism implies that

> we recognize fully theinadequacy for us, the distortion, of male-created ideologies, and that we proceed to think, and act, out of that recognition. (RICH, 1976, p.17)

Feminism had stepped out of conquering a few rights and started to develop to what it is today. What differentiates the first two waves is the fact that in the first, they fought for politicalrights. In the second, they fought for the end of gender discrimination.

Women's liberation movement came into the agenda in the 1960s with some improvement for women's class. They were also now taking paid employment in greater numbers than ever before, aided by increased higher education on the one hand and more effective birth control on the other.

The book The Feminine Mystique published in 1963 by Betty Friedan criticized the idea women could only find happiness through the raising of children and house-related activities. By interviewing hundreds of middle-class and mostly white women, she registered the growing dissatisfaction of women confined to the domestic sphere. She was opposed to the system were thewomen where considered housemaids and their jobs were considered meaningless.

1.4 THIRD WAVE

Snyder states that third-wave feminists did not have a whole new set of problems or solutions that the movement englobes. What really made a difference between the second and third waves was the tactical approach it had to solve some im-

passes they struggled in the 1980 feminist theory. Second-wavers splitted over questions about "pornography, prostitution, and lesbian sadomasochism" (SNYDER, 2008). Snyder wrote that.

> Third-wavers want their own version of feminism that addresses their different societal contexts and the particular set of challenges they face. For example, young women today face a world colonized by the mass media and information technology, and they see themselves as more sophisticated and media savvy than feminists from their mothers' generation. [...] (SNYDER, 2008)

The best way to understand third wave feminism is as "a particular approach rather than using it to label women born within certain years or who occupy a certain age group." (SNYDER, 2008). They wanted to interact with men as equals, having the same rights as they did. The movement also made diversity a central feature, enabling young black women to also have a voice.

Third-wavers' focus was on women's issues. They did not have a fixed approach, they fought about gender issues and social justice.

> Many third- wave stories strive to demonstrate the gaps between dominant discourses andthe reality of women's lives. Some third wavers, for example, use their own experiences growing up in interracial or multicultural families to illustrate how the politics of race, class, and gender play out in

people's lives. (WEINER-MAHFUZ, 2006)

By showing a personal background of these wavers, their fight was explained using their own history. A new, alternative and critical way of seeing the world and its gender issues was theorized by third-wave feminists.

1.5 RADICAL FEMINISM

Besides being divided in waves, feminism is so plural that it has many variations as well, such as intersectional feminism, black feminism, Marxist feminism, transfeminism, ecofeminism, postcolonial feminism, and radical feminism, to name a few. According to the videoposted on *You Tube* on the channel *Vidya Mitra*, "by the late 1960's, small groups of womenbegan meeting regularly to discuss the effects of male supremacy not only in the spheres of women's professions, education, and public life, but more importantly, on their private lives as well" (2017). While looking for the root for these issues, radical feminism emerged. Radical means pertaining to the root, in this case, to women's oppression. Robin Morgan stated:

> I call myself a Radical Feminist, and that means specific things to me. The etymology of the word 'radical' refers to 'one who goes to the root.'I believe that sexism is the root oppression, the one which, until and unless we uproot it will continue to put forth the branches of racism, class hatred, ageism, competition, ecological disaster, and economic exploitation. this means, to me, that the so-called

> revolutions to date have been coups- d'état between men, in a halfhearted attempt to prune the branches but leave the root embedded for the sake of preserving their own male privileges (1978, p. 9).

Radical Feminism represented its theory by writing women's lives and how they analyzed their oppression (ROWLAND - KLEIN, 1990). The theory was created by women and with the purpose of benefiting them. The basic argument of radical feminism is that men are responsible for the exploitation of women and they benefit from it. According to the channel on *You Tube*, *Vidya Mitra* (2017), "Men's control of both women's sexual and reproductive lives and women's self-identity, self-respect, and self-esteem is the most fundamental of all oppressions human beings can face". Patriarchy was the tool used by men to dominate society. Radical feminists looked forward to taking control of their lives and history. Morgan defined radical feminism in *Going Too Far*.

> It wasn't a wing or arm or toe of the Left - or Right - or any other male-defined, male- controlled group. It was something quite else, something in itself, a whole new politics, an entirely different and astoundingly radical way of perceiving society, sentient matter, life itself, the universe. It was a philosophy. It was immense. It was also most decidedly a real, autonomous Movement, this feminism, with all the strengths that implied. And with all the evils too - the familiar internecine squabbles (1978, p. 13).

Therefore, emancipation or equality of rights to men was not enough for them. The eradication of patriarchy was needed for true freedom. The basis of patriarchal oppression lies in reproductive roles of women and men. Radical feminism takes sexual politics as the basis of gender oppression and not only attempts to understand women's oppression but focus as well on celebrating women consciousness and negotiation with patriarchal inequalities.

According to the video posted on *Youtube* by Vidya Mitra called *Radical Feminism*, the "motivation to improve women's condition emerged in the context of their participation in radical social movements where they found themselves excluded from equal power by men withinthese movements." Still based on the information collected in the video, Kate Millet stressed that despite men's several attempts to control and coerce all women, many of them have proved uncontrollable. By being radical, they go against the beginning of all oppressions, patriarchy. The systematic domination of women by men is of central concern to this branch of feminism.

The *Encyclopedia Britannica* defines patriarchy as a

> hypothetical social system in which the father or a male elder has absolute authority over the family group; by extension, one or more men (as in a council) exert absolute authorityover the community as a whole. Building on the theories of biological evolution developed by Charles Darwin, many 19th-century scholars sought to form a theory of unilinear cultural evolution. This hypothesis, now discredited, suggested that human social organization "evolved"

> through a series of stages: animalistic sexual promiscuity was followed by matriarchy, which was in turn followed by patriarchy.(ENCYCLOPEDIA BRITANNICA)

Patriarchy is the start of women being seen in a lower position compared to men, sincemen controlled their families, political spheres, and job positions, leaving to women the housework. In a society where it is believed that men have the power and the right to rule and the other gender must obey, it is hard to give women a voice. This system puts men in higher position,given to them by birth right. Patriarchy, more than a system, is a way, a justification for men to stay in power and women in a submissive position.

The first signs of patriarchy appeared in the Neolithic Era, which relied on a system where the men were the hunters and the women the gatherers. In the Paleolithic Era, men made necessary for women to be virgins before marriage, so they could be certain their babies were theirown. With this control over women, the earliest patriarchal families started. Ancient Greece played a big role in the increase of patriarchy (RUYLE, 1980).

History points the divisions of feminism with different perspectives. Radical feminismwanted to break the chains put by patriarchy on women. This was the starting point took into consideration to analyze *Antigone*, its characters and how radical feminism appears on the play.

2 ANTIGONE PLAY

Antigone is a play written by Sophocles which approaches relevant themes for society,as individual conscience, State power, and obligation of law acceptance. The main character Antigone knows that one of her dead brothers is not going to be buried. Both of them fought in a civil war for the Theban throne. Creon becomes the ruler and decides that Polyneices is not going to have a proper burial. Antigone revolts against that and buries her brother anyway.

The chorus give their opinion on the obedience to the law, an important Theban value for the maintenance of the city.

> When the laws are kept, how proudly his city stands! When the laws are broken, what of his city then? Never may the anarchic man find rest at my hearth, Never be it said that mythoughts are his thoughts. (SOPHOCLES, 2001)

This statement can be analyzed as an agreement with Creon and a call for the death of the person who buried Polyneices, or as a condemnation to Creon and his laws. The disobedience to Creon's law leads Antigone to a death sentence. Her sister, Ismene, tries to convince her otherwise; however, Antigone believes she is doing the right thing. In the play, Creon believes he is right because he is the ruler. In *Gorgias,* by Plato, the character Callicles desires Socrates' submission by spreading fear and showing power; so does Creon in Thebes.

On one hand there is Antigone, disobeying her country laws. On the other, there isCreon, disobeying traditions. Even though Antigone becomes a hero of values, she dies in order to defend them. Creon loses his family to prove a point as a king;

he changes his mind at the end, although it is too late.

2.1 ANTIGONE CHARACTER

Antigone is a woman ahead of her time who is not afraid to infringe Creon's laws in order to respect her moral beliefs. She demonstrates courage in giving up her own life to honor herfamily memory. In the beginning of the play, she talks to her sister Ismene, asking if she is goingto help: "And now you can prove what you are: A true sister, or a traitor to your family" (SOPHOCLES, 2001). Since the beginning Antigone makes it clear that the State is an enemy and so is whoever supports it.

For the character, the State power is represented by king Creon. Therefore, when she proclaims "Creon is not enough to stand in my way" (SOPHOCLES, 2001) she is referring to the person and power institution as well. In her confrontation with Creon, the character's political heroism is explicit when she says:

> I didn't say yes. I can say no to anything I say vile, and I don't have to count the cost. But because you said yes, all that you can do, for all your crown and your trappings, and your guards—all that you can do is to have me killed. (SOPHOCLES, 2001)

Despite all his power, Creon finds himself helpless; even though he does not want to execute Antigone, he cannot help ordering her death. By saying no to all she finds vile, Antigone becomes more powerful than the ruler. Also, the character is

then postulated as a defying woman, who acts radically against a king's rule which she does not agree with. According to Cecilia Pires (2003, p. 6), Antigone is audacious, astute, and rational to her purpose. Even though she pays withher life, she fights for what she believes and according to her morals. Pires affirms that

> the way Antigone defies the laws of Thebes, in Sophocles' version, is the display of the antinomies between laws that face each other in the imaginary of the subject-characters. To bury her brother, contradict Creon, and obey her own feeling of brotherhood [...] makes Antigone a figure of rare tenacity and conviction. (PIRES, 2003, p.2)[2]

This transgression guarantees Antigone as a character who contradicts the male vision of the Greeks in relation to women, being characterized as an inferior species and not able tospeak or think rationally. Sophocles problematizes the ideal democratic patterns of his time. Antigone is a metaphoric manifestation of civil disobedience, claiming real freedom and equality of rights.

This vision of women derives from patriarchy, where they are naturally seen asinferior and not able to participate in the democratic decisions of the State. Many women like Antigone fight for what they believe; even in a patriarchal and individualist system, they have some achievements. In Brazil, one of these achievements is the Law number 11.340, known as

2 Translated by Monnalysa Fontinele Lima, Letras student at Ceara Federal University. From the Portuguese: "a formacomo Antígona desafia as leis de Tebas, na fala de Sófocles, é a mostra das antinomias entre leis que se enfrentem no imaginário dos sujeitos-personagens. Enterrar o irmão, contrariando Creonte, e obedecer o próprio sentimento de fraternidade [...] faz de Antígona uma figura de rara tenacidade e convicção."

Maria da Penha Law.

> Every woman, regardless of class, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, income, culture, educational level, age and religion, enjoys the fundamental rights inherent to the human person, being assured the opportunities and facilities to live without violence, preserve their physical and mental health and their moral, intellectual and social improvement. (Law Nº 11340, Article 2)[3]

Antigone relates with women who struggle for equality of rights and the end of patriarchy. She fights for fundamental rights, just like the contemporary women, who guaranteed some success with this law. even though some societies still see women as inferior beings, theygot many rights. Alongside with Maria da Penha Law, Brazilian women conquered the right tovote in 1932 (Decree Nº 21.076; February 24, 1932). Back then, the system was represented by Creon and nowadays it is represented by many rulers throughout the globe, who impose their orders by not taking into consideration everyone's well-being, regardless of their being men or women.

2.3 ISMENE'S CHARACTER

Ismene is Antigone's sister and her fear of challenging Creon's laws makes her the opposite of her sister. She seems paralyzed by her identity as a woman, believing her fate is to

3 Original version: "Art. 20 Toda mulher, independentemente de classe, raça, etnia, orientação sexual, renda, cultura, nível educacional, idade e religião, goza dos direitos fundamentais inerentes à pessoa humana, sendo-lhe asseguradas as oportunidades e facilidades para viver sem violência, preservar sua saúde física e mental e seu aperfeiçoamento moral, intelectual e social."

obey men. Because of that, she does not help her sister with the plan of burying Polyneices and tries to convince Antigone not to. Her words when she is asked to help express how she does not value herself. “Antigone, you are mad! What could I possibly do?” (SOPHOCLES, 2001). Ismene does not think she can be helpful because of her gender; plus she thinks Creon’s laws represent thebest for the people. “They mean a great deal to me, but I have no strength to break laws that were made for the public good” (SOPHOCLES, 2001). According to her, Creon imposes the law by forbidding a proper burial to Polyneices to assist the people.

> Think how much more terrible than these our own death would be if we should go againstCreon and do what he has forbidden! We are only women. We cannot fight with men, Antigone! The law is strong, we must give in to the law In this thing, and in worse. I beg the Dead to forgive me, but I am helpless: I must yield to those in authority. And I think it is dangerous business to be always meddling. (SOPHOCLES, 2001).

Here Ismene proves to be a person who fears the law, authority, and death. She reminds Antigone that laws are created for good reason and is helpless to defy them. By “being only women” (SOPHOCLES, 2001) she reminds everyone the expected identity a woman should have in society. They should follow the State laws imposed by a patriarchal regime and accept they are not supposed to have the right to make a change. By acting like that, Ismene portrays an archetypal Greek woman,

since she follows the moral code even when it goes against her family wishes. Being the opposite of Antigone, Ismene's message is that "we are women, we're not born to contend with men" (SOPHOCLES, 2001), once more agreeing with the ideals imposed by a patriarchal society.

2.4 CREON'S CHARACTER

In the play *Antigone*, Creon is portrayed as the leader of Thebes. Being Oedipus' brother in law, he assumes the power with Oedipus' demise. In *Oedipus the King*, Creon embodiesthe voice of reason, maintaining his brother in law calm. By the end of the tragedy, Creon provesto be responsible and a good leader for Thebes.

In contrast, in *Oedipus at Colonus*, he is wily and manipulative, doing anything to get what he wants. He even holds his nieces, Antigone and Ismene, hostage and threatens Thebes withwar. By the end, he becomes a ruthless leader, unable to give away his power. In *Antigone*, he is already an autocrat, who relates the power of the State with himself. He prefers to rule Thebes by his desire, not caring for the good of the people.

Creon does not want to sentence Antigone to death; however, he feels he has no choicebut to call for her execution. Thinking of maintaining the power and the political and social order, he ends becoming the antagonist of the tragedy. His pride leads him to his downfall; even whenhis own son tries to reason with him, he does not change his mind in doing what he believes is the correct decision. He even says "Whatever you say, you will not change my will" and "The State is king!",

making it clear he feels superior to everyone; therefore, no one should question his voice. He demonstrates his ideals about women when he says to his guard: "You, there, take them away and guard them well: for they are but women, and even brave men run when they see Death coming" (SOPHOCLES, 2001). Another trait of his ethos appears in his talk with Haimon "No,no: good lives are made so by discipline. We keep the laws then, and the lawmakers, and no woman shall seduce us. If we must lose, let's lose to a man, at least! Is a woman stronger than we?" (SOPHOCLES, 2001).

Creon represents the State idea of women back in Ancient Greece. He believes womenhave no right to interpose in men's business, plus a woman could never be more powerful than men and their laws. According to Creon, "with law-breakers, critics of the government: whoever ischosen to govern should be obeyed–– Must be obeyed, in all things, great and small, just and unjust!" Thereby, the ruler knows at some point he is not entirely correct with his announcement; even though as the governor he must be obeyed even if his decision is unjust. In this situation, the people have no choice but to obey the king no matter what. This patriarchal ideal exists until the present day, where the population has to fight in order to get their voices heard.

3 ANTIGONE AND RADICAL FEMINISM

In this Greek tragedy the protagonist's indignation with Creon's impositions and Ismene's conformism is perceptible, which brings to mind the sexist thinking seen and debated

nowadays. Moreover, from the point of view of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, this was one of the first works that portrayed the endless debate between justice and law (natural law and positive law). However, it is important to clarify that this is a current deduction, because for the Greeks, relevant issues to the population were not included in discussing natural law and positive law. Thus, seeking relationships between socially relevant issues in contemporaneity and ancient works encourages society to look at such works in a different way, seeking relationships between current problems and works of other writers. In this way, it drives the search for theories and solutions that cover how these issues are involved in everyday life, thus bringing benefits to society in general.

Creon, when he decrees that Polyneices cannot be buried, causes immense dishonor to Antigone, who intends to perform the funeral honors to her brother. In dialoguing with the ruler, she exposes all her aversion and accuses him of tyranny. A similar feeling is seen nowadays whenever the legal orders are out of compatibility with the spirit of justice acting in society. In thisconfrontation, even Haimon, son of Creon, disapproves the paternal decision and insinuates he should listen the population.

> [...] I have heard them muttering and whispering in the dark about this girl. They say that no women has ever, so unreasonably, died so shameful a death for a generous act. "She covered her brother's body. Is this indecent? She kept him from dogs and vultures. Is this a crime? Death – she should have all the honor we can give her." (SOPHOCLES,

2001)

Thebes claims that Antigone committed no crime; moreover, Thebans believe they should honor her. Here is an example of Antigone's active voice. Her actions move all the city, making people disapprove Creon's law.

Another example of a ruler who would not listen to others and to his own wife is seen in another tragedy of Sophocles, *Oedipus King*. Oedipus does not listen to Tiresias's advice, is enraged, and does not listen to his wife, who is advising him not to go ahead with his search for truth. He also refuses to listen and correctly judge Creon, showing some tyranny in this act. The result of his actions is visible and similar to the ones received by other tyrants, illegitimate kings, addressed by Sophocles. At the end of *Antigone*, people, more likely women, should realize the play's objective, which is that people have the right to express themselves and to be heard. The head of the State who despises the people puts himself at risk and, above all else, the *polis*.

In *Ajax*, another work by Sophocles, a similar incident occurs. Menelaus, one of the commanders of the Greek forces, banned the funeral of Ajax. Teucro, half-brother of the deceased,as well as Antigone, also goes against the prohibition and states that nothing would prevent him from burying him. With this, the relation between the works from this same writer is evident. Antigone, in insisting on burying Polyneices, struggles in a certain way for a right given to all human beings. If she did not act, she would be accepting that her brother is not human, since he is being denied of a right given to all.

Ismene brings up another clash: the female conformity of her position in society.When she hears her sister's request, calling her to disrespect a decree given by the ruler, she isweak and chooses the law of the city in order to stay alive.

As might be expected, this criticism against conformist thinking becomes very explicit inthe course of the tragedy. Ismene, afraid of exposing her views and confronting the government, prefers to shut up and obey in order to survive. In addition, in debating with her sister, she also expresses a lack of willpower. She devalues herself and women as a whole.

Judith Butler brings into debate something absorbed in *Antigone* which is clearly observed in contemporary times. In her work, *Antigone's Claim*, she calls attention to the moral chaos that a family outside traditional patterns can provoke in society. In Sophocles' play, Oedipus' incestuous family and Antigone's unconditional love for Polyneices causes repercussion throughout the Theban government. Butler points out a duality in relation to this feeling; therefore,it can also be interpreted as incestuous and impossible. Antigone's actions motivated by her faith and feelings provokes the destabilization of Creon, thus representing a threat to the State laws. Because her family is based on nontraditional methods, the whole government has been unstructured, being symbolized by the figure of the king.

By disobeying Creon, Antigone is going against the State, a ruler who was put in such a position because of patriarchy. Creon himself proves that when he states "Unfortunately, as you know, his two sons, the princes Eteocles and Polyneices, have killed each other in battle, and I, as the next in blood,

have succeeded to the full power of the throne" (SOPHOCLES, 2001). Here it isproved that Creon became the king because of a male birth right.

In Ancient Greece patriarchy could be realized in different perspectives. Patriarchy and misogyny go together, since they both show subordination and dominance towards women (KATZ, 1992, p. 72). Women in ancient Greece were (1) regarded with contempt, (2) secluded, and (3) uneducated (KATZ, 1992, p. 74). Men usually worked as farmers, businessmen or as the high officials. At a young age, boys were educated and trained for their future careers, while girls stayed home with their mothers and learned how to cook and clean. These were the ways in which men and women were supposed to act and behave according to society at the time.

> A primary democracy can be seen in ancient Greece called the *polis*. This gave men somewhat equal rights; compared to the aristocracy they had known before. As men gained equal rights, women lost many of theirs. The family had before been a biological unit, but now took the form of a political and economic unit. Wives and mothers became obligatory, and women who did not follow the traditional functions faced legal consequences. Women were the legal wards of either her father or husband and had no rights of their own; they could not inherit property. A woman during this time did noteven have custody over her children as they belonged to her husband. Additionally, if a woman committed adultery, they would either be banished or executed where men, who would occasionally suffer penalties,

> had many legal sexual outlets. (Women's Research Center, 2018)

The story of Medea, Euripides tragedy published in 431 BC, exemplifies women's lack of rights since back then. She is betrayed by her husband Jason, who wants to marry Glauce.

Creon of Corinth banishes Medea, who is left alone and abandoned by her family. Where were Medea's rights as a human being? Why could she not stay with her children? Because of patriarchy; the same patriarchy Antigone is fighting against in her play.

When struggling to get a proper burial to her brother, she is defying Creon's laws, which in Sophocles' play represent patriarchy. Antigone does not accept the law imposed and fights against it. Her protest in order to bury her brother, admitting what she does, and preferring to diein order not to ally with this corrupt system, suggests that she follows radical feminist ideals. Antigone goes to the root of the corrupt system in Thebes, Creon and his laws. Creon's tyranny is perceived in the quote "Ah the good fortune of kings licensed to say and do whatever they please" (SOPHOCLES, 2001). Creon says and acts in the way he wants, his decisions are taken for self- precaution and no one should question his decisions.

What Antigone has in common with feminism is that they both announce the right to anycitizen to rise against absurd orders, Creon is the state that enslaves, Antigone the nation that rebels. Much more than simple rebellion, this act can be interpreted as a struggle in order to be inserted in the world. Antigone, through her active and ferocious discourse, attempts

to reach her goal trying to destroy patriarchy. When almost dying, she declares "Thebes, and you my father' gods and rulers of Thebes, you see me now, the last unhappy daughter of a line of kings, your kings, led away to death. You will remember what things I suffer, and at what men's hands, because I would not transgress the laws of heaven" (SOPHOCLES, 2001). Antigone's discourse isagainst the rulers in power. She declares her pain and who made her suffer, clarifying the injustice committed.

Radical feminism, as explained in the other section, aims to end patriarchy, rather than adjusting the system through changes. "Their entire politics is based on challenging and eliminating the patriarchal system" (*Vidya Mitra*, 2017). Antigone makes it clear that she does not agree with Creon's attitudes, by disobeying his laws and preferring to die than following an unjust king. Creon here represents patriarchy in Greece, and Antigone, the radical force who wantsto end his tyranny for good. She makes the whole city realize how unfair king Creon is, causing him to lose power. Obviously, patriarchy does not end with Antigone's actions. However, she diesto prove her point: she can fight for what she believes, women have a voice and patriarchy should not exist.

Like a radical feminist, she perceives how Creon's choices, representing the system,have a negative impact in her life and family. Because of his impositions, according to the law she is powerless to act and make decisions about her life. Her anger with this system leads her to disobey it, to demonstrate that she can take action against a patriarchal State and that her opinion matters.

Antigone's actions represent a risk to the patriarchal system imposed in AncientGreece. Thebes starts to question Creon's laws and his reasons to have Antigone killed. His powergets endangered, and so does the system along with it. People frequently define a feminist as someone who supports and struggles for women's rights. However, Antigone is more than that, she is a model of the ideology which many feminists in general hold - a model because she fights for equal rules, confronts a tyrant ruler, and questions who is in power. These kinds of attitudes, if done by many, can evolve to a real change in society, providing equality for men and women by ending patriarchy. Her actions are done for love, truth, and justice. Because of that, she is a symbol for all women and men who think like her.

According to André Ferreira (2016) Sophocles' work exposes women as a human being with dignity. The meeting with Antigone and Creon, besides causing a gender confrontation,it shows a woman who goes beyond common sense, sexism and patriarchal power dictated by a tyrant.

By disobeying the rules, Antigone demonstrates a character which contradicts the masculine view of women as naturally inferior. The character is a manifestation of civil disobedience, fighting for what she thinks is fair and trying to find the real meaning of freedom. Sophocles' Antigone and the contemporary "Antigones" occupy different social scenarios, fight for space, rights, justice and against sexism, originated by patriarchy.

Sophocles' work well represents all the parts of a system: Creon represents patriarchal power; Ismene, the conformist side; and Antigone, the model of struggle and hope to change

the situation and end patriarchy.

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CHAPTER 7

GROUPING STRATEGIES DEVELOPED IN A 9TH GRADE CLASS

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1 INTRODUCTION

First, as a language arts undergraduate student taking part of the *Residência Pedagógica*program, it was asked from me to develop a project to be applied with Brazilian middle school grades. The project created had to provide an alternative to the English teaching system of the school following three main lines of thought: Integrated lexical approach, Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge or TPACK, and Critical literacy.

According to Michael Lewis (1993, apud Sethi and Agarwal, 2013) the integrated lexical approach is a method for teaching foreign languages based on making the students understand lexical phrases and use them as chunks. Also, Lewis not only pointsout the shift from grammar to vocabulary, but also highlights the importance of teachingcollocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions and idioms. In this perspective, students would perceive grammar patterns of the language while having vocabulary at their disposal for speech production.

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The Second theoretical line, TPACK emerged from Shulman"s PCK (1986, apud Koehler and Mishra, 2009) described as the awareness of the teachers not only to understand the content of their classes but also adapt it to the specific context of their classrooms. In this respect, allying that concept to teaching with technologies, the model TPACK came into being. Thus, for teaching with technologies to be effective, teachers are required to understand the concepts of using technologies, the pedagogical rationale that relates technology to the content of the class and how the use of technology help students to build from their existing knowledge.

Third, according to Anderson and Irvine (1982, apud Shor, 1999) critical literacy can beunderstood as the process of creating the conscious of self, historically and in the context of power relations, through learning how to read and write.

Regarding the project applied with the middle school grades, it was called Recreation in English. Also, it was developed by me and one peer. Additionally, we proposed the ideaof having students compete, in groups, in small games and activities where the use of English was rewarded with points with the objective of consolidating the content learned in their classroom.

The project was applied in the lab classes of English in order to make use of the technological tools the school had to offer. Also, the activities were made taking in consideration the vocabulary the students had already learned together with the vocabulary they needed for the regular classes. All games and activities proposed were presented by means of collocations instead of isolated words. However, during the development of

the project a question arose: How to group the students?

Given the circumstances two options were discussed regarding that matter, so, as pre- service teachers, we could either appoint the participants of the groups or let the students decide who they were going to be working with. In this respect, there were arguments in favor and against both options. Regarding the first option, the teachers would have more control of the class and a more organized pattern of choosing once the goal was to group the students according to their attendance list number. However, we were thought that the students could get discouraged participating in a group they did not feel comfortable with.

Regarding the second grouping option, we could let students choose who their peer would be. This would imply that, by choosing, students would end up overly motivated creating additional problems, making classes become disruptive.

One important aspect considered was prioritizing classroom management, and the student-teachers preferred to choose the participants of the group. As expected, in the beginning of the project there were several students who did not want to interact or participate in the activities alongside with their respective groups. Yet, by the end of the project some of those students tried their best to cooperate with each other.

Still, the decision on how to group the students was never based off empirical evidence. In this perspective, it is natural that student-teachers would still make an effort to put their hypothesis to test once it is relevant for pre-service teachers to know how to group their students efficiently for when they start teaching on their own.

Thus, this study is looking at two types of grouping strategies: the student-selected and the randomly-assigned. Also, it aims at finding proof to which one may be more effective than the other. In this respect, the questions to be answered are: Does student- selected groups perform activities better? To what extent does one group perform better than the other?

2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Taking in consideration the types of group formation mentioned previously, it is important to mention what has been studied about them.

> In the purest form, using random assignment for group composition means that each student in the class has an equal likelihood of being selected into a group. The instructor decides how many groups to have in the class and then randomly assigns students to each group. [...]The self- selection method of group assignment allows students to choose their own group members. Students appear to first select friends to work with and then, if necessary, make additions to the group based on someone"s seating proximity or by adding students who are known as "good" group members. (CHAPMAN, 2006, p.559,560)

In this respect, there are findings in favor and against each grouping strategy. On one hand, according to Chapman (2006) the randomly-assigned group is fair in the sense that each student has the same number of chances of being in a

particular group. However, once the composition is decided by chance, the group may not be put togetherwell. On the other hand, Chapman (2006) points out that while the self-selection composition may lead to a positive group dynamics, it still can make the participants that were chosen last feel left out making them cooperate less with the group. In this context, Chapman writes:

> The research to date has not rigorously or adequately addressed if methodof group assignment makes a difference in the nature or valence of group dynamics and outcomes. In particular, an experiment needs to be conducted that tests the two most commonly used methods of group assignment: self-selection and random assignment. (CHAPMAN, 2006, p.561)

With that in mind, this research tries to find evidence that different grouping strategieslead to different outcomes.

3 METHODOLOGY

As to answer the research questions proposed, there were two groups of students: student-selected group and randomly-assigned group. In the student-selected group, students chose their peer, while in the randomly-assigned group, students were assigned to peers randomly. Then, both groups performed an activity as to test their performance.

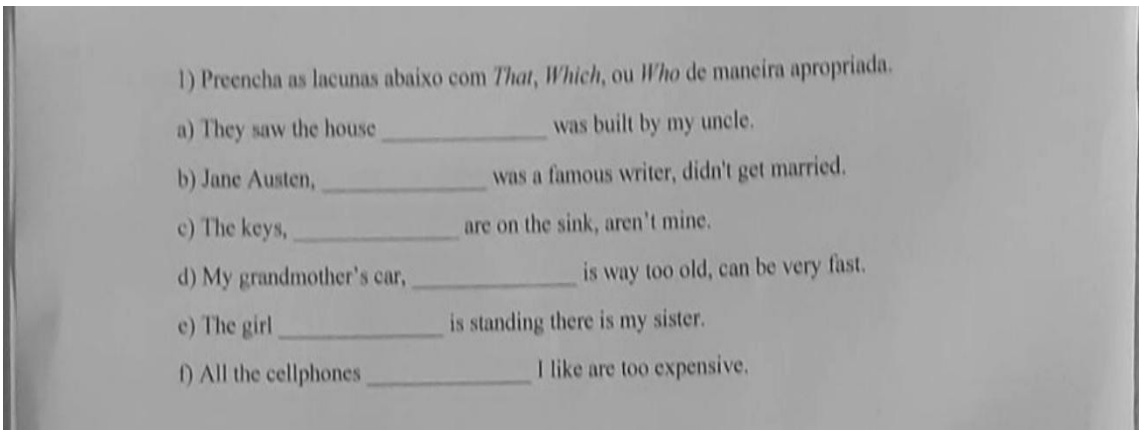
The activity was composed of three exercises and it was applied in two different classes of 9th graders. The exercises were aimed at grammar, vocabulary, and production, accor-

ding to what is required from 9th graders students from the Brazilian public education system. In one of the classes, the students were divided in random 14 pairs and they were considered the randomly-assigned group. In the other class, the students chose their partners and formed 14 pairs to solve the activity and they were considered the student-selected group.

Focusing on the exercises, they worked as a review of the content that would be in the 9th graders following test. In this context, both classes were learning about relative clauses with *who*, *that*, and *which*, word formation, and noun phrases. Also, the teacher followed the guidelines of the workbook. Regarding those guidelines, for relative clauses with *who*, *that*, and *which* the students have to fill in the blanks with the correct relative pronoun. Second, for word formation it requires the students to add suffixes to existent words in order to form new words. Finally, for noun phrases the students have to create noun phrases from given nouns, adverbs, and adjectives. Then, the activity applied on the students followed the same guidelines and were structured as it follows.

In the first exercise there were 6 relative clauses that had to be completed with the right relative pronoun, so the students had to fill in the blanks either with *who*, *that*, and *which*.

Figure 1: Exercise 1



1) Preencha as lacunas abaixo com *That*, *Which*, ou *Who* de maneira apropriada.

a) They saw the house _____ was built by my uncle.

b) Jane Austen, _____ was a famous writer, didn't get married.

c) The keys, _____ are on the sink, aren't mine.

d) My grandmother's car, _____ is way too old, can be very fast.

e) The girl _____ is standing there is my sister.

f) All the cellphones _____ I like are too expensive.

Source: Elaborated by the author

The second exercise required the students to connect 7 words to 3 types of suffixes to the translation of the word formed.

Figure 2: Exercise 2

2) Ligue os radicais aos sufixos para formar as suas respectivas traduções.

Exemplo		
Radical	Sufixo	Tradução
1 - Fellow	A - er	(2 C) Perfeitamente
2 - Perfect	B - ship	(1 B) Sociedade
3 - Work	C - ly	(3 A) Trabalhador

Radical	Sufixo	Tradução
1 - Bank	A - er	( ) Bolsa de estudos
2 - Complete		( ) Banqueiro
3 - Fight		( ) Completamente
4 - Legal	B - ship	( ) Editor
5 - Publish		( ) Legalmente
6 - Relation	C – ly	( ) Lutador
7 - Scholar		( ) Relacionamento

Source: Elaborated by the author

The third exercise showed 14 new words, among them nouns, adverbs, and adjectives, so the students could create 7 noun phrases relating the words formed in the second exercise with the new words.

Figure 3: Exercise 3

3) Crie *noun phrases* relacionando duas das palavras abaixo com uma das palavras da questão 2. As palavras não serão usadas mais de uma vez.

Exemplo	*Noun phrases*
_____ + _____ + worker	very strong worker
_____ + _____ + fellowship	unfair college fellowship
perfectly + _____ + _____	perfectly correct decision

Abusive (abusivo(a))	Athletic (atlético(a))	College (faculdade)
Correct (correto(a))	Decision (decisão)	Divorce (divórcio)
Famous (famoso(a))	Full (completo(a))	Incredibly (incrivelmente)
Intelligent (inteligente)	Rich (rico(a))	Strong (forte)
Unfair (inusto(a))	Very (muito)	

a)_____
b)_____
c)_____
d)_____
e)_____
f)_____
h)_____

Source: Elaborated by the author

Focusing on the application of the activity, it took course during two of the regular English classes. This type of class takes 50 minutes to be finished. In this context, the first minutes of the class was destined to the arrangement of the students; for randomly- assigned group students to find and sit with their assigned partners and for student- selected group students to choose their partners and sit with them. Thus, the students would have around 30 minutes to solve the first two exercises of the activity once there had to be some time for the correction of these exercises before going into the last one. Moreover, the students would have the second class to answer the third exercise.However, on the day of the application of the activity, the class of the student-selected group did not start at the expected time, instead, the application of the activity was 30 minutes delayed. In this context, the student-selected group had only 20 minutes to finish the third exercise. Finally, after the class was over the pre-service teacher tookany remaining activity being solved at the moment.

Furthermore, to answer the research questions proposed, the pre-service teacher categorized the students" performances as it follows: accuracy, time, and production. Inrelation to accuracy, the first two exercises were designed to have 13 items. Regarding the percentage of correctness, students who scored between 9-13 were perceived as if they had an above average performance, students who scored exactly 9 were perceived as average performance and students who scored less than 9 were perceived as if they had a below average performance. In relation to time, as mentioned before, the students would have the second class for the completion of the third

exercise but the student- selected group had less time to finish it. In particular, the performance was evaluated as positive, if students completed the exercise within 20 minutes, and as negative, if students did not finish the exercise within that time. Regarding to production, it was taken in consideration the amount of noun phrases produced and out of these phrases how many of them could be considered coherent. In this respect, if more than half of thenoun phrases produced were considered coherent, the performance was considered as above average, if half of the noun phrases produced were considered coherent, the performance was considered as average, and if less than half of the phrases were considered coherent, the performance was considered below average.

Afterwards, the pre-service teacher compared the total of students in each category and found out if the students from the student-selected group performed better than the students from the randomly-assigned group. Also, the result and discussion from the answers of the exercises provided the information about to what extent which group wassuperior to the other.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results are going to be presented following the chronological order that the exercises occurred. The first two exercises relating to accuracy are going to be presentedbefore the last exercise that relates to time and production. With that in mind, the analysis of each exercise will provide sufficient information for the classification of the performance of the stu-

dents. When it comes to accuracy and production, the classification will be as below average, average, and above average. In relation to time, the classification will be as within 20 minutes or more than 20 minutes.

Regarding the first exercise, most pairs from the student-selected groups were able to complete the sentences with the correct relative pronoun. However, some of the pairs had trouble doing it. Looking at the mistakes those pairs made, it is possible to draw some assumptions.

Table 1 – First Exercise – Student-selected

ITEMS	Correct Answer	Incorrect Answer
Item A	11	03
Item B	13	01
Item C	11	03
Item D	06	08
Item E	13	01
Item F	10	04

Source: Elaborated by the author

First, on items A and F the right relative pronoun to be used is „that" , the pairs that got them wrong completed the sentences with „which." Second, on items C and D the right answer is „which" but most pairs that got them wrong completed the items with „that." In this perspective, those students show a difficulty to differentiate both pronouns from each other. Also, on items B and E which most of the students did not have trouble getting it right, there were two pairs that completed the sentence, respectively, with „that"and „which," in-

dicating that the same difficulty to differentiate the pronouns from each other also exists in relation to „who" but in a smaller scale. On a different note, on item D there were three pairs that completed the item with „who" but it is possible that the pairs had trouble differing the subject „grandmother" s car" from „grandmother". Still on the first exercise, most pairs from the randomly-assigned groups were also able to complete the sentences with the correct relative pronoun. Moreover, there were less mistakes comparing to the student-selected group. However, it is still possible to analyze the mistakes those pairs made.

Table 2 – First Exercise – Randomly-assigned

ITEMS	Correct Answer	Incorrect Answer
Item A	11	03
Item B	13	01
Item C	11	03
Item D	06	08
Item E	13	01
Item F	10	04

Source: Elaborated by the author

In resemblance to student-selected group, the pairs from the randomly-assigned group that got the items A and F wrong also completed the items with „which". In addition to that, even though there was no mistake on item C, the pairs that got item D wrong also misplaced „which" for „that". Also, on item E there was a misplacement of „who" for„ that" Thus, the similar occurrences in both groups endorse the idea that some 9th graders still have trouble with the use of those three relative

pronouns.

Going into the second exercise, there was a larger difference between the two groups. In this respect, while the rate of mistakes from the pairs of student-selected group slightly went up, the opposite happened to the pairs of randomly-assigned group. Still, bothgroups had most of the pairs responding to the exercise in a positive way. In this context,the pairs had to combine one number, representing a word, with a letter, representing a suffix, in order to form a new word and then assign that combination to the translation of the new word.

Table 3 – Second Exercise – Student-selected

ITEMS	Correct Answer	Incorrect Answer
Item A	05	09
Item B	13	01
Item C	12	02
Item D	09	05
Item E	13	01
Item F	11	03
Item G	10	04

Source: Elaborated by the author

From the analysis of the mistakes from the pairs of student-selected group, most students were able to guess, from the initial word, the translation of the word. However, most of them were not able to tell which suffix led them to the correct answer. Also, there was a pair that, on items A and D, only misplaced the initial word. In contrast, there were two pairs that misplaced, on item A, not only the initial word, but also the number.

Table 4 – Second Exercise – Randomly-assigned

ITEMS	Correct Answer	Incorrect Answer
Item A	12	02
Item B	13	01
Item C	13	01
Item D	14	00
Item E	14	00
Item F	14	00
Item G	13	01

Source: Elaborated by the author

Similarly to the pairs of the student-selected group, the pairs from the randomly-assigned group that got the answers wrong were not able to identify the correct suffix to form the right combination. Moreover, there was one pair that preferred not to answer item A.

Hence, most pairs from both groups responded to the first two exercises positively. Although, the mistakes some pairs made were critical for the classification of the group. While in exercise one the error rate from both groups was somewhat similar, in the second exercise the randomly-assigned group lessened that rate while the student-selected group increased it. Thus, data shows that, regarding accuracy, the randomly-assigned group outperformed the student-selected group, as portrayed in the following table.

Table 5 - Accuracy

Grouping Strategy	Below average	Average	Above average
Student-selected	4	1	9
Randomly-assigned	0	1	13

Source: Elaborated by the author

Moving into the last exercise, due to the aforementioned delay problem, the classification of the groups, regarding time, had to be made taking in consideration the amount of time the student-selected group had to finish the task. In this context, the student-selected group slightly outperformed the randomly-assigned group regarding time.

Table 6 - Time

Grouping Strategy	Within 20 minutes	More than 20 minutes
Student-selected	5	9
Randomly-assigned	4	10

Source: Elaborated by the author

Still in the last exercise, there is another form of analysis for it; production. First, it is possible to organize the groups" productions by quantifying all of them according to what was considered adequate for the task: a noun phrase with three words; two new words presented in the current exercise combined with one formed in exercise two. As aresult, the following table is presented.

Table 7 – Third Exercise

Number of Noun Phrases	Student-selected	Randomly-assigned
1	0	0
2	1	0
3	2	0
4	0	2
5	3	0
6	1	4
7	7	8

Source: Elaborated by the author

First, all the pairs were able o write at least two adequate noun phrases for the exercise. Second, half pairs from both groups were able to write the seven noun phrases required from them. However, for the group"s production to be better analyzed it is necessary to measure how many of those noun phrases make sense. Thus, analyzing how many noun phrases, out of the ones produced, can be considered coherent gives us a better perspective on those productions.

Table 8 - Production

Number of Noun Phrases	Student-selected	Randomly-assigned
1	0	0
2	1	0
3	2	0
4	0	2
5	3	0
6	1	4
7	7	8

Source: Elaborated by the author

Analyzing the „Above average" section, it is possible to say that most pairs in it, from both groups, were pairs that produced seven adequate noun phrases. However, out of those, the commonest result was that they only wrote four coherent phrases each. Moreover, there were two pairs in the student-selected group, one that produced two noun phrases and one that produced three noun phrases, which all of it was considered coherent phrases. Also, there was a pair in the randomly-assigned group that even though only wrote six noun phrases, they were able to produce five coherent phrases, making them the pair out of all the groups with more coherent phrases written.

On the „Average" section, one pair from the randomly--assigned group was able to produce four noun phrases but only made sense in two of them. It is important to point out that the pair was able to create three perfect coherent noun phrases with only two of the words from the task but unfortunately those noun phrases did not meet the commandof the exercise and could not be accounted for the analysis.

Now, analyzing the „Below average" section, it was a diverse set of productions that diverged from the original number of noun phrases produced. First, there were two pairsfrom each group that did not write any coherent noun phrase. On one hand, from those pairs, the ones from student-selected group wrote originally seven noun phrases. On the other hand, the pairs from randomly-assigned group, one wrote originally six noun phrases while the other wrote four of them. Also, there were three pairs in the student- selected group that wrote at least one coherent noun phrase while in the randomly-assigned group there was one pair in the same situation. Moreover, in both groups there were three pairs that wrote at least two coherent noun phrases. Finally, four pairs wrote three coherent noun phrases; one pair from the student-selected group and three others from the randomly-assigned group.

Thus, when we look solely at the numbers of coherent noun phrases produced, the randomly-assigned group outperformed the student-selected group. However, once the analysis is looking at the progress the pairs made within their groups, it is possible to say that, in fact, the student selected group, regarding production, outperformed the randomly-assigned group.

5 CONCLUSION

As a conclusion, this study was made with the intention to find evidence as to what is the most effective way of grouping students in a classroom. In this respect, two groupings strategies were put to test: the student-selected and the randomly-assigned. The analysis of those strategies was based off the performance of two grades of 9th graders, each grade grouped according to the strategies mentioned, in an activity composed of three exercises. Also, that performance was categorized in the terms of accuracy, time, and production. Thus, in relation to accuracy the randomly-assigned group performed better than the student-selected one. However, in relation to time and production, the student-selected group slightly outperformed the randomly-assigned one.As a consequence, this study suggests that when using the student-selected grouping strategy students perform better.

Nevertheless, it is vital to point out that the study analyzed the students" performance ofone review activity. With that in mind, it is not possible to confirm that one strategy is more effective than the other. In this context, there are more possible ways to look at that topic. For instance, the type of activity applied and the continuous use of the same grouping strategy. Does the student-selected grouping strategy outperform the randomly-assigned one when the performance analyzed is of a practice type activity instead of a review type? Or does the performance of student-selected groups is still consistent when used multiple times during a semester or school year? Those are questions worth looking into before being assertive as to

which grouping strategy is more effective.

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CHAPTER 8

THE ROLE OF TEXTBOOK AMID A PANDEMIC YEAR: THE EXPERIENCE REPORT OF TEACHING ENGLISH IN A PUBLIC PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL IN FORTALEZA

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1 INTRODUCTION

Teaching a second language requires that teachers make use of several resources to promote interesting and motivating learning contexts. Among the pedagogical materials the textbooks are the most popular. They provide a huge support for students and teachers in classroom. From a plentiful source of input for learners to a syllabus and guideline for teachers, textbooks can play multiples roles. However, the perspectives about the textbooks are diverse and some of them identified these materials as a restrictive tool that can led teachers and learners to interactions without any spontaneity.

A new perspective was added to this discussion about the role of textbooks last year. The pandemic year of 2020 brought deep changes in the society and its relationships. Education was among the fields in which the interaction had the most impact. During the social distance measures imposed by the govern-

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ment authorities, almost all education settings needed to create alternative ways to adjust to the specific restrictions. The use of online platforms, social media and apps were the main means to preserve classes during this moment. Nevertheless, each school presents its own context, resources and students' profile and each institution provided different alternatives to deal with this reality.

Public schools had to face a huge challenge as most students do not have access to Internet or even have an own cell phone. In this type of educational institution textbooks portrayed simultaneously different roles, for example, in some situations they were the main p*edagogical resource and in others they were a sort of guide to provide content by online platforms.

This paper aims to identify how the role of textbook changed and lead to a brief reflection amid a pandemic year from a personal teaching experience. The observations and reflections occurred in a professional public school setting in Ceará. The main focus of the paper explores the challenges and adaptations carried for the Foreign Language course (Applied) which is offered as part of the curriculum of the Tourism, Leisure and Hotel Management program. Some measures to overcome the obstacles of this new distance learning model will be mentioned. The work of Tomlinson (2005), Cunningsworth (2008), Hutchinson (1994) and Richards (2001) are used to support the discussion.

This paper is divided in four parts: the first part presents an introduction about the main aspects of the paper; the second discusses about the different roles portrayed by textbooks

and the multiples viewpoints which can be find about them in the specialized literature; the third part identifies the methodological constituents as the institution, the learners, the program and textbook observed; the fourth and last part promotes some final remarks about the multiple roles of the textbook used and how valuable they were to classes amid a pandemic year experience.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This section intends to present some works which discuss about the multiples roles of the textbook in the teaching and learning of a foreign language. Firstly, it is presented some definitions about textbooks and what features characterize them (RICHARDS, 2001; TOMLINSON, 2015). Then, it is discussed about the roles of textbooks, the positive perspectives about them but also some criticism about these roles in the learning and teaching of a foreign language (CUNNINGSWORTH, 2008; CRAWFORD, 2002; HUNTCHINSON AND TORRES,1994). It finishes the discussion highlighting the importance of teachers, learners, and materials to promote opportunities to learn (ALLWRIGHT, 1981).

Teaching a second language demands the use of several resources and strategies from teachers in classroom. This is so as learning a foreign language requires exposure, frequent interaction and guided production as essentials experiences to learners. A number of Pedagogical resources as textbooks, dictionaries, authentic texts, multimedia and some new tools as apps and websites are considered valuable sources to teachers

and learners involved in the educational environment. Richards (2001) highlights these teaching materials as a crucial component in language programs once they provide most of the basis for language input and practice received by learners.

Tomlinson (2015) clarifies what is the meaning of the term materials and expand the sort of resources that can be included in this definition:

> 'Materials' include anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinaesthetic, and they can be presented in print, through live performance or display, or cassette, CD-ROM, or DVD or the internet. They can be instructional, experiential, elicitative or exploratory, in that they can inform learners about the language, they can provide experience of the language in use, they can stimulate language in use, or they can help learners to make discoveries about the language for themselves.

Thus, all resources apart their format, approach or purposes, since they can provide support and improve the learning experience they can be considered materials. This perspective makes a positive parallel with the plentiful and multifarious scenario in which technology portrays a very important role nowadays as it provides a huge variety of tools to enhance the teaching and learning interaction.

Textbooks or coursebooks used to be the most common pedagogical resource which play an important role in classrooms. They can provide a huge variety of activities to improve

the four receptive and productive language skills and can guide teachers to manage classes through its different interaction moments and approaches. Cunningsworth (2008) adds some other multiples roles:

- a resource for presentation material (spoken and written)
- a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc
- a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom language activities
- a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives which have already been determined)
- a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work
- a support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence

Besides its different roles, multiple authorship voices also shape the textbooks as diversified approaches, type of educational system, author's experience in classroom, teacher preferences, culture of learners, publisher and market issues, costs of production, authenticity, etc. All these voices lead to conflicting - opposing perspective about the use of textbooks and its relationship with teachers.

Crawford (2002), suggests as a positive view that textbooks can be a valuable structuring tool:

> A textbook, from this perspective, does not necessarily drive teaching process, but it does provide the structure and predictability that are necessary to make the event socially tolerable to the participants. It also serves as a useful map of what is indeed and expected, thus allowing participants to see where a lesson fits into the wider context of the language program.

Thus, textbooks can provide a framework that help teachers to organize better the interactive and communicative tasks among learners during classes. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) expands textbooks' role as agents of change since they can lead the introduction of changes gradually in classroom and thus it contributes directly in the teacher's performance and to improve the teaching and learning proposes.

This bright side also includes the visual aspects and quality, the rich and plentiful resources that engage teachers and learners. The plentiful source of input and even, the role as a guide to train inexperienced teachers are other positive aspects listed by Richards (2001). Hence textbooks are powerful allies for teachers to plan their classes and manage the several activities in a very productive and organized way. On the other hand, students have guidelines to self-study, a training source, especially for grammar contents and some contextualized activities.

Therefore, there are countless positive aspects about the textbooks. They represent a valuable source of input and reference for learners which offer content and activities for study and practice, they can even offer guidelines for a self-study. For teachers textbooks provide a guide that help them to structure the lessons (almost as a syllabus), to manage classes and inte-

ractions among students and even to promote changes through the topics covered and discussed.

However, not all perspectives about the use of textbooks are positive. Some of them identify these materials as a restrictive tool, especially, if it is used as a must-follow page-by-page guide.

> The danger with ready-made textbooks is that they can seem to absolve teachers of responsibility. Instead of participating in the day-to-day decisions that have to be made about what to teach and how to teach it, it is easy to just sit back and operate the system, secure in the belief that the wise and virtuous people who produce the textbook knew what was good for us. Unfortunately this is rarely the case. (HUNTCHINSON and TORRES, 1994)

This criticism covers different views since the negative author's voice (or even the variety of voices) interference in teachers' role until the fail to represent authentic issues and the lack of topic connected with the learners' needs. Cunningsworth (2008) enlarge the list with some disadvantages of approaches in which the book is followed very closely:

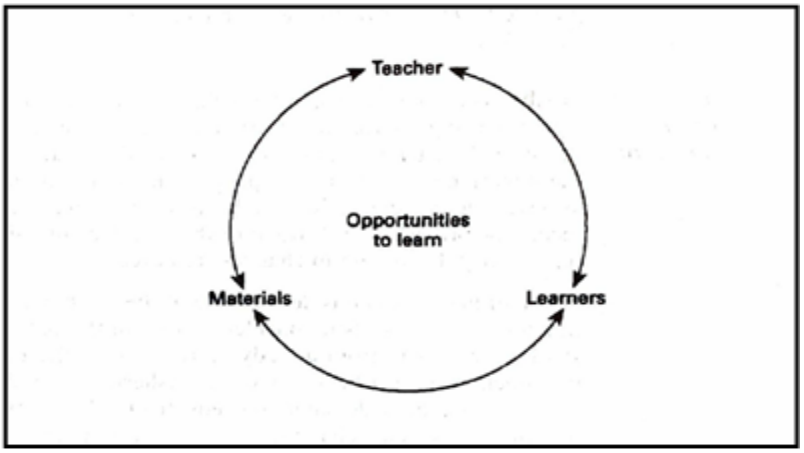
- a possible lack of variety in teaching procedures
- a reduced range of response to individual student needs and problems
- a possible lack of spontaneity
- a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom language activities

All these negative views claim the textbooks as a "debilitating teacher's crutch" as Crawford (2002) mentions in her text; something in which teachers use to help them but in fact it does not provide an increasing in the teaching and learning process. They assert textbooks reduce teachers' autonomy and even deskill them as the classroom decisions may be heavily dependent of these resources. Otherwise, leaners may lose their motivation and the language acquisition decreases in spontaneity and real language context and cultural information.

All the negative aspects about textbooks relate them to a restrictive tool that does not allow teachers to be creative and produce authentic contents for classes. According to these criticisms, their interference reduces the role of teachers as mere speaker without any autonomy, and they center all choices in classes about contents, activities, and communicative interactions to the textbooks.

It is up to the teachers choose how to properly use these materials in classroom as the interaction between them and learners provides a valuable source to make the best decisions about which contents and tools can improve and contribute to an effective learning.

Figure 1: A model of the lesson



Source: Adapted from Allwright (1981) by Huntchinson and Torres.

Allwright's model (figure 1) portrays the lesson as a result of an interaction among teacher, learners and materials and how they produce opportunities to learn. It is still updated as it highlights these opportunities as the heart of the learning process. Thus, the pursuit of a balance among the aims of the teacher, the textbook and the needs of the leaner it must be the main goal to produce opportunities to learn.

Recently, it was added a different viewpoint to this discussion about the role of the textbook in classroom, as a new perspective emerged, and its role has been changed since last year (2020). The advent of the pandemic context and the lockdown measures imposed by government authorities to avoid a disease outbreak, it led all the society aspects to face huge changes in how to deal to this new contact through distance. More than ever the technology started to mediate the different types of relationships among people at school / work, with family / friends, and even to the extent of provide services.

Almost all educational settings during this period have worked hard to create alternative possibilities especially due the mediation of technological resources which allowed learners and teachers to get in communication even though on distance. On the other hand, teaching and learning had to modify the way how the contents and discussions were presented and sized. The textbooks portrayed different roles simultaneously as not all school could provide online tools neither students got access to internet.

These totally different scenarios brought different approaches of textbooks by teachers and learners. In some contexts, the textbooks were the main material to learners keep studying

as for some of them to access the internet was not possible, while at others teachers had to provide the content through different online platforms in a very understandable and dynamic way to help students and the textbook were a support to produce and adjust contents.

3 METHODOLOGY

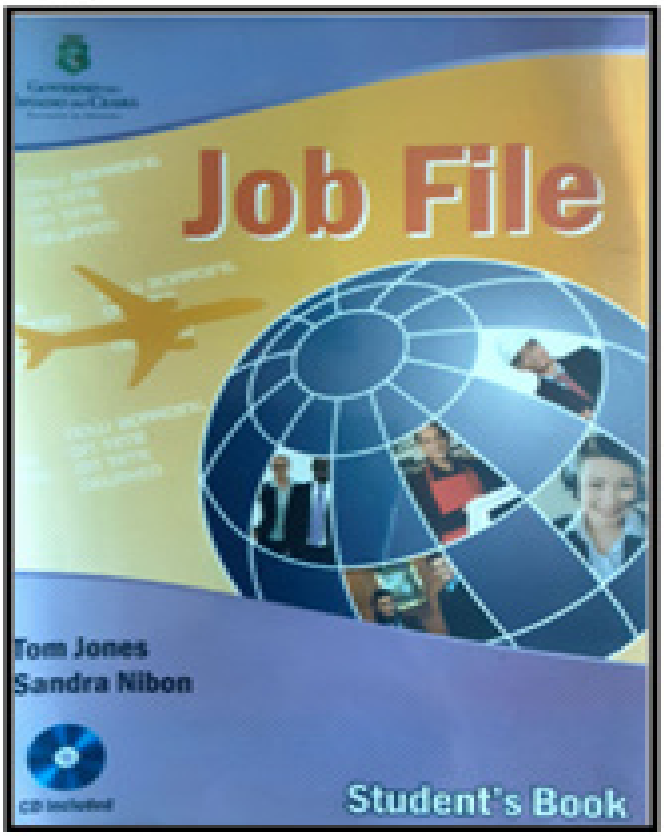
This research was setting in a public school that offers high school and professional certificate programs like Nursing, Tourism, Leisure and Hotel Management, Brazilian Sign Language and Information Technology. The Tourism, Leisure and Hotel Management program prepare students as a professional to get a job opportunity in the tourism marketplace. Its curriculum includes many disciplines which promote a solid understanding of this industry. One of them is called Foreign Language course (Applied) in which students spend two years and six months studying English for the specific field of Tourism, Leisure and Hotel Management from a communicative approach.

In this school students who successfully complete three years of study will earn a high school diploma and a certification. The student's workload is full time since the curriculum includes not only the regular high school subjects (Math, History, Chemistry, Biology, etc) but also those ones related to the certificate program. For this research was reported experiences with senior high school students from the Tourism, Leisure and Hotel Management certificate program who were in the last year in which they study disciplines from the certificate

program for six months and then they start their experience in the internship.

The pedagogical material for the discipline Foreign Language course (Applied) is a 03-volumes collection composed by CLUE 1, CLUE 2 and Job File (figure 2) each of them used, respectively, for freshman, junior and senior high school levels and specially designed for this discipline. All these coursebooks have as main propose present the grammar content through contextualized texts, listening and speaking activities, in which students will find themes related to the Tourism aspects.

Figure 1: Job File cover



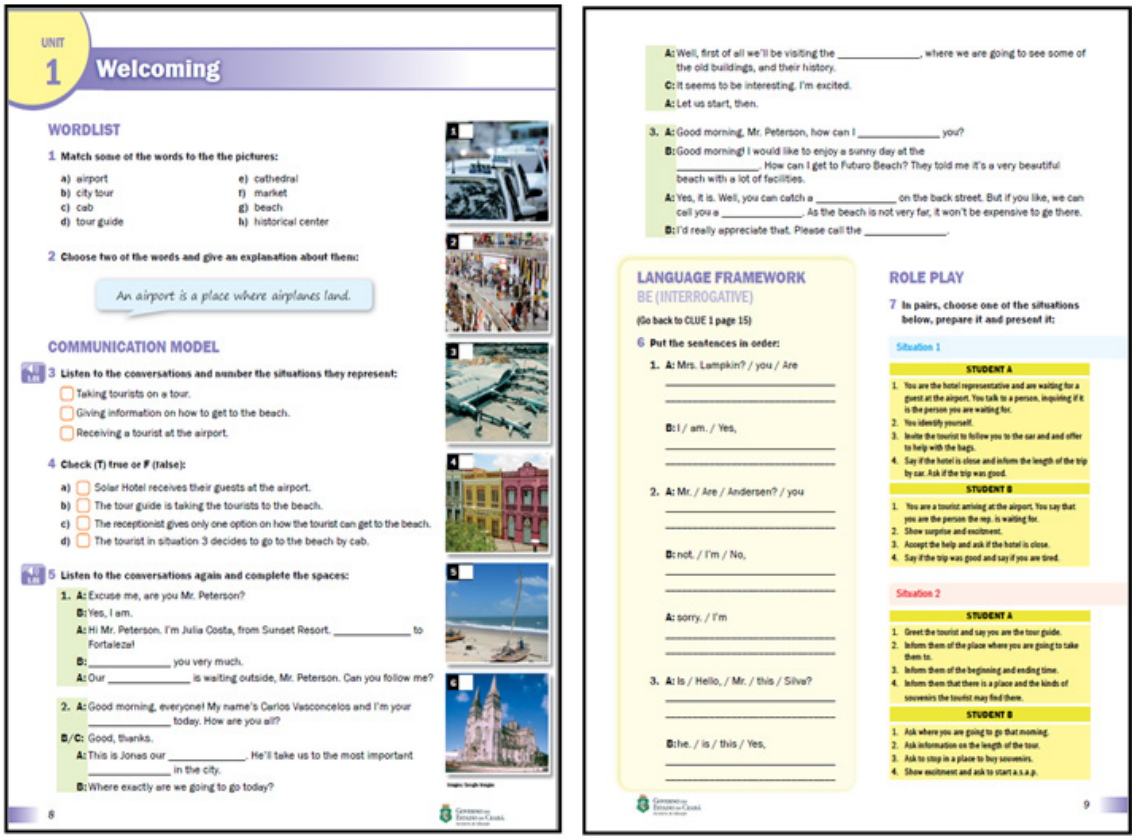
Source: Job File.

For this research, the reference for the experience repor-

ted was the third textbook volume, Job File, which is the material that presents a propose most oriented to an English for Specific Purposes since it is used during the last semester of the certificate program when students will be introduced to their first job experience.

Job File, as the other volumes, is composed by a textbook and a CD with all the audios for the listening activities. This volume has forty-five units. Each unit is two-pages (figure 3) composed and all the units are divided in: two or three vocabulary exercises, a fill-in-the-blanks short dialogue(s), two or three exercises about this dialogue, and one grammar questions as a review about a topic studied in the previous years. At the end it is suggested a role play speaking activity based on the model of the dialogue previously presented. After three units there is always an activity to review the content.

Figure 1: A sample of a lesson from Job File



UNIT 1 Welcoming

WORDLIST

1 Match some of the words to the the pictures:

a) airport
b) city tour
c) cab
d) tour guide
e) cathedral
f) market
g) beach
h) historical center

2 Choose two of the words and give an explanation about them:

An airport is a place where airplanes land.

COMMUNICATION MODEL

3 Listen to the conversations and number the situations they represent:

- Taking tourists on a tour.
- Giving information on how to get to the beach.
- Receiving a tourist at the airport.

4 Check (T) true or F (false):

a) Solar Hotel receives their guests at the airport.
b) The tour guide is taking the tourists to the beach.
c) The receptionist gives only one option on how the tourist can get to the beach.
d) The tourist in situation 3 decides to go to the beach by cab.

5 Listen to the conversations again and complete the spaces:

1. A: Excuse me, are you Mr. Peterson?
B: Yes, I am.
A: Hi Mr. Peterson. I'm Julia Costa, from Sunset Resort. _____ to Fortaleza!
B: _____ you very much.
A: Our _____ is waiting outside, Mr. Peterson. Can you follow me?

2. A: Good morning, everyone! My name's Carlos Vasconcelos and I'm your _____ today. How are you all?
B/C: Good, thanks.
A: This is Jonas our _____. He'll take us to the most important _____ in the city.
B: Where exactly are we going to go today?

8

A: Well, first of all we'll be visiting the _____, where we are going to see some of the old buildings, and their history.
C: It seems to be interesting. I'm excited.
A: Let us start, then.

3. A: Good morning, Mr. Peterson, how can I _____ you?
B: Good morning! I would like to enjoy a sunny day at the _____. How can I get to Futuro Beach? They told me it's a very beautiful beach with a lot of facilities.
A: Yes, it is. Well, you can catch a _____ on the back street. But if you like, we can call you a _____. As the beach is not very far, it won't be expensive to ge there.
B: I'd really appreciate that. Please call the _____.

LANGUAGE FRAMEWORK
BE (INTERROGATIVE)
(Go back to CLUE 1 page 15)

6 Put the sentences in order:

1. A: Mrs. Lampkin? / you / Are
B: I / am. / Yes,
2. A: Mr. / Are / Andersen? / you
B: not. / I'm / No,
A: sorry. / I'm
3. A: Is / Hello, / Mr. / this / Silva?
B: he. / is / this / Yes,

ROLE PLAY

7 In pairs, choose one of the situations below, prepare it and present it:

Situation 1

STUDENT A
1. You are the hotel representative and are waiting for a guest at the airport. You talk to a person, inquiring if it is the person you are waiting for.
2. You identify yourself.
3. Invite the tourist to follow you to the car and offer to help with the bags.
4. Say if the hotel is close and inform the length of the trip by car. Ask if the trip was good.

STUDENT B
1. You are a tourist arriving at the airport. You say that you are the person the rep. is waiting for.
2. Show surprise and excitement.
3. Accept the help and ask if the hotel is close.
4. Say if the trip was good and say if you are tired.

Situation 2

STUDENT A
1. Greet the tourist and say you are the tour guide.
2. Inform them of the place where you are going to take them to.
3. Inform them of the beginning and ending time.
4. Inform them that there is a place and the kinds of souvenirs the tourist may find there.

STUDENT B
1. Ask where you are going to go that morning.
2. Ask information on the length of the tour.
3. Ask to stop in a place to buy souvenirs.
4. Show excitement and ask to start a.s.a.p.

9

Source: Job File.

Last year, due the pandemic context classes had to be abruptly interrupted at schools and the education had to be managed from distance through online platforms and tools. All the content and activities proposed by the Job File textbook had to be adjusted in a new layout to present its discussions and approaches. In this new context, textbooks are the basis to teachers adjust the content to the digital platforms. They work mainly as a syllabus from which the contents and activities are selected. However, this distance learning demands new approaches and tools to make the information completely clear, and to keep motivating learners to study.

This paper is a descriptive research based on the personal experience report of this author as a teacher in a professional public school in Fortaleza. It presents the steps and choices followed to cover the content of the discipline Foreign Language course (Applied) during a pandemic year in which the distance learning format had to be adopted by educational institutions. It is also reported how the textbook Job File and its content was used and adjusted to meet its proposes. All the information described in this paper were obtained by a participant observation as teacher with senior high school students for six months and registered in lessons plans, online platforms and the means of communication with learners.

4 DISCUSSION

Foreign Language course (Applied) is part of the curriculum for senior high school student level from the Tourism, Lei-

sure and Hotel Management certificate program for six months as they are in last year of the program and after that they must start their experience in the internship. The discipline time load is eight hours per week, four of these hours are used in classes with all students together and the other four hours are classes with half students (two hours with each half). These different classroom moments are especially important since, in general, every single year the classes present about 40 students. This huge number of learners makes the communicative goals difficult to be achieved.

When there are all students in classroom, the focus is to cover contents as grammar, short readings, vocabulary, and exposed them to different context of use of the language and present important features to learners understand and correctly express themselves using English. On the other hand, the classes in which there is only half students are for communicative tasks as the number of students are small and it is possible to track cautiously the learning process and to provide a more accurate feedback about their personal performance. In this last layout, students are invited to take part in different interactive proposes of using of the language.

In both moments, the textbook Job File has been a valuable framework of the contents and powerful tool for classes for many reasons: firstly, it presents a content in which vocabulary and context of communication are related to the local culture and reality as it is a textbook produced by the Secretary of State for Education (SEDUC); second, it proposes activities which focuses on different language skills and leaning aspects (since vocabulary until grammar topics), and finally, it stimulates stu-

dents to participate actively through interactive contextualized activities of using of the language.

However, some changes happened about the approach of the classes and the use of the textbooks when on March 18th the professional public school, in which this paper is based on, decided to cancel the in-person classes according to the social distancing measures established by the government to avoid a disease outbreak in Fortaleza. That time it was believed that this will last one week, so the first school guidance was to ask students to take all textbooks to home and teachers had to assign some activities about the least content covered, as everyone believed that briefly everything would be back to the common daily routine.

During this first week without classroom students were assigned with exercises from Job File textbook whose content they had already been presented to promote some practice and to prevent them from being idle.

Nevertheless, after one week the expectation of a return to the daily face-to-face routine was not defined. Thus, the pedagogical supervisors and teachers realized that they had to keep the classes going on in somehow. They needed to find an alternative, but the challenges were multiples: firstly, nobody was prepared for this change that affected all the relationships in society and demanded the large use of technology to keep in contact due this social distance. The second huge obstacle was that the internet access was not a common reality among students in a public school in which most of them live in a poor economic context.

Thus, the first step proposed towards to the distance

education model was to create WhatsApp groups to keep in contact with most of students possible and their parents. It was created one group for each class and even to each subject. The class schedule kept the same. It was also decided that as the return to in-person classes was unpredictable all teachers had to plan activities for three weeks. These ones had to be indicated from textbooks and students had to send the picture of all the activities made by e-mail or WhatsApp.

This three-week lesson plan (figure 4) for LEA discipline was hard to be design as the Job File textbook did not present explanation about the contents but only a huge variety of exercises to review grammar topics previously studied and vocabulary, listening and role play proposes. For this lesson plan the review section (Portfolio) of the textbook was especially useful as the activities promote not only review questions, but also stimulate the production of some short writing texts about the content.

Figure 1: Sample of a three-week lesson plan (first week)

ORIENTAÇÃO DE ESTUDOS (3º ano – Hospedagem) **DISCIPLINA: Língua Estrangeira Aplicada – LEA** **PROFESSORA: Raquel Maria Gadelha de Sousa**	**PERÍODO:** **18 de Março - 03 de Abril de 2020**

PERÍODO: 18 – 20 DE MARÇO

CONTEÚDO: revisão de conteúdos já ministrados em sala de aula, versando sobre vocabulário e contextos comunicativos dos serviços e facilidades do hotel.

ATIVIDADES: resolução das atividades das páginas 16, 17, 18, 19 e 99. Todas as atividades estão disponíveis em formato *pdf*, assim como seus respectivos áudios em formato *mp3*, no *link* abaixo (pasta compartilhada no *Google Drive*).

OBSERVAÇÃO: Utilizar as anotações de sala de aula para resolução das atividades, especialmente, gramaticais. Nos exercícios de compreensão auditiva (*listening*), ouvir, pelo menos duas vezes, sendo que na primeira não visualizar o *script* do livro. Nas atividades comunicativas (*speaking*), praticar como atividade individual ou valer-se de ferramentas de interação social para prática com os colegas de classe.

LINK: https://drive.google.com/open?id=1AizhxiimRQa2KN5ecDd9YAErYj4reD4I

REFERÊNCIAS:

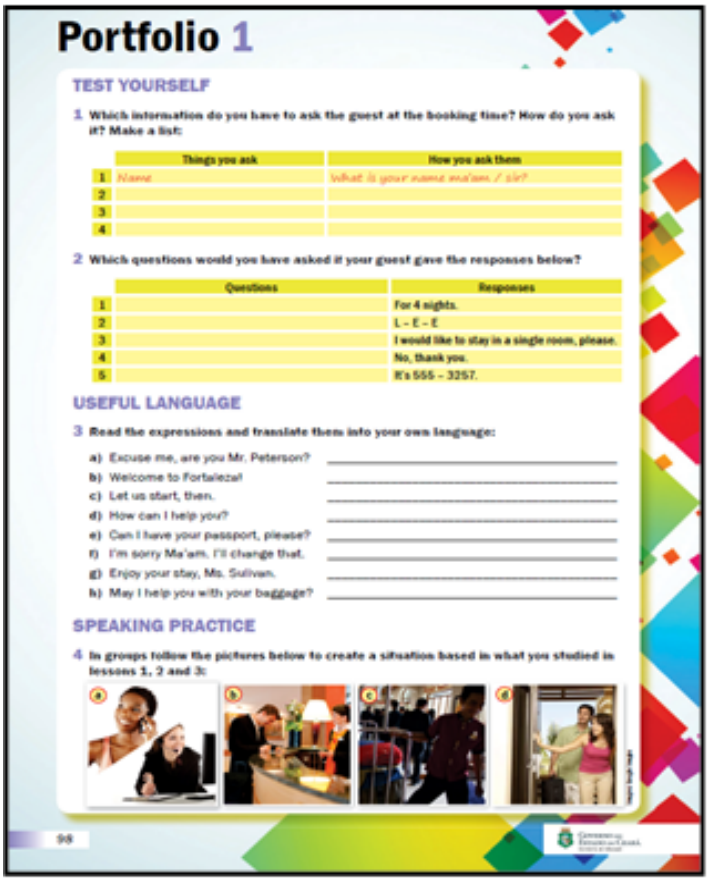
JONES, Tom; NIBON, Sandra. **Job File – student's book**. Fortaleza: SEDUC- CE.

Source: Document from the author.

The Portfolio pages (figure 5) from the Job File textbook

are composed by associated activities and translation ones about expression and vocabulary. In the end there is always a speaking propose which led students to plan short, contextualized dialogues. Besides grammar and vocabulary activities were also added to this 03-weeks lesson plan. All these activities were registered in a document with some guidance about how to study the content and solve the activities. The resources (audios and textbook pages) were also available by means of Google Drive.

Figure 1: Sample of a Portfolio page and its activities



Portfolio 1

TEST YOURSELF

1 Which information do you have to ask the guest at the booking time? How do you ask it? Make a list:

	Things you ask	How you ask them
1	Name	What is your name ma'am / sir?
2		
3		
4		

2 Which questions would you have asked if your guest gave the responses below?

	Questions	Responses
1		For 4 nights.
2		L – E – E
3		I would like to stay in a single room, please.
4		No, thank you.
5		It's 555 – 3257.

USEFUL LANGUAGE

3 Read the expressions and translate them into your own language:

a) Excuse me, are you Mr. Peterson? _____
b) Welcome to Fortaleza! _____
c) Let us start, then. _____
d) How can I help you? _____
e) Can I have your passport, please? _____
f) I'm sorry Ma'am. I'll change that. _____
g) Enjoy your stay, Ms. Sullivan. _____
h) May I help you with your baggage? _____

SPEAKING PRACTICE

4 In groups follow the pictures below to create a situation based in what you studied in lessons 1, 2 and 3:

98

Source: Job File.

In April, the Secretary of State for Education (SEDUC) got a Google for Education suite pack license which allowed

schools to create virtual classrooms, to broadcast live classes and to storage online folds unlimited. During this month, the main goals were to get teachers and students familiarized with this online platform, exploring its features, and trying to understand it. So, on this first moment the WhatsApp was still the main online tool to get in contact with students and to post contents and activities.

As the classes schedule kept the same and during this first moment the main online platform to contact students was the WhatsApp, all LEA classes were organized in different moments: some to post resources for study and recorded audio with briefly explanation and others to answer doubts from students. It was chosen videos, sites, and digitalized pages from other textbooks to cover the contents presented, all this material was available in the Google Drive. The activities were assigned in two different proposes: questions selected from the textbooks as some students could not use the Internet frequently; and activities created or adapted to online questionnaire on Google Forms.

During the last two months (May and June) students and teachers were more adapted to the education distance model. Every student and teacher had an institutional email address, and all the contents and classes resources were upload at Google Classroom. WhatsApp started to work as a bulletin board. Online questionnaire got more frequently as they provide a quick activity for students answer and easily for teachers give a feedback. However as not always students could access the Internet frequently for many reasons specially for a limited Internet pack access or for not owning a mobile phone, most of

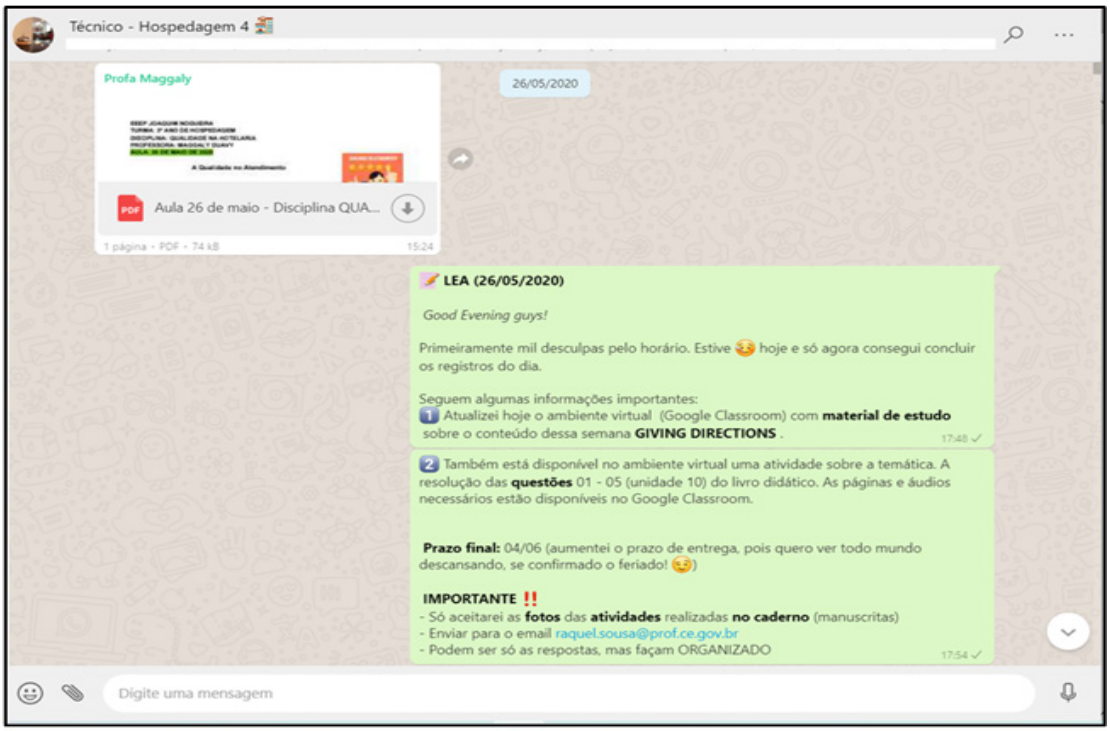
the tasks proposed were selected from textbooks (figure 6).

Figure 1: Sample of a content available in Google Classroom (print)

Source: Document from the author.

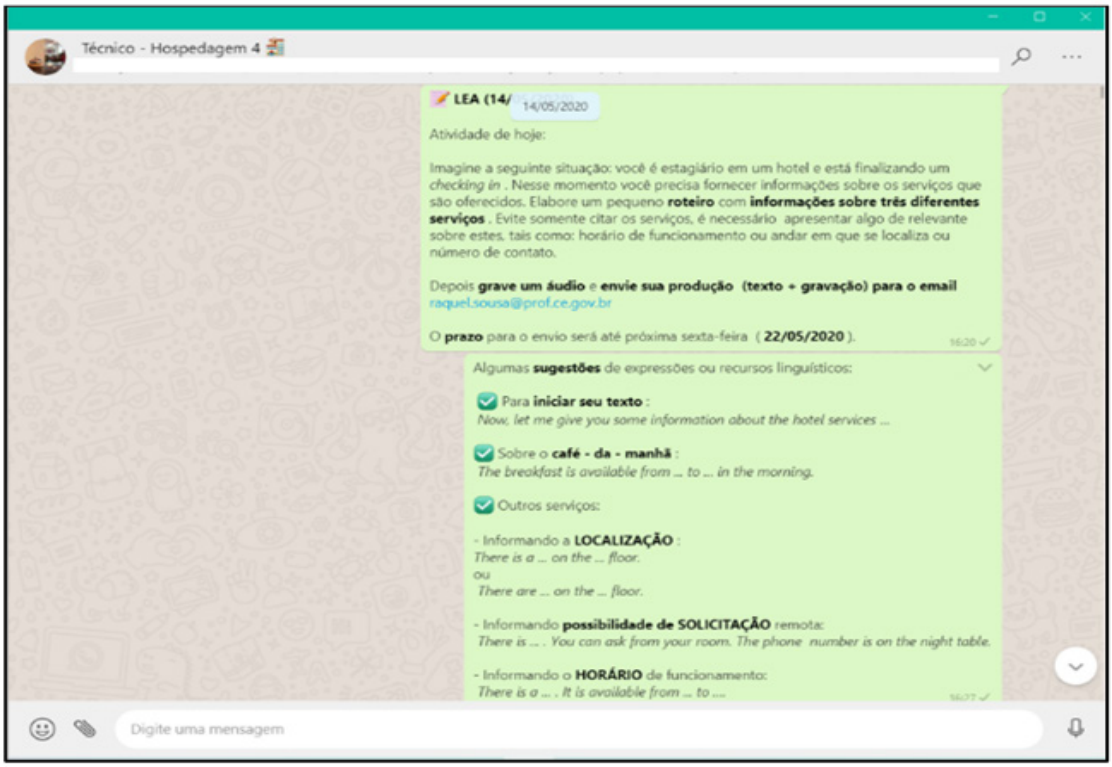
The speaking and listening proposes were adapted with tasks in which students had to record and send short audios (figure 7) or receive scheduled calls to use the language in contextualized interactions like to provide information about the hotel or helping guests to make a reservation. Once the teacher had to provide an individual feedback for each student, this model of activities was not so frequently as they demanded time to be applied and to correct and send the feedback. Live virtual classes were also possible, but they only happened every two weeks.

Figure 7: Guidelines for textbooks activities assigned on 26/05/2020 at WhatsApp group (print)



Source: Document from the author.

Figure 8: Guidelines for a speaking activity assigned on 14/05/2020 at WhatsApp group (print)



Source: Document from the author.

5 FINAL REMARKS

Textbooks are valuable pedagogical resources to teach and learn a foreign language as they provide support for learners and teachers. These materials offer different types of input and promote a contextualized learning. They work as a guide, almost a syllabus, that teachers and learners usually take as a compass. For learners, a source of content, activities, interactions and communicative tasks or guidelines for self-study. For teachers, a framework to better plan lessons, a bottom line to manage classes and interactions among students and the basis to promote changes through the topics covered and discussed. All these multiples roles portrayed by textbooks it shows how versatile they can be. Although there are some viewpoints that criticize the textbooks, they are still extremely relevant to the teaching-learning process of a foreign language, specially, because they are one of the most popular and accessible material for education.

In a public school in which pedagogical materials are not so plentiful, textbooks are the main tool in classes, they represent the principal source of activities, contents, cultural information, and contextualized interactions for learners. For teachers it usually represents a framework to organize contents and to guide the teaching approaches. Although sometimes there are not textbooks for all students, the classes are developed using them as a basis. This idea can be confirmed even when we look at the classroom layout that is defined according to the availability of these materials (students may be seat in pairs to share textbooks, for instance).

Last year (2020), the pandemic context that required from everyone to stay home and changed completely all the sorts of relationships in society, it also brought a totally new scenario for education as the field had to keep on but then from a distance teaching and learning model mediated by technology. The sudden change was a huge challenge for all educational institutions as they had to adjust completely their methodologies and strategies. However, for public schools this new scenario had an extra challenge as most of their students do not have freely access to Internet and sometimes not even a device to surf on Internet.

These difficulties that teachers had to face while adjusting classes to the new scenario of distance education and, specially, some roles of textbooks during this moment were reported by the personal experience and perspective of this author working as a teacher in a professional public school teaching English by means of the steps and pedagogical choices followed and registered in lessons plans, online platforms and the means of communication with students.

Along this report it is possible realize that the role of the textbook changed once it was not the main protagonist that intermediate the relationship between learners and teachers. The distance learning format required that all the roles until then played by the textbook as the main source of input, a reference of activities, contents and interactions tasks for learners and the principal resource for teachers manage classes and produce lesson plans it became portrayed by others pedagogical resources like online platforms, sites, and apps. These other sources were more relevant to the new educational format.

In this new context the textbook portrayed a supporting role in which its contents provided part of the basis needed to adjust the information to the new online sources that were the main intermediate to promote learning opportunities during the distance education model. Sites, videos, online platforms, and apps started to play the role as main pedagogical material until then predominantly portrayed by textbooks.

On the one hand it is also important highlight that for some students, the textbook kept being the principal source of input in which they could find activities and information about any contents, once they could not access frequently the online resources.

The change in the protagonism of textbook during the pandemic context and the respective distance education led to an important remark: the textbooks are still a valuable and reliable source of input to teach and learning a foreign language, specially, in a public school. Not even the advent of a context in which other materials are required to intermediate the educational process excluded its presence.

This paper intended to promote a brief reflection about the roles of textbooks during pandemic year and how they still are relevant to the learning and teaching of a second language, especially in public schools. It is expected that others research can explore different aspects about these pedagogical resources mainly in this recent scenario in which education has had face a huge challenge to recreated and reinvented itself to achieve its main goals.

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CHAPTER 9

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNER AS A PROTAGONIST

Eurico Mayer Vaz[1]

1 INTRODUCTION

The research aims to explore the emancipation of the learner of English as a foreign language out of an oppressed position, and the multiple possibilities of language learning combined, moreover, with theater in all its plasticity. A group of forty-one learners enrolled in a course focused on oral production undergoes a systematic employment of role-playing and other theater games so as to expose them to the decision-making process of language usage in situations as close to authentic as possible. Using the philosophy of Paulo Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* and the methodology of Augusto Boal's *Theater of the Oppressed* as the main theoretical basis, the research intends to explore role-playing activities as a tool for teaching English as a foreign language.

The focus is to place learners at the center of their language acquisition process, having their previous knowledge and life experiences highly valued, as well as putting in practi-

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ce and experimenting what is discussed as their needs towards such process. Accordingly, the present research intends to imbue said learners through this approach with confidence and skills necessary to perform and reflect upon aspects such as phrasing, intonation, body language, politeness, and cross-cultural issues. Speech acts are used as connecting thread, spreading through the five components of communicative competence: linguistic, sociocultural, discourse, actional and strategic competences (SHRUM and GLISAN, 2010).

A brief introduction and overview of both theorists will be followed by an explanation of the methods and specific theater games used for data collection. Most of the focus will be on analyzing the array of applications of Freire's and Boal's precepts to a communicative class of English as a foreign language, and on how it could affect language acquisition. The research concludes with an analysis of the feedback collected from the learners after the activities were performed.

In addition to being the protagonists of the method, learners are also contributors to this research in the way that they answered surveys about their experiences throughout the course as well. Their impressions are used by the researcher to analyze the impact the theater factor had on them along the way. Combining these analyses to the observation of the outcome of the exercises, the researcher is provided with information to assess the entire experience.

2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Education sociocultural approach is best represented in

Brazil by Paulo Freire, whose theory suggests the overcoming of the relation between "oppressor-oppressed", which is to say there is a development of a process of awareness-raising of the learner's own reality. A horizontal dialog between teacher and learner is of the essence to this method, resulting in an evaluation process of the other as well as of the self (FREIRE, 1996).

Freire's goal with this approach is to become aware of the reality as well as act on it in order to transform it by reading the world through words associated to life experience, background knowledge, and politics under a critical perspective (FREIRE, 1966). The content learned could never be dissociated from real life, from the real-world experiences, being these the basis for all learning process and knowledge construction that comes to be. According to Freire (1987), transforming the learner in a culture producer rather than a culture consumer is what constitutes the subject-learner instead of the object-learner, and only as a subject can a person actually critically reflect and learn.

Boal, in consonance with Freire's ideas, originates the Theater of the Oppressed, according to which the spectator should be no longer in a passive role: the goal is to transform audience in the protagonists of their own stories (BOAL, 1991). Past beyond the Aristotelean identification of the audience with the protagonist, being imbued of emotions and reactions unwillingly, Boal defends the detachment from what is being experienced. Even further than Brecht (1978), Boal leaves the mere reflection behind in order to achieve true transformation of reality by the audience – now actor, in the best conception of the word (BOAL, 1983).

Theater, in Boal's ideas, is a tool to develop self-esteem, to free body and mind, normally so oppressed by society. It can be used to reach creativity potential, widening one's ways of dealing with the various situations of life (BOAL, 1991). By the engagement in games and exercises, non-actors can participate in representations, taking part and actively altering the dramatic development of events, experimenting with multiple possible solutions. Using theater as a tool to teaching languages is a way of placing the learner in a leading role: not as an object, a receptacle of culture or depositary of information, but as a subject, a culture-creating information-inducing knowledge-negotiating protagonist of their own learning process.

The background analysis comes in order to make meaningful all discussion held to the learners, and the role-plays allow them to take part in the development of the real-life situations, creating possibilities, exploring variations, negotiating meaning in non-rehearsed, non-drilled contextualized situations.

3 METHODOLOGICAL DESIGN

Using the theoretical analysis of Freire's Pedagogy of the Oppressed and Boal's Theater of the Oppressed, in addition to precepts of the Communicative Language Teaching, this study aims at exploring the learner's second language acquisition in a more active role and how theater affects such acquisition.

The present research focuses on an oral production course offered in two groups during the first semester of 2019, under the program Languages without Borders – at the time,

funded by CAPES. The course was forty-eight hours long and aimed at students ranging from B1 to C1 levels according to the CEFR. It took place in the Federal University of Ceará facilities meeting twice on weekdays or on Saturdays. Forty-one students enrolled for this course, having 19 of them successfully finished it. They were all either students or staff members of the University.

Before the course started, a course plan was devised, taking into consideration the contents to be discussed as well as the approach to be adopted. It was then the choice of using role-play was made to support the speech acts that made up the content to be studied. Following Freire's ideas, learning should make sense on the real world and have actual usage and implications (FREIRE, 1987). This was the reason speech acts were elected as the backbone of the course rather than rote grammar points. The course would culminate in seminars on World Englishes presented by the students and followed by discussions about native-likeness, intelligibility, comprehensibility and language imperialism (CRYSTAL, 2003).

The course consisted of nineteen lesson plans, having nine of them applied role-play as a means of reinforcing what was being studied. Topics for discussion varied from broad social relations to the most personal self-analysis, using authentic sources as input, such as academic researches, poetry, TV series, movies, lectures, drama and music, making it necessary the usage of technology, namely a notebook, smartphones, slides, speakers, a projector and internet access.

After each role-play experience, the students answered an online survey consisting of nine questions about their per-

ceptions on what, why and how activities were carried out, as well as how difficult and useful they were and their own performance during each task. It was essential that learners were able to analyze situations and build on them creating their own to be performed and, later on, to assess their own performance as well as their teacher's.

Alongside this material, a reflexive journal was kept by the researcher taking notes of the experience with the role-play tasks and how the learners reacted to and acted upon what they were asked to perform. Once the course was over, all the surveys and the reflexive journal were compiled into nine tables for further analysis of the numbers and their meaning regarding the tasks performed in order to confirm or disprove the hypotheses raised.

4 RESULTS

Analyzing the surveys delivered by the learners, from the 102 responses, only four were unable to successfully identify the instructions given for each task. This did, however, bear no connection to a higher difficulty level from said learners. It is important to state that not being able to recall the instructions afterwards did not impede their fruitful performance at the moment of the task.

The average of difficulty, considering the tasks altogether, was 2.66 out of 5. Learners considered tasks as being more difficult mostly due to shyness and nervousness (speaking in public and interaction with strangers), language limitation (lack of vocabulary and problems with verb tenses) and little time

for preparation (no improvisation skills and dependence on teamwork). Some learners mentioned stepping outside their comfort zones as a hindrance, finding it hard to share secrets or give advices. The role-playing was mentioned as a hardship only twice, once regarding the improvisation skills and one other time due to a "highly dramatized" task.

Considering the recognition of the pedagogical goal of each task, 19 out of the 102 responses were delivered with inaccurate answers, which were not successful at pinpointing the goal as previously established by the researcher. These numbers did not carry relevant relation to lower levels of usefulness either. Moreover, a high number of these deviant answers focused on skills other than linguistic aspects, such as leadership, organization, advice giving, confidence building and personal growth.

The level of usefulness, all the tasks performed taken into consideration, was on average 4.17 out of 5. Even the lowest marks on usefulness accompanied specific aspects, both linguistic or not, that were learned from the task, for instance various ways of saying goodbye or making an invitation, the importance of intonation for communication, group work and organization skills.

5 DISCUSSION

The hypotheses raised for this research were: a) learners who were unable to identify the instructions of the task are more prone to mark it as being more difficult; and b) learners who were unable to identify the pedagogical goal of the task are

more prone to mark it as being less useful. After the analysis of the results aforementioned, neither hypothesis could be confirmed based on the data collected, since there was no substantial connection between the numbers representative of the items under scope.

Instructions and pedagogical goals are pillars upon which rest well-thought and developed tasks. In order to obtain satisfactory results, teachers of foreign languages must pay close attention to the foundation of their tasks when planning and be aware of it during its deployment (HARMER, 2007; HORWITZ, 2008).

Examining the performances of the learners throughout the course, most were considered more than satisfactory according to the rationale of each task and their expected outcomes. Such results confirm the notion that sound and clear instructions are intrinsic to successful tasks, as are specific pedagogical goals. However, under the frame of reference of the learner, they can lead to the understanding that the relevance of explicit instructions plays a more significant role than that of the pedagogical goal itself.

The fact that the accuracy on identifying and recalling the instructions and the pedagogical goal were over 96% and 81% respectively, combined with the satisfactory performances along the course, represent some level of success approaching oral production development with role-playing activities. Even the lesser percentage of pedagogical goal identification is not necessarily a negative aspect, since, more often than not, answers were considered inaccurate in this respect for having focused on soft skills, which were a great part of the curriculum

of the course. The learners being able to practice the linguistic skills while feeling they were focusing on other facets of their own development is one of the highlights of this experience.

Paulo Freire (1996) would advocate for an interdisciplinary freeing education, transformative of the learner regarding not only their worldview, but also their view of themselves. It was an accomplishment of a goal to receive proof that the learners were interested in and reflecting upon the topics discussed in class beyond the linguistic features. The intellectual stimuli processed in order to fuel and ignite our debates and ultimately our role-plays was deemed relevant and constructive.

Theater games intend to demechanize body and mind, taking the players into a stage of lower rational barriers. Only when one does not overthink their performance will they thrive. Augusto Boal (1991) refers to Theater of the Oppressed as solid learning, developing the ability to perceive oneself and the world around us. To witness the evolution of the learners both using the language and performing the role-play activities was achieving the objectives set for the course during its designing.

Among other practices, the usage of role-play has been in action for decades in order to contextualize language instruction (SHRUM and GLISAN, 2010). In language teaching context, role-play can be defined as theatrical activities that take place within the classroom and in which students assume different roles, acting according to the context of the proposed situation (RICHARDS et al, 1993). Thornbury (2005) defends role-play as the students adopting another persona, placing themselves in a different situation and acting as such. Klippel (1991) and Sasse (2001) defend role-play maximizes students'

talking time, improving their communicative competence and creativity, enhancing their oral skills and overall oral performance.

The choice of using role-play as a means to practice what was being discussed was rarely considered an obstacle per se for the learning process, in the way that it was only mentioned in the surveys in two different occasions. Broader drawbacks that might have been heightened by this choice are those of shyness, nervousness and fear of speaking in public. This was one other highlight nonetheless, owing to the fact that some learners improved greatly on these features comparing their last performances to their first ones. This deed that can also be confirmed by the surveys, which present such drawbacks as being problems only for the first tasks, not appearing in later results.

Featured as a quantitative research, herein lies a qualitative experimentation, from which it was possible to catch sight of how role-play and theater in general can develop learners' oral competences, among other skills, and work with a myriad of issues relevant in and outside the classroom. Theater has the endowment of forcing one to challenge their own truths and try seeing the world from different perspectives. Encouraging the learners to access realities other than their own and discuss them, using higher order thinking to analyze, evaluate and create language made them more aware of their roles in life (BOAL, 1996).

6 FINAL REMARKS

The present research intended to explore the possibilities of using theater in the environment of communicative language teaching and its pedagogical implications. The focus was on the oral development of English learners by means of role-playing activities using Paulo Freire and Augusto Boal as referential bastions of the need for the emancipation of the learners as well as for their capabilities of negotiating meaning in a foreign language through theater games.

Nine role-play tasks within a 48-hour-long course offered by Languages without Borders at UFC during the first semester of 2019 were the core for the research, about which 102 surveys were responded analyzing what, why and how these tasks were performed. Besides analyzing their own performances and the design and conduction of the tasks, learners were supposed to have recollected the instructions given for said tasks as well as have identified their pedagogical goals.

The data collected led to the assumption that giving unclouded task instructions is of greater relevance in comparison to stating its pedagogical goal for the completion of the task by the learner. It was also possible to extract from the data indications of improvement not only of linguistic, but also an array of other varied skills used as fodder for the debates and scenarios which contextualized the role-play activities.

Personal entries from the learners emphasized their attainment of communication as being more than words. Their responses indicated a growing awareness of usage of intonation and body language, analysis of the influence of contrasting cultural contexts, the usage of the language to reinforce discourse and defend ideas, in harmony with Freire (1992). Fur-

thermore, learners portrayed an appreciation of the multitude of linguistic variations and the cultural importance accents can embrace, as defended by David Crystal (2003).

Notwithstanding neither hypothesis having been confirmed, this research achieved more prominent results by strengthening the case for the usage of theater in communicative language teaching environments and the relevance of contextualized learning based on constructed knowledge, negotiated meaning and cultural references.

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CHAPTER 10

STUDENT TEACHERS' BELIEFS ON ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Jaime José de Vasconcelos Neto[1]

1 INTRODUCTION

Corrective feedback (CF) is a topic that has always gotten teachers' attention and that has raised a lot of discussions on the Second Language Acquisition Field. Ur (2009, pp. 242) defines feedback as "information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance."

A considerable amount of research has been done in this area, but most of them focus on students' or teachers' beliefs on CF. Also, the studies on this area usually investigate the beliefs on CF of teachers who are experts or even novices, and most of the times the beliefs student teachers have about it are neglected.

Even though CF is considered one of the key factors to the learning of a second language in an EFL classroom, during my Letras-Inglês undergraduate course, we have studied this

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topic very briefly in some of the courses taken. Considering that, we decided to focus this research on student teachers' beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF) as a way to give an overview of their beliefs and what really happens inside an EFL classroom when considering CF.

It is well known that OCF in a foreign language classroom which the main focus is communication is an essential factor for language learning because, according to Platt and Brooks (1994 Apud SHRUM AND GLISAN, 2010), it helps students to make themselves understood and also in the development of strategies that help them to interact using the language. Despite of that, Lyster (2007) states that research has suggested that the use of feedback is not a high priority factor for teachers.

Taking into consideration this relation between theory and practice, OCF's importance and what student teachers might think about it, the objectives of this research are: (1) Explore how OCF takes place in two different classroom settings, EFL and K-12, and (2) inquire what student teachers' beliefs on OCF are.

In this research we will first discuss some issues that teachers have to take into account when dealing with OCF inside classroom, like focus on fluency or accuracy, the definitions and differences between error, slip and mistake, the balance that teachers have to find when giving OCF and the strategies that teachers could use. Following, we will examine how the use of OCF is seen through the point of view of different second language teaching methods and approaches, like the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio--lingual method, the Communicative Language teaching, etc.

Then, the data collection methodology and the results found on this research will be explained. After that, we will present the discussions and final remarks.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Shrum and Glisan (2010, p. 283) divide classroom feedback into two types: "(1) error correction and (2) response to the content of the student's message (...)", the first one being related to the correction of mistakes, and the second one being more related to assessment of the whole message. Ur (2009) states that teachers could give assessment without correction. On the other hand, she also says that it is impossible for a teacher to make comments on students' mistakes without assessment.

When dealing with oral presentations, CF could be much more challenging, because teachers have to make decisions of correcting the mistake or let them go. Teachers must take into consideration some questions when giving CF on an oral performance, such as:

"What is the primary focus?"

The conceptions the student teacher has about language will certainly influence the way CF is given on an oral performance or task. His/her conception of language could be focused on accuracy, which the main focus is usually correctness or fluency, which the main focus is usually fluency itself in communication (Harmer, 2013).

"How are the concepts error, mistake, and covert mistake understood?"

Although some people understand these two definitions as synonyms, they are seen as different terms in the Second Language Acquisition field. Bartram and Walton (2004), define mistake as something the learner has already learned but he is still having problems when using this information, and errors as something the learner is trying to use even though he or she have not learned how to use it yet. For example, if a learner already knows how to use the simple past structures, but he continues or eventually confuses its use, by not putting the right structure into practice, it would be considered a mistake. If a learner does not know how to use the simple past structures but tries to use it, without accuracy, it would be considered an error. Bartram and Walton (2004) call attention to the fact that these distinctions between error and mistake might be completely theoretical and really hard to be noticed and distinguished inside a classroom.

Another type of mistake which Bartram and Walton (2004) point out is the so called "covert mistakes". These types of mistakes are when the learner uses the language correctly but what was said does not exactly convey the intended meaning. It may happen as a result of transfer from L1 to L2. For example, "I'm high" meaning "I'm tall". Grammatically, it is ok, but the message would certainly be misunderstood.

Differently, Edge (1997 Apud HARMER 2013, pp. 137) divides mistake into three categories: slips, errors and attempts. Slips are described as "mistakes that students can correct themselves once the mistake has been pointed out to them", er-

rors are described as mistakes that the students "can't correct themselves – and which therefore need explanation", while attempts are described as a situation "when a student tries to say something but does not know yet the correct way of saying it".

Based on what Edge said about mistakes, a change to the question would go from "Is it an error or a mistake?" to "Is it a slip, an error or an attempt?". But, based on what Bartram and Walton said about errors and mistakes, it would be much more relevant to a teacher, when dealing with this kind of situation, asking him or herself: "Is it an important mistake?" or "Is the message clear?".

"How much CF am I giving to my students?"

Bartram and Walton (2004) claim that too much CF given in classroom could make the students too much concerned about making mistakes – when mistakes are actually a sign that learning is taking place. On the contrary, teachers who never give CF in classroom could pass students the wrong idea that he or she does not know what he or she is doing.

OCF strategies

Another question that the teacher should ask himself/herself when giving CF on an oral performance is "What OCF strategy should I use in this particular case?" Lyster and Ranta (1997, Apud SHUM AND GLISAN 2010) identified six types of teacher feedback: explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. Brandl (2008), identifies these types of feedback as negative or error corrective feedback by dividing them into explicit/direct

and implicit/indirect. Based on Brandl (2008) divisions of OCF strategies and Shum and Glisan (2010) definitions for each one of them, the two following tables (Table 1.1 and Table 1.2) provide explanations on it.

Table 1.1: Indirect/Implicit OCF strategies

Strategy	Definition	Examples
Recast	The teacher reformulates all or part of a student's utterance minus the error.	S: "I forget my cellpho T: "Oh, You forgot cellphone!"
Clarification Request	The teacher identifies a problem in either comprehensibility or accuracy or both: "Pardon me" or "What do you mean by X?"	S: "I am fifty years old T: "Pardon me?" S: "I am fifteen Years o

Source: Research data.

Direct/Explicit Feedback		
Strategy	Definition	Examples
Explicit Correction	The teacher corrects the student, indicating clearly that what the student said was incorrect	S: "Yesterday I am at home" T: "I was at home. Remember you are talking about the past."
Metalinguistic Feedback	The teacher makes comments or asks questions about the form of the student's utterance without providing the correct form. These comments indicate that there is an error somewhere	S: "I am at home yesterday." T: "How would you say it in the past?"
Elicitation	The teacher repeats part of the student's utterance and pauses to allow the student to complete the utterance at the place where the error occurred	S: "Yesterday, I goed home late" T: Yesterday I... S: Yesterday, I went home late
Repetition	The teacher repeats the student's erroneous utterance, usually changing the intonation to highlight the error	S: "I have two beautifuls dogs" T: "Do you have two beautifuls dogs?"

Source: Research data.

How OCF is seen by different methods and approaches

The relationship between the teaching method adopted in an EFL classroom and the way OCF is given (or not) is also a factor that has to be considered. Some methods consider CF as an essential part of the learning process (e.g. The Audio--lingual Method) while some other methods prefer students' self-correction (e.g. The Direct Method). Since the use of the OCF varies according to the method used, a brief overview on how CF has been seen by some different teaching methods and approaches over the time will be provided.

Around the 19th and 20th century the method that was being used to teach mostly Latin and Greek was the Grammar--translation. As its name suggests, students have to translate sentences from the target language to their native language (HARMER, 2013). Since this method mainly focus on grammar and learners' accuracy, teachers should pay a lot of attention to students' sentences correctness (LARSEN-FREEMAN AND ANDERSON, 2011).

Around the 1910's, language teachers started to be unsatisfied with the results achieved by them in the classroom. The students apparently did not know how to communicate effectively, that is when the Direct Method was developed. It basically consists of no use of the native language inside the classroom. The teacher usually uses visual aids or body language to clarify the meaning of a word (HARMER, 2013). Accuracy is also considered very important for this method and when considering mistakes correction, teachers should use techniques that lead students to self-correct their mistakes (LARSEN-FREEMAN

AND ANDERSON, 2011).

In the 1920's – 1930's, with the influences of the Behavioral psychology, the Direct Method developed into the Audio-lingual method. Alike the Direct method, the Audio-lingual method also focused on oral communication, but it relies on drills (repetitions). This method uses the stimulus-response--reinforcement in order to help students to learn the patterns or structures of a foreign language by conditioning (Harmer, 2013). Although this method is known for the use of positive reinforcement (or positive feedback), Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011, pp.72) state that in this method, "student errors are to be avoided if at all possible, through the teacher's awareness of where the students will have difficulty, and restriction of what they are taught to say."

During the 1960's - 1970's, language teachers started to focus not only in grammatical or linguistic forms and meanings, but they started to pay attention to language function and the different ways one form could be used to express different meanings, taking into consideration speakers' role and social contexts. In simple words, being aware of the interlocutors, the context and the register is as important as knowing the grammar forms. These concepts are part of what is known as "Communicative Language Teaching" (also known as Communicative approach) (HARMER, 2013; LARSEN-FREEMAN AND ANDERSON, 2011). The CLT sees mistakes as a natural part of the learning process. It also suggests that during fluency-based activities, CF is not recommended. Teachers should use CF strategies during activities in which the focus is accuracy (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011).

Also during the 1970's, being defined by Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011, p. 193) as "another example of the strong version of the communicative approach, where language is acquired through use", the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) emerged. As the name suggests, the TBLT uses meaningful tasks (e.g. ordering a meal at a restaurant, planning a trip, organizing a schedule) as a way to promote the use of the target language inside a language classroom. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) support the uses of task-based activities inside a language classroom by saying that "tasks are meaningful, and in doing them, students need to communicate." In the TBLT, since its principles are based on the CLT, mistakes are seen as a natural part of the learning process. The types of oral CF strategies usually used are recasts and brief grammar explanations (metalinguistic feedback).

It is important to emphasize that even if some methods or approaches were in evidence during a certain period of time, other ones could be happening simultaneously in the same period of time. It was also discussed that, depending on the method or approach used, the way feedback is seen may vary, as it relies to a very big extent on the teachers' decisions.

Now, we are going to examine what some previous researches have discussed and found about CF.

Previous research studies

In his research on OCF, Ellis (2009) describes the uses teachers make of its strategies as "imprecise and Inconsistent." When he says that it is imprecise, he means that teachers could use the same strategy meaning two different things (e.g. repetition in both positive and negative feedback). Also, inconsis-

tent meaning that teachers could use an OCF strategy when a mistake was made by one student and ignore the exactly same mistake made by another student. Due to these complexities involving the use of OCF, Ellis (2009, pp. 10) says that "Teacher educators have been understandably reluctant to prescribe or proscribe the strategies that teachers should use." As it was already mentioned before, when deciding which OCF strategy to use, teachers have to consider some other factors (e.g. learners' individual differences), that is why the strategies could not be prescribed.

Another interesting finding apparently concerning not only OCF but its relationship with teachers' beliefs on it, is one that Kırkgöz et al. (2015) discuss. According to them, although the OCF strategy most used by teachers in primary EFL classrooms in Turkey was explicit correction, the ones that mostly led to uptake (students' responses to OCF strategies) were: clarification request, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and paralinguistic feedback. Obviously, there would be a reason (or beliefs?) for those teachers to choose explicit correction in most of the times OCF was needed, but as it was not the focus of Kırkgöz et al. (2015) research, nothing else was mentioned. Also, the authors reinforce the fact that the results found in this study should not be generalized, since the context, the methods used – as it was previously mentioned in our research - and some other factors have to be considered.

In her research on "EFL teacher's choices for different types of CF", Menti (2009) observed and videotaped the classes of five teachers. Then, there was an interview aiming to discuss which factors led the teachers previously observed to

use OCF strategies or not inside an EFL classroom. The results showed that, when giving CF, teachers took into consideration students' feeling, personality, linguistic knowledge and emotional capacity. Menti (2009, p. 199) also says that "If a corrective feedback type can harm interaction, they [the teachers] will not employ it".

3 METHODOLOGY

For this research, two student teachers taking two different teaching practicum courses were recruited. The first one was taking *Estágio III: Ensino das habilidades comunicativas da Língua Inglesa*, in which the context is an English course. The other student teacher was taking *Estágio IV: Ensino da Língua Inglesa em escolas de Nível Fundamental e Médio,* in which the context was middle school.

The data collection for this research consisted of three stages. In the first stage, the two student teachers were asked to answer a questionnaire in which the questions were related to their previous experiences as language learners/teachers.

The second stage of this research consisted of classroom observations. For this stage, two classes of each student-teacher would be observed and videotaped, focusing on their uses of OCF strategies during the classes. The student teachers were not aware about the main focus of the classroom observations, since the fact of let them knowing about it before or during this stage could interfere on their teaching practices concerning the use of OCF.

Lastly, in the third stage, the two student teachers were

interviewed. In this stage, they were asked to answer some questions related to the use of CF. In addition, the student-teachers were asked to watch video segments from their own classes, recorded during the second stage. Since the focus of this research are student teachers' beliefs on OCF, the video segments showed during the final interview focused specifically on some moments in which the uses of the strategies occurred or in moments in which OCF lacked. They were asked to reflect about the video segments and to comment.

3.1 PARTICIPANTS

The participants in this study were two *Letras-Inglês* undergraduate student teachers who were taking the teaching practicum course. The student teacher A (STA) is a 27-year-old Brazilian male who has been teaching for around seven years. Most of his experience as an English teacher was in English courses, which is also the context in which he was observed for this research. The student-teacher B (STB) is a 22-year--old Brazilian male who has been teaching for 4 years. During this time, he has only taught in k-12 private and public schools, which is also the context in which he was observed for this research. Even though the student teachers knew that their classes were being recorded, they were not aware that the focus of these observations were the use of OCF.

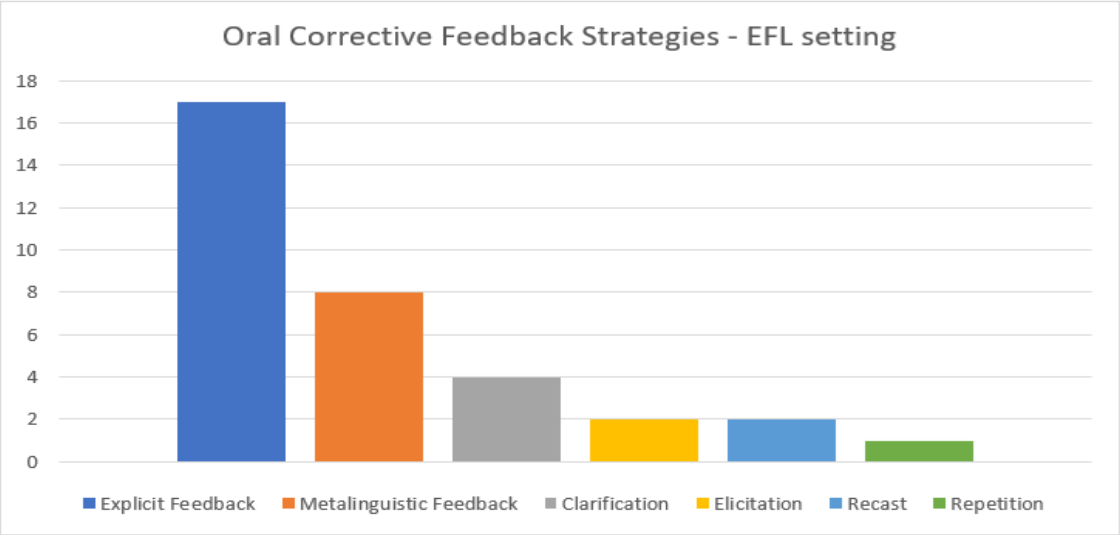
4 FINDINGS

4,1 CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

During the two classes observed and videotaped, all the six different types of corrective feedback strategies were used by STA. They are listed in terms of frequency, from the most used one to the least used one: explicit feedback, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, elicition, recast and repetition.

The following table illustrates the frequency each strategy was used during the classes observed.

Table 2: Occurrences of OCF – EFL setting



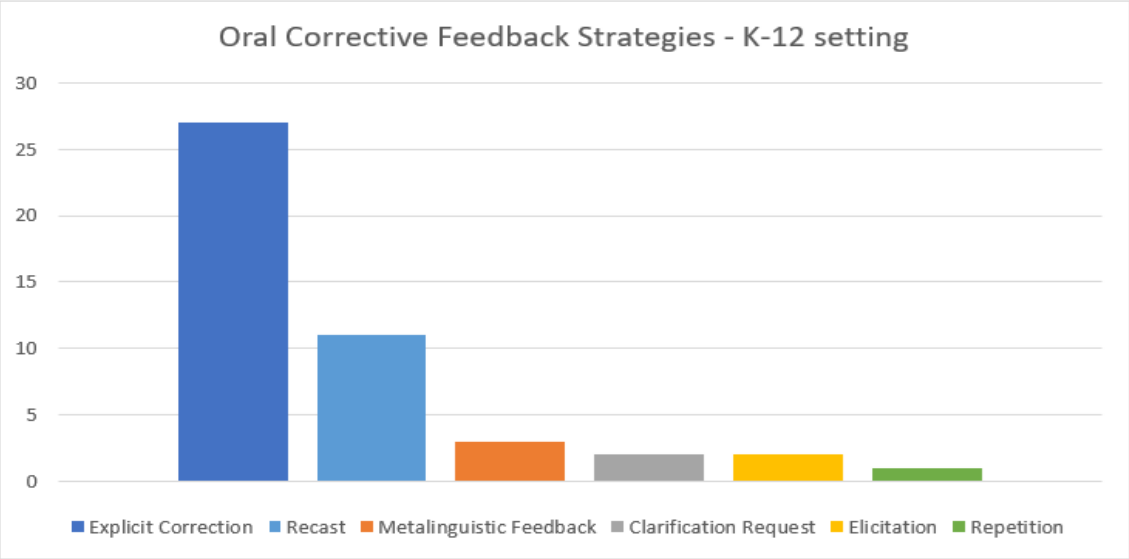
Source: Research data.

Evidence shows that 11,4 % of the class time on the EFL setting was spent on the use of OCF. In order to calculate this amount of time, the movement that is taken into consideration is: teacher initiation, student response and feedback, as known as IRF movement (WELLS, 1993, apud GLISAN AND SHRUM, 2010, pp. 82). The time spent on students' uptake (the answer students give for the corrective feedback) was also taken into consideration, when it happened.

The six different types of OCF strategies identified in

STB's classes were namely (from the most used one to the least used one): Explicit feedback, recast, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation and repetition. Table 3 shows the frequency of occurrences identified during STB's classes.

Table 3: Occurrences of OCF – k-12 setting



Source: Research data.

Evidence show that 10,9 % of the class time on the k-12 setting was spent on the use of corrective feedback. This amount of time was considered based on the IRF movement. Time used for uptake was also taken into consideration, when it happened.

4.2 INTERVIEW

The questionnaire used to guide this interview was basically about the use of oral CF strategies. The following questions were asked to the student teachers:

How do you see CF in an EFL classroom?

STA answer: [...] Eu tento de alguma maneira mostrar [o erro] por que eu acho que não adianta esconder. Você ficar... esconder o erro, que a pessoa não vai aprender, né? Vai achar que está falando certo, que tá fazendo aquela coisa certa, mas, no final, não tá. Então acho que é necessário, só que, eu tenho um certo MEDO, assim, né, não sei tratar muito bem essa parte da correção.

STB answer: It is essential for building up students' confidence and awareness of the target language's structure.

2. When a student makes a mistake, what helps you to decide if you are going to provide him/her CF or not? Which factors do you take into consideration when you have to decide it?

STA answer: Eu, particularmente, gosto sempre de corrigir gramática, né, erros gramaticais e ... depois de um tempo ensinando eu gostei a passar, né... passei a corrigir muito, é... coisa mais de contexto, de significação. De se o aluno conseguiu ser claro na frase dele, ou não, e pronuncia só quando divergir... divergia muito, né, da pronuncia padrão ou original [...].

STB answer: I try to judge the mistake as minor or major. If it is a major mistake, I give instant corrective feedback. If it isn't, I don't, obviously. However, if it is a minor but repetitive mistake, I also correct it.

When asked about what he considers major and minor mistakes, STB answered that major mistakes were the ones that interfere in communication, while minor mistakes were mistakes as "substitution of some phonemes, specially vowels". He completed his thought saying that "since the focus in schools is not for students to reach perfect pronunciation, I don't focus on that."

3. Which OCF strategies do you like to use most? Why?

STA answer: A estratégia que eu mais uso é botar a frase, qualquer coisa que estiver errado, na lousa né, no quadro, e pedir pra eles mesmos tentarem corrigir. Eu falo "ah, o que é que tem de errado aqui?" ou algo diferente, ou estranho. Isso pra algum erro gramatical, se for de pronuncia, aí já a gente tem que trabalhar com palavras, que sejam parecidas, né? Que tenham um som um pouco parecido. [A gente] Fala "oh, palavra tal assemelhasse com tal, não confundam, não vá falar assim, assim, é desse jeito".

STB answer: That one which rephrases what the student said correctly, I forgot the name... RECAST! In oral production, I think it helps students not to be afraid of speaking. In reading, I don't often use it. I prefer to have all students read out loud and as they read, I write on the board their pronunciation mistakes and correct them. If only one student is reading for the whole class, I adopt the same strategy except that I don't use the board for that.

4. Which OCF strategies you don't like to use most? Why?

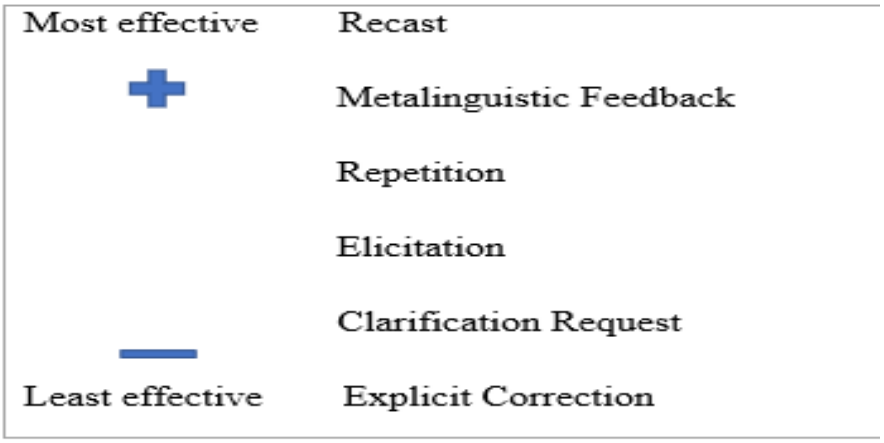
STA answer: Eu não gosto muito de botar os alunos pra [se] corrigirem entre si, né, o *peer assessment*. Eu geralmente gosto de eu mesmo corrigir, lá na lousa mesmo, quadro. Não costumo muito usar os próprios alunos pra ficarem 'se corrigindo'.

STB answer: I don't like to keep correcting as they speak because it might upset them.

In addition, a video[2] in which the six types of OCF strategies were used was presented to the student teachers. Each strategy was identified by a number. Students were asked to organize the six oral CF strategies from the one that they thought to be the most effective to the one that they thought to be the least effective. They were also asked to explain their choices concerning the choices of the "most effective" and the "least effective" strategies, by their points of view.

STA Answers:

Figure 1 - STA answers



Source: Research data

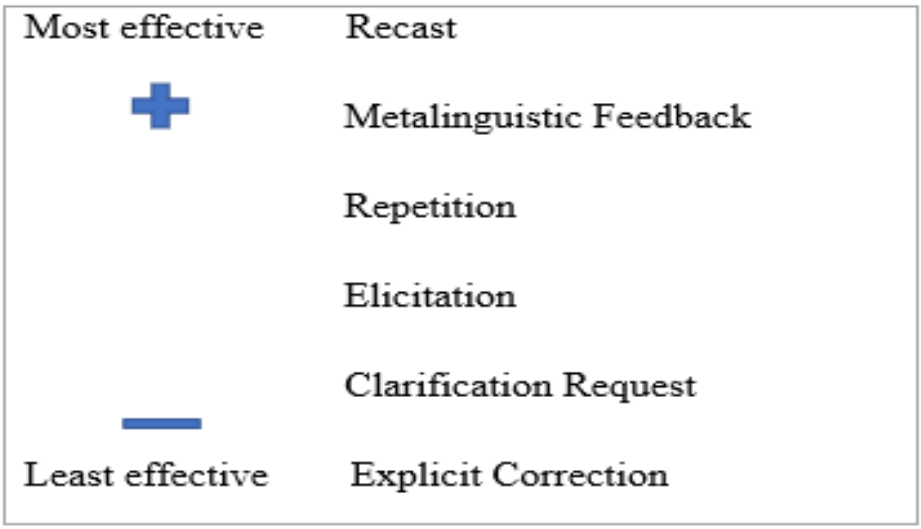
2 LIMA JR, R.M. ESL/EFL Oral Error Feedback (test yourself). 2011. (2m54s). Available on: < https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VFVSQTNUxtc>. Accessed on: April, 07. 2018.

When STA was asked why he sees recast as the most effective oral CF strategy, he answered that: "por que o professor não dá a resposta assim de cara. Ele comenta, né, fala sobre a resposta do aluno de uma maneira assim, bem 'descontraída', né... e usando a forma gramatical correta, e daí o aluno já percebe e ele mesmo corrige na fala seguinte."

When he was asked about his choice of explicit correction as the least effective one, he answered that: "E a primeira [*explicit correction*] eu achei a pior por que o professor ele meio que não explicou nada, ele só falou assim 'não é assim, é assado!'. Tipo, quem não tem conhecimento, sei lá, a pessoa [aluno] pode voar demais nisso."

STB answers:

Figure 2 - STB answers



Source: Research data

When STB was asked why he sees recast as the most effective OCF strategy, he answered that: "Because this one (recast) is implicit and it doesn't put students on the spot." Concerning his choice of explicit correction as the least effective strategy, he

completed his thought stating that on the other hand, "this one (explicit correction) put the student on the spot."

Lastly, each student teacher was asked to watch, individually, a video segment of their own classes in which the use of oral corrective feedback was identified. After that, they were asked to make any comments that they thought to be pertinent, concerning the video segment present to them.

STA was presented to a video segment of his own class in which a student questioned him about the fact that he corrected a mistake she made, concerning the use of specific time expressions with the present perfect tense to talk about experience, as "Only I have lost my umbrella ~~today~~". The student questioned the student teacher because, according to her, another student made the same mistake and the student teacher did not correct him. About this video segment, STA said that:

> "Na aula anterior eu tinha iniciado o assunto *present perfect* e como é de conhecimento geral é um assunto bem complicado para os estudantes, eu expliquei sobre a relação gramatical dele com palavras que denotam tempo e que não poderiam aparecer juntas, o livro também chama atenção para isso. Eu sabia que alguém formaria uma frase usando alguma expressão ou palavra que indicasse tempo, no caso a aluna usou *today* e eu não a corrigi porque eu já havia falado sobre e esperei que algum outro aluno 'levantasse a voz' pra apontar o erro, pois eu estava confiante que aquela palavra [*today*] ia chamar a atenção deles pelo tanto de exemplos que fora dado na aula anterior."

STB was presented to a video segment of his own class in which one of his students mispronounced the stressed syllable

in the word "comfortable". He tried to let the students aware of the mistake by providing them with metalinguistic feedback. After noticing that the student would not be able to pronounce the word correctly, he provided him with explicit feedback, telling the student the correct pronunciation. About this situation presented in the video, STB said that:

> "Eu sempre tentava ativar o conhecimento prévio deles pra chegar num tópico em inglês, nesse caso, a pronuncia da palavra *comfortable*. Eu gosto de perguntar e fazer eles pensarem em vez de dar a resposta de mão beijada."

5 DISCUSSIONS

The OCF strategies most used in both the EFL and the K-12 settings were explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback and recast, being these strategies far more used than the other ones.

Table 4: The use of OCF Strategies - EFL setting x K12 setting

C F strategies	EFL course setting	K12 school setting
Explicit correction	17	27
Metalinguistic Feedback	8	3
Clarification Request	4	2
Recast	2	11
Elicitation	2	2
Repetition	1	1
TOTAL	34	46

Source: Research data.

On the EFL setting, for example, while the use of explicit correction was identified 17 times, the use of clarification request, recast, elicitation and repetition (all together) were identified 9 times. On the k-12 setting, the use of explicit correction was identified 27 times, while the use of metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation and repetition were identified 8 times.

In an overall consideration of both settings, there was use of explicit correction 44 times, followed by recast, which was used 13 times. This huge difference suggests that both student teachers observed tend to use direct/explicit feedback strategies much more than indirect/implicit strategies.

However, when the student teachers were asked to organize the OCF strategies based on what they believed to be effective or not, both student teachers identified explicit feedback as the least effective one and recast as the most effective.

Research studies have already emphasized that Recast is one OCF strategy that is less threatening for the learner, since it is implicit and less intrusive (TROFIMOVICH et al., 2007 apud RASSAEI, 2013), which corroborates what the STs interviewed also said. On the other hand, recast could also be considered imprecise, since students could not notice that teachers are correcting a mistake or just repeating what he or she has just said.

Explicit correction, even if considered too intrusive, since the teacher tells the student that there is a mistake in what he or she said, could also be an effective strategy. For example, on a research about learners' perceptions on CF, Rassaei (2013) found out that a group of students that was exposed to explicit correction performed better than the group exposed to recast.

He also says that students who were exposed to explicit correction seemed to perceive more that they were being corrected than the ones exposed to recast.

Recast and Explicit correction, despite of being classified as different types of strategies (recast being considered indirect, while explicit correction is considered direct) share one common aspect: both of them usually do not give the appropriate opportunity for the learner to reformulates his or her erroneous utterance. In other words, there is no opportunity for uptake or negotiation of form. Research has shown that when CF is followed by uptake, chances are that the corrective feedback would be accurately perceived (MACKEY et al., 2000; EGI, 2010 apud RASSAEI, 2013).

During the classes observed, one strategy the Student teachers used when dealing with oral mistakes was writing students' erroneous utterances on the board, which was also in accordance with what both STA and STB described during the final interview. The positive aspects of this strategy, according to Brandl (2008, pp. 163) is that it gives more time for the student to notice a mistake while, at the same time, this strategy also allows a deeper processing of it. On the other hand, it could also be a time consuming and high-anxiety inducing strategy. As a possible solution for this dilemma, teachers should discuss their error correction strategies with their students.

During the interviews, when asked about how he sees corrective feedback in an EFL classroom, STA says that it is necessary, but adds that he does not know how to deal with correction. After seven years of teaching practice, I would assume that STA might have an idea of how to deal with mistakes

inside an EFL classroom, although he might not be aware of the cognitive dimensions of these processes (what he knows, believes and thinks about the use of CF).

The results found during this research also demonstrated that OCF could be inconsistent, as Ellis (2009) discussed. It could be noticed when STA corrected one student but did not corrected another student when he made the same mistake concerning the use of the present perfect tense.

In addition, when STB says that he does not like to keep correcting his students because it might "upset" them, when he says that CF build up students' "confidence" or that the use of recast could help the students not to be afraid of speaking, he is clearly taking into consideration his students' feelings and emotional characteristics, ratifying the what Menti (2009) found on her research. Brandl (2008) also emphasizes that learners' affective reactions should always be taken into consideration by teachers when giving CF, since students' attitudes towards correction are a determinant factor for the effectiveness of the CF.

Concerning the difference between the amount of time spent on the use of OCF on the EFL course setting (11,4%) and the K-12 school (10,9%), even when there were more uses of OCF strategies in the school setting, we could take into consideration what STB said about the school setting that "the focus in schools is not for students to reach perfect pronunciation". This statement might be related to some important factors such as time constraints, since k-12 regular schools usually offer a 50-minute class per week, while EFL courses usually offer two 100-minute class per week, what could give the teacher more

time to focus on the development of different skills. In addition to that, there is also a common belief shared by teachers and students that it is not possible to learn English at Brazilian schools, especially at the public ones (see COELHO, 2005).

Although peer feedback is not the focus of this research, it was an emerging theme on the interview. When asked about the use of corrective feedback strategies, STA answered that *"Eu não gosto de botar os alunos pra se corrigirem entre si",* not describing why he did not like to do it. This kind of belief reinforces the concerns that teachers usually have about peer feedback, relating students' low proficiency on a L2 to the way they would provide feedback to their classmates (SHULIN AND ICY, 2016, pp. 483). Research on Peer feedback, however, has shown that not only the students giving feedback, but also the ones receiving it might benefit from it (SIPPEL AND CARRIE, 2015).

6 FINAL REMARKS

OCF is unquestionably an essential factor when dealing with the learning and teaching of a foreign language, and both Student teachers interviewed seemed to be aware about the importance of OCF in a classroom.

Concerning one of the objectives of this research, explore how OCF takes place in two different classroom settings, the results found shows that both STA and STB tend to use direct/explicit strategies (e.g. Explicit Correction) more than indirect/implicit strategies (e.g. recast) when dealing with oral correction in both EFL and K-12 settings.

In addition, it was found that there was more use of OCF strategies in the K-12 setting than the EFL setting. However, the amount of time spent on OCF was bigger in the EFL setting, what could be explained by factors such as the time constrains faced by STB.

Regarding the second objective, inquire what student teachers' beliefs on OCF are, the results suggest that the student teachers interviewed see recast as the most effective strategy, while they see explicit correction as the least effective strategy. Also, they believe that students should not be over corrected, because it could lead them to be upset or afraid of speak. On the contrary, both student teachers see explicit correction (the OCF strategy they most used) as one strategy that "put the student on the spot". Lastly, both of them consider display students' mistakes on the board as an effective strategy of correction, even when dealing with oral production.

In conclusion, although OCF is considered an important factor in language teaching, student teachers might not feel prepared enough to deal with it inside the classroom. Such beliefs they might have about CF should be taken into consideration during the development of the programmes of the undergraduate teaching courses they are taking, since research has already shown that when student teachers beliefs are ignored, the programmes might be less effective at influencing these (KETTLE & SELLARS, 1996; WEINSTEIN, 1990 apud BORG, 2009).

Due to time limitations, the student teachers could not be asked to talk about the discrepancies found between their beliefs and what happened inside the classroom, what is known

as self-confrontation (See VIEIRA AND FAITA, 2003). Further research about student teachers' beliefs on OCF using self-confrontation is suggested, as well as research focusing on uptake or students' beliefs on OCF.

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CHAPTER 11

PRACTICE REPORT: THE RELATION BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE

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1 INTRODUCTION

This is a report of my experience inside a classroom as a teacher for the first time. It intends to serve as a tool for growth, as it showcases not only the importance of firsthand experience, but also allows for reflection and introspection, which should culminate in a, hopefully, satisfactory learning experience.

Among the many objectives from our college course are forming teachers of the English language, enabling them to develop teaching programs and appropriate courseware, and promoting "critical knowledge of Brazil's sociopolitical and educational reality" (Projeto Político Pedagógico do curso Letras: língua Inglesa, 2009, p.22). To achieve these goals, teaching practice is required for all.

In college, student-teachers are introduced to various approaches to teaching and are taught about different methods developed throughout the years. But theory holds little importance without practice. For this reason, the student-teacher's

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experience inside a classroom is a very important, maybe the *most* important, part of their development.

But why is it so important? Of course, applying theories is very important to actually contextualize previously acquired knowledge, but the importance of practice goes beyond. It allows for student-teachers to recognize their strengths and weaknesses. It puts them face to face with a real classroom environment, rather them hypotheticals presented in classes, which presents them with the reality of our schools, and how both students and teachers are affected by external factors that are not usually accounted for when studying teaching methods in class.

Therefore, the course of Letras-Inglês teaching and literature has in its syllabus multiple courses devoted to the practice and application of the theories taught in class, all with the purpose of achieving the college course goal of "forming teachers of the English language and Its Literature, to perform on the education at the levels of Elementary and Secondary Schools" (Projeto Político Pedagógico do curso Letras: língua Inglesa, 2009, p.22). The first two of these courses are devoted to pedagogical theories, exposure to different teaching methods and lesson planning; the third course is focused on observation. Student-teachers are exposed to real classrooms and get to contextualize the theories they have been taught; the last two practice courses are where actual hands-on practice take place. Student-teachers are tasked with the planning and teaching of classes to an actual classroom. These courses take place on the second half of a 9-semester course. The specific practicum in which the experience herein detailed took place is called Está-

gio III: Ensino das Habilidades Comunicativas da Língua Inglesa, which took place in the ninth semester of the overall course. It is described as "didactic-pedagogical practice based on specific methods and techniques utilized on the teaching of foreign language for the development of linguistic and communicative skills on the English language".

In what pertains to my own teaching experience, it can be asserted that its results were positive and allowed for personal growth and introspection. Proving, as we shall see, not only the validity of the points above, but potential flaws in the political-pedagogical project of the program and the application of this particular course.

With this in mind, I here present an experience report with the purpose of providing context and allowing for the analysis of the relation between pedagogical theories, teaching methods and their application in a real-world classroom environment.

This paper is organized in three sections. The first is the methodology, which in itself is sectioned in three smaller parts. The first of which will describe the theoretical foundation upon which the practice was applied and studied, which served as guidance for analyzing its purpose and effectiveness. The second subsection pertains to the environment of the practice: where it took place, the facility, its structure, student body and faculty. Then, the third subsection of methodology contains details about my whole experience with the practicum, both inside and outside the classroom environment. After methodology, the second section of this paper is a reflection of the whole experience, what was, or can be, learned, and what

could be improved. Finally, the third section is dedicated to the final considerations, where effects of the practicum are reflected commented on and surmised.

2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION

There are numerous teaching techniques. One of the first challenges a student-teacher will face in their endeavor is to figure out which method to use in their classroom. How does one approach "teaching"? Of course, that entails not only being familiar with the various methods, but also assessing your classroom. Each student is an unique individual, and that needs to be accounted for by the teacher when preparing their lessons and thinking about how to approach them.

Diane Larsen-Freeman (1993) describes a situation wherein a student-teacher, which here we will refer to as "Heather", had decided that she would take an approach to her classes in which "she would exercise less control of the lesson in order to encourage her students to take more initiative". Instead of asking questions, Heather would have the students ask each other what she would normally ask them.

As later explained by Larsen-Freeman (1993), to her "it was clear to see that Heather had successfully avoided the common problem of the teacher asking all the questions in class [...] however, Heather had not achieved her goal of encourag-

ing student initiative, since it was she who took the initiative by prompting the students to ask the questions". In order to make her students really take initiative, Heather had to make her role in an activity "not essential", which she realized after thinking back to the aftereffects of her own lesson.

Now, by looking back at her own lesson, Heather was able to understand what she had to change in her approach to teaching if she were to achieve her goal. And that's where the value of practice lies. By going into a classroom and applying whatever method they deem fit, a student-teacher can assess their own teaching technique, its flaws and strengths, which in turn allow them to make changes, growing with each lesson and amassing knowledge to evolve and gain the confidence they need when stepping into a classroom.

But the practice goes beyond personal growth. Its analysis and the analysis of its results allow us to better understand the development of teachers in the country. Vieira-Abrahão (2005, p. 313) reports that many studies evince the practice in the classroom as "a teacher's main source of knowledge".

In her own research, Abrahão studies the construction of the knowledge of language, leaning and teaching by student-teachers, shedding some light on their development and its effectiveness. To do so, she observed and collected data on a number of student-teachers following three phases.

In the first phase, she gathered data on each student's beliefs and assumptions about language, learning and teaching. Plus, their previous knowledge on the matter. In the second phrase, she compared those belief and assumptions with the theoretical knowledge presented to them during their classes

in college in preparation for their practice. Lastly, in the third phase, after each student-teacher had already started their teaching practice, having worked on their own practical activities for their classes and applied them, she tried to look at which beliefs, assumptions and knowledge originated in that practice.

In phases one and two, when analyzing the data of one particular subject, which is referred in her research as "Andréia", Abrahão found that her perception of learning and teaching changed significantly after she joined college, now veering more towards the value of communication and contextualization rather than drilling. This change derived from explosion to the knowledge Andréia amassed in college, all in preparation for her own practice as a student-teacher, but also form her own experience as a student prior to entering college.

The evidence in the first two phases showed an influence that the student-teacher had from their time in school. Andréia felt more inclined to apply methods which she found worked better for her as an English student.

In the third phase, Andréia mostly adhered to her new view of teaching and learning. However, there were still influences from some of her early experience with language learning in high school, which involved much more grammar and drilling. So even though she applied, to the best of her abilities, a communicative method to her lessons in accordance with what her years in college taught her, parts of her lesson still involved grammar and repetition, as a reflection of her own experience of how an English class should entail.

Much can be assessed from the results of this study. For the purposes of this report, the main information we can gath-

er is about the power of observation. Even though Andréia had an evolved perception of what comprised teaching, her years as a student having to deal with grammar teaching and repetition had subconsciously affected the application of the theory she had adhered to.

In fact, the power of observation is the basis of one of Stephen Krashen's (1982) approaches to method which he described in Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. He describes the "observation of experienced language teachers and students" as the source of "ideas that work", which leads to the development of different methods.

Having this information in mind, we now look at my experience as a student-teacher and the relationship between theory and practice. The experiences described here took place as part of the course *ESTÁGIO III: ENSINO DAS HABILIDADES COMUNICATIVAS DA LÍNGUA INGLESA,* which happened in the first half of 2019. In this course, I was tasked with the planning and conducting of English classes for a total of 30 hours divided in 15 lessons. I was expected to implement the four skills of language learning to my lessons (writing, reading, listening and speaking). At the end of each lesson, I had to report to the professor supervising my practicum and the cooperating teacher and provide self-evaluations in the form of reflective diaries.

The methodology of the practicum consisted of the following phases:

- Meetings with the practicum coordinator (supervisor) once every three weeks for roughly the period of three months (from March to May, in 2019) with the purpose of assessing my

progress with the practice and helping with any difficulties I might have had. There were four encounters total;

- Meetings with the cooperating teacher (the one responsible for the class I took over) every week during the same period as the lessons (between March and May), on variable days and as frequently as possible in order to report my progress and share details about the activities and assignments from the lessons, as well as discussing the next steps to be planned;

- Lesson plans for each lesson had to be sent to the supervisor at least one week before the lesson took place, so as to give time for the professor to send back any feedback they may have had and allow me to make modifications. There were a total of fifteen lesson plans, made and sent twice a week, just like the lessons themselves;

- Reflective Diaries about the lessons had to written after each lesson and sent on the same day to the supervising professor. They were later to be compiled along with the lesson plans as part of my final report on the practicum;

- As part of the practice, I also had to get the cooperating teacher's signature on a attendance list after every lesson, as to prove my attendance to each class as intended;

- At the end, a final report had to be produce describing where the practice took place, for how long, and containing a compilation of every lesson plan and reflective diary. The report had to be handed until the month of June.

2.2 CONTEXT DESCRIPTION

The practicum reported in this document took place at

Casa de Cultura Britânica, an institution devoted exclusively to the teaching of the English language situated inside the Benfica campus of UFC. Casa de Cultura Britânica, commonly referred to as CCB, was created in 1964, completing 57 years of existence on November of this year. It has 21 teachers, most of which possess masters or doctorates and each classroom has an average of 20 students. Students can enroll to one of CCBs course through their website The physical space of the institution is mostly dedicated to classrooms, inside which there are air-conditioners, TVs readily available for use and a stereo which can be borrowed. The classrooms also benefit from a silent surrounding, which make for a quiet learning environment with no external interruption.

The CCB has lessons implementing the four skills of language (reading, writing, speaking and listening), but with a greater focus on communication (speaking and listening). The whole basic course is divided in 7 semesters. Their course book is the English File, 3rd Edition, ranging from Elementary (A1 Course) to Advanced (C1 Course), which includes a workbook and two complementary audio CDs. Each lesson of the book is divided into three main sections: Grammar, Pronunciation and Vocabulary).

The lessons took place twice a week, Tuesday and Thursday, and each had the duration of 100 minutes, from 16:00 to 17:40. The cooperating teacher (the one responsible for the class I was taking over) was a young man, not much older than me, but much more experienced. From the very start, he answered each of my questions and cleared each of my doubts, helping me plan and pace my lessons. He filled me in on where

he and his students left off in the workbook, so I could pick it up from there.

The students themselves were mostly older them me, some of them much older, which was intimidating at first. Since this was a first semester class, they had little proficiency in English. Due to that fact, I had to speak in Portuguese most of the time, changing to English from time to time. The classroom was spacious, so it allowed students to move freely during more physical activities. It was well lit and had air-conditioning. The number of seats was almost the same as the number of students, around 25, either by design or by accident.

The version of the English File course book I used was the Elementary version for A1 level students. It has a Student Book, a Workbook, and a Teacher Book, accompanied by two audio CDs, one for the Student Book and another for the Workbook. The books are divided in 12 units, and each unit is divided in three parts, each with a grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation section. The part of the book used in my practice was from the last part of Unit 1 to the second part of Unit 3, covered in fifteen lessons.

2.3 EXPERIENCE DESCRIPTION

The Dynamics

The course of Estágio III took place during the first semester of 2019. At the start of the semester, my supervisor connected me with Casa de Cultura Inglesa so that my internship could take place there. Before starting the classes, she guided me in how to proceed planning my lessons, even providing me

with a model for lesson planning, and also providing material I could use to help me better comprehend the role of my practice, of which I had a simpler view at that point.

The cooperating teacher was also a very helpful. He provided me with tips on how to plan my classes, made suggestions on different approaches I could try with the students, and even lend me his own speaker so I could use it in class (a more practical help, but one that made a big difference to me). Unfortunately, my meetings with him occurred less frequently than ideal due scheduling conflict, but the ones we had were well seized.

Lesson Planning

Lesson planning was the first challenge I faced. Up to that point, I had never planned a lesson. The content of the lesson had to match the 100-minute duration, which at first wasn't easy to do. Sections of the class would take longer than expected, or end too quickly; there was little balance, with some sections making up a big part of the lesson and others being really short and underdeveloped. But that became less of a problem with each passing week.

Then began the lessons themselves. I was really nervous, and I could tell it was apparent to the students. Most of them were my age or older, with ages varying from early 20s and to mid-50s. At first, I was in doubt whether to speak English or Portuguese during my lessons. In an attempt to immerse the students in an English-centric context, I decided to only speak English, only switching to Portuguese when having to talk about grades or exams, if needed. However, I could soon

tell most of them couldn't understand me. So I had to switch to Portuguese for most of the time. I was so nervous, that I would sometimes, without realizing, switch between English and Portuguese. Some students pointed this out to me later, and it took me some time to stop doing it.

As to better understand the different parts of the lessons, their order and how they relate, let's look at one particular lesson and break it down to its parts.

LESSON PLAN #02 DATE: March 14, 2019 (Thursday)

GOALS

- By the end of the class the students should able to give personal information and spell words.

As seen above, each lesson had a particular goal. This goal was practical, meaning it had to do with a capabilities students would have regarding the English language that could be used outside the classroom. This goal would shape the lesson and each section of the plan.

CONTENTS

- Grammar: Possessive Adjectives;
- Pronunciation: The alphabet and the following sounds: /əʊ/, /u:/ and /ɑ/;
- Vocabulary: Classroom Language.

As mentioned before, each lesson had three sections: grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. They did not have to be specifically presented in that order, it would depend on the intentions of the teacher. In my case, at first I started each les-

son with the grammar section, but realized that it was a slow start which would usually put off some students. Because of this, I later decided to change the order of the sections, usually leaving grammar at the end.

LESSON STAGES

- Start the class with an explanation of possessive adjectives, what they are, and their application, providing examples; Ask students to go to page 124 of the Grammar Bank so that they can follow the explanation; [10 to 15 min]

- Do activities A and C from Grammar Section page 9 of the textbook together with the students (oral and listening exercises). Then divide students in pairs for a speaking activity (p.100 and 103); [10 to 15 min]

It can be seen here that this particular lesson started with the grammar section, the topic in this case was possessive adjectives. The reason for this was that I was still adamant in following the book closely, which starts the lessons with grammar. I wasn't yet aware that I could change the order without compromising the lesson.

- Play an audio with the sounds:

/əʊ/, /uː/ and /ɑː/ once, then play it again and ask students to listen and repeat; [5 min]

- Write the alphabet on the board and play an audio of someone pronouncing the letters. After playing it once, pronounce the letters together with the students; [5 min]

- Ask students to do exercises B and C from page 8 of the textbook: completing a chart with letters based on their sound. Then play audio to check the answers. Also ask them to read the words in activity E with abbreviations [10 min]

The section above was about pronunciation. On this part, I always had to rely heavily on audio support, provided by the book. I would also provide my own pronunciation to the sounds, but it was still advised to use the native sounds first, as to create a familiarity with it.

- For vocabulary, start by doing exercise A from (p.8) with the students and then listening to the audio to check the answers. Then play it again and ask students to repeat the words. [5 min]

- Play a matching game with the students. Give them card with some names seem in the vocabulary lesson and have them tape the card to the objects they represent. [10 to 15 Min]

- Go to page 150 (Vocabulary Bank) of the textbook and ask students to do exercise A in pairs. After a couple of minutes, play the audio to check the answers and make sure the students understand all the phrases. Do the same thing with the next section (You Say). Finally, cover the sentences and ask students to try and say them by looking at the pictures. [15 min]

- Move on to Listening and Speaking. Ask students to do exercise A and B. Correct the exercise, playing the audio again if deemed necessary. [10 to 15 min]

- As homework, ask students to do exercises A and B from page 125 of the Grammar Bank.

The vocabulary section of the lessons was all about repetition, but also contextualization. Seeing as the goal of the course was communication, just repeating loose words was of little help. Instead, introducing every word, I also provided sentences contextualizing their meaning and usage. It also helped to play games with the students, in which they – not me – had

the active role. That helped loosen them up (and me, as well) and also allowed them to interact with each other rather than just with me, the teacher.

RESOURCES

- White board, markers, computer, speaker, textbook.

ASSESSMENT/FEEDBACK

- The students will be assessed by their participation and success in delivering the homework assigned last class.

The end of each lesson plan had to disclose the resources used in the lesson and the manner in which the students would be assessed for their work. The manner of assessment would vary depending on the type of activities demanded.

Following this look at a lesson plan, now a look at a more general aspects of my teaching experience. Starting with the contents of my lessons.

The Contents

A lot of my lessons focused a bit too much on grammar, which I soon realized was inappropriate to the course plan and didn't fit the model of the book used in class. But after some advice from the cooperating teacher, I started implementing different games in class. The first of them happened during the second lesson, about classroom language, and it involved students sticking tags with the name of objects on said objects. The students were having fun, they were engaged, and that helped me loosen up a bit more in front of the class.

After then, I started to shape my lesson more similarly.

Each lesson had three sections: Grammar, Vocabulary and Pronunciation. As part of my goal to encourage oral production from the students, I started reducing the duration of the grammar section with each class, in contrasts with my first two lessons. I also started implementing games or role playing in this section of the lessons, as to loosen up the students.

In the vocabulary section, I started with pure listening and repetition. But seeing as that was not in accordance with the communicative approach, in later lessons I started to contextualize the vocabulary of the lesson. Than in the pronunciation section I had to, for all intents and purposes, use repetition. But I tried to always provide full examples, instead of just asking them to repeat the sound.

The Students

Weeks passed, and each lesson seemed more tightly planned than the previous one. With each lesson I would got more comfortable in the position of teacher, and the age gap between me and the students no longer intimidated me. Likewise, with each week students seemed to get more comfortable with me. They started asking more questions, there was more banter, and we even had after class small talk around my desk, which felt nice. My last class was vastly different from my first. And the approval of the students meant to me that I had achieved something, even if I still had a lot to learn.

3 REFLEXION ABOUT THE EXPERIENCE

This is the second time I have had to think profoundly about this particular experience. The first, of course, was when I first had the student-teacher practice and had to write weekly report and self-evaluations on my lessons. Now, as someone who has been properly teaching for over a year, I have a different perspective and am able to take away more from my practice back then. I can now see that the theory I learned only took me so far in the teaching process, and that my approach was affected by my personality, the demeanor of my students, and my previous experience with language learning (as a student). I learned many things with this practice that I wouldn't have learned otherwise.

I can safely say that, personally, the main take from that experience is that I actually enjoy teaching. After years studying to be a teacher, I had never before actually experienced teaching. If felt important to me to know that I actually enjoyed doing it, even if it was at the end of my college experience, sadly.

The experience also helped me be confident in front of my students, and I'm glad my first time teaching in a classroom was as a student-teacher being supervised, because it provided me the support I needed and it helped me build my demeanor and choose how to approach my students.

By the end, the feeling of uneasiness I felt at the prospect of teaching classes to adults turned into bliss, and by the time the few final lessons were around the corner I felt a bit sad that we would say goodbye (and some students too, which was nice). The fact that some students personally told me they liked me as their teacher and would like me to continue teaching them was, to me, proof that I had not only evolved as a

student-teacher, but was able to connect with them personally and that felt like one of the biggest gifts from the experience.

My only problem with the whole teaching experience is that it did not happen earlier. Something so important should take place earlier in the large rooster of courses that are part of the college experience. Ideally, I think the teaching practice should happen in two moments: the first, early in development; the second, at the end.

The earlier experience would allow students to find out if they are in the correct career path. Once I started teaching, I was lucky to find out that I really liked teaching. But what if I didn't? Three years of study to become a teacher and then finding out you don't like teaching is a terrible gut punch. An early teaching experience would also allow students to relate the theories they would see further on with their own experience. They would be able to look back at what they did before and compare it with what they know now. As we have seen, comparing theory to practice can help us understand better our role as teachers. Consequently, their teaching experience at the end of college would be more complete and offer more insight.

4 FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

My teaching practice at *Casa de Cultura Britânica* was a completely necessary step in my development as an English teacher. One that I personally think should have been taken earlier in my studies. It is one thing to read and discuss about a classroom environment and the teacher education curriculum proposed in course of Letras I took part in. It is another

completely to actually stand in a classroom and teach. This experience helped me push away some of my worries about my capacity as a teacher while also showing me my strengths and weaknesses in the area.

The interaction with the students was the core of the experience, as it was the key difference between the content I had seen in class and the actual teaching practice. It made clear what already should have been: the fact that teachers deal with all kinds of people, not just faceless numbers with uniform behavior. It is important to emphasize that not all this would have played such a significant role in my own development as a teacher without the systematic reflections afforded by the collaboration with the supervising teacher and the reflective diaries.

All the theories and teaching methods I have seen in class helped me prepare my lessons and materials, but it was the experience that allowed me to learn the role of a teacher, the impact they have on their students, and the importance of providing a good learning environment that allows your lessons to resonate with students even outside of a classroom. Overall, the experience was insightful and necessary in my path to become an English teacher, and despite the difficulties I would not have it any other way.

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