

**Language Teaching Materials and Teacher
Education in Chile: An Activity-Theoretical
Study of the Learning of Materials Design**

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Doctor of Philosophy**

I, Luis Carabantes Leal confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own. Where information has been derived from other sources, I confirm that this has been indicated in the thesis.

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Abstract

Since the mid-90's, a growing body of literature about language teaching materials has evidenced their frequent use in classrooms. This scholarship highlights the role of materials as language teaching artefacts and has also raised concerns about their cultural and ideological content, especially commercial textbooks. However, these views remain absent from English teacher education, where only scarce attention is given to materials selection, adaptation and design.

Against this backdrop, this thesis explores the learning of materials design by a group of preservice teachers of English in Chile during the final year of their teacher education. Using interviews, stimulated recalls, focus groups, observations, document analysis, language teaching materials, and an offshoot of sociocultural theory known as Activity Theory, this thesis explores the contradictions emerging in the process of materials design experienced by the student-teachers, the conceptual tools that mediate their design, and the contextual elements influencing the rationales used by the participants.

The results show that the learning of materials design is shaped by contradictions between the preservice teachers' beliefs, between elements of the teacher education programme, between the preservice teachers and elements of their school placements, and between the preservice teachers' beliefs and the motive of teaching English. The results also suggest that the student-teachers' design is mediated by conceptual tools such as a prevalent focus on receptive skills, reducing the cognitive challenge posed on learners, textbook dependency, and the subjugation of the topics to discrete language. These contradictions and conceptual tools are importantly influenced by contextual factors.

The study supports and furthers our knowledge of teacher learning in relation to materials design. It highlights the schoolteachers' pivotal role enculturating student-teachers into the profession in issues concomitant with materials design, and documents how the development of some conceptual tools, such as textbook dependency, is promoted at the university setting.

Impact Statement

This study combines two key fields of applied linguistics: language teaching materials and language teacher education, to answer the question of how designing English language materials is learnt by preservice teachers. Following current discussions about the nature of teacher-learning, the use of Activity Theory to guide this study breaks away from the sometimes narrow and practice-oriented approach to studying the use, adaptation and design of language teaching materials. The study contributes to the field with a snapshot of how this teacherly skill is learnt at the preservice stage of English teacher education. This research contributes to the field with the identification of materials design rationales such as ‘the prioritisation of receptive skill teaching’, ‘dumbing down’, ‘textbook dependency’, ‘subordination of thematic content to grammar’. The study also identifies the contradictions experienced by the participants in the process of learning to design materials, and the contextual factors affecting this learning.

Through the combination of two of the fields of applied linguistics abovementioned, this study can spark new debates in the relevant scholarship and trigger discussions in academic journals, such as *TESOL Quarterly*, *ELT Journal*, and *Language Teacher Education*, about the relevance of the learning of materials design by classroom practitioners. In addition, the dissemination of the findings can open an avenue of study for researchers interested in the intersection between language teaching materials and teacher education. The above findings serve as a platform to continue scrutinising both the learning of materials design and the creation of language teaching artefacts.

However, this study is most impactful in the field of second language teacher education. The findings can help articulate language teaching materials development modules in language teacher education courses to prevent the emergence of issues, such as dumbing down practices whereby learners are cognitively underestimated. In addition, the findings can be used by teacher training institutions to help student-teachers design teaching materials in line with current thinking in English language teaching, placing emphasis on the development of all communicative skills, and striking a balance between thematic and linguistic notions. Finally, the use of the

findings together with the promotion of materials design in teacher education programmes can prevent the long-term effects of textbook dependency, such as teacher deskilling, work dissatisfaction, and an overall impoverished teaching practice. In sum, these findings can directly contribute to the professionalisation of English language teachers.

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List of abbreviations

CDP:	Continuous Professional Development
CEFR:	Common European Framework of Reference
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ELL:	English Language Learners
ELT:	English Language Teaching
ESL:	English as a Second Language
FG:	Focus Group
Mineduc:	Ministerio de Educación (Ministry of Education)
PCK:	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PIAP:	<i>Programa Inglés Abre Puertas</i> (English Opens Doors Programme)
PL:	Programme Leader
PST:	Preservice Teacher
ScT:	Schoolteacher
SRI:	Stimulated Recall Interview
TE:	Teacher Educator
TKB:	Teacher Knowledge Base

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Towards a PhD about language teaching materials and teacher education

I come to this research with a number of experiences as a learner of English, learner of English teaching, teacher of English, and English language teacher educator. In all of these, language teaching materials have had a pivotal role, and their presence – or, absence – defined much of the form that these experiences would take. As a language learner, my first contact with English Language Teaching (henceforth ELT) occurred during my years of primary and secondary public education in Chile. The classes I had access to were largely taught against a blackboard and rarely involved any interactive activities. Apart from being given isolated photocopies from textbooks, most of the instruction my fellow classmates and I received consisted of copying grammar exercises and vocabulary into our notebooks as there were no English textbooks provided by the governments at the time. However, notwithstanding the scarcity of materials and resources, and possibly influenced by the charisma of my teachers, upon completion of my secondary studies, I enrolled in what in my country is known as *pedagogía en inglés* (English language teacher education) at one of the universities in Temuco, the capital city of the Región de la Araucanía, located two hours away from my native Panguipulli in the south of Chile.

My English teacher education course was a world away from my previous experience learning English. For a start, most of the classes were taught in English. We were required to read, write, speak and listen to English on a daily basis for four years before our one-year school placement. The textbook series *New Headway* (Soars and Soars, 2000a, 2000b, 2002, 2003) was used in all the English modules (*Lengua Inglesa 1-8*, English Language 1-8) during the four years, together with the *Advanced Learners Oxford Dictionary*, or a similar one. My teacher educators used these materials in a variety of ways. For example, whilst some of them used the textbook only as a reference for language and exercises and relied very little on it, others used it on a page-by-page basis. In addition, plenty of worksheets and

handouts were left in a folder for us to photocopy and do additional skill or language work.

Together with learning English, my programme emphasised the learning of education theories and language teaching. The foundation courses, such as sociology and psychology of education, curriculum design and assessment, quantitative and qualitative research in education, were some of the modules we had to take in tandem with general linguistics, applied linguistics, synchronic grammar, discourse analysis, error analysis, literature, and of course, English language.

Linking both areas was a series of modules called *Taller Pedagógico* (Pedagogical Workshop) that started in year two and finished in year four. These modules involved language teaching methods and weekly school visits in which we were expected to analyse a teacher's practice of ELT based on our new knowledge of language teaching. We were also expected to design our own lessons and materials, identify critical incidents of our own practice of ELT, identify the educational and theoretical underpinnings of such critical incidents, and suggest theoretical and practical alternatives to them. The programme culminated in a fifth year during which we had to undertake a full-time school placement and perform the roles of fully qualified English teachers as well as organise a portfolio evidencing our teaching practice encompassing lesson plans, materials, videos of our lessons, reflections on critical incidents, etc.

As my language teaching experience grew after graduation, so did my acquaintance with language materials – particularly textbooks – as a result of working in different educational contexts from pre-school to higher education at the same time. To *New Headway*, I added other coursebooks such as *Project*, *Face to Face*, *New Interchange*, *New English File*, or those provided by the Chilean Ministry of Education (henceforth Mineduc). I remember that at the end of my first year of teaching at a school, one of my colleagues congratulated me for covering all of *Project*; by the end of my second year at the same school, I was tasked with deciding which textbooks (commercial or otherwise) the students would use the following year. I made the unpopular decision amongst my colleagues of using the textbooks provided by Mineduc. Thirteen years have passed since then and I vividly remember my choice was based on thinking that the Mineduc textbooks were more educational

and intellectually challenging, and that their lack of focus on grammar (they advocated a strong communicative orientation) could be overcome by supplementing the textbooks with other material if necessary. In other teaching jobs I had, such as teaching an English module for dentistry and medical technology students at a private university, I had to design the course from scratch, including the materials for every lesson. At another school, I had no choice but to use the materials provided by Mineduc as the parents were not able to afford commercial coursebooks. In a general English course at a state university, my colleagues and I were asked to follow a digitalised version of *New Interchange*. Finally, in my last job as a teacher in Chile at a semi-private school, I felt I had hit rock bottom when my more junior colleagues and I were tasked by the senior teachers with selling the material 'designed' by them to our students in class (it had been mostly lifted from other published materials). We had no choice but to use that material and deal with plenty of pedagogical flaws and, at times, extremely problematic content.

At the same time, I also embarked on work as a teacher educator. Because of the lack of qualified teacher educators in the south of Chile, upon graduation I was asked by the programme leader of my teacher education course to be in charge of the *Taller Pedagógico* modules of year three, even though I had very little experience teaching English. This module, as I described above, comprised the study of language teaching methods and school placements of two or three hours a week. Relying on my ongoing practice and experience of ELT at the time, I had to teach the preservice teachers language teaching approaches, and methods of teaching language skills, vocabulary, grammar, etc. I would normally ask them to micro-teach, analyse my own teaching, and even my own teacher-made materials. I also asked them to design their own materials to conduct their micro-teaching. For their school placements, they had no choice but plan and design their lessons and materials from scratch, and sometimes this even involved producing their own texts.

Thus, whatever the context, materials have emerged throughout my ELT trajectory almost naturally as part of my learning and teaching. From mediating my own learning of English to mediating my learning of language teaching, and later as the tools of my profession, materials have been pivotal artefacts, whose presence or indeed absence indicated not only how language teaching occurred but also issues

concomitant with the micro and macro social, political, and economic circumstances where they were used (or not). Yet, despite their relevance in all these processes, *how* I came to know what I knew about language teaching materials prior to doing this PhD remains very much a question to me. Without being explicitly taught about language teaching materials in my teacher education, I can only think of constructing the knowledge and developing skills related to materials design incidentally along my *pedagogía en inglés* course and later during my practice of ELT.

1.2 Studying the Learning of Materials Design

My personal experience above seems to epitomise David Block's (1991:211; see also Canniveng and Martinez, 2003) almost 30-year old formulation that in the absence of literature about materials and English language teacher education courses emphasising the learning of materials development, 'the assumption [seemed] to be that materials selection, adaptation, and design, [would] take care of themselves'. The many episodes I described above in my roles as a language learner, student-teacher, teacher of English, and teacher educator reflect the centrality of materials in language teaching and learning. I believe that many teachers share similar trajectories as mine and would feel that my brief narrative reflects at least to some extent their own.

This raises the question of how this important craft is learnt. While there has been a dramatic increase of publications about materials since Block's (1991) formulation, the direct instruction of materials *analysis*, *use* and *design* still remains largely an elusive component in initial teacher education. Then, the assumption, for me, is not only that the processes abovementioned will take care of themselves along a teachers' studies and careers, but also that teachers will almost necessarily have to rely on other people's teaching artefacts given the prominence of teaching materials in ELT. Given the ubiquity of textbooks in ELT (Richards, 2014), a view like this is extremely problematic as it risks construing teachers as professionals who do not have agency in the many pedagogical decisions involved in materials analysis, use and design, and are instead subordinated to pedagogical decisions made by textbook writers.

Thus, this study focuses on learning to design materials and brings together two fields of applied linguistics. On the one hand, the study is concerned with language teaching materials. The scholarly advances made in this field since the mid-90's have focused on ELT materials as curricular and cultural artefacts, promoting their principled development and examination of cultural/ideological content correspondingly (Gray, 2016). On the other hand, this study is focused on teacher learning, which takes me to the field of teacher education, and the current thinking that teacher learning is situated in social, cultural and historical contexts and distributed amongst activities, tools and individuals (Johnson, 2009). However, what is known about the intersection of the learning of teaching and language materials remains very much understudied.

In an attempt to bridge the gap between language teaching materials and English language teacher education, in this thesis I explore how a group of preservice teachers of English learn to design language teaching materials towards the end of their *pedagogía en inglés* programme at a university in the south of Chile. The study came to being from noticing the lack of emphasis given to materials in English teacher education in Chile – in spite of their centrality in the life of English teachers – and my taking on board the sociocultural framework of Activity Theory, which I used to guide the design of the study and research questions. Preservice teachers, teacher educators and schoolteachers collaborated in the study. A number of official documents and teaching materials were collected as part of the research too. I analysed the data collected and provided by the participants through thematic analysis and using the qualitative data analysis software NVivo.

The study is oriented by the following overarching question:

- How do preservice teachers of English in Chile learn to design language teaching materials?

Based on key concepts of Activity Theory that are used to construe cognitive development as a socially mediated activity and that I will elaborate in detail in Chapter 4, I formulated the following questions to construe the learning of materials design by Chilean preservice teachers:

1. What systemic contradictions emerge when the PSTs design their own language teaching materials?
2. What conceptual tools mediate the PSTs' designing of materials?
3. What contextual elements of the school and university settings mediate the development of conceptual tools used by the PSTs to design materials, and how?

1.3 Outline of the thesis

This thesis consists of 10 chapters that explore the process of learning to design materials by a group of Chilean preservice teachers in the final year of their teacher education. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 describes the broader social, cultural and historical educational context in which the study took place. I will focus on how the education of teachers in Chile has been articulated since its origins to the present, paying special attention to the education of teachers of English. Then, I discuss the broad ELT situation and the current official efforts to promote the learning of English in Chile. I finish the chapter discussing the role of language teaching materials in teacher education in Chile, and problematising its current state of affairs.

Chapter 3 offers a critical discussion of the literature relevant to this study. I will discuss the relatively recent scholarly advances in language teaching materials and teacher education. While emphasising that the progress made in the former area has not significantly informed the latter, I will examine the current conceptualisation of teacher learning as a sociocultural activity, emphasising the roles of teachers in materials development. The chapter finishes with a discussion about Activity Theory as the organisational and analytical framework shaping this research and the key concepts used to construe the process of learning to design materials.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology used in the study. It describes and justifies the selection of an embedded case study. It then describes the settings, and participants of the study, followed by a description of the research methods, analytical processes adopted, process of transcription, and ethical considerations.

Chapters 5-8 are the backbone of this thesis. Here I present the findings, focusing on the systemic contradictions moulding the way in which the preservice teachers learn to design materials, such as contradictions between the participants' beliefs; between the artefacts used at the university to teach them language teaching and the communicative practice of ELT; between the school textbooks and the preservice teachers' agency; and between the preservice teachers beliefs and the motive of ELT in Chile. In each of these chapters I will explore the conceptual tools used by the preservice teachers in their designing of materials, namely, the *receptive turn*, the *dumbing down*, *textbook dependency*, and the *subordination of thematic content*. I finish each of these chapters illustrating and discussing the contextual elements of the schools where they were doing their practicum and the university where the preservice teachers were doing their teacher education course that promoted the development of the conceptual tools mentioned above.

Chapter 9 offers a discussion of the relevance of my findings to what we know about materials design and teacher education. I do so by answering the research questions while highlighting the links between the processes taken up by the participants when designing their materials, and the literature about teaching materials and teacher education that can serve to explain the actions and comments presented by the participants.

Finally, in Chapter 10, I recapitulate the findings of my study. I also discuss the limitations and implications of my research, and offer suggestions for further study.

Chapter 2 The Chilean Context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter takes the reader on a journey through the overall teacher education and ELT landscapes in Chile. To do so, I first describe the emergence of teacher education in the country focusing on its two historically and institutionally relevant forms, namely, the Normal schools aimed at training primary school teachers, and the *Instituto Pedagógico* aimed at educating secondary school teachers. I then discuss the emergence of English language teacher education and the current challenges and attempts of standardisation within which it is framed. Following this, I describe ELT in Chile, its historical origins and the current institutional efforts that characterise it.

The last section of this chapter describes and discusses the language materials scenario in English teacher education in Chile, starting with the role of textbooks in this activity, the recommendations by the Mineduc for introducing the study of teaching materials in preservice teacher education, and the current overall lack of emphasis on the development of knowledge and skills relevant to materials that motivated this study.

2.2. Teacher Education in Chile

2.2.1 The Normal Schools

The first forms of institutionalised teacher education in Chile date back to the 1840's, when, inspired by the model of the French '*École Normale*', the *Escuela Normal de Preceptores* (Normal School of Preceptors) was created to train male teachers in Chile's capital, Santiago (Ávalos, 2003). Following the same structural model, in 1852, under the direction of the *Monjas del Sagrado Corazon de Jesús* (Nuns of the Sacred Heart of Jesus), the first normal school for women was created (Cox and Gysling, 1990). These schools resembled upper primary schools. In fact, as Rojas (1856, cited in Nuñez, 2007:152) wrote, the new 'preceptors' barely knew how to read and write. Yet, the creation of both of these schools reflected an early concern

for the professionalisation of those in charge of teaching. For more than a century, normal schools housed the training of primary school teachers in Chile.

Ávalos (2003) notes that these schools grew steadily along the following decades, and that towards the end of the 19th century, the Chilean state developed an interest in German pedagogical ideas to improve the content and delivery of teaching as well as to improve teacher education. This resulted in hiring a group of German teachers who promoted a reform of the study of teaching in the Normal schools, broadly based on Herbartian pedagogy (Ávalos, 2003), which advocated for the teaching of ideas in discrete steps. This work consolidated the normal system in Chile, which became a five-year teacher education course after primary school, with a focus on cultural and pedagogical studies and included free boarding for student-teachers who were selected from amongst the best students of their primary schools (Nuñez, 2007). To enter one of these schools, candidates had to go through an extremely rigorous examination process (Ávalos, 2003). Cox and Gysling (1990) argue that these exceptionally selective processes of admission reflect the highly distinctive status given to being a teacher who graduated from the Normal school during the last century.

The Normal schools continued growing in number and by the first half of the 20th century, nine of them had been funded across the country, being classified as rural and urban (those in Santiago and outside Santiago correspondingly; Ávalos, 2003). Rural and urban schools required different and specified curriculum and contents, and the teacher educators had to be trained accordingly (Ávalos, 2003). During this time, Normal schools also equated their education to that of secondary education (which was mostly reserved for a privileged few) and included research components in addition to activities concomitant with the education of teacher educators. Ávalos (2003) also notes that Normal schools, as well as any private institution that trained teachers, remained under the complete control of the Chilean state and that they became an important factor promoting social movement for prospective teachers from low socioeconomic levels.

In 1967, the Normal schools were reformed and required students to have finished secondary education themselves, thus transforming into a tertiary education activity the education given in Normal schools. The courses, which took

three years, started offering disciplinary subjects in sciences and humanities. This reform gave the Normal schools a strong psychological, sociological, evaluation, and counselling aspect and involved modernising the schools in five areas:

- A. further education for teachers;
- B. research and development of teaching materials for primary education for teachers and student-teachers;
- C. preparation of technical material for the comprehension, development and evaluation of primary teacher education;
- D. training for personnel in leadership positions;
- E. construction of new normal schools.

The overthrowing of Salvador Allende's socialist government by Augusto Pinochet's coup d'état in 1973 had important implications for teacher education at the Normal schools. Even though this was not immediately evident, in 1988, towards the end of Pinochet's regime, the Normal schools were closed for political and economic reasons. The students who were enrolled in the Normal schools were transferred to the closest universities, which had already been training secondary school teachers, and had been taken over by the military junta (Nuñez, 2002). This authoritarian move meant that the education of primary and secondary school teachers was placed under the same institutional body.

2.2.2 The Instituto Pedagógico

The same German teacher educators who had reformed the Normal schools towards the end of the 19th century as mentioned above, were in charge of creating secondary school teacher education programmes. This is how in 1889, the *Instituto Pedagógico* (Institute of Pedagogy) of the University of Chile was created as part of its *Facultad de Filosofía y Humanidades* (Faculty of Philosophy and Humanities) to train secondary school teachers. For Ávalos (2003), creating the *Instituto Pedagógico* as part of the national university highlights the level and quality attributed to and expected of secondary teacher education. In fact, Nuñez (2007) writes that this view evidenced an important concern by the Chilean state of the time for providing a rich

academic and pedagogic education to the secondary school teachers of the country. This, however, also separated secondary and primary teacher education and created a historical social-status gap between them.

During the first half of the 20th century, the *Instituto Pedagógico* continued educating secondary teachers, also known as '*profesores de Estado*' (State teachers; Nuñez, 2017), in one or two subjects for four or five years in programmes known as *pedagogías* (teacher education programmes), gaining an increasing reputation with some graduates becoming renowned scholars in the fields of philosophy, literature and history (e.g. Nobel Prize winner Pablo Neruda or former Chilean president Pedro Aguirre Cerda). During the 40's, newly-founded universities across the country (later known as traditional universities or CRUCH universities¹) were created as branches of the University of Chile and the Pontifical Catholic University or as independent universities such as the Universidad de Concepción. These universities offered *pedagogía* courses following the model established by the *Instituto Pedagógico* in which the disciplinary content (e.g. Mathematics, Spanish, English, History) was taught in tandem with education and pedagogy modules (Ávalos, 2003). With a few tensions, such as the long long-standing dichotomy between disciplinary content and educational aspects (Ávalos, 2003), the *Instituto Pedagógico* and the newly formed higher-education institutions continued to educate secondary teachers of different disciplines without major obstacles until 1973, when, following the coup d'état led by Pinochet, the military took over the eight existing universities in Chile carrying out a political and ideological cleansing of teachers, particularly in programmes or faculties of social sciences and education (Nuñez, 2002). As Cox and Gysling (1990) write, an important modification to the *pedagogías* offered by state universities during Pinochet's regime was to highlight the disciplinary subjects at the expense of their pedagogical focus (particularly in subjects such as philosophy and sociology). The Catholic universities, on the other hand, kept more autonomy and did not notably change their course structures, possibly due to their links with the Catholic church, whose links with regime granted them more educational autonomy.

¹ Traditional universities in Chile are also known as CRUCH universities, which stands for Consejo de Rectores de Universidades Chilenas (Council of Principals of Chilean Universities).

However, all teacher education courses were severely affected by Pinochet's reforms in tertiary education. For example, there was a significant reduction of the funding allocated to the universities, and the until then free-of-charge universities had to self-finance and charge a universal fee to their students (Nuñez, 2002). In addition, the deregulatory educational reforms imposed by the junta meant that higher education institutions could be founded with relative ease, which resulted in the creation of a number of private universities and institutes, which then had to compete in the market with the traditional universities (those created before 1980; Ávalos, 2003).

However, the most detrimental reform affecting teacher education in the 1980's was a decree deeming *pedagogías* as 'non university', relocating them in *Academias Superiores* or *Institutos Profesionales* (Higher Academies and Professional Institutes correspondingly; Nuñez, 2002). The most symbolic change here was the transformation of the one-century old *Instituto Pedagógico* of the Universidad de Chile into the *Higher Academy of Pedagogical Sciences* (now known as the *Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación* – Metropolitan University of Educational Sciences). This transformation legitimised a conceptualisation of teacher education as a technical activity rather than professional one (Nuñez, 2007). The transfer of teacher education programmes to academies and institutes meant lowering the quality of education given to teachers and also the social status of the teaching profession. For Ávalos (2003) this devaluation was clearly reflected in a lowering of the salaries of teachers, which affected the interest of secondary students in pursuing a teaching degree. This effect can still be seen today in the low social value attributed to studying *pedagogía* in Chile (see Barahona, 2016).

2.2.3 Towards a re-professionalisation of teachers

Despite the damage caused by the junta to the teaching profession through lowering its status to a technical activity, before the end of Pinochet's regime in 1990, the military listed teacher education programmes amongst the higher education courses requiring a *licenciatura* (bachelor's degree). This meant that, again, these courses had to be offered by universities as these were the only higher education institutions allowed to grant a *licenciatura* in the country (Ávalos, 2003). Notwithstanding this

change, the number of student-teachers did not vary significantly in the 1990's with about twenty-five thousand of them enrolled across the country (Cox, Meckes and Bascope, 2010). However, towards the end of the century, and more dramatically in 2002, the enrolment in teacher education programmes went beyond ninety thousand (Cox et al., 2010).

This explosion of teacher education courses occurred mainly under the auspices of the newly and easily-founded private universities and to a lesser extent by traditional universities (Cox et al., 2010). Ávalos (2003) notes that the courses took many forms such as distance or blended programmes and were offered at the new branches of private universities across the country, which had very little capacity to provide quality teacher education (e.g. lack of libraries, lack of qualified teacher educators, etc.). Moreover, the students applying to *pedagogía* through the PSU – *Prueba de Selección Universitaria* (university admission test), a standardised test applied each year to students finishing their secondary education to pursue a university degree, had the lowest scores amongst all the other courses, which clearly reflected the social and academic devaluation of the teaching profession (Ávalos, 2014). Cabezas and Claro (2011) point out that this situation is worse in private universities, some of which do not even require a minimum score in the PSU to admit prospective teachers into their programmes.

Having noticed the issues emerging from this unprecedented growth, a number of measures to re-professionalise teacher education were taken. One of these was the introduction of voluntary accreditation for the *pedagogías* in 2003, and to put an end to the online programmes in 2005 (Ávalos, 2014), which were of little effect at the time. As Cox et al. (2010) note, in private universities, the number of students enrolling in secondary teacher education increased in 812.6%, and 940% correspondingly between 2000 and 2008, whilst in the same courses in traditional universities the number of preservice teachers increased in 174.4% for primary and 74.7% for secondary. For Cox et al. (2010) the overall increase of preservice teachers was not only the result of an unregulated offer of teacher education courses since 2002 following from the spontaneous emergence of private universities in the previous decade, but also a result of the expansion of the whole of the educational system that required more teachers to cope with the '*jornada escolar completa*'

(full-time school day) of the 1998 educational reform, which gradually increased up by one third the school-based time of pupils, going from 3.6 to 5.3 million hours a year.

Today, following international trends and neoliberal reforms in education – the same neoliberal trends that deregulated higher education in the first place – a series of educational policies have been designed to ensure the quality of teacher education and also to hold educational institutions accountable to the state, placing special emphasis on policies of support, regulation, tokens and control (Ávalos, 2014). Three of these are particularly relevant for preservice teacher education. The first is the obligatory accreditation of the *pedagogías* since 2006. In fact, as Nuñez (2007) writes, the only two university programmes requiring obligatory accreditation from the Chilean state are medicine and *pedagogía*. This can be said to reflect the strategic role given to education in the (economic) development of country. Accreditation is also a condition for the universities to receive funding from the state (Domínguez and Meckes, 2011), therefore it is a high-stakes issue in higher education.

The second measure was the creation of teacher education standards. In 2001, the Mineduc published the *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* (Framework for Good Teaching), which is an early form of standardisation of teacher education comprising a set of criteria and indicators of the knowledge and professional competencies that teachers should demonstrate in their practice of teaching (Mineduc, 2001; see section 2.3.2). Concomitant with this framework, and possibly also related to the unprecedented school-student demonstrations demanding a better education in 2006 and 2011, the Mineduc has more recently proposed a series of standards which are specific of each subject *pedagogía*. In 2012 and 2014, the Mineduc released the *Estándares Orientadores para Carreras de Pedagogía en Educación Media* (Guiding Standards for Secondary Teacher Education Programmes) outlining their disciplinary and pedagogical content, and to a lesser extent, the teaching methodology of each subject (Mineduc, 2012a, 2014). Whilst these standards are not obligatory, the universities offering *pedagogías* tend to comply with them due to the high stakes associated with accreditation mentioned above.

Finally, the last measure to ensure/control the quality and professionalism of teachers has been the design and implementation of standardised tests. In 2008, Mineduc designed and implemented the *Prueba INICIA* (INICIA Test), an exam aimed at controlling the quality of those preservice teachers finishing the different *pedagogía* courses, and who voluntarily offered to take it. Because the INICIA test started to be implemented before the *Estándares Orientadores* were published, the initial stage of the test is said to lack validity (Ávalos, 2014), as its contents did not necessarily reflect the contents taught in the *pedagogía* courses. However, very recently, the Mineduc transformed the INICIA test into the ENDFID test (*Evaluación Nacional Diagóstica de la Formación Inicial Docente* – National Diagnostic Test of Initial Teacher Education). This test is designed to be applied twice: at the beginning of the programme, and during its final year. Its implementation started in 2018 for those preservice teachers starting their *pedagogía* programme and its second phase has not been implemented yet as teacher education programmes typically last between four and five years. Along the lines of its precursor, the ENFID Test is also based on the *Estándares Orientadores*. The test has now been made an obligatory requirement for all the preservice teachers throughout the country. This means that if the preservice teachers do not take it, they will not be granted a teaching qualification by the university upon completion of their studies (Mineduc, 2019a).

2.3 *Pedagogía en inglés*

The first institutional form of English language teacher education, generally known in Chile as *pedagogía en inglés*, emerged within the context of the *Instituto Pedagógico* described in section 2.2.2. *Pedagogía en inglés* was one of the first secondary *pedagogías* offered in the country by the *Instituto Pedagógico* at its opening in 1889 with other teacher education courses such as Spanish and Latin or Mathematics (Cox and Gysling, 1990). In line with the *pedagogías*, the English teacher education course was a three to four year programme comprising disciplinary subjects associated with English and pedagogical and education subjects. The curricular features of *pedagogía en inglés* did not change significantly during the 20th century. Díaz *et al.* (2013) note that these programmes in Chile have been traditionally defined by encyclopedism and behaviourism and that only with the advent of Communicative Language

Teaching (henceforth CLT) in the 70's, which saw a new conceptualisation of the teaching of English, did some changes start to be seen in the education that the teachers of English in Chile would be exposed to, but only towards the end of the 90's as a result of the 1998's educational reform.

Martin and Rosas-Maldonado (2019) have recently written that, overall, the typical structure of these courses is a series of modules distributed along four-five years. During this period, a programme includes general education modules (e.g. education foundations, psychology, curriculum design, etc.), a strong English and linguistics component (e.g. English, discourse analysis, phonetics/phonology, etc.), language teaching components (e.g. teaching methods), and a number of school-based experiences with observations at the early stages of the programme and a full-time school placement in the final year or semester.

These school experiences have in themselves been a notable change. They encompass the gradual increase in opportunities to go to schools during the course, sometimes starting as early as year two of the programme (e.g. Schuster, Tagle and Jara, 2010), and are typically referred to as '*prácticas progresivas*' (progressive practicum). The final practicum, which can last half or a whole year is a full-time school placement usually called *internado* or *práctica* (internship or practicum). Barahona (2016) notes that the student-teachers and teacher educators deem these experiences extremely beneficial. During the *práctica*, preservice teachers are usually required to perform the role of full-time teachers for at least one group of students. These school experiences are sometimes conducted in tandem with discussion seminars where the preservice teachers reflect on their observation of the practice of ELT of schoolteachers as well as their own. According to Tagle (2011) these seminars have helped teacher educators bridge the long existing gap between theory and practice in the education of teachers in Chile. However, whilst the advances mentioned here are true of some programmes, a considerable number of *pedagogías en inglés* are not designed in that fashion (Abrahams and Farias, 2010; Martin, 2016). On the whole, Barahona (2016) argues that Chilean English language teacher education programmes fall in Wallace's (1991) Applied Science model, that is, the study of theory and research in applied linguistics and language teaching and their later application into classroom contexts (see Chapter 3). In other words, it

could be said that the increasing number of *prácticas* has not meant a reconceptualisation of teacher learning, or a recalibration of the purpose of such experiences.

2.3.1 Issues in *Pedagogía en inglés*

A number of issues have been documented by Chilean scholars in the education of teachers of English, some of which also reflect issues affecting the study of teaching generally. For example, the overall expansion in one third of the teaching hours in public schools of the educational reform of 1998 (Domínguez and Meckes, 2011) meant an increase in the number of hours of obligatory English language instruction in public schools. As a result, there was a dramatic emergence of *pedagogía en inglés* programmes across the country in state universities, but overwhelmingly more so in private ones, aiming to fill the vacancies generated in schools. Private universities, as mentioned earlier, were not subject to any type of state regulation in the early 2000's (Ávalos, 2014), which resulted in an unprecedented number of *pedagogía en inglés* programmes of an overall impoverished quality (Abrahams and Farías, 2010).

In effect, Abrahams and Silva (2017) have recently argued that Chilean universities have to improve their teacher education courses dramatically. Some of the areas for improvement were previously reported by Abrahams and Farias (2010), who had surveyed six programmes, and found a number of issues affecting all of them. Some of these issues were a disconnection between the modules associated with English linguistics and those relevant to pedagogy; a lack of language proficiency standards that student-teachers should achieve; an overall low language proficiency of the preservice teachers; very inflexible course structures; and outdated teacher educators, some of whom were not committed to educating teachers. Part of these findings have been more recently confirmed by Barahona (2016), who documented the factors affecting a group of preservice teachers' identity construction as teachers of English, including a number of tensions between teacher educators, schoolteachers, the *pedagogía en inglés* curriculum, university and schools.

A number of issues affecting the entry of preservice teachers to *pedagogía en inglés* have been reported, too. For example, Barahona (2016) points out that

preservice teachers usually have very low scores in the *PSU* when they enrol in teacher education courses at traditional universities. In fact, Barahona (2016) noted that the actual score is on average 600 (out of a maximum of 850), which is aggravated in private universities, where sometimes no minimum is required. In addition to this, Barahona (2016) argues that the preservice teachers' proficiency in English at the onset of the programmes is very low and often almost non-existent since *pedagogías en inglés* do not require a specified level of English to apply to the programme. Examinations aside, varying personal reasons underpin the preservice teachers' decision to enrol in *pedagogía en inglés*. Ormeño (2009), for example, notes that whilst some preservice teachers enrol in the programme because they strongly believe in the social role of education and teachers, many of them also do it for reasons not directly associated with education or teaching, such as pressure from their parents, benefits associated with studying *pedagogía* (e.g. government scholarships), or because it is their second best choice. Barahona (2016) adds to this list the preservice teachers' valid interest in learning English, but not in teaching it.

2.3.2 Standardising *Pedagogía en inglés*

As mentioned earlier, in the interest of professionalising the *pedagogías* and improving teaching in the public sector, the Mineduc has outlined a series of standards for teacher education. In 2001, under the name of *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* (Framework for Good Teaching), the national authorities offered the first guidelines for the education of teachers of all subjects, from primary to secondary, positing an array of criteria and indicators that teachers should demonstrate upon completing their programmes. The document comprises the professionalism of teachers in four *facetas* (domains) and an extensive list of indicators of such *facetas*. The *facetas* are:

Table 2. 1 Domains of the Framework for Good Teaching

<i>Faceta A</i>	Preparation of teaching
<i>Faceta B</i>	Creation of an appropriate learning environment
<i>Faceta C</i>	Teaching for the learning of all students
<i>Faceta D</i>	Professional responsibilities

Source: Mineduc, 2001; my translation.

Each of these domains refers to the different aspects involved in the full cycle of teaching (Mineduc, 2001). For example, *Faceta A* emphasises the organisation of teaching based on pedagogical competencies and solid knowledge of the learners and knowledge of the subject to be taught. *Faceta B* highlights the development of relationships between teachers and students, and amongst students, that promote learning. *Faceta C* relates to the professional ability of the teacher to create learning situations that are interesting for the learners and that promote inquiry, interaction and the socialisation of knowledge. *Faceta D* acknowledges that a teacher's work goes beyond the classroom and involves a reflective relationship with their colleagues, the school, the community, and the educational system (Mineduc, 2001).

More than a decade later, Mineduc designed the specific *Estándares Orientadores para Carreras de Pedagogía en Inglés* (Guiding Standards for English Language Teaching Programmes; Mineduc, 2014). These specific guidelines state the knowledge base and fundamental skills necessary for the effective practice of ELT in Chile. These are spread across ten standards detailing the competencies required to teach English (see Table 2.2 below). As stated in the document, while the standards were designed with consideration of the vast diversity of *pedagogía en inglés* programmes in the country, the universities are expected to use them as criteria to assess their preservice teachers before they become teachers in the public system (Mineduc, 2014).

Abrahams and Silva (2017) have recently argued that the standards should recalibrate the curriculum of *pedagogía en inglés* programmes in Chile and that Mineduc should set a deadline for the universities to adjust to these standards on the assumption that meeting them will be reflected in an improved learning of

English by the learners. Of course, the effects of these standards are still not known since the student-teachers of the first programmes following the standards have only recently started to graduate. With the standards for *pedagogía en inglés*, which were published only in 2014, no research has yet documented the effects of such guidelines in the training of teachers of English.

Table 2. 2 Guiding Standards for *Pedagogía en inglés*.

The future teacher...

1. ...knows the constitutive elements of the English language;
2. ...understands the importance of developing receptive skills in students;
3. ...understands the importance of developing productive skills in students;
4. ...understands the importance of developing communicative skills in students;
5. ...knows the relevance of assessment for learning;
6. ...communicates in English fluently and accurately at C1 level;
7. ...masters theories of second language learning to select and apply the most effective teaching approaches;
8. ...designs, selects or adapts physical and virtual resources to promote learning;
9. ...comprehends the diversity of his/her own culture and those which are accessed by the English language, and;
10. ... recognizes the importance of teacher development by updating his/her knowledge and reflecting on his/her own teaching.

Source: Mineduc, 2014; my translation.

In summary, the education of teachers of English in Chile has a long history. It dates back to the origins of the institutionalised education of secondary school teachers in the country, and has reflected the relevant social, political and economic circumstances of Chilean history.

In the next section I describe and discuss the broader ELT context, its origins and the current state of affairs within which the education of teachers of English has taken place.

2.4 English Language Teaching in Chile

The first forms of ELT in Chile date back to the 19th century and the informal presence of the British Empire in the port of Valparaiso. This informal presence of the empire was an English-speaking community of about 5,000 people who took an

important role in the economic activity of the port. In effect, as Mayo (1981) argued, by 1870 British ships brought into Chile about 45% of the country's import while taking to Britain about 60% of the local produce. The presence of the English-speaking community was very strong. In fact, Barahona (2016) observes that noticeboards advertising English shoemakers, tailors, and inn-keepers, amongst others, notably decorated Valparaíso's linguistic landscape of the time. There are also anecdotes of the time that other foreigners thought Valparaíso was another British colony (Mayo, 1981). Valparaíso still boasts an important English heritage reflected in its architecture, the Anglican church, names of sports clubs, names of streets, schools, etc. The British presence together with a national post-independence desire of leaving behind the Spanish domain and reaching an 'emancipation of the mind', which ironically put an interest in the English and French cultures (Larraín, 2001), can be said to have provided the foundations for the early developments of ELT in the country.

By 1857, Cruz (2002) argues, the five years of public secondary education at the '*Liceos*²' (secondary schools) focused on the study of arithmetic, religion, history, modern languages and literature. In terms of language learning, all the students had to study two years of French. Those students who did courses related to commerce had to study English for a similar two-year period (Cruz, 2002), possibly owing to the British presence in Valparaíso described above.

The teaching of foreign modern languages at the time sparked an important debate in which the teaching of obligatory 'dead' Latin was contested by a more pragmatic view of language teaching. In 1857 Gregorio Víctor Amunátegui, a renowned philologist of the University of Chile, proposed removing the obligatory status of Latin in secondary education and replacing it with European languages such as English, German and French (Vivanco, 2016). To this end, Amunátegui argued that the study of Latin did not bring much benefit to its learners nor the country (in addition to being reminiscent of the Spanish empire), and highlighted the affordances provided by the modern languages to a young and growing nation, such

² Liceo in Chile is the common term used to refer to secondary education, normally of a public nature.

as having access to the scientific, technological and intellectual knowledge of the modern societies of the time (Cruz, 2002).

Since the learning of foreign languages took place at the *liceos*, which were mostly aimed at giving education to a privileged few, the learning of English has been traditionally associated with the elite. In fact, this condition, as some have argued (e.g. Ormeño, 2009; Barahona, 2016), has remained so even up to the present. However, the circumstances under which learning English takes place today is far from the public *liceos* of more than a century ago. Today the learning of English largely takes place in the private sector despite the country's efforts made since the mid-90's to promote its learning in the public educational system (Abrahams and Silva, 2017). Below I describe the current ELT landscape.

2.4.1 ELT in Chile today

The advent of democracy in Chile in 1990 brought about a number of reforms aimed at transforming the social fabric of the nation. In 1998, an important educational reform was set to change the educational system through a reconceptualisation of the purpose of education, the manner of its provision, and the investment of an important amount of resources.

Concomitant with this educational reform, the different democratic governments have shown an important interest in the promotion of ELT throughout the country. In fact, the reform introduced specific teaching objectives for the teaching of English in primary and secondary education, further creating an array of mechanisms aimed at fostering the learning of English by Chilean students such as making English the only obligatory foreign language, the adoption of achievement standards in line with international guidelines, the creation of special programmes for teacher development, and classroom support. This promotion of ELT in Chile, as Díaz-Maggioli (2017) notes, has also been funded by international agencies with vested interests in the dissemination of English and its related industries internationally.

For Matear (2008) this phenomenon is underpinned by a number of different yet interrelated reasons in Chile. She notes that the economic globalisation and penetration of transnational companies into Chilean territory in the last decades

have brought with them the use of English as a language of commercial exchange. This phenomenon was accompanied by an expansion of the Chilean economy to international markets in which English has become the lingua franca. Matear (2008) also observes that in countries marked by social and economic inequalities, such as Chile, the teaching of English to all students is frequently (and sometimes wrongfully) associated with better employment opportunities and consequently social mobility. In extending English to the core curriculum, there is a concrete attempt to give all Chilean learners something that has been historically the privilege of a few. Finally, Matear (2008) also pinpoints that in the increasingly knowledge-based societies, English language competence as well as information technologies (ITs) have become new forms of literacy, whose lack can hinder access to scientific and technological knowledge. For Glas (2008), entrenched in these reasons is a strong economic ideology which construes education as a contribution to economic growth of the nation.

2.4.1.1 *The ELT Curriculum*

The Chilean ELT curriculum has changed dramatically since its modification in 1998. The main characteristics of the curriculum of the time were the emphasis on the development of receptive skills, rather than speaking and writing, the adoption of CLT as a methodological approach (although CLT had previously featured in ministerial recommendations), and the incorporation of group work (McKay, 2003). In fact, as reported by McKay (2003), 40% of instruction had to be devoted to listening, another 40% to reading, and the remaining 20% was expected to be given to speaking and writing. The rationale underpinning this distribution was the notion that the development of receptive skills would provide access to the growing amount of scientific and technological information available in English (McKay, 2003) – a similar rationale to that underpinning the early conceptualisations of ELT in the 19th century mentioned above.

The situation has changed considerably since the end of the 20th century. As a result of more recent educational reforms since 2009, the broad aim of ELT in Chile is that, through placing equal emphasis on the development of all four communicative skills, learners can use English and participate in diverse communicative situations,

largely to develop new knowledge and respond to the global communicative demands (Mineduc, 2012b).

The emphasis placed on the learning of English described above has meant that compulsory English language instruction in Chile starts in Year Five of primary education (out of a total of eight years), and finishes in Year Four of secondary education (out of four years), totalling eight years of English, which amounts to no less than 684 hours (Abrahams and Silva, 2017). In addition to this, many public and private schools today start teaching English as early as Year One of primary, or even at some point during the two years of pre-school.

An important characteristic of the new curriculum is that it outlines the levels of English competence expected from the learners. Broadly based on the international guidelines used to measure the level of achievement of language learners in Europe known as CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference; Council of Europe, 2001), the levels expected from all Chilean students are A2 at the end of primary education (year 8), and B1 by the end of secondary education (year 4) (Mineduc, 2012b).

The Chilean ELT curriculum is stated in two documents, namely, *Bases Curriculares* and *Programas de Estudio* (Curricular Bases and Study Programmes correspondingly). The *Bases Curriculares* outline the learning outcomes (henceforth LO) that all Chilean students should achieve, therefore the content of this document is compulsory for all schools. The *Bases Curriculares* of English organise the LOs according to the linguistic skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. This organisation is repeated in each school level of the English curriculum from Year Five in primary education to Year Two of secondary education (when I conducted the study, years Three and Four of secondary education were still based on the 1998 education reform and were organised in a document called *Planes y Programas* – Plans and Programmes). The *Bases Curriculares* do not provide specific methodologic guidelines; they are essentially a national framework of learning expectations.

The *Programas de Estudio*, on the other hand, are a suggestion provided by Mineduc of how the knowledge, skills, and attitudes stated in the *Bases Curriculares* through the LOs can be organised and met through a syllabus for each level. Schools are free to not use the *Programas de Estudio* and design their own provided that

they comply with the *Bases Curriculares*. Thus, the *Programas de Estudio* are an optional organisation of the LOs into units that cover the school year. Teachers are expected to adapt this document in order to meet the realities of their learners and schools. Each *Programa de Estudio* provides methodological guidelines, activities, and assessment suggestions, which teachers can use, modify or replace at their own discretion. The activities suggested are accompanied by suggestions of teaching resources and bibliography for both teachers and learners.

Table 2. 3 Example of distribution of Learning Outcomes across the *Programa de Estudio* of Year Five.

<p>LO1 Listening and demonstrating comprehension of explicit information in authentic and simple non-literary (expository texts, dialogues) and literary (rhymes, songs, tales) texts that are clearly stated, contain word repetition and visual and gestural aid, and that are related to language functions of the level and the following topics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • About the immediate context of the learners, such as personal experiences and information about events and aspects of their context and country; • About other school subjects, such as a balanced and varied diet (Natural Sciences), places and climate (Geography); • About topical and global issues, such as foreign culture and technological advances (social networks, mass media). 			
Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
About daily life: school and family	About daily life: the house	About daily life: food	About daily life: clothes and climate

Source: Mineduc, 2013:52; my translation.

A significant part of the *Programas de Estudio* specifies the language teaching methods as falling under the general rubric of the communicative approach (Mineduc, 2012b). The teaching methods recommended by Mineduc (2012b) are the *Natural Approach*, which highlights the extensive and meaningful exposure to English, *Cooperative Language Learning*, which emphasises interaction amongst the learners, *Content Based Instruction*, which posits that language learning occurs when topics are meaningful, contextualised, and motivating, and *Task-Based Language*

Teaching, which postulates the use of meaningful communicative tasks to promote language learning. In addition, the document stresses the development of reading comprehension through non-literary texts in order to expose the learners to uses of English associated with different topics and communicative situations, and literary texts to expose the learners to language that is creative, original, and that stimulates the learners' development of critical thinking in the case of the latter (Mineduc, 2012b).

In turn, the *Programas de Estudios* are incarnated in the school textbooks offered by Mineduc, which is also a suggested material rather than a compulsory one. Again, using Year Five as an example, the topics covered in each of the units of the *Programa de Estudio* shown in Table 2.3 are consistent with the units of the coursebooks offered for that level, which are called: Unit 1: '*My life*', Unit 2 '*We live here*', Unit 3 '*Delicious*', and Unit 4 '*Hot and Cold*' (Mineduc, 2016a). In my experience teaching in the public school system in Chile, the schools adopting the *Programas de Estudio* and/or the textbook tend to adhere systematically to both.

2.4.1.2 *Standardised Testing*

Reflecting the control and accountability nature of the educational reforms implemented since the 90's, standardised testing of English has emerged as a new educational practice in Chile, although not implemented consistently. The first standardised examination occurred in 2004, when the Mineduc contracted the University of Cambridge ESOL examinations to develop a test for Year Eight of primary education and Year Four of secondary education, which was applied in 299 schools, whose students were expected to score at the A1 level or 'Breakthrough'. Unfortunately, the results were extremely low and two new levels had to be created under A1, Lower Breakthrough and Pre Breakthrough (Matear, 2008). Four years later, the same exam was administered to the same students who were now finishing secondary education, with only scant improvement (Abrahams and Silva, 2017).

In 2010, the Mineduc decided to apply an English test through a Mineduc unit in charge of measuring the quality of education, called SIMCE. SIMCE, which stands for *Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Enseñanza* (System for the Measurement

of Quality in Education) has traditionally measured the performance of students in public and private schools in other subjects such as Spanish or Mathematics. The test used was the *Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) Bridge*, whose results revealed that only 11% of about 220,000 learners of Year Three of secondary achieved a B1. In 2012, SIMCE was implemented again, this time using the *Cambridge Key English Test (KET)*. Only 18% of the students achieved the skills expected of the levels A2 and B1 (Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación, 2012). Abrahams and Silva (2017) note that not a single public school was amongst those scoring well in the test. Overall, this exam confirmed the abysmal gap between public and private education and highlighted the precariousness of ELT in Chile.

2.4.1.3 Programa Inglés Abre Puertas

In 2004, a national programme called *Inglés Abre Puertas* (English Opens Doors – henceforth PIAP) was established by Mineduc as a way of improving the proficiency of English of Chilean students in all compulsory levels. The programme involved the design of national standards for the learning of English, continuous professional development (CPD) for practicing teachers, and various forms of classroom support (Mineduc, 2019b).

For Matear (2008) the results of the first test implemented in 2004, where an important correlation was observed between the students' performance and the teachers' level of study, led the PIAP to place a strong focus on CPD programmes and teacher education. This has been reflected in the provision of technical and pedagogical support to teachers, the creation of teacher networks, and offering them CPD programmes in-country and abroad. These CPD programmes, offered by local and foreign trainers, sometimes consist of two-year ELT courses (approx. 700 hours) for teachers who hold no qualifications as English teachers. Other programmes involve study abroad stays of about one month (Mineduc, 2019b). In terms of teacher education, PIAP also supports preservice teachers through, for example, the *Semestre en el Extranjero* (Semester Abroad) programme, which covers all the costs of studying at a university based in an English speaking country for about half a year.

As for classroom support, the programme offers and organises activities such as summer and winter English camps, debates, public speaking, and spelling bees (Mineduc, 2019b). In addition to this, the programme has a national centre for volunteers which places native speakers of English as language assistants in public schools (Matear, 2008).

Despite the significant investment and efforts shown above, Abrahams and Silva (2017) write that these activities are not mandatory and rely on teachers' motivation to engage in CPD. This is difficult when teachers, on average, have 40 contact hours a week, and have little or no time to be involved in the activities offered. Thus, in spite of the significant number of teachers who have been involved in the PIAP, to date, PIAP's impact is said to be small (Abrahams and Silva, 2017). In fact, as Sato and Loewen (2018) have recently argued, English in Chile is usually taught in Spanish, teachers focus on grammar teaching and vocabulary memorisation, and the lessons tend to be teacher-centred.

2.5 The language materials landscape in ELT in Chile

I now turn to a description of the teaching materials landscape in Chile. I will place emphasis on the textbooks offered by the public authorities and the role of teaching materials in *pedagogía en inglés*. I will finish the section problematising the instruction of ELT materials against the backdrop of academic and official recommendations for its introduction in teacher education.

2.5.1 English textbooks in Chile: A local discontent

The earliest mention of an English language textbook used in Chile is the *Libro de Lectura Inglesa* (Book of English Reading) written in 1895 by Rodolfo Lenz, a German philologist and teacher educator who also designed the first *pedagogía en inglés* programme in Chile at the *Instituto Pedagógico* of the *Universidad de Chile* in 1889. In Lenz's (1906) words, the Book of English Reading, which was used in most public *liceos* throughout the country at the time, did not include a grammar component explained in Spanish, which he thought Chilean learners would benefit from. In response to this and the belief that English grammars written in Spanish were 'superficial or full of errors' (Lenz, 1906:6), he designed the *Gramática inglesa para*

los colegios chilenos con una introducción “History of English” (English grammar for the Chilean schools with an introduction “History of English”), which was published in 1906 to be distributed in the Chilean public *liceos*. Lenz (1906:6) described his book as ‘systematic and presenting all the material that could be desirable for the teaching of the language, whichever school or educational system’ (my translation). Despite the 1906 title being a grammar book, Lenz (1906) emphasised the idea that a method strictly based on the memorisation of grammatical rules inhibited the actual use of English and that his grammar textbook should not be used at the onset of language learning. The method he proposed was teaching English based on the direct practice of the language (Biblioteca Nacional de Chile, 2018). In fact, he stated that:

‘the most convenient and logical system would be to start the teaching with conversational exercises because it is easier to learn to read and write when you know how to comprehend and speak’ (Biblioteca Nacional de Chile, 2018).

This first publication of language teaching materials in Chile shows – in its author’s words – a notable concern with the communicative nature of language teaching. A century later, a similar concern underpinned the design of the materials published by Mineduc. Since the educational reform of 1998, Mineduc has given every student enrolled in publicly-funded schools in the country free English textbooks, which claim to be based on CLT (Abrahams and Silva, 2017). These textbooks are specifically written for the Chilean context with the participation of local experts in order to make them sensitive to the Chilean learners and their needs. Abrahams and Silva (2017) also argue that these textbooks are usually not used because English teachers perceive that they do not include enough grammar and prefer those of well-known international publishing houses as they provide the grammar information and practice that they think is necessary for their practice of ELT.

Abrahams and Silva’s (2017) view is confirmed by an exploratory study conducted by Mineduc (2017) about the usability of the textbooks of different subjects provided to primary schools throughout the country, including those

offered for teaching English. The study involved group interviews with 37 teachers of all subjects (seven of English) and 63 learners, and discussion panels with teachers. Whilst the study reveals that teachers of other subjects such as Spanish, Mathematics or History tend to welcome the free-of-charge material, the teachers of English seem to be extremely critical and dissatisfied with the textbooks given to them. This discontent, as reported by Mineduc (2017), touches on areas as diverse as the material of which the textbooks are made (largely the quality of the sheets), their design and diagrams (which the surveyed teachers thought did not allow the learners to work on the textbook), the quantity and variety of tasks, and the textbooks' overall alignment with the sequence and order of the national curriculum (Mineduc, 2017). This last issue may reflect the actual misalignment between the curriculum and the textbooks in the last two levels of secondary education as indicated in 2.4.1.1.

The study also collected the teachers views about their use of the textbooks at two stages: before and during their lessons. Regarding their use *before* lessons, the English teachers said that whilst they use the textbook to plan the syllabus of each course, they rarely use it to plan individual lessons (Mineduc, 2017). This, however, contradicts what they say that they actually do with the curricular material *during* the lesson. As reported in the study, English teachers use the Mineduc textbook in a considerably larger number of ways than teachers of other subjects. The ways in which they use the textbooks range from projecting texts from the textbook through overhead projectors to develop group reading, to using it to conduct individual, pair, and group work, or developing reading comprehension, developing listening activities, and translating sentences. Additionally, the report highlights that the most used sections of the textbook are reading and listening, as well as the sections related to linguistic reinforcement, particularly grammar and vocabulary (Mineduc, 2017).

The English teachers also voiced concerns about the difficulty of the textbooks' instructions, which they think are too difficult for learners in Year Five who are faced with learning English for the first time. Other issues observed by the teachers are related to the lack of promotion of autonomous learning, which they think is particularly relevant in foreign language learning. They also raised issues

about the complexity of grammar and vocabulary, and how this inhibited the learning of English in young learners whose level is very low. Finally, the Mineduc's report documented the teachers' perception that the textbook is difficult to adapt as some activities are too complex (Mineduc, 2017).

2.5.2 Materials in *Pedagogía en inglés*

As mentioned in section 2.3.2, the Mineduc has published a number of standards stipulating the expected attributes of the graduates of different *pedagogías*, known as 'Framework for Good Teaching' (see Mineduc, 2001), as well as those graduating from *pedagogía en inglés*, known as 'Guiding Standards for English Language Teaching programmes' (see Mineduc, 2014; henceforth Guiding Standards). It will be recalled that the first of these documents conceptualised 'good teaching' under four domains called *Facetas*. Here, *Faceta A* and *C* emphasise issues pertaining to teaching materials:

<i>Faceta A</i>	Preparation of Teaching
<i>Criterion A.3</i>	The teacher masters the methodology of the subject she or he teaches
<i>Descriptor A.3.3</i>	<i>The teacher knows different types of learning resources, which are appropriate to develop activities depending on the topic and the characteristics of her or his learners. She or he identifies and uses existing resources that allow the learners to learn the contents and develop the skills proposed in the curriculum. (Mineduc, 2001:19; my translation)</i>

Likewise, in *Faceta C*, the document alludes to the appropriate selection of teaching materials:

<i>Faceta C</i>	Teaching for the learning of all students
<i>Criterion C.2</i>	The learning strategies are challenging, coherent, and meaningful to all the learners
<i>Descriptor C.2.3</i>	<i>If the teacher uses learning resources, these are appropriate to the content being studied and the learning outcomes expected. (Mineduc, 2001:19; my translation)</i>

As can be seen in *Facetas A* and *C* and their corresponding descriptors, the teacher is expected to know about teaching resources and select them appropriately in relation to the curriculum and characteristics of the learners. The view of materials in these *facet*s is that materials are embodiments of language teaching and language content. However, they do not explicitly mention that teachers should be able to design their own materials.

On the other hand, the 'Guiding Standards' published by Mineduc in 2014, which specify the knowledge and skills that teachers should have, do address issues directly relevant to *designing* teaching materials in Standard 8 (Mineduc, 2014:32; my translation)

Standard 8 *The teacher designs, selects or adapts physical and/or virtual resources which are appropriate for the teaching and learning of the foreign language.*

The overall standard is described in the document as follows:

The future teacher knows a broad range of resources in different formats, which allows her or him to define in advance which are better fit for the achievement of the learning outcome of her or his learners. She or he has the necessary knowledge to create didactic materials or use those already available in an innovative and efficient way in accordance with the needs and interests of her or his learners. (Mineduc, 2014:32; my translation)

Standard 8 is then subdivided into seven indicators. These are outlined as follows (Mineduc, 2014:32; my translation):

The future teacher...

- 1. ...selects, designs, and uses pedagogical resources which are relevant to the learning objectives established for her or his learners taking into account their cognitive development.*
- 2. ...comprehends the importance of using technologies responsibly, ethically and safely, promoting this use amongst her or his students.*
- 3. ...designs and uses resources that allow the integrated development of the four linguistic skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing.*
- 4. ...implements physical and/or virtual resources that promote participation, team work, and interaction in English amongst the learners.*

5. ...*facilitates the learning of her or his students using and adapting authentic resources in English that are relevant linguistically, socially, and culturally.*

6. ...*selects and uses multimodal texts to develop and facilitate the analysis and evaluation of information in relation to different learning styles.*

7. ...*promotes in her or his learners the autonomous learning of English, recommending the use of free technological resources.*

Compared to the 2001 document, there is a clear difference in the extent to which the 2014 standards specify the knowledge and skills expected of teachers upon completion of their teacher education course. What is remarkable about the Guiding Standards is the level of detail describing the knowledge and skills associated with materials, positioning these as a central part of an English teacher's craft, and further making this historically neglected part of their labour visible at the preservice teacher level. The main overall difference between the two documents, however, is that in the Guiding Standards, teachers are expected to become *materials designers* as opposed to only users of materials. This view probably reflects the growth and impact of the literature about materials on English teacher education, which has emerged to gain an important position in ELT today (I discuss this further in Chapter 3).

Of course, a number of issues arise from Standard 8, such as the nature of the standard itself and its descriptors, the likely effects of a standards-based education and the means to achieve standards (see Donato, 2009 for a discussion of standards-based language teacher education). In light of the above, my reading of Standard 8 is that it is presented only as a set of statements about the knowledge, skills and behaviours that preservice teachers should demonstrate at the end of their *pedagogía en inglés* course regarding teaching materials. Therefore, it remains a question how this standard can be achieved by students of English language teaching. The absence of guidelines about how to achieve knowledge, skills, and behaviours about materials would seem to be based on the assumption that their selection, adaptation, and design are stable and discrete learnable units. Indeed, this assumption, for me, raises the issue of whether or not the skills and knowledge

discussed here are actually part of the various *pedagogía en inglés* courses offered in the country. I explore this issue in the next section.

2.5.3 The problem of materials development in *Pedagogía en inglés*

In light of the official recommendations discussed above, I explored the presence of materials development modules in English language teacher education in Chile. To do this, I first found out which CRUCH/traditional universities offered a *pedagogía en inglés* programme. Out of the 29 universities, 25 of them displayed a *pedagogía en inglés* course. I then analysed the course structure of these programmes available on their websites and noted that only three of 25 overtly listed modules related to language teaching materials. For Tomlinson (2016a), this is hardly surprising. He contends that the study of teaching materials is usually an absent component of the curriculum of English teacher education courses (see Canniveng and Martinez, 2003).

However, Tomlinson (2016a) also argues that issues pertaining to teaching materials tend to be part of teaching methods modules, known in Chile as *didáctica*, as opposed to individual modules forming part of the course structure of programmes available on university websites. Whilst my previous analysis of the 25 *pedagogía en inglés* programmes did not grant me access into the actual content of the *didáctica* modules, a study conducted by Martin (2016) indeed gave me insights into how these modules are articulated and the role of language teaching materials in them. Martin's (2016) study, which explored how the *didáctica* modules of 16 *pedagogía en inglés* programmes in Chile are organised, shows that language teaching materials have a small role in the 16 programmes. In fact, only half of the universities that Martin (2016) studied have goals associated with the design, use, and selection of materials in their *didáctica* modules. As part of the content present in the syllabi, even though 13 institutions include designing and adapting resources, only five of them display content about the adaptation of textbooks in the syllabi. These numbers decrease significantly where issues about the teaching of materials are concerned. Martin (2016) notes that only four universities use materials design as a way to assess the preservice teachers' learning of teaching. With regards to the bibliography used in the modules, not a single title is overtly about teaching materials; most of the titles fall in what could be called general English teaching

handbooks, the challenges of teaching global English, assessment and evaluation, second language acquisition, teaching young learners, reflective teaching, technology, lesson planning, teaching grammar, methods and approaches and post-methods. Table 2.4 below summarises the most frequently used handbooks in the 16 programmes.

Almost 30 years ago, Grosse (1991:38) wrote that teacher training handbooks ‘either reflect the knowledge base for the subject or establish it’. In light of this, I examined the titles documented by Martin (2016) to ascertain the knowledge base of the *didáctica* modules she scrutinised and the role that language teaching materials are likely to be given in them (see Table 2.4).

My examination of these handbooks reveals a clear tendency towards the promotion of textbooks rather than the development of teacher-made materials. Three main trends can be identified, namely: how to use textbooks, how to assess them, and, to a lesser extent, how to supplement them. It is also important to mention that two of the ten handbooks listed, namely, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) and Oxford (1990), do not address teaching materials in any manner.

Table 2. 4 Most frequent handbooks of *didáctica* modules (adapted from Martin, 2016:37)

	Book title	Author(s)	Number of universities
1.	<i>A course in language teaching: Practice and theory</i>	Ur	16
2.	<i>The practice of English language teaching</i>	Harmer	12
3.	<i>Learning teaching: A guidebook for English language teachers</i>	Scrivener	8
4.	<i>Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy</i>	Brown	9
5.	<i>Techniques and principles in language teaching</i>	Larsen-Freeman and Anderson	8
6.	<i>Approaches and methods in language teaching</i>	Richards and Rodgers	7
7.	<i>Teaching English as a second or foreign language</i>	Celce-Murcia <i>et al</i>	7
8.	<i>How to teach English</i>	Harmer	6
9.	<i>Planning lessons and courses</i>	Woodward	6
10.	<i>Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know</i>	Oxford	7

The use of textbooks, as opposed to other forms of materials, is the most recurring topic in the handbooks I scrutinised. Ur (1996), which is present in all the programmes studied by Martin (2016), Harmer (2007, 2015), Brown (1994), Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Snow (2014) and Woodward (2010) focus almost exclusively on how to use textbooks. For example, Harmer (2007) has a chapter on how to use coursebooks suggesting concrete ways to omit parts or adapt them. Byrd and Schuemann (2014), who have a chapter in the volume edited by Celce-Murcia *et al.* (2014), give recommendations on how textbooks can be used for the development of lessons and courses. Likewise, Woodward (2010) implies using materials in all the chapters of her book and how they could complement lesson plans, or be used as a starting point in lesson design.

The second trend relates to textbook evaluation. Ur (1996), Harmer (2015), Brown (1994), Celce-Murcia *et al.* (2014), and Woodward (2010) discuss ways of evaluating coursebook materials by providing checklists or sets of criteria that teachers could use to evaluate and get to know them. For example, Ur (1996) suggests both general and specific criteria for textbook assessment, encouraging a critical look at them as artefacts embodying the curriculum. Byrd and Schuemann (2014) highlight the importance of assessing textbooks not only in relation to the curriculum, but also in consideration of the students and teachers that will use them.

The third tendency relates to supplementing textbooks. Ur (1996), Harmer (2007, 2015) and Celce-Murcia *et al.* (2007) suggest specific ways to go about supplementing textbooks when they cannot cater for the students' needs. For instance, Harmer (2007) specifies ways to replace and supplement complete units of textbooks when teachers think it is necessary. He does not, however, mention how to actually design materials. This is a critical issue as teachers are advised to omit parts of coursebooks, yet not offered ways to develop the materials necessary to complement or supplement them.

Other less frequent themes emerging from the handbooks are for example, how to develop worksheets (Ur, 1996); the role of materials and the forms they take as embodiments of different language teaching approaches (Richards and Rodgers, 2014); and how resources like songs or online learning environments such as Moodle can be better exploited to promote language learning (Scrivener, 2011).

In sum, in spite of the scholarly suggestions and official recommendations about the direct instruction of materials in English teacher education, the explicit teaching of language materials design to preservice teachers of English in Chile appears developed only marginally. An overview of the language materials instruction landscape suggests that the small role given to the teaching of language materials mainly addresses issues pertaining to the use of coursebooks, leaving the design of materials apparently unattended. This further suggests that the student-teachers who learn language teaching with these artefacts are largely positioned as materials consumers rather than materials designers.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter I have attempted to describe Chilean teacher education with a focus on the education of English language teachers. I provided a historical account of the early conceptualisations of teacher education and how it has developed to the present. I discussed in detail the case of English language teacher education, normally referred to in Chile as *pedagogía en inglés*, the challenges it faces and the current process of standardisation it has been subjected to. I have also discussed the broader ELT scenario, from its early developments to the current form the ELT curriculum has taken, the process of standardised testing, and the national programme aimed at promoting the learners' development of English.

I then discussed the ELT materials landscape in Chile, starting with a description of the presence of textbooks in the public system and the overall discontent by schoolteachers of English with the material provided by Mineduc. I addressed the role of materials in *pedagogía en inglés* and how the learning of materials selection, adaptation and design is currently promoted through the standards for English teacher education. I finished the chapter arguing that materials design receives only scant attention in English teacher education programmes in the country basing my argument on the scrutiny of the course structure of 25 *pedagogía en inglés* programmes and an analysis of literature about language teaching and learning used in 16 of these courses in Chile. In the next chapter I explore the

literature about language teaching materials and teacher education which illuminates this research and the theoretical framework used in this study.

Chapter 3 Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

Language learning materials and second language teacher education have only recently emerged as fields of enquiry of their own right in applied linguistics (Tomlinson, 2012a; Wright, 2010). The ensuing discussions in both fields, whilst being very different in nature, have followed similar paths: they have moved from narrowly-defined notions of language teaching materials in the one case and the learning of English language teachers in the other, to broader, complex, and interdisciplinary conceptualisations of their fields. This has encompassed the incorporation of areas of enquiry beyond applied linguistics and language teaching, such as sociology and cultural and media studies in the case of materials (e.g. Dendrinos, 1992; Gray, 2010) and sociocultural theory in the field of language teacher education (e.g. Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009). Whilst this signals the coming-of-age of the professionalisation of both fields, both fields remain disconnected to a large extent.

I begin this literature review addressing language teaching materials. I provide a historical account of its development as an academic field of enquiry and the subfields that have emerged from the work of researchers and practitioners interested in learning materials. This is followed by a discussion of the notion of materials development, and a review of the theoretical and empirical literature that has informed its theorisation. The second part of this review discusses the literature about language teacher education. After addressing some basic concepts in the field, I then discuss the sociocultural turn that has informed the concepts of teacher knowledge base and teacher cognitions and some of the challenges inhibiting the professionalisation of language teachers. After that, I establish connections between both fields by reviewing the relevant literature on the use of language teaching materials by teachers and the likely issues emerging from this use.

I finish the chapter highlighting the lack of attention given to the learning of materials design in the language teaching materials and language teacher education

scholarship, and propose to use the sociocultural framework of Activity Theory to understand how the process of learning to design materials occurs.

3.2 Language Teaching Materials

In his 2012 state-of-the-art article, Brian Tomlinson (2012a:143) defined language teaching materials as ‘anything that can be used to facilitate the learning of a language’. However, in the increasing scholarship on language materials these appear more specifically defined as *published materials* (e.g. textbooks, audio-visual ancillaries, workbooks, dictionaries, graded readers, software, etc.), *authentic materials* (newspapers, magazines, songs, etc.) and *teacher-made materials* (e.g. worksheets, PowerPoints, etc.) (McGrath, 2002; Gray, 2016), with published materials receiving most of the academic attention.

Placing published materials first in the list above is a reflection of their centrality in the practice of ELT internationally – especially commercial and non-commercial textbooks. As Richards (2014:19) writes, despite the fast technological advances of the 21st century, textbooks are still ‘the main teaching resource used by many of the world’s English teachers’. In fact, he argues that the extent to which the spread of English has taken place internationally has been substantially supported by the many different types of textbooks and their ancillary resources (ibid.). Others, such as Appel (2011:50-51), have been even more emphatic about the centrality of textbooks in ELT and have argued that ‘in no other school subject do coursebooks exert a similar influence as in language teaching’. Both their international prominence as well as their extensive use in the classroom raise an important number of issues which I address later in this chapter.

Before going any further, I would like to go back to Tomlinson’s (2012a) definition above. A number of observations can be made from his catholic formulation, which indeed raise a number of important issues related to materials design. First, there is the issue of pedagogical purpose. ‘Anything’, as Tomlinson says, can indeed be used to teach a language, but I would argue that it is not until a language teaching practitioner has given that ‘anything’ a pedagogical use that the material, whatever it is, takes a teaching and learning function. This consideration, as

Mishan and Timmis (2015) observe, draws a distinction between language teaching *materials* and language teaching *resources*, in which the former can be said to be materials specifically designed for language teaching and learning, such as textbooks or software, whereas the latter lack this attributed pedagogical orientation.

The second issue emerging from defining materials as ‘anything’ is the question of ‘who’. I believe this is an important point here as ‘anything’ does not help make visible the labour of the individual(s) behind the design (teachers, textbook writers, etc.). The question arises whether, if ‘anything’ can be used to teach a language, it follows that ‘anybody’ can design language teaching materials. This is particularly problematic in light of the growing literature claiming that materials development should be an important part in the education of teachers (Bouckaert, 2018; Graves and Garton, 2019). Hence, I would argue that such a definition of materials as ‘anything’ risks ignoring the labour of, for example, schoolteachers, who display their own language teaching skills, as well as linguistic and even artistic skills, amongst others, in the activity of design; and it further risks taking materials as a given, which contradicts Tomlinson’s own work.

The above raises one last observation. Whilst Tomlinson’s formulation attempts to define what materials are, I think it poses the question of what materials *development* is and what it entails. In this regard, an expression that is repeatedly used in the relevant literature is ‘principled materials development’ (e.g. McGrath, 2002; Mishan and Timmis, 2015; Tomlinson, 1998a, 2012a; Dat, 2018), especially within the context of MATSDA, the Materials Development Association established in the UK (www.matsda.org). Some of the literature in materials has convincingly made the case for a *principled* approach to materials design, with a strong emphasis on the inclusion of research findings from second language acquisition (henceforth SLA) as well as language teaching and learning research (e.g. Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2010; Tomlinson, 1998a, 2013). In doing this, this literature has also criticised the heavy reliance on repertoires and templates, the cloning of successful publications, and the writers’ use of their personal beliefs, especially within the context of the publishing industry (Tomlinson, 2012b; Freeman, 2014). While these are certainly important advances in what we know about materials development, materials design/development should be further theorised, especially from fields

beyond applied linguistics, such as sociocultural theory. The reason to argue this is that materials design/development is neither an SLA nor an ELT activity exclusively; like any other activity, it is a social practice that is shaped by institutions as well as the broader social, cultural and historical contexts. I return to this issue in section 3.2.3.

3.2.1 ELT materials: what do we know?

Any attempt to historicise a field of academic enquiry will necessarily encounter the challenge of when to begin. In language materials research, this question has a more or less straightforward and recent answer, with most of its development taking off in the mid-1990's (Tomlinson, 2012a).

With only isolated contributions made in earlier decades, the earliest references to materials in academic journals seem to date back to the 1960's, a period in which language materials were seen as the embodiments of the language teaching methods of the time, such as audiolingualism (e.g. Hannan, 1966; Brooks, 1966).

The advent of CLT in the 1970's saw a dramatic change in the methods being deployed in materials. There is a notable contribution by Black and Butzkamm (1978), who, while arguing that language classrooms could create only artificial sites for the implementation of out-of-classroom communicative activities, suggested ways to better implement CLT through teacher-written materials using practice dialogues originating in classroom situations. Responding to the emphasis given by CLT to oral communication, other scholars were concerned with speaking through the use of images (e.g. Winks, 1978; Sarkar, 1978), and the relevance of more context-specific topics such as Dubois (1978) who discussed ways of using regional stories as a form of textbook in ESL classes in the US. The 1970's also bore witness to some of the earliest commentaries about the content of published materials. Price (1979:321), for example, analysed four Chinese EFL textbooks and documented their clear grammatical orientation and the evident construction of a Chinese national identity through the use of modern Chinese heroes and the salient 'unpleasantness of the present capitalist world'.

The materials scholarship of the 1980's does not seem to be dramatically different. In addition to discussing CLT with some references to materials (e.g. Wilkins, 1981; Savignon, 1987), scholars also started to document the preponderance of language textbooks which have dominated the ELT materials landscape until the present. An early example was Swales' (1980:11) claims that the tensions between the market forces in ESP publishing, the status of the practitioner, issues in materials analysis, and the type of research informing ESP contributed to the then only 'modest commercial success' of ESP textbooks. An important article in the 1980's was written by Allwright (1981), who attempted to answer the question of 'what do we want teaching materials for?' He raised issues about the problematic premises behind adopting materials, which operationalised their relationship with teachers through *deficit views* (the idea that materials fill in the teachers' deficiencies) and *difference views* (the idea that materials embody decisions made by experts). Allwright (1981) interestingly raised issues about the relationship between materials and teachers, and the likely disempowering implications of their adoption by teachers (I expand on this in section 3.4). This article was responded to by O'Neill (1982), who highlighted the practical benefits for both teachers and learners arguing that textbooks satisfied learners' needs as well as provided well-presented resources, saving the teachers time and money, and allowing them to adapt and improvise while teaching.

The consolidation of the textbook as the default language teaching material during this decade saw the rise of academic endeavours to evaluate them better. Grant (1987), for example, published a volume for practitioners to better choose their textbook through the application of an extensive set of criteria. In a similar fashion, Sheldon (1988) designed an evaluative framework for practitioners to apply to their textbooks.

The 1990's, however, depict a different scenario. Whole books started to testify to the breadth of what there was to say about materials further reflecting the relevance of the study of materials in the applied linguistics arena. For instance, albeit under-referred to in the relevant literature, Dendrinos (1992) tackled the ideological content of some textbooks of the time and made important connections with fields outside applied linguistics and ELT such as the sociology of education. By

the mid-90's, the field had already witnessed the first compilation of the experiences, beliefs and practices about materials writing of a group of practitioners in Hidalgo, Hall and Jacobs' (1995) edited volume. Concurrently, Byrd (1995) published an edited volume aimed at those interested in working with publishing houses (see also Meecham, Paran and Sturtridge, 1999 on the issues and process of the becoming a materials writer), which was followed by Tomlinson's (1998a) on the principles and procedures of materials development –all this while the textbook continued receiving special attention through books like Cunningsworth's (1995) '*Choosing your coursebook*'. In fact, the dominance of the textbook in ELT can be said to have motivated the emergence of the Dogme approach, a form of language teaching relying solely on what teachers and learners bring to the classroom, and whatever happens to be there (Thornbury, 2000). The growth of the study of language teaching materials towards the end of the 1990's started to cluster in two different yet interconnected groups of interest. In the next section, I move to a thematic account of the developments in the study of materials.

3.2.2 Artefacts of language teaching and cultural and ideological representation

As mentioned above, the accumulation of literature about ELT materials has taken two distinct yet interconnected paths: one focusing on materials as curricular artefacts, and another one focusing on materials as cultural and ideological artefacts (Gray, 2016). Gray (2013a, 2016) points out that scholars concerned with the nature of the field of ELT and the issues relevant to learning materials have focused on materials as curricular artefacts. In this regard, with the aim of arriving at a 'principled materials development', an important group of language teachers, researchers and materials writers has sought to establish connections between materials development and fields of applied linguistics such as SLA, language teaching and learning, corpus linguistics, amongst others, in order to foster the design of more effective learning materials (e.g. Tomlinson, 2003, 2008a, 1998a, 2012b, 2016b; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2010, 2017; McGrath, 2002, Mishan and Chambers, 2010; Harwood, 2010; Mishan and Timmis, 2015; Dat, 2018).

Some of the leading scholars in this group have been Tomlinson (1998b) himself, who proposes a list of 16 principles for materials development emerging from SLA and his own experience. Likewise, in the same edited volume, Bell and Gower (1998) outline eleven principles for the writing of coursebook materials relying on their own experience as materials writers, and further invite publishing houses to modify their materials writing processes in order to overcome the practical constraints of classrooms and meet the needs of learners and teachers. In brief, the principles proposed orbit around the idea that materials should inform about the language, instruct the learners with practice of the language, give the learners experience of language use, elicit language use on behalf of the learners, and lead the learners to explore the language (Tomlinson, 2012a). I will return to some of these principles in section 3.2.3.1, where I discuss the concept of materials development/design.

On the other hand, reflecting the overall shift in applied linguistics from its main focus on language teaching, SLA, or language testing to a wider and more critical view of language as a social practice (Pennycook, 2010), the second focus mentioned by Gray (2016), which conceptualises materials as cultural and ideological artefacts, has been motivated by an outward looking eye into issues touching on a variety of disciplines relevant to language teaching such as sociology of education, critical pedagogy, cultural and media studies, postmodern theories, and Marxism, amongst others. The premise behind this avenue of research seems to be the recognition that the spread of English, where textbooks have a pivotal role, as Gray (2002:151) says, is 'neither value free, nor always culturally appropriate'.

Particularly salient within this research cluster are the interrelated discussions about the ideological and cultural content of global coursebooks and the problematic representational repertoires emerging from them. Gray (2016:103) argues that since the 1980's, there have been criticisms about the steady construction of 'celebratory discourses of individualism, entrepreneurialism and free-market capitalism' in textbooks aimed for the global market which raise serious educational concerns. For example, Gray (2012:87) has discussed the proliferation of celebrities in UK-produced coursebooks, which, he argues, echoes the values of neoliberalism and what commercial textbook writers refer to as 'aspirational content', where 'spectacular personal and professional success, celebrity lifestyles,

cosmopolitanism and travel is held by the ELT industry to be inherently motivating'. This abundance of successful individuals in ELT materials contrasts dramatically with the absence of the working class. Gray and Block (2014), for example, documented the writing out of working classes, which, they argue, signals the textbooks' lack of educational potential and also the betrayal of working-class students who are denied recognition.

The presence of neoliberal values in published coursebooks – an important part of Gray's own research on textbooks (e.g. Gray, 2002, 2010, 2012, Gray and Block, 2014) – has attracted a growing interest from language education researchers and practitioners concerned with this economic and political ideology (e.g. Gray and Block, 2014, Koyama, 2017; Babaii and Sheikhi, 2018; Bori, 2018; Copley, 2018). For instance, Copley (2018), surveyed a range of ELT global textbooks dating from the 1970's, identifying the transformation of content about collectively-experienced problems and realistic depictions of the world of work into content emphasising individual agency within the context of unproblematic social systems. In addition, he also found the transformation of 'life skills' such as organising together, challenging authority, discrimination and arbitrary power, to technical skills for the improvement of the self within the framework of individual success and consumerism. Babaii and Sheikhi (2018) report similar findings, noting the celebration of consumerism, branding, individual productivity and marketability in materials used in 30 private institutes in Iran.

Another issue commonly criticised by the cultural and ideological study of materials is essentialising cultural representations, whereby target cultures are frequently reduced to a number of generalised characteristics (Gray, 2010). In addition to Dendrinos' (1992) early criticism of the overrepresentation of young white middle-class men, others like Gray (2000, 2002, 2010) or Messekher (2014) have brought up concerns from teachers themselves about the stereotyping content of global coursebooks or their inappropriateness. Likewise, Babaii and Sheikhi (2018) have documented the tendency of ELT textbooks to glorify the West and downgrade the Expanding Circle cultures (Kachru, 1985). The work on representations of the world in textbooks has now expanded significantly to the study of materials for foreign languages other than English (see Risager, 2018). A

useful typology to look at the cultural content of materials was provided by Cortazzi and Jin (1999). They identify three patterns of the representation of culture in EFL textbooks. C1, or source culture, which refers to the learners' own culture; C2, or target culture, which refers to the culture where the language is used as a first language; and C3, 4, 5, etc., which refers to cultures that are neither a source nor target culture, and where English is used as an international language (Cortazzi and Jin, 1999). This typology has been a useful heuristic for practitioners to approach the cultural representations of coursebooks (e.g. Messekher, 2014).

Sexism has also been taken up by scholars concerned with representation. An important study was Porreca (1984), who examined different forms of discrimination towards women in ESL textbooks in the USA. Her study revealed a persisting bias against women in categories of omission in texts and illustrations, firstness, occupational visibility in texts and illustrations, nouns, masculine generic constructions and adjectives. These inequities in ELT materials were tackled by Florent *et al.*, (1994) a group of ELT female professionals, who produced a set of guidelines, '*On Balance: Guidelines for the Representation of Women and Men in English Language Teaching Materials*', written for those involved in the ELT materials industry in order to tackle the use of discriminatory language and stereotypical representations of women and to reflect a more balanced view of women and men.

Thornbury (1999) points out that although many of the manifestations of sexism had already been redressed, the issue of omission remains very much problematic in terms of sexual minorities. An early mention of this issue was Littlejohn and Windeatt (1989) who called for materials to be evaluated in terms of their heterosexism, amongst other considerations. In addition, while lamenting the overall lack of gay and lesbian representation in ELT, Nelson (1999) has discussed theoretical frameworks, such as Queer Theory, to include lesbians and gays into curricula and materials. Despite Nelson's (1999) concerns being raised more than 20 years ago, for Gray (2013b; 2019) the absence of LGBT communities in published materials continues being an issue way into the new century not only denying LGBT learners recognition but potentially hindering their educational and social integration (see also Sunderland and McGlashan, 2015).

On the whole, the sum of these works makes a significant body of literature about materials. As I have shown, this accumulation of scholarly discussions touch on a number of issues directly related to ELT and applied linguistics, as well as broader areas of inquiry such as culture, politics, economics, social studies, etc. With these literatures as a backdrop, in the next section I explore the concept of materials design/development.

3.2.3 Developing/Designing materials

The literature in applied linguistics involving the concept of 'design' has not extensively defined what designing/developing is (e.g. Johnson, 2003; Samuda, 2005) nor agreed on what it entails (e.g. Tomlinson, 2002; Gray, 2016). Johnson (2003), for instance, conducted a notable study addressing the activity of task design comparing expert and non-expert designers and arrived at a rich characterisation of what a good task designer is. However, whilst Johnson's (2003) study is undoubtedly insightful and enriches our understanding of task design expertise, it does not envisage a conceptualisation of development/design.

Materials development/design, Tomlinson (2012a:143-144) argues, refers to 'all the processes made use of by practitioners who produce and/or use materials for language learning, including materials evaluation, their adaptation, design, production, exploitation and research'. The term 'development' for Tomlinson is clearly an all-encompassing rubric under which an array of very different activities falls. For this reason, Gray (2016) writes that a better umbrella concept should be *materials research*, under which the activities of development and analysis can be encompassed distinctively. In this regard, I follow Gray's (2013a:13) view that development considers 'the (immediate) production of materials for use in specific classrooms', whilst research about materials concerns itself with their analysis through the identification and interpretation of their content (see also Graves, 2019). Gray's (2013a) view has been recently echoed by Bouckaert (2018), who argues that materials development/design involves the creation of classroom materials, the materials themselves as a product, and the actual use of materials.

Tomlinson's work has strongly made the case for a principled approach to materials design (e.g. Tomlinson, 1998b). However, this does not only mean the use

of prescribed principles derived from research in relevant fields of applied linguistics such as SLA or ELT. As McGrath (2002) argues, design is an activity in which a personal rationale, that is, a set of personal tacit and/or explicit beliefs, leads the decision-making entailed in the activity. In an attempt to systematise materials design, McGrath (2002:162) rightfully argues that design is the ‘interplay between an underlying structure which embodies the beliefs of the teacher and the goals of the teaching and the means through which the beliefs and goals are realised’. In effect, materials design should be all this; however, it should also acknowledge much more, particularly in recognition of the current thinking of what constitutes language teaching and learning, which sees these processes as culturally, historically and institutionally situated (Johnson, 2009), an argument that I find is equally extendable to the tools of teaching. Thus, I extend McGrath’s (2002) and Tomlinson’s (2012) views and add that designing materials involves the interplay of principles and rationales about language learning and teaching as well as an underlying structure and means of realisation, and that this interplay is perforce defined by broader factors such as the institutional, sociocultural and historical circumstances around which the activity of designing materials occurs.

From the above discussion, it can be said that designing materials encompasses at least three different yet interconnected aspects: principles of language materials design, teachers’ personal rationales, and an underlying structure organising said principles and rationales. In the following sections, I delve into the literature discussing these three aspects in order to better understand the process of materials development/design. To this end, I provide a summary of the principles suggested in the literature about materials development; a summary of the relevant research on teachers’ personal rationales reflected in their use of materials; and the popular pre-while-post lesson format as an underlying structure to design worksheets. I will finish this section reviewing some of the literature on the practice of materials design.

3.2.3.1 *Principles of materials development/design*

As I argued in section 3.2.2, a number of principles for materials design have emerged from research in SLA and/or ELT and have been suggested to guide this

process. A notable contribution in this regard has been Tomlinson (1998b), who proposed the following list of 16 principles for materials development emerging from SLA and his own experience as an ELT practitioner.

1. Materials should achieve impact.
2. Materials should help learners feel at ease.
3. Materials should help learners to develop confidence.
4. What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful.
5. Materials should require and facilitate learners self-investment.
6. Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught.
7. Materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use.
8. The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input.
9. Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes.
10. Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed.
11. Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles.
12. Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes.
13. Materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction.
14. Materials should maximise learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement which stimulates both right and left brain activities.
15. Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice.
16. Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.

(Tomlinson, 1998b:7-22, *passim*)

Clearly one of the most salient features of this list is its remarkable length. McGrath (2002) argues that this is a reflection of the breadth and scope of what designing entails, which, for Tomlinson (1998b), appears covering beliefs specific to language learning principles, general educational views and how these could be achieved, as well as the recognition of learner differences. For McGrath (2002), these principles are not objective truths. Some of them have, in fact, sparked debates amongst scholars. For example, with regards to the use of authentic

language, whilst Carter (1998) strongly advises the use of corpora, Cook (1998) pursues some of the shortcomings of corpus-driven approaches to materials design and advises caution when translating research findings from linguistics into pedagogical practices such as materials development.

An issue with these principles is the fact that some of them are not exclusively about materials design, but about the good practice of language instruction in general. For example, principle 4, 'What is being taught should be perceived by the learner as relevant and useful' refers more to a curricular decision based on the learners' perceived relevance of the content of instruction rather than to the immediate design of materials. A curricular decision can of course be made through designing materials; however, deciding what to teach to learners is not strictly about designing materials but about curriculum and/or syllabus design (Graves, 2016). In fact, one could decide what to teach without enacting any of the processes associated to materials development. Likewise, principle 6, 'Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught', does not entail a materials design process, but what is generally thought of as a consideration of the learners in ELT, typical of progressive views about teaching and learning (Freeman, 2016).

3.2.3.2 *Teachers' personal rationales in their use of materials*

Freeman (2014) argues that the materials writing process is heavily influenced by the writers' personal rationales about teaching and learning. I believe it is possible to have access to these rationales by examining what teachers do when they *use* materials, especially in processes such as adaptation or supplementation; as I argued earlier, these processes fall under the definition of development (see 3.2.3).

Although Graves (2019) has recently pointed out that the actual *use* of materials is an extremely neglected area within the field of ELT materials research, which for her is further problematic considering that the aim of materials is their use, some scholars and practitioners have documented the issues emerging from using them. For example, a number of studies looking at the adaptation of language coursebooks, such as López-Barrios and Villanueva de Debat (2014), de Araujo (2012), Pettit (2011), and Lux and Wochele (2013) have documented that the teachers' rationale underpinning their textbook adaptation was largely based on

considerations about the difficulty of the material. López-Barrios and Villanueva de Debat (2014) in Argentina, for instance, found out that a group of 30 teachers adapted their ELT textbooks because they thought the inputs and speaking and writing tasks were too difficult for the learners, supplementing the material with reading or listening activities as well as language work. Overall, López-Barrios and Villanueva de Debat (2014) note that such adaptations are justified from a contextualisation point of view, that is, making the materials suitable for the local context, and that other underpinnings such as contrasting Spanish and English, intercultural reflection, and facilitation of learning were mostly absent in the process of adaptation.

Santos (2013) documented the phases of writing, editing, and use of an English textbook for schools in Brazil with a focus on activities aimed at promoting critical thinking. Through observing three teachers and their students, Santos showed that the teachers tended to reorient the tasks aimed at developing critical thinking, drawing the learners' attention to the images of the tasks in order to produce descriptive language instead. Santos found that the teachers did not problematise essentialist content, even when the learners had identified problematic issues in the material that could be used to stimulate their critical thinking. Santos (2013) argues that the teachers she observed failed to grasp the importance of exploring conflict, differences and discrepancies of problematic situations when critical thinking is expected.

Other studies such as Humphries (2014) and Seferaj (2014) have looked at how teachers deal with the implementation of new ELT policies through textbooks. Humphries (2014), for example, examined the factors promoting and/or inhibiting the appropriate use of a communicative textbook by four teachers with no training in CLT in a rural technical college in Japan. Through observations and semi-structured interviews over a period of six weeks, he noted that the main elements shaping the teachers' use of the new material were sociocultural factors, uncertainty, limited training, negligible external influences, internal *laissez-faire*, student issues and the unsuitability of the materials. Seferaj (2014), on the other hand, noted that the main rationale underpinning an experienced teacher's use of a communicative textbook in

Albania lay in a traditional teacher-led focus-on-form approach, aggravated by typical school constraints such as lack of time and resources.

This survey has shown that the teachers' rationales emerging from their use of the material highlights their concern with the learners' reaction to the material, as well as their own concern with language rather than other educational aspects of the material. What is interesting is that in cases where more progressive pedagogies are supposed to be used, the teachers regress these pedagogies to more traditional forms of ELT. Further, the contexts of use emerge to have a pivotal role in how the teachers use the materials.

3.2.3.3 *Underlying structure of materials development/design*

As mentioned earlier, the principles and rationales of materials design require an underlying structure for their materialisation. In this regard, McGrath (2002) argues that an almost 'orthodox' format used to design reading and listening worksheets by teachers has been the pre-while-post structure by Axbey (1989, cited in McGrath, 2002). This model, as McGrath (2002) argues, can help novice teachers and materials writers to make sense of SLA principles and/or teaching and learning rationales. The extensive use given to this structure, which probably emerged from Williams' (1984) three-stage reading comprehension organisation in light of its notorious spread in ELT by the end of the 1980's (see Tudor, 1989), lies in its potential to 'build background knowledge, practice reading skills within the reading texts themselves, and engage in comprehension instruction' (Grabe, 1991:396). In Table 3.1 below I compare both models given by Williams and Axbey.

Although the three stages of the Axbey and Williams' models presented in Table 3.1 do not match exactly, they nevertheless have more commonalities than differences. At the pre-stage, a salient feature of both models is their departure from traditional passive conceptualisations of the learners, using the learners' schematic knowledge as a starting point for comprehension, which deems the model an interactive one (Wallace, 2001). In a number of empirical studies, Tudor (1989, 1990) has shown that familiarity with the cultural background, content, and rhetorical characteristics of the texts can positively affect the learners' comprehension of the material; and he has further suggested that the selection of pre-stage activities

should be subordinated to and guided by the learners' needs and the choice of appropriate texts (Tudor, 1989). Tudor's recommendations are typically materialised as tasks that activate the learners' schematic knowledge or provide cultural background information and pre-teach language.

Table 3. 1 Pre-While-Post reading/listening comprehension worksheet structure

	Williams (1984:37-40) (Reading)	Axbey (1989 cited in McGrath, 2002:146) (reading and listening)
Pre	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To introduce and arouse interest in the topic. 2. To motivate learners by giving a reason for reading. 3. To provide some language preparation for the text. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Draw upon existing knowledge. 2. Exploit areas of interest. 3. Encourage prediction of content, language and function.
While	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To help understanding of the writer's purpose. 2. To help understanding of the text structure. 3. To clarify text content. 	First reading/listening: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Confirm and check predictions. 2. Understand global meaning and shape
		Second reading/listening: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Understand main points. 4. Deal with vocabulary. 5. Be aware of writer's/speaker's purpose.
Post	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To consolidate or reflect upon what has been read. 2. To relate the text to the learner's own knowledge, interests, or views. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Give a personal response/evaluation. 2. Encourage self-awareness of difficulties.

As for the while stage of comprehension, the main surface difference between the two models is that Axbey's divides the while reading/listening stage into two components with the first subsection aimed at confirming predictions and developing a global understanding of the text and the second one aimed at

comprehending more detailed information. This notwithstanding, such division sits comfortably with Williams' (1984) model and his assertion that '[a]s a rule, while-reading should begin with a general or global understanding of the text, and then move to smaller units such as paragraphs, sentences and words'. Here Mishan and Timmis (2015) raise an important issue, not with the models themselves but with the formulaic tasks typically used to develop comprehension in the model. They argue that traditionally, the types of questions used during the while-stage of reading/listening are not cognitively challenging. This critique is in fact popular in the ELT literature on comprehension tasks, and is blamed upon the teachers' preference to use of literal comprehension questions about facts, dates, and places, amongst others (e.g. Day and Park, 2005), textbook writers (e.g. Freeman, 2014), and teacher education courses (e.g. Mishan and Timmis, 2015).

In terms of the post-reading/listening stage, the models can be said to be different as regards the emphasis given to language production. Whilst Williams (1984) suggests consolidating the content of the text and relating it to the learners, which can be done through language production, Axbey seems to take a more explicit stance to producing language suggesting that the learners should provide a response to the content of reading/listening. In fact, language development is an encouraged practice in receptive skill teaching. Tudor (1989), for example, argues that reading should incorporate a substantial component of language development.

For McGrath (2002) the pre-while-post models of Axbey's and Williams' provides a familiar structure and an underlying format for both teachers and learners to design materials, particularly worksheets. He further argues that this underlying structure allows teachers to exercise their own creativity by choosing or designing their own inputs and/or tasks that they want to use in their material.

3.2.3.4 ELT practitioners' designing of materials

The following studies on the design of ELT materials illustrate the use of principles, beliefs, and underlying structures discussed above and further highlight how the design of materials by ELT practitioners is significantly shaped by sociocultural factors. A notable example is Peñaflores (1995). She reports her experience providing supplementary materials for a university medicine course using Nunan's

(1988 cited in Peñafiorida, 1995:173-179) principles of connection with the curriculum, authenticity of input and task, interaction stimulation, focus on formal aspects of language, promotion of metacognitive awareness, and promotion of the use of language beyond the classroom. Peñafiorida (1995) brought these principles to life using five organisational steps including needs analysis, formulation of objectives, devising a lesson format (which was based on an input from which language and content were derived to the realisation of a task), gathering, selecting and grading the materials, and writing. Peñafiorida (1995) is a remarkable example of the use of language learning principles and pedagogical rationales in materials design.

More recently, a notable case was reported by Igielski (2014), who designed materials to target the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of her ESL learners at a public multicultural school in the US. Her study compared the implementation of a traditional curriculum with one tailored to meet the linguistic and cultural characteristics of her learners. She developed the latter form of curriculum including a variety of participation patterns, a theme around which the learning process was organised, support for the learners in their native language, and unconventional forms of assessment. Igielski (2014) showed that a rationale providing emotional, academic, and social access to the curriculum and that is responsive to the learners' backgrounds can significantly help them succeed.

Koyama's (2017) ethnographic study interestingly describes the response of a group of ESL teachers and refugee parents concerned with the policy of quantification and standardisation implemented by a for-profit organisation in a US school, which they described as a 'drill and kill English-only set curricula' (Koyama, 2017:84). Refugee parents, resettlement caseworkers and ESL teachers organised and created their own language materials using iPads and videos for the parents to use at home in order to supplement the materials arbitrarily chosen by the school board. The supplementary materials were based on the SIOP model (Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol), which served as an underlying structure to combine language and subject content support. Koyama noted that the role of the materials (as well as the refugee parents) 'became integral to the group's learning plan' (Koyama, 2017:90). Koyama's (2017) report is remarkable in many ways. Not

only does it illustrate how language teaching principles and rationales can be organised through a pedagogical format, but it is also indexical of a number of institutional and sociocultural factors motivating the design of supplementary materials.

The studies described above illustrate how materials design is the interplay of principles, rationales and underlying structures, reflecting McGrath's (2002) view of materials design. Furthermore, they illustrate that materials design is inexorably defined by the sociocultural circumstances in which it takes place, as was clearly seen in Igielski's (2014) use of her learners' sociocultural and linguistic backgrounds, and Koyama's (2017) institutional and socio-political conditions. Yet the question of *how* the ELT practitioners involved in these reviews may have developed the knowledge and skills necessary to design their materials remains absent from the overall literature about ELT materials. In order to construe how the process of learning to design materials occurs, in the next section I explore the literature relevant to the learning of English language teaching that can illuminate how the learning of materials design takes place.

3.3 Language Teacher Education

The term Second Language Teacher Education, originally coined by Richards in 1990 (see Wright, 2010), has seen the emergence of a plethora of other terms referring to which type of education the teacher-learner is receiving and the stage of their career (Pachler and Paran, 2013). Pachler and Paran (2013) write that 'teacher training' usually refers to a process of skill and behaviour transfer from trainer to trainee, whilst 'teacher education' alludes to a deeper familiarisation with the underpinnings of language teaching. A good example of the former is the 'overwhelmingly technocratic-reductionist' 120-hour CELTA course awarded by Cambridge ESOL (Gray and Block, 2012:133), whilst the latter can be said to be represented in the many different BA's in language teaching offered by different universities around the world, usually taking from three to five years, and highly responsive to their local contexts, such as the Chilean *pedagogía en inglés* courses described in Chapter 2, or the *profesorados* (teachership courses) in Argentina (e.g. www.uba.ar).

With regards to the stage of teachers' career, preservice teacher education, also known as Initial Teacher Training or Initial Teacher Education, and in-service teacher education, sometimes referred to as In-Service Teacher Training (INSETT), are commonly used terms referring to the education teachers receive before or after they obtain a teaching qualification (Pachler and Paran, 2013). Farrell (2008a:2) also emphasises the concept of 'novice teacher', by which he means the transition from the 'teacher training institution to the school classroom to teach for the first time', usually during the first year of teaching; however, he has more recently claimed that the concept of 'novice teaching' should be applied to a period of at least three years from receiving initial certification (Farrell, 2014). While these nomenclatures may suggest that pre and in-service teachers learn in different ways, Freeman (2016) argues that the professional learning of teachers, like any other profession, follows a trajectory in which the fundamentals remain the same for both pre and in-service teachers. In fact, today it is commonly accepted that the learning of language teaching is a life-long process starting with the student-teachers' first exposure to language teaching as learners (e.g Johnson, 2009). I explore this in more depth later in this section.

Because of the focus of this study, and in the interest of readability, in this thesis I will use the expression preservice teacher. Also, the processes of teacher learning I will refer to will be concomitant with the notion of teacher *education* described by Pachler and Paran (2013) above given the characteristics of the programme where I conducted the study. In this regard, I will refer to the second language teacher education programme as *pedagogía en inglés*, not only to respect the programme's identity but also to highlight the historical, theoretical, academic and contextual notions that such concept entails in the Chilean context as described in Chapter 2.

3.3.1 Models of language teacher education and materials design

In the same way as with language teaching materials, it is difficult to give a historical account of language teacher education since research into it, as Johnson (2016) writes, only took off in the late 1980's, which suggests that only recently has language teacher education started to be seen as a professional activity in applied

linguistics. Wallace (1991) has probably become the default reference for a conceptualisation of how language teacher education has occurred historically. He identifies three forms of language teacher education, namely, the craft model, the applied science model, and the reflective model. As Gray and Block (2012) write, these models are a 'broad-brush categorisation' and their features are not always specific to one period only but have in effect coexisted. This notwithstanding, the craft model can be placed at the onset of the 20th century. Wallace (1991:6) argues that this model entails a view of teacher education whereby 'the wisdom of the profession resides in an experienced professional practitioner'. This 'wisdom' is thus expected to be replicated and perpetuated through imitation by the teacher-learners. In fact, because of its emphasis on imitation, the craft model came under severe criticism. Wallace (1991) claims that the model presupposes a view of society that is static, which further denies the changeability and variability within and amongst teaching settings that is widely taken as a given today. From a pedagogical viewpoint, Stones and Morris (1972) have argued that because of its use of imitation as the only articulated form of learning, a transmission model like this neglects the explicit teaching of teaching.

In the post-war period, the applied science model emerged as the application of empirical knowledge provided by research in relevant areas of language and teaching. This view is deeply rooted in a positivist paradigm in which the teachers are seen as the deliverers of scientific knowledge developed by researchers. This knowledge took the form of content and methods that are universally applicable (Wallace, 1991). Here it is important to mention that the applied science model emerged within a framework of greater professionalisation of teachers. In fact, as Gray and Block (2012) write, some of its versions conceptualised teachers as educated professionals with a solid knowledge of sociology, psychology and history of education, amongst others – the disciplines of the so-called foundations movement (Gray and Block, 2012; Pachler and Paran, 2013). This same view of teachers, however, was used to hold them responsible for inefficiency or failure to solve educational problems based on an assumption of their lack of understanding of scientific knowledge or its inappropriate application (Baranauskienė, 2002). In the same way as the previous model, the flux of research

prescribing what language teachers have to do has been criticised by scholars such as Medgyes (2017:439), who argues that teachers are 'better off if they heed their own (and their fellow professionals') experience and intuitions and disregard 'expert opinion' by and large'. Medgyes' (2017) view has in fact been described by Paran (2017) as part of a zeitgeist casting doubt on the relationship between research, applied linguistics, and teaching. However, recent research contradicts Medgyes' (2017) pleas. Sato and Loewen (2018) have recently documented how in the context of a private university in Chile, 12 English teachers' understanding of SLA research was consistent with SLA researchers' practices. The teachers were in fact keen on using research as it provided them with emotional support and helped them deal with pedagogical issues, even though they faced issues such as lack of access and time to research, as well as institutional support.

Finally, the last model described by Wallace (1991) is the reflective model. Broadly influenced by Schön's (1983) postulation that a professional should be able to reflect on their actions, which leads to a continuous learning process, the reflective model presupposes the idea that a teacher's knowledge does not only originate in scientific research but also in the practice of teaching. In line with this, Wallace (1991) made the case for the recognition of two types of knowledge in a teacher's professional activity, namely, *received knowledge*, that provided by the discipline itself (English linguistics, teaching methods, etc.), and *experiential knowledge*, constructed in the practice of the profession. Within a reflective view of teacher education, these two forms of knowledge are expected to interact in a symbiotic cycle of practice and reflection (Pachler and Paran, 2013). Furthermore, Pachler and Paran (2013) note that the reflective model gives a process orientation to the typically product-oriented craft and applied science models.

Before going any further, I would like to connect these models with the activity of materials design. In a craft-model, under the assumption that preservice teachers' knowledge of materials development would be contingent on their mentors' design or use of materials, the preservice teachers would not know the 'craft' of design, as they would only be expected to replicate their mentors' design and use. This means that if a student-teacher's mentor is dependent on a coursebook and has a verbatim approach to use it, the preservice teachers would do

well replicating this practice. In an applied science model, under the premise that materials are the embodiment of research-based teaching methods, teachers are expected to use materials designed by research-based writers and in the ways they prescribe. Whilst the design of materials would benefit from evidence-based practice (see Paran, 2017), we know that research is not always directly transferable to the classroom contexts. Further, within the applied science tradition teachers would not be expected to carry out the crucial processes of adaptation or supplementation in response to the contextual circumstances where they teach, which are typically very distant from those of where the materials are written, particularly in the case of global coursebooks. In addition, the learners' lack of success in learning English would not be attributable to the materials, but to the teachers' failing to use the materials in the ways indicated. Finally, the reflective model, as McGrath (2013) argues, would not only conceptualise teachers as a materials users, but also as a materials designers who are sensitive and responsive to the contexts where they teach and learn. Thus reflective teachers, even those who have no choice but to use a mandated coursebook, would make up their minds about how to use, adapt or supplement it in response to the local circumstances that they consider relevant when carrying out such processes, and the insights emerging from their own experience using it, as well as from theory and research.

In the next section I discuss two important developments which gained currency with the rise of the reflective model, namely, the sociocultural turn in teacher education and the reconceptualisation of the teacher knowledge base (henceforth TKB) in which the work on teacher cognitions has been extremely influential (Johnson and Golombek, 2003; Johnson, 2006; Gray and Block, 2012). These are today widely accepted notions in teacher education (Johnson, 2016) and have helped shape the content and ways of delivery of teacher education courses.

3.3.2 The sociocultural turn in language teacher education

The sociocultural turn is an epistemological shift that defines human learning as a 'dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts, and distributed across persons, tools, and activities' (Johnson, 2006:237). As Johnson (2006) explains, the sociocultural turn draws its tenets from ethnographic research

in anthropology and sociology, yet its main exponent, Lev Vygotsky (1978, 1997), made his contributions to it from the field of psychology. Vygotsky's sociocultural theory has been extremely influential in education in general and in second language teaching, leading not only to a reconceptualisation of language teaching and learning practices in school classrooms, but also in the education that language teachers are exposed to in teacher education programmes (Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Lantolf, 2000; Borg, 2003a, 2006; Johnson, 2006, 2009; Daniels, 2007). This turn was expressed in a redefinition of what the focus of research into language teaching is and how it is carried out. It has also given an important place to the social, cultural, and historical dimensions present in the settings where teachers learn and teach (Johnson, 2006, 2009, Grossman, Smagorinsky and Valencia, 1999; Gray and Block, 2012).

As I pointed out earlier, under the applied science model and its emphasis on improving the efficacy of delivery (Richards, 2008), failing to teach efficiently was typically seen as failure on the part of the teachers to acquire what was taught in the teacher education programmes – largely due to the teachers' resistance to change (Singh and Richards, 2006). This view, as Johnson (2016) explains, ignored the fact that the teachers' mental lives are perforce subjected to the institutional, social, cultural and historical contexts where they learn, which therefore called for a reconceptualisation of their TKB as well as how they needed to be taught. In this regard, the introduction of a sociocultural perspective into teacher education meshed well with the model of a reflective teacher described by Wallace (1991). In fact, as Johnson (2006) notes, the sociocultural turn served to legitimise the emphasis given by the reflective model to teachers' reflection on the knowledge they bring to teacher education courses and which is rooted in their prior learning and teaching experiences, which has been considered essential for triggering change in their classroom practices (Johnson, 2006). In addition, the epistemology underpinning the sociocultural turn permitted the recognition that participation in classroom contexts, i.e. where teachers spend most of their time, is a valid space for learning to teach (Johnson, 2006). This has further enabled teacher educators and researchers to conceptualise the learning of teaching as 'normative and lifelong, emerging out of and through experiences in social contexts: as learners in

classrooms and schools, as participants in professional teacher education programs and later as teachers in institutions where teachers work' (Johnson and Golombek, 2003:729-728).

3.3.2.1 *The teacher knowledge base*

The epistemological change described above brought about a reconceptualisation of what teachers needed to know as well as the recognition of the knowledge they brought with them to teacher education courses. Richards (2008) notes that traditionally the TKB promoted in language teacher education courses has relied on two types of knowledge: *knowledge about* and *knowledge how*. *Knowledge about*, for Richards (2008), or 'content knowledge' refers to what has been established as the core of the language teacher education curriculum such as courses on language analysis, discourse analysis, curriculum, teaching methods, etc. *Knowledge how*, on the other hand, emphasises pedagogical content knowledge (henceforth PCK), which is broadly construed as the knowledge that 'goes beyond the knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge *for teaching*' (Shulman, 1986:9 –emphasis in the original), and which combines content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of learners (Gudmundsdottir and Shulman, 1987). The traditional conceptualisation of the TKB of English teachers, as described by Richards (2008) came to be criticised by authors such as Freeman and Johnson (1998), Tarone and Allwright (2005) or Singh and Richards (2006). These scholars seem to agree that the traditional view on TKB is insufficient to successfully cope with the specific teaching and learning demands arising from the contexts where teachers perform their roles (see 3.3.2.2).

In response to the shortcomings of the traditional conceptualisation of TKB, a significant contribution in the recalibration of what language teachers needed to learn was Freeman and Johnson (1998). They proposed addressing three interconnected domains to capture the complexities associated with teachers' learning and teaching, namely: the teacher-learner, whereby the student teachers are seen as learners of language teaching; the social contexts of teaching, where schools are seen as the (micro) physical and sociocultural contexts of learning and teaching, and schooling as the (macro) sociocultural and historical processes taking

place in schools; and the pedagogical processes – knowledge of the language, methods, and teaching and learning relevant to the student teachers and the social contexts.

3.3.2.2 *The teacher knowledge base and materials*

The question now arises as to how materials design can be understood within Freeman and Johnson's (1998) model. I would argue that this activity is cross-cutting to all three domains. For example, construing teachers as learners of teaching cannot ignore that in countries where English is not an official and/or widely-spoken language, English teachers are likely to have interacted with learning materials to mediate their own language learning. This means that they come to teacher education courses with tacit or explicit notions of how languages are taught/learned emerging from their interactions with learning materials, as well as from their exposure to how their own English teachers used textbooks. In a similar fashion, following Gray (2010, 2016), the conceptualisation of materials as cultural artefacts meshes well with Freeman and Johnson's (1998) domain of social contexts, whereby materials incarnate a plurality of relations at the micro (school) and macro (societal) levels. For example, whilst a global coursebook can be said to create a certain sociality in the classroom between teachers and learners and amongst learners through its different tasks, it also establishes relationships between the textbook's language and cultural/ideological constructs, and the learners and teachers. Thus, for example, in presenting English as an international language the textbook positions the learners as cosmopolitan individuals. Finally, with regards to pedagogical processes, language teaching materials, seen as curricular artefacts (Gray, 2010, 2016), can be said to be an embodiment of views about language and language teaching and learning. This is reflected in the fact that today it is a frequent practice to introduce methodological changes in whole educational systems through the adoption of curricular materials that advocate for certain teaching methods, such as the coursebooks distributed in Chile which are underpinned by CLT (see Chapter 2; see also for example Hutchinson and Torres, 1996; Humphries, 2014, Seferaj, 2014; Roshid, Haider and Begum, 2017).

3.3.2.3 *Teacher cognitions*

The study of teacher cognitions, understood as the ‘unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think’ (Borg, 2003a:81), received an important boost by scholars addressing the shortcomings of the applied science model (Gray and Block, 2012), as well as by educational researchers interested in understanding how teachers come to know what they know and how this affects their teaching practice. Johnson (2009) argues that the teacher cognition view presupposes the recognition of student teachers’ experiences as language learners in classrooms and schools, as members of teacher education courses or programmes and eventually as members of the teaching communities in which they work. In this regard, Wright (2010) argues that Lortie’s (1975) work on ‘the apprenticeship of observation’ (i.e. the student teachers’ accumulated teaching experiences along their educational lives in schools) has come to be seen as one of the main obstacles for student-teachers to develop pedagogical alternatives departing from traditional views such as transmission pedagogies (see also Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Borg, 2003a, 2003b; Johnson, 2009; Archanjo, Barahona and Finardy, 2019). Perhaps, the difficulty in addressing the student-teachers’ ‘apprenticeship of observation’ resides in the fact that, as Freeman (2016) argues, this phenomenon is a behavioural one; it emerges from the exposure of the student-teachers to what their teachers *did* and *how* they usually did it, but not to the processes of thinking and reasoning behind their teachers’ actions. These remain very much hidden to the student-teachers.

Particularly salient in this line of work are the scholarly advances made in what we know about teachers’ beliefs, which for Clark (1988:5) are ‘eclectic aggregations of cause-effect propositions from many sources, rules of thumb, generalizations drawn from personal experience, beliefs, values, biases and prejudices’. The relevance of the study of beliefs within the teacher cognition movement is that beliefs have an extremely influential role in the decisions that teachers make in their daily lives in schools (e.g. Richardson, 1996, 2003; Borg, 2003a, 2003b, 2006, 2011; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012; Basturkmen, 2012; Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2017). In line with the apprenticeship of observation, Richardson (1996)

writes that beliefs are developed through personal experience, schooling, and formal knowledge.

The scope of research into teachers' beliefs is exceptionally broad. Phipps and Borg (2009) explain that the extent to which teachers and student-teachers act in relation to their beliefs is mediated by a large number of sociocultural factors relevant to their settings, which can be said to stress the complexity of beliefs even more. Pajares (1992) notes that beliefs do not require internal uniformity. Therefore, they can coexist and be contradictory in nature, which may explain their extensiveness.

Studies on teacher beliefs have indeed reflected the breadth of scope I alluded to above. Sharkey and Layzer (2000), for example, explored the attitudes, beliefs and practices of mainstream language teachers about their English language learners in relation to the learners' success in mainstream classes. The authors noted that the teachers' beliefs about the learners were manifested in a threefold manner. First, they placed the learners in the lower tracks of mainstream classes. Second, they attended to the affective needs of the learners at the expense of the cognitive ones through a phenomenon they called the 'benevolent conspiracy', i.e. 'attempting to provide a comfortable environment without checking or facilitating the development of academic content knowledge' (Sharkey and Layzer, 2000:361). Finally, the teachers created patterns of interaction that inhibited the learners' communication with other classmates. Similar studies in New Zealand have suggested that ethnic and socioeconomic biases may operate behind the teachers' lowering of the cognitive demand they present to their learners and the types of communicative patterns they facilitate in the classroom (see Rubie-Davies, Hattie and Hamilton, 2006).

In a review of the literature about teachers' cognitions about grammar, Borg (2003b) notes that research highlights that whilst teachers have concerns about the students' wants or the syllabus, they nevertheless promote the deductive teaching of grammar, and that this belief is generally shaped by their apprenticeship of observation. He further notices that research tends to emphasise that the teachers and students' views about grammar teaching differ considerably, with the learners generally being extremely keen to being taught grammar explicitly.

Studies in Chile have also looked at the beliefs held by preservice teachers. An important study was conducted by Tagle *et al.* (2012) about the beliefs held by preservice teachers of a five-year *pedagogía en inglés* programme. Tagle *et al.* (2012) reported that in the course of their school placements starting in the second year, the preservice teachers modified their beliefs about teaching from being a simple and transmissive activity to one that is complex and influenced by factors beyond their control. Tagle *et al.* (2012) further noticed that the student-teachers in the fifth year of the programme tended to have low levels of self-efficacy, possibly because they had deep levels of reflection and tended to be more critical of their own practice than preservice teachers in earlier years. In another five-year *pedagogía en inglés* programme in Chile, Alarcón *et al.* (2015) analysed the beliefs about the social role of being a teacher held by student-teachers in their first and fifth year, examining their metaphors and specific images about being an English language teacher. The year one participants provided metaphors in line with a view of teaching and learning as the transmission and reception of content within a behaviourist educational paradigm, in addition to images that highlighted the de-professionalisation of the role of teachers, describing it as serving an economic model that required them to take care of children rather than emphasising how well they could teach. The group in their final year, however, presented metaphors centred on the learners, stressing their teaching performance and strategies to make their pupils learn. They also presented metaphors closer to CLT as opposed to their year one fellow student-teachers.

Despite the breadth of the study of teacher cognitions of both practicing teachers and preservice teachers (see Li, 2019), the study of what teachers 'know, believe, and think' (Borg, 2003a:81) about the tools of their profession remains worryingly under-researched – an issue that could be said to be even more salient at the preservice stage in light of the lack of emphasis given to teaching materials in preservice teacher education. In order to establish connections between teacher cognitions and language teaching materials, in the next section I review some of the literature tackling the intersection between these two areas.

3.3.2.4 *Teacher cognitions and materials*

Studies covering the intersection between teacher cognitions and materials are scarce as mentioned above, yet they reflect the sociocultural complexity attributed to cognitions by Phipps and Borg (2009). McGrath (2006a, 2006b) conducted two notable studies which explored the views held by teachers about coursebooks through the use of metaphors. In the first study, McGrath (2006a) collected the metaphoric language of 221 in-service teachers about coursebooks in Brazil. The results revealed that the teachers conceptualised the coursebook within five broad themes, with the most frequent one being *guidance*, (e.g. 'bible', 'guide dog', 'compass'), followed by *access* (e.g. 'bridge', 'entrance', 'door'), *support* (e.g. 'anchor', 'walking stick', 'ladder'), *resource* (e.g. 'partner', 'goldmine' 'a treasure') and *constraint* (e.g. 'straightjacket', 'cross', 'dictator'). What is noticeable in this range of metaphoric language is that teachers conceptualise the coursebook mostly as an artefact of positive characteristics, with only low references to it as a negative element. McGrath (2006a) further argues that these categories suggest that teachers can be classified into three groups: those who are prepared to follow a textbook, those who use it selectively, and those who do what they can to avoid it. He further proposes that teacher criticality and autonomy cannot be taken for granted and that an evaluative stance towards coursebooks should be encouraged in teacher education courses.

In his second study, McGrath (2006b) collected the metaphors about textbooks of 75 teachers and several hundred learners in Hong-Kong, and categorised the metaphors in a similar rubric as in his earlier study (McGrath, 2006a), this time without the category of '*access*' (possibly because the second study involved a considerably smaller number of teachers). What is of interest in the second study, however, is that the teachers' metaphors about the coursebook, compared to those of the learners (inspiring negative feelings), were significantly less diverse and more positive, which, McGrath (2006b) argues, can be caused by the materials themselves and/or the way in which they are used. Even though McGrath (2006a, 2006b) does not discuss the reasons that could explain the teachers' positive attitude, a likely explanation can be the practical attributes associated with textbooks such as providing language and culture input, saving teachers time and

money, etc. (see section 3.4.1 below). Other reasons explaining this positive characterisation of the textbook can be found by looking at both samples. Richards (1993), for example, has argued that English teachers whose native language is not English or do not speak English well, which could be the case of Hong Kong and Brazilian teachers, tend to attribute positive characteristics to textbooks.

More recently, in a study about teachers' perceptions about a locally developed English coursebook introduced in Bangladesh, Roshid, Haider and Begum (2017) surveyed 100 teachers to explore how efficient they deemed the coursebook. Through the use of quantitative and qualitative methods, such as surveys and interviews, they scrutinised the teachers' views about six aspects of the textbook, namely, linguistic, pedagogical, technical, output, general and sociocultural aspects. The study suggests that overall most teachers evaluated the textbook positively with regards to all six aspects. In addition, Roshid *et al.* (2017) also noted that novice teachers were particularly positive about the textbook, especially regarding issues associated with the textbook's advocated pedagogical approach as well as its presentation of vocabulary. Whilst the overall positive appraisal of the textbook by the teachers can be explained by similar reasons to those presented by Richards (1993) above, the reasons underpinning the more positive views held by novice teachers can be attributed to the teachers' years of working experience. Richards (1993) also argues that novice teachers tend to be more positive about the textbook than veteran ones and are likely to vest it with ELT authority (see 3.4.3 below).

Although the intersection of language teaching materials and teacher cognitions is under-researched, this review illustrates the breadth and complexity of the beliefs held by teachers in relation to the tools of their profession. What emerges from this review is that the teachers' characteristics, such as experience and linguistic backgrounds, seem to be important determiners of how they relate to the materials they use.

3.3.3 Issues/Challenges in Language Teacher Education

A prevailing issue in language teacher education has been the difficulty to overcome the dichotomy between theory and practice (Richards, 2008; Johnson, 2016). This has been particularly salient with regards to SLA findings, which, Johnson (2016)

argues, is and will be an important part of the professionalisation of language teachers. For Johnson (2016:123) this dichotomy lies in the fact that ‘the activities, interests and goals of SLA researchers are simply incompatible with those of teachers as they operate in different discursive worlds’. She further adds that for SLA, and in fact the disciplinary knowledge of the language, and the learning of language teaching, to have relevance in the lives of learners of teaching, this knowledge needs to be interconnected with their experiential knowledge and grounded in the activities concomitant with becoming a language teacher, what Pachler and Paran (2013) refer to as the operationalisation of knowledge and its transformation into pedagogical practices.

Another important challenge not only affecting language teacher education, but teacher education in general and certainly teaching and learning, is the neoliberal reforms which have been taking place in many parts of the world since the 1970’s. For Del Percio and Flubacher (2017b) the influence of neoliberalism has meant the resignification of language education, defined by the marketisation and internationalisation of higher education, changing modes of governmentality of professional routines and language teaching practices, and the commodification of language. These changes, for Gray and Block (2012:120), are hardly surprising in light of the neoliberal conceptualisation of education as the production of ‘human capital’. Furthermore, the neoliberal reforms have affected the objectives and structures of educational programmes. Gray and Block (2012) argue that in the UK, there has been a recalibration of teacher education in lines unlike the applied science and reflective models. They argue that this is manifested in the removal of subjects such as sociology of education or psychology of education from teacher education programmes, and the increase in ‘school-based induction in which reflective practice, as understood by the teacher cognition movement, plays little or no part’ (Gray and Block, 2012:120). Whilst referring to language education in general, Del Percio and Flubacher (2017b) write that neoliberalism has also entailed the standardisation of curricula, learning objectives and assessment tools that have rendered knowledge and skills quantifiable and comparable across different contexts, which is clearly reflected in teacher education in Chile, as seen in the standardisation of teacher education and its objectives as well as the application of

standardised tests to measure the skills and knowledge of newly qualified teachers (see Chapter 2). Whilst not referring to neoliberalism directly, Richards (2008) mentions that ‘becoming an English language teacher means becoming part of a worldwide community of professionals with shared goals, values, discourse and practices’. I find this statement somehow reflecting Del Percio and Flubacher’s (2017b) comments above, especially in issues related to standardisation, or as Richards says, ‘shared’ goals and practices. Clearly, the reach of neoliberalism can be said to have become entrenched in the discourses of the ELT community.

3.4 Materials and Language Teachers

Having reviewed the relevant literature of the two main fields concerned in this study, in this next section I attempt to establish connections between the two. I will highlight the relationship established between language teaching materials and teachers by examining what we know about the use of materials by teachers and the likely issues emerging from this activity.

In spite of the suggestions for the introduction of materials development courses into the education of student-teachers (e.g. Tomlinson, 1998b, 2003, 2016a; Canniveng and Martinez, 2003), and despite the claims teachers are inexorably positioned as materials designers because of the flaws of published materials (e.g. Canniveng and Martinez, 2003; Bouckaert, 2018), these calls have remained largely unanswered (Graves and Garton, 2019). In addition, as Bouckaert (2018) has recently argued, the shifts in the conceptualisation of ELT from, for example, pre-packaged methods to situated pedagogies, or from controlled classrooms and experimental settings to everyday contexts and ecologies, require a more advanced view of the teacher – as a materials developer – than the roles that have traditionally been ascribed to them since the emergence of textbooks. Failing to recognise that teachers are by default forced to produce – or at the very least adapt – their own materials as part of the daily activities that they do, neglects an important part of their labour and aggravates the disconnection between teacher education institutions and the sites where teachers eventually work.

The growing body of literature about materials shown in 3.2 further supports my argument. Practical research-based handbooks such as McGrath (2002), Mishan and Timmis (2015), McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013), amongst others, reflect the coming-of-age of materials development. These volumes also reflect the fact that the advances made in the field of language teaching materials are in a way available not only for materials writers, but also for practicing teachers and students of language teaching. Other edited volumes such as Tomlinson (2003) or Garton and Graves (2014) have dedicated special sections with chapters bridging the gap between the study of language teaching materials and teachers reporting on the benefits of tackling materials in teacher preparation courses, as well as the opportunities missed due to the lack of the study of materials. McGrath's (2013) monograph about the roles of language teachers vis-à-vis language materials and learners is particularly relevant in this scenario as it highlights that materials are not alienated artefacts, but that they come to life when they are used by teachers and learners.

A notable paper in Tomlinson (2003) highlighting the centrality of the study of language teaching materials in preservice and in-service teacher education was offered by Canniveng and Martinez (2003). Whilst they argue that both preservice and in-service teacher education should approach materials development differently, they observe that materials development can be an ideal meeting point of SLA theory, teachers' experience and teachers' cognitions in both stages of teacher education. Canniveng and Martinez (2003) argue that in preservice teacher education, trainees should learn how to draw relevant ELT and SLA theory into the selection, use and evaluation of materials to meet the specific needs of learners, and that in-service teacher education student-teachers should learn to reflect back on their teaching successes and failures to create their own criteria to design materials. Their plea for the inclusion of materials design components at both stages of teacher education is strongly underpinned by a view of English teachers who have a central position in curriculum development through the selection, use and often rewriting of materials.

A remarkable chapter in Garton and Graves' (2014) edited volume was offered by Augusto-Navarro, de Oliveira and de Abreu-e-Lima (2014). These ELT

practitioners designed a 60-hour optional module called 'Evaluation and Design of Teaching Materials in EFL' for a group of student-teachers during their teacher education in Brazil. The model was designed to provide the student-teachers with knowledge of theories about language teaching and learning, opportunities to identify those theories in the materials, and opportunities to reflect on the effectivity of materials for specific groups of learners. Augusto-Navarro, de Oliveira and de Abreu-e-Lima (2014) argue that the course raised awareness in both student-teachers and teacher educators. This was reflected in the student-teachers realising the importance of catering for the learners' needs and placing them at the heart of their concerns. The teacher educators, on the other hand, were able to develop more practical activities to teach language teaching and learning theories, in addition to becoming updated in the literature of the field. Notwithstanding this growing body of literature, the sum of these works has not substantially made its way into language teacher education, and as I showed in Chapter 2, the Chilean context remains very much a good example of this.

But what do we actually know about teachers and their relationship with materials? We know that as part of their daily labour, teachers (have to) use and adapt, existing materials, or in effect, develop their own (Graves and Garton, 2019). This is a potentially fruitful field to navigate since many of the processes entailed in materials development/design are also part of their actual use as I discussed in section 3.2.3. Given that coursebooks have gained most attention in the study of materials, I will rely on them as a point of reference in the following discussions touching on the relationship between materials and teachers.

3.4.1 Some affordances

To begin on a positive note, the affordances of the use of commercial materials by teachers have long been acknowledged in ELT, and as Mishan and Timmis (2015) write, these tend to be of a practical nature. For example, when textbooks looked dramatically different from what they do today, O'Neill (1982) noted that they saved the teachers time and money, and provided them with a platform to improvise. Despite the dramatic changes in materials over the years, some scholars contend

that these affordances remain very much the same. McGrath (2002) argues that textbooks provide structure, save time, offer linguistic and cultural input, and help to keep track of what has been done. To the above, Gray (2016) adds that published coursebooks are increasingly aligned with international and local examinations, and with syllabi derived from international frameworks such as the CEFR. Since O'Neill (1982) to Gray (2016), it is noteworthy how the textbook has increasingly adopted a number of roles that in the past would have been typically conducted by the teachers (I discuss these in more detail below).

In contexts where a new language teaching methodology is imposed or where there is scarcely any teacher education, the textbook can in effect provide on-the-job training for inexperienced or untrained teachers (Richards, 2014). In these contexts, Richards (1993) argues, the textbook serves a dual purpose, that is, mediating the learning of English by the learners, and giving the teacher formal knowledge of the language and training in teaching methods. Richards (1993) further argues that in these scenarios, the textbook promotes practical skills, uses objectives and competencies to evaluate learning and teaching, and promotes needs analysis and programme and materials development (Richards, 1993). Likewise, Waltermann and Forel (2015) note that textbooks can serve as a teacher training tool for those who teach different or new classes, those affected by official recommendations in language teaching, or those starting to teach in a different context. The use of the textbook to introduce a new language policy echoes Hutchinson and Torres (1994) about the introduction of curricular changes through textbooks. For them, the use of textbooks can promote the 're-skilling' of teachers. Their argument lies in the idea that textbooks can provide a structural basis to 'fully understand and "routinize" change' (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994: 323). They further claim that the more complex a textbook becomes, the more skills are necessary of the teacher to use it and enact the curricular changes required. Hutchinson and Torres' (1994) view is one where the textbook is seen as a provider of structure rather than as an artefact controlling teachers' labour.

In line with the above, probably one of the most popular characteristics attributed to coursebooks is that they can define the overall structure of whole courses, hence the name *course* book. This reference to the textbook and its use as

syllabus has been widely discussed in education in general (e.g. Collopy, 2003; Ball and Feiman-Nemser, 1988) as well as in ELT (e.g. Guerrettaz and Johnston, 2013; Richards, 2014; Harwood, 2017), possibly due to their recognised help in lesson planning (Horsley, 2007). As Harwood (2014:11) writes, ‘many understand a curriculum to mean the content of a policy document or textbook’ and thus use the coursebook as the *de facto* syllabus.

3.4.2 Textbook dependency

The use of the textbook as the *de facto* syllabus has been associated with teachers’ dependency on textbooks, and in fact, a number of issues emerge from this. For example, in studying a case of classroom-based teacher continuing development in three language schools in Manchester, UK, Shawer (2010:610) noted that the teachers who tended to adhere systematically to the use of the textbook were associated with ‘unit-by-unit, lesson-by-lesson, task-by-task and page-by-page strategies’ for language teaching. He concluded that this use of the textbook reduced teachers’ roles to consuming and delivering a centralised curriculum and that these teachers had an overall impoverished and traditional practice of ELT, further showing lower levels of work satisfaction, which was also perceived by their learners. From the field of general education, Macgilchrist (2018) argues that textbook dependency promotes and naturalises certain ways of teaching and learning imbricated in them, further depicting these materials as desirable, which in my view raises concerns in light of the criticisms I mentioned about textbooks regarding their content. Back in the field of ELT, authors such as Richards (1993), Hutchinson (1996), Horsley (2007), Mishan and Timmis (2015), amongst others, suggest that teachers who lack experience and training are more likely to develop dependency on the textbook.

3.4.3 Reifying the textbook

Reification is broadly defined as the treatment of an abstraction as a concrete and immutable procedure which allows for the perpetuation of institutions through the provision of a structure specifying certain practices (Shannon, 1987; Silva, 2013;

Feenberg, 2015). Richards (1993) attributes textbook reification in part to publishing houses that promote their books arguing that they have been written in line with the views and theories of experts and cutting-edge research. However, Richards (1993) also argues that reification is further promoted by teachers themselves who expect the material to have emerged from the wisdom of practicing teachers and specialists, and teachers who also expect that the learning objectives proposed in the textbook will be achieved as its tasks and activities have been carefully selected and designed. This belief, Richards (1993) writes, can lie in the teachers' uncritical curricular and cultural assumptions about the textbook's linguistic content and methods of delivery as well as its cultural representations. In these cases, teachers believe that the contents, methods and representations are "true" and should not be questioned. Reification is typically attributed to novice teachers or those lacking experience and training. For example, Bosompem (2014) found that novice teachers in Ghana avoided adapting their textbooks, as they did not feel they had the authority to do so, although she does not discuss this issue from the point of view of reification.

Finally, concomitant with this research is that reification makes invisible the labour of those who are behind the design of the textbook. As Shannon (1987) writes, when teachers reify a textbook, they neglect the work of its writers, typesetters, artist and so on, constructing a social link with the textbook and not with those involved in its creation. In this regard, reification can also risk making invisible the labour of the teachers themselves when their learners construe studying English as being taught by the textbook and not their teachers.

3.4.4 Teacher deskilling

Teacher deskilling is potentially the most serious negative influence of textbooks on teachers. Richards (1993) refers to this process as a lowering and reduction of the teachers' cognitive skills required in the process of teaching resulting from dependency on the textbook. For Richards (1993), this process can occur in a twofold manner. On the one hand, the textbook can risk making teachers lose their ability to make decisions before and during their lessons, as well as their ability to turn content into learnable form, what he calls pedagogical reasoning. On the other hand,

and relatedly, the teachers' roles are reduced to being the 'mere deliverers of the content that [textbooks] contain rather than... decision makers who select, reject and modify content on the basis of specific local requirements' (Gray, 2016:97).

Apple and Jungck (1990:230) have argued that the process of deskilling is underpinned by a rationalisation and standardisation of people's jobs, whereby their labour is 'broken down into atomistic elements' which leads the individual, in this case the teacher, to 'lose sight of her or his own labour because someone outside the immediate situation now has greater control over both the planning and what is actually to go on'. Apple and Jungck (1990) additionally contend that, as a result, teachers not only lose control over their teaching, but also lose the skills and power that they developed during their training or with experience, and which in some cases, took teachers decades to gain. This issue seems to be related to a broader educational scenario in which what teachers used to know is no longer necessary because the textbook is capable of taking those functions on board. Apple (1981, cited in Ozga and Lawn, 1981) observes that deskilling is a form of curricular change in which conception is separated from execution in an attempt to accumulate control over the specifications that teachers have to implement. For Ozga and Lawn (1981) this is a way of control typically present in pre-packaged sets of curricular materials.

3.5 How do teachers of English learn to design language teaching materials?

What we know about language teaching materials development and language teacher education is that both have evolved from being narrowly-defined to being seen as highly-theoretical and principle-driven activities. Despite the progress made in language learning materials in both the materials analysis and materials development camps, these advances have not significantly informed the spheres where the study of learning materials is extremely relevant and beneficial. The best example of this is the fact that – despite the centrality of materials in the daily lives of teachers – materials research and materials development are not a substantial part of English language teacher education programmes, such as those in Chile as

shown in Chapter 2. In addition, the current conceptualisation of teacher learning as an activity shaped by the macro and micro sociocultural settings where teachers learn to teach and the recognition of the influential role of their learning trajectories and their cognitions, then pose the question of how preservice teachers of English develop the knowledge and skills involved in materials selection, adaptation and design. Thus, with this in mind, the current research sets out to answer the following overarching research question:

How do preservice teachers of English in Chile learn to design language teaching materials?

To answer this question, I will follow the sociocultural turn discussed in 3.3.2. I mentioned that Vygotsky's sociocultural theory has strongly influenced current thinking in language teacher education. It has meant a reconceptualisation of the teacher knowledge base and the way in which teacher education courses are given, as well as a shift in conducting research into learning to teach. In this regard, its emphasis on human learning as a 'dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts, and is distributed across persons, tools and activities' (Johnson, 2009:1) inevitably places the social context and its constituents as key elements for developing an understanding of how student-teachers learn. From this viewpoint, the literature now frequently suggests taking into consideration that teacher learning comprises an array of social relationships within the different micro and macro contexts where teachers are enculturated into educational and pedagogical beliefs, values and practices (e.g. Grossman, Smagorinsky and Valencia, 1999; Johnson, 2006, 2009, Borg, 2003a; Richards, 2008; Engin, 2014; Barahona, 2016).

However, a purely Vygotskian sociocultural approach to human development would focus on the individual rather than the collective (Engeström, 1999, 2001; Smagorinsky, 2010) and would not examine the actions of individuals as events occurring within collective activity (Grossman *et al.*, 1999). In order to arrive at telling insights of how the craft of materials design is learnt by student-teachers during their teacher education course, this activity needs to be studied as a collective one. The framework I propose to use, generally known as Activity Theory, can help

trace the sources of social and cultural patterns of action through which preservice teachers internalise and externalise their understanding of teaching and learning and use it to develop their own language teaching materials in the communities where they learn to teach.

3.6. A theoretical framework to explore the learning of materials design: Activity Theory

Activity Theory (henceforth AT) is a commonly accepted term for the work initiated by Lev Vygotsky and continued by his pupils Leont'ev and Luria in the Soviet Union in the 1920's and 1930's (Roth and Lee, 2007). In line with the Sociocultural Theory of Mediated Action and the Theory of Situated Learning, AT has emerged as an offshoot of sociocultural theory (Engeström and Miettinen, 1999; Lantolf, 2000), and has been primarily concerned with teaching and learning inquiries within the context of specific communities of practice (Engeström and Miettinen, 1999; Roth, 2004). In fact, the main thrust of AT is its strong emphasis on the idea that individuals act collectively in communities and institutions, and that their actions cannot be solely added one on top of the other to be understood, but instead need to be theorised in conjunction (Engeström, 1999). For Johnson (2009), at the heart of AT there is a concern for exploring learning and development through approaching activities holistically rather than isolating single factors or controlling for others. To this end, Johnson (2009) would argue, a focus on the activity system is necessary, where one can observe goal-oriented activity as mediated by physical and symbolic tools; examine how people function collectively; and see how their actions are mediated by their social relationships.

3.6.1 The Activity System

The main concern of AT is what they call an 'activity system', which, for Engeström and Miettinen (1999), is an object-oriented, collective and culturally mediated human activity. Activity systems do not occur in a vacuum, but are cultural and historical composites, whose specific outcomes determine the actions taken up by the members of the community (Grossman *et al.*, 1999). Activity settings usually

overlap, as they do not emerge in isolated social contexts, thus coexisting with others (Grossman *et al.*, 1999). Some activity systems are usually embedded within larger activity systems. For instance, the modules making up English language teacher education courses can be said to be different activity systems with their own subject-specific motives, which are part of the larger activity system of training/educating English language teachers.

The theoretical development of the activity system in AT is better understood as happening through three generations. Yamagata-Lynch (2010) argues that the first generation emerges from the work of Vygotsky and his conceptualisation of action mediated by psychological and physical tools. Bakhurst (2007) points out that Vygotsky was dissatisfied with the idea that human behaviour was only a response to stimuli, and thus introduced the concept of mediation. In Vygotsky's (1978) view, psychological tools are internalised by individuals from their interactions with the sociocultural environment as ways of thinking; these tools later assist in the mediation of object-oriented action. Engeström (2001) claims that a limitation of this model is that the unit of analysis is individually focused. Vygotsky's claims are typically illustrated as in Figure 3.1.

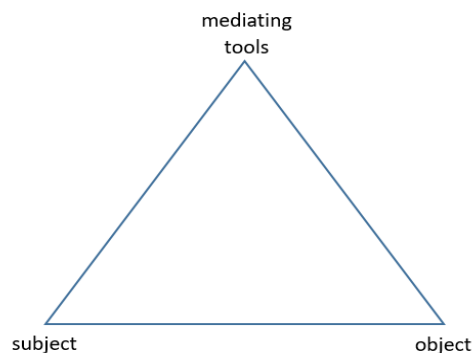


Figure 3. 1 First generation activity theory (adapted from Engeström, 2001:134)

The second generation of AT is commonly described as emerging from the work of Vygostky's student, Alexei Leont'ev, who introduced a more collective view on mediation. This is clearly reflected in Leont'ev's basic distinction between 'action' and 'activity', in which the former alludes to the actions performed by individuals to achieve a 'goal', whilst the latter refers to a community's efforts to achieve an

'object' or 'motive' (Bakhurst, 2009). Building on Leont'ev's work, Engeström (1987) expanded Vygotsky's graphic representation to one systematising the mediation of collective activity as shown in Figure 3.2 below, further claiming that the dynamics of the system results from contradictions emerging between (and within) the elements that form it.

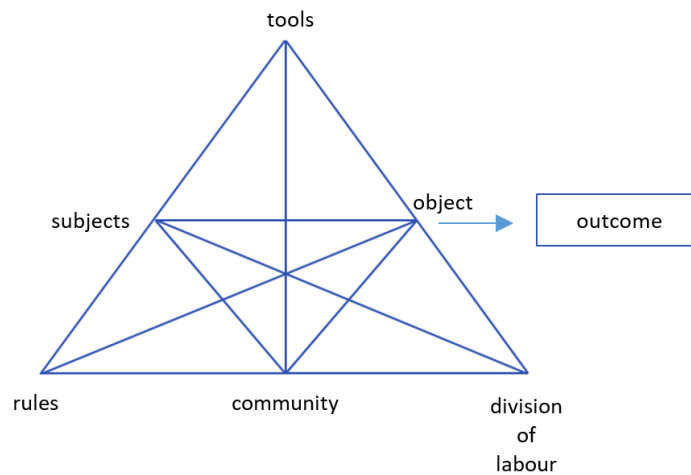


Figure 3. 2 Second generation activity theory

For researchers using AT, Figure 3.2 is pivotal to illustrate human activity. Yamagata-Lynch (2010) describes its constituents as follows. The *subject* is the individual or group of individuals participating in the activity. The *tools* refer to the social others and physical and/or symbolic artefacts being used as resources by the subject(s) to mediate the activity. The *object* or motive of the activity is the goal, and it will determine what is done and what is not done in the development of the activity. The *rules* are formal or informal procedures affecting in varying degrees how the activity takes place. The *community* is the social group that the subject is part of during an activity. The *division of labour* refers to the distribution of responsibilities or tasks amongst the community. Finally, the *outcome* of an activity system is the final result. The analysis of the activity setting as depicted in Figure 3.2 helps researchers understand how individual activity relates to its context and how the individual(s), their activities, and the context affect one another (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010).

In this model, the element defining the identity of an activity system is the object/motive, which, according to Wertsch (1985), will determine what is maximised in a given system. In other words, in prioritising a given object/motive, certain behaviours are favoured over others, and certain actions will be given up if need be. Very often, various objects/motives coexist within an activity system, yet typically one or a few prevail (Grossman *et al.*, 1999). For example, as we shall see, a common clash of objects in this study was the preservice teachers' attempt to comply with the university requirements regarding teaching English whilst trying to respond to the specificities of the schools where they did their practicum.

The third generation of AT incorporates the previous work but considers at least two interacting activity systems under the same analytical lens (see Figure 3.3 below), where the object of activity can be potentially shared or jointly constructed, as is the case of university-school partnerships typically involved in teacher education (Engeström, 2001). What is key in the third generation is to explore the conditions in which different systems interact (Bakhurst, 2009). In addition to focusing on at least two activity systems, in this generation of AT, the researcher does not limit their role to describing the nature of activity, but can also adopt an interventionist and participatory approach to the system(s) (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Thus, the unit of analysis transcends one activity system and expands to another. This fundamental difference allows the emergence of systemic contradictions, which I discuss in 3.6.1.1.

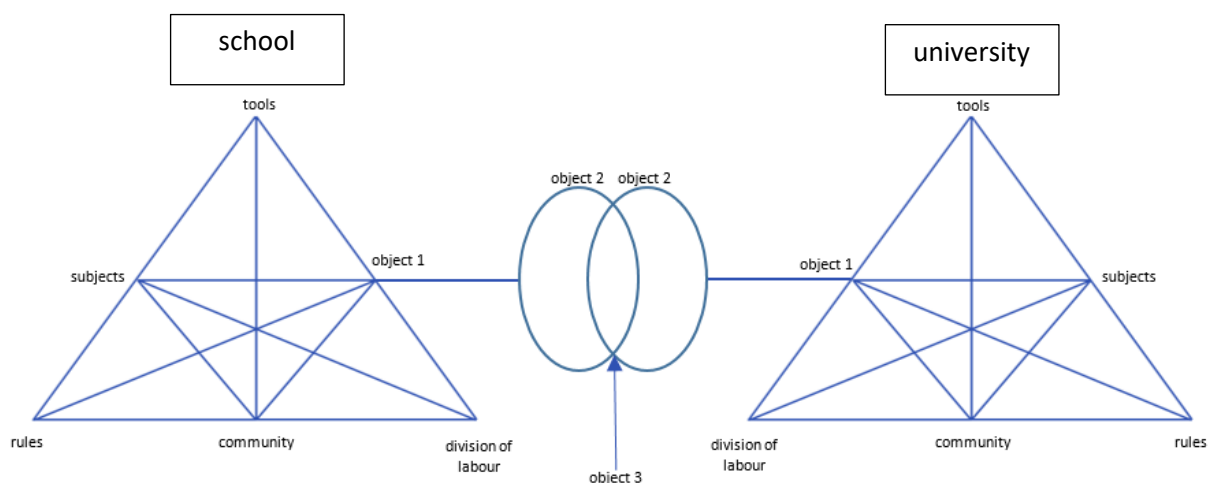


Figure 3.3 Third generation Activity Theory

In light of the above, the activity of learning to design English language materials is part of a complex circuit of interrelated activity systems that are part of the macro activity system of educating Chilean students. Within this activity system, it is possible to find activity systems such as those relevant to the design of educational policy, school administration, as well as the teaching of each specific school subjects like Spanish, Mathematics, and English, amongst others. Subordinated to the activity system of ELT are activity systems such as English textbook design, the *Programa Inglés Abre Puertas* mentioned in Chapter 2, and English teacher education. Many smaller yet equally complex and interrelated activity systems are part of the activity of educating English teachers. For example, the learning of English itself by prospective teachers can be said to be an activity system. Likewise, the learning of theories of education and learning language teaching theories are activity systems of their own. The learning of materials design is yet another activity system embedded in the broader complex network of becoming a teacher of English. Figure 3.4 illustrates how each small triangle represents an activity system that is part of the bigger activity system of educating English teachers. What all these activity systems have in common is that they share the broader object/motive of learning to teach English. Due to space constraints I only included those that are more relevant for the Chilean context, but I leave the model open to incorporating other systems in accordance with the sociocultural contexts where the education of English teachers takes place.

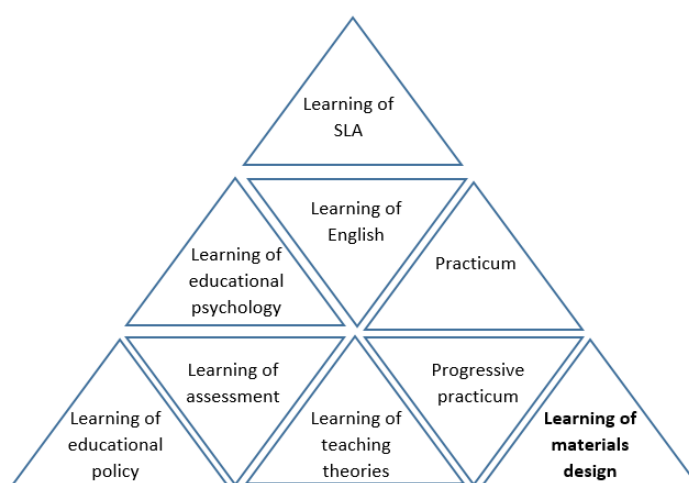


Figure 3. 4 Activity of learning of materials design as part of the activity system of English teacher education

3.6.1.1 Systemic contradictions

Given its dialectics, the study of systemic contradictions is of utmost importance in AT (Roth and Lee, 2007). For Engeström (1987), the inner unrest of each corner of the model of activity system shown above is a necessary precondition for the study of activity. In fact, as Roth (2004) writes, any human activity is embedded within the fundamental contradiction, i.e., an individual's activity is part of the total societal production – the dialectic coexistence of the general and the particular. Roth and Lee (2007) explain that contradictions are historically accumulated tensions emerging from the coexistence of mutually exclusive elements within an activity system or between the components of different coexisting activity systems, which, according to Johnson (2009) and Engeström and Sannino (2011), can be identified through the participants' voices, rather than from only observing their actions.

Individuals can experience contradictions on four levels depending on where they occur in the activity system (Engeström, 1987). A *primary contradiction* is a tension within one of the components of the activity setting shown in Figure 3.2 (Engeström, 1987). For example, in a study conducted by Barahona (2016) in Chile, the preservice teachers – subjects of the system – experienced primary contradictions when they believed that English could be a viable medium of instruction, yet they did not use it because they felt they would not be understood. Similarly, Blázquez and Tagle (2010) found out that a group of Chilean preservice teachers professed mixed beliefs about ELT: they held beliefs based on a constructivist and communicative paradigm of language teaching and learning whilst concurrently holding traditional and structural views of teaching English.

At a *secondary level*, contradictions may arise between the corners of the system (Engeström, 1987). For instance, Barahona's (2016) study also reported tensions between the teacher educators (members of the community), who knew language teaching theories but did not know the school contexts, and their student teachers (the subjects of the system) who were asked to implement methodologies they felt were not suitable for their teaching settings.

Tertiary contradictions exist when the object/motive of a dominant (but less advanced) activity clashes with the object/motive of a more 'culturally' advanced form of the activity introduced by its representatives (Engeström, 1987; Roth and

Lee, 2007). For example, Swain, Kinnear and Steinman (2015) documented the case of email interactions between Sandra, an English teacher doing a postgraduate course, and Marc, one of her students. While Sandra's motive was to implement a critical model of pedagogy that she was learning (a more culturally advanced form of teaching) in order to equalise power relations between her and her student, Marc wanted her to provide him with feedback as in traditional language teaching approaches.

Finally, *quaternary contradictions* may emerge between the central activity and other 'essential neighbouring activities' (Engeström, 1987:71). For Engeström (1987), these neighbouring activities have their motives embedded within the central activity, and include instruments that are key to it. For example, in the same study by Barahona (2016), she noted that the practicum component (a neighbouring activity) of the English teacher education programme that she studied did not share the overall motives/objects that the programme had (central activity). In other words, whilst for the programme, the student-teachers were required to demonstrate requisite knowledge and skills in the practicum, such as use English at all times and communicative tasks, these expectations of language teaching seemed unrealistic and contrary to the school curriculum and ethos in which the practicum took place.

The state of affairs of the study of materials development in English language teacher education in Chile described in Chapter 2 provides a very rich context for the emergence of systemic contradictions. In fact, it could be said that the overall neglect of materials design, whilst recognised as a mainstream activity in the daily lives of language teachers, is in itself a primary contradiction in the activity of training/educating English language teachers because of the lack of emphasis it is given in teacher education programmes. Furthermore, the extremely complex network of participants in this activity, such as preservice teachers, teacher educators, mentor teachers, and language learners, and their different division of labour allows the emergence of many clashing viewpoints, traditions and interests which, for Engeström (2001:136) are 'a source of trouble and a source of innovation, demanding actions of translation and negotiation'.

3.6.1.2 Tools

The concept of 'tool' is extremely important in sociocultural theory and AT (Cole, 1999; Engeström and Sannino, 2011). Broadly defined, Vygotsky (1978) describes tool as an artefact assisting the accomplishment of an action. In fact, Vygotsky says that 'the effect of tool use upon humans is fundamental not only because it has helped them relate more effectively to their external environment but also because tool use has had important effects upon internal and functional relationships with the human brain' (Vygotsky, 1978:132-133). This is a widely accepted notion in sociocultural theory today. In effect, contemporary sociocultural researchers such as Ellis, Edwards and Smagorinsky (2010) argue that tools shape human activity, and that the development of the human mind can be studied by analysing tools and their mediation of actions.

Tools, as Engeström and Miettinen (1999) argue, are historically formed and are common to society at large. This strong consideration of historically formed tools then means that AT is particularly concerned with how human activity is culturally and historically laden. This presupposes that the development of human cognition occurs through activities that are unique to the different societies where they occur and which have been constructed through their collective histories. As Johnson (2006:238) explains, 'the social activities [...] are structured and gain meaning in historically and culturally situated ways', which suggests that the meaning(s) ascribed to the tools of different communities of practice come(s) from those who have performed similar activities in the community before.

Tools are not only material but also symbolic. Based on this categorisation, they are typically referred to as *physical tools* and *psychological tools* (or *signs*) (Wertsch, 1985). *Physical tools*, in Wertsch's view, are those used to act upon one's environment. Given their orientation towards an individual's exterior world, these tools are externally directed to the realisation of an object, and have an important role in transforming the relationship between humans and their environment (Vygotsky, 1978).

On the other hand, *psychological tools*, or *signs*, are internally-oriented. In other words, they influence one's behaviour and the mastery of human actions as 'an instrument of psychological activity' (Vygotsky, 1978:52; Vygotsky, 1997).

According to Wertsch (1985), Vygotsky's work on psychological tools evolved to a semiotic categorisation, which can be seen in Vygotsky's list of examples of signs such as language, systems for counting, writing, maps, and works of art, *inter alia*, whose common denominator can be said to be some form of meaning-making. Drawing on Vygotsky, Wertsch (1985) also writes that psychological tools are social, i.e. they are a product of sociocultural evolution, they are not individual; these tools are not inherited either, as one would inherit genetic information. Psychological tools are appropriated by individuals in their condition of belonging to a social milieu.

Vygotsky summarises the role of *psychological tools* – or *signs* – writing that '[t]he sign acts as an instrument of psychological activity in a manner analogous to the role of a tool in labor' (Vygotsky, 1978:52). In light of the important role that psychological tools have in human cognitive development, exploring them can provide telling insights into how learning to design language teaching materials occurs. In line with this, Grossman, Smagorinsky, and Valencia (1999) offer a theoretical categorisation of psychological tools under the name of 'conceptual tool' from a teacher education viewpoint. As I consider this nomenclature extremely useful to construe the process of learning to design language teaching materials, I explore it in the next section.

3.6.1.3 *Conceptual tools*

Grossman *et al.* (1999:14) write that conceptual tools are 'principles, frameworks, and ideas about teaching, learning, and English/language arts acquisition' used by teachers as heuristics guiding their pedagogical decision-making. Thus, for Grossman *et al.* (1999), broad theories of teaching and learning, such as constructivism or behaviourism, and more specific ones such as scaffolding, would fall under the category of conceptual tool, serving as guiding principles mediating teachers' pedagogical decisions.

The way Grossman *et al.* (1999) envisage conceptual tools overlaps with the notion of teacher cognitions I introduced in 3.3.2.3. The conceptual tools mediating the preservice teachers' design of materials can be said to be formed of beliefs, tacit understandings, and explicit knowledge about language teaching (see Borg, 2003a).

Illustrating this conceptualisation, Grossman *et al.* (1999) give the example of a teacher education course that emphasised assessment through the alignment of instructional goals, curriculum, teaching and assessment, and how the student-teachers gave evidence of the internalisation of this framework for alignment. They quote one secondary school preservice teacher saying:

“[the assessment class] really made me realize that every single thing I do, every little activity that I do should have a purpose, and it should be working [toward] some kind of an educational goal. I think knowing that I had to always focus on what I wanted them to get out of the lesson before teaching it. Like don't think afterwards, well what did they learn, but think ahead of time, what are they going to learn from this?” (Grossman et al., 1999: 14)

The participant above gave evidence of the development of the conceptual tool of alignment developed in the assessment class which she further used for thinking about planning, teaching and assessing. The authors note that this framework of alignment became an important and implicit part of how the preservice teachers thought about and critiqued their own practice of teaching.

However, I would argue that Grossman *et al.*'s (1999:14) definition of conceptual tool as ‘principles, frameworks, and ideas about teaching’ can be extended to notions of teaching and learning that are not *explicitly* taught in teacher education programmes but that are nonetheless *tacitly* learnt by learners of teaching in their educational milieus. For example, in the past, certain metaphors such as ‘teaching as knowledge transmission’ (Johnson, 2009:18) were used as conceptual tools to articulate teaching principles, frameworks, or patterns of teaching and learning (though they are no longer promoted in teacher education institutions, and in fact, sometimes not publicly accepted, see Johnson (2009)). Whilst today it could be argued that a conceptual tool such as ‘teaching as knowledge transmission’ is not used to instil pedagogical views in students of teaching owing to shifts in what is known about teaching and learning, research has documented that tools such as this are nevertheless internalised by student teachers, who develop or reinforce transmissive pedagogies in the educational contexts where they learn to teach (e.g.

Grossman *et al.*, 1999; Blázquez and Tagle, 2010). Thus, these pedagogies can be said to be conceptual tools which are deeply socially and historically embedded in the institutional settings where student-teachers learn to teach, and are available for them (see Engeström and Miettinen, 1999) to internalise through their interactions with schoolteachers, learners, colleagues, fellow learners of teaching, teacher educators, materials, documents, etc. (Johnson, 2009).

The development of conceptual tools is normally referred to as *appropriation* or *internalisation*, which is an important notion in the AT school (Engeström, 1999; Lave and Wegner, 1991; Bazerman, 2012; Martin and Evaldsson, 2012). For Vygotsky (1978:57), 'the internalization [or appropriation] of socially rooted and historically developed activities is the distinguishing feature of human psychology', further arguing that this is a transformative process (see also Wertsch, 1985; Lave and Wegner, 1991). In other words, during the process of *appropriation* individuals reconstruct in their minds the activities occurring in their contexts. Thus, the individual transforms the activity from an interpersonal function to an intrapersonal one, based on sign operations, or as Grossman *et al.* (1999) write, conceptual tools.

In line with its sociocultural origin, AT assumes that a number of contextual factors will influence the degree to which conceptual tools are appropriated. Grossman *et al.* (1999) explain that the social context of learning and the individual characteristics of the learners (e.g. apprenticeship of observation, personal goals and expectations, and knowledge and beliefs about content) have an important impact on the degree to which individuals appropriate tools. Therefore, in focusing on the appropriation of conceptual tools available in the activity system of materials design, it is possible to understand not only the process of appropriation itself, but also the ways of thinking of the communities where the PSTs teach and learn.

3.6.2 Activity Theory as a Research Tool

The activity-theoretical tradition is formed of two strands (Bakhurst, 2009; Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). On the one hand, as Bakhurst (2009:205) notes, AT is seen as an 'explanatory category that is key to understanding the nature and possibility of mind'. In other words, AT is used as a heuristic to study complex learning situations within natural settings such as teacher learning (e.g. Grossman *et al.*, 1999; Swain *et*

at., 2015; Yamagata-Lynch and Haudenschild, 2009; Barahona, 2016). On the other hand, Bakhurst (2009:205) writes that AT can be used as an interventionist framework to identify potential developmental changes in human activity and social systems, as 'a way of modelling organisational change' (e.g. Roth and Tobin, 2001).

In this thesis I use AT in line with the former strand, that is, as a framework to study how teacher learning is influenced by its social settings. Thus, I disassociate this study from the more interventionist view in which direct attempts are made to change the activity. This does not mean that I remove myself from the phenomenon under enquiry as in more positivist traditions. On the contrary, I take an active disposition to work my way into the activity system of learning to design materials in order to be able to interpret the views of the various participants. In doing thus, as Bakhurst (2009:207) argues, I can 'sense the forces that influence [the participants'] perceptions and their actions'.

As mentioned in 3.6, AT has been used to study teaching and learning phenomena. In the particular case of teacher education, AT has shed light on the many sociocultural influences shaping teacher learning, and the systemic contradictions underlying it. For example, Jahreie and Ottesen (2010) studied how prospective teachers of different subjects of a department of teacher education in Norway learned to teach in different learning spheres (e.g. seminars, mentoring, supervision). Using CHAT (Cultural Historical Activity Theory) they uncovered the cultural-historic and systemic contradictions faced by the student-teachers when learning to become a teacher and concluded that the student-teachers' trajectories are interpreted differently in different learning spheres in spite of being a common motive/object for the university and schools. For example, there were significant variations in what 'knowing' meant in seminars and oral examinations, which led the student-teachers of the programme to experience contradictions affecting their division of labour, tools, rules and objects of the different learning spheres.

In the US, Yamagata-Lynch and Haudenschild (2009) used Engeström's activity systems theory to analyse what a group of teachers of different disciplines perceived as factors influencing their professional development offered by their school district in tandem with a local university, as well as to analyse the contradictions challenging their teacher development process. The authors identified

a number of elements influencing the teachers' development such as classroom materials and colleagues, university requirements, university and school district staff, new responsibilities, amongst others. The authors also found a number of contradictions hindering the teachers' development, such as disagreements about the benefits of teacher development programmes, overwhelming responsibilities for and expectations from the teachers, giving the teachers new teaching methods that did not fit their classrooms, and a domino effect of changing pedagogical practices in one area affecting other aspects of the teachers' practice. Yamagata-Lynch and Haudenschild (2009) highlight that a joint activity between the university and school district does not guarantee that the efforts to achieve a given motive/object are aligned and coordinated.

In the field of ESL teacher education, the use of AT has helped reveal the contradictions faced by student-teachers when trying to implement more progressive pedagogies. For example, Swain et al. (2015) studied the email interactions between an ESL teacher in Canada who was trying to apply a model of critical pedagogy she had learnt in her postgraduate course and one of her ESL pupils. Swain et al. (2015) identified the contextual factors influencing the development of this activity, such as, the rules affecting the language used in the emails, the tools used to mediate their email interactions, the community involved in the activity, the division of labour between the participants, and the participants' differing goals – for the teacher, to improve her theoretical understanding of language teaching, and for the learner, to improve workplace language proficiency productivity. Underlying this activity was a systemic contradiction in which the ESL teacher's goal of equating power relations between her and her student clashed with her learner's expectation that the teacher would display her authority through language correction.

Closer to the context of my study, Barahona (2016) has recently raised issues about the tensions lived by a group of EFL teacher candidates in Chile. Her research involved 15 EFL student-teachers, teacher educators, schoolteachers, administrators and different research methods such as observations, interviews, self-reflection reports, documents and group discussions. Using CHAT, Barahona (2016) noted that the teacher education programme placed the student-teachers in the middle of

number of contradictions, such as the learning of teaching theories not directly applicable to the contexts where they were doing their practicum or giving the student-teachers the role of qualified teachers during their practicum when they had not yet finished their teacher education course.

This review shows some of the affordances of AT in the study of teacher learning. What is noticeable in all the studies is how AT allowed the authors to handle the vast array of sociocultural factors mediating the activity in question, in addition to identifying a number of contradictions inhibiting the teachers and student-teachers' learning and development. In a similar fashion, in using AT I expect to be able to describe how the learning of materials design is shaped by the settings in which this activity is situated and the tensions experienced by student-teachers during this process.

3.7 Research questions

In 3.5 I stated the overarching question guiding this research: *How do preservice teachers of English in Chile learn to design language teaching materials?* This question emerged from the identification of a lack of emphasis on language teaching materials in English teacher education programmes in Chile, and my examination of the literature about language teaching materials and second language teacher education. I stated that in order to answer this question, I would rely on a sociocultural approach in order to frame the study within the current thinking in the learning of language teaching scholarship.

In light of the above, the following research questions reflect my taking on board concepts of Activity Theory that have the potential to answer the overarching question of this study. They reflect the current view of learning to teach as a socioculturally-situated activity and therefore disregard traditional views of teacher-learning as a transmission process concluding in the translation of language teaching and learning theories into practice.

The specific research questions, rephrased in Activity Theory parlance, are:

1. What systemic contradictions emerge when the PSTs design their own language teaching materials?

2. What conceptual tools mediate the PSTs' designing of materials?
3. What contextual elements of the school and university settings mediate the development of conceptual tools used by the PSTs to design materials, and how?

Understanding the systemic contradictions experienced by the PSTs during their design of materials may allow language teacher education programmes to identify the situated challenges of the activity of educating language teachers. Similarly, knowledge of the conceptual tools used by PSTs to design materials can provide insights into the dominant rationales they use in their practice of materials design and language teaching. Finally, knowledge of the school and university elements can point out the contextual factors that promote or undermine the development of conceptual tools, and how. In my view, all three questions can help bridge the gap between language teaching materials and language teacher education.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the two main subfields of applied linguistics involved in this study and the theoretical framework used to understand the learning of materials design. I have argued that whilst the study of language teaching materials has grown substantially in the directions of materials as curricular and cultural artefacts since the mid-1990's, it has not yet made its way into the practice of English language teacher education, currently construed as a sociocultural activity. The disconnection between both fields poses the question of how designing language teaching materials is learnt by students of language teaching.

In order to answer this question, I proposed to use an offshoot of sociocultural theory known as Activity Theory as a heuristic to understand how such learning is attained. I argued that looking at the systemic contradictions, conceptual tools and contextual factors of the activity system of materials design can provide insights into how this teacherly skill is learnt by student-teachers. In the next chapter I discuss the research methodology used in this study.

Chapter 4

Research design for understanding the learning of materials design

4.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the research methodology used to understand the process of learning to design language teaching materials. The chapter begins by first justifying the use of an embedded single case study design, followed by a discussion of the settings where the research took place. It then moves on to describe the participants and the different qualitative research methods used to gather the data. Following a discussion about the process of data transcription, I discuss the process of thematic analysis used in this study. I conclude the chapter discussing some of the relevant ethical considerations involved.

4.2 The Study

The study focused on a group of preservice teachers in their final year of a five-year *pedagogía en inglés* course at a university in the south of Chile. In order to answer the questions stated in 3.7, I conducted a case study at the university where the preservice teachers were finishing their teacher education course as well as the schools where they were doing their school placements. A number of qualitative research methods in line with a sociocultural view were used to construe the preservice teachers' learning of materials design. I now provide a detailed account of the study.

4.2.1 An embedded single case design

Although case study research tends to be of a qualitative nature (Casanave, 2015), there is still disagreement amongst scholars as to what exactly case study research entails. Yin (2014:16), for example, sees case studies as a research method and defines them as 'an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the "case") in depth and within its real-world context, especially when

the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident'. Others, such as Stake (2005:443), however, place more emphasis on the uniqueness of the case, arguing that 'case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied... By whatever methods, we choose to study *the case*' (emphasis in the original). Despite the seemingly different ontological stances of what a case study is, there seems to be agreement on the notion that case studies concentrate on 'experiential knowledge of the case and close attention to the influence of its social, political, and other contexts' (Stake, 2005:444), an argument that lies at the heart of case study research and that is voiced by many case study practitioners (e.g. Yin, 2012, 2014; Stake, 2005; Thomas, 2011; Ragin, 1992; Casanave, 2015). As Gerring (2007) argues, only by paying close attention to the complexity of the case, can one derive a deep understanding of it and how it is shaped by its context.

The real business of case study is particularisation, not generalisation (Stake, 1995; Thomas, 2011). In light of this, my interest in using a case does not lie in expanding the findings of this study to the broader population of preservice teachers of English in Chile, but in understanding the complexities underlying the learning of materials design. However, case studies can be employed for analytical generalisations (Yin, 2014; Casanave, 2015), i.e. the expansion and generalisation of theories, not the extrapolation of statistical probabilities or generalisations. Yin (2014:21) argues that, in the same way that 'experiments are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes', case studies should be used to generate theory. In fact, as Dörnyei (2007) argues, early case studies in applied linguistics led to the formulation of a number of theoretical principles and models that are still relevant today. In view of this, this study attempts to theorise how learners of English teaching learn to design the tools of their profession – an issue poorly studied in both language teaching materials and second language teacher education.

Yin (2012) proposes three steps for designing a case study, the first of which is its definition. For Yin (2012) a case is a bounded entity – an idea generally supported by case study researchers (e.g. Stake, 2005; Thomas, 2011; Ragin, 1992; Casanave, 2015), such as a person, organisation, event, or other social phenomenon.

However, the boundary between the case and its temporal and spatial conditions is sometimes not well-defined (Yin, 2012). The case in question in this study is a social phenomenon, the activity of learning to design English teaching materials, which I locate at a university in the south of Chile and the schools where the PSTs under study did their practicum. More difficult to define, however, is the temporal conditions under which this learning is accomplished (Gerring, 2007). This was a challenge for this research given that the programme is a 5-year course, and the data collection took place during four months only. However, in adopting an activity theoretical stance, which acknowledged the participants' sociocultural histories, and involving numerous actors, artefacts, contexts, and ethnographically-oriented methods (see section 4.5), I hoped to reduce the limitations posed by the case's temporal conditions.

The second step proposed by Yin (2012) is selecting the type of case study to design. Since this project encompasses the study of a social phenomenon, but with a focus on different individuals participating within different institutions, particularly the PSTs in their final year, this case can be roughly classified as an embedded single case study. The 'embedded' condition lies in the existence of different actors, or sub-units of analysis within the social phenomenon abovementioned; however, despite the existence of different actors, the phenomenon under scrutiny remains a holistic one: the social phenomenon of learning to design materials.

Finally, Yin (2012) suggests relying on theoretical propositions to select the case. Due to the practical constraints of finding an institution offering a *pedagogía en inglés* programme and later preservice teachers, teacher educators, and schoolteachers, etc., willing to participate, relying on such propositions was not possible. In fact, my experience finding and accessing the case contradicts the quote from Stake (2005:443) above that 'case study is [...] a choice of what is to be studied...By whatever methods, we choose to study the case', in which the logistic constraints involved in 'choosing' a case, particularly in educational settings, seem to be taken for granted. Nevertheless, this research emerged from a revision of the empirical and theoretical literature, and both research questions and methods have been informed by the relevant literature in ELT materials, language teacher education, and sociocultural theory.

As a consequence of trying to understand the complexity of a case, Yin (2012) argues that the data relevant to understand it are likely to come from a diversity of methods as opposed to a single one. Stake (1995) contends that what we cannot observe ourselves is usually observed by others. In this regard, typical data collection methods in case studies, in addition to observations, are interviews and document archives (e.g. Stake, 1995; Dörnyei, 2007). These methods, which provide descriptions and interpretations of others, are indeed aligned with a sociocultural approach to studying teacher learning, and as Yamagata-Lynch (2010:131) writes, they can make us ‘arrive at meaningful and trustworthy conclusions’.

To sum up, framing this research as an embedded single case study can assist the exploration of how learning to design materials occurs. In line with AT, this design can explicate the social, political and broader contextual factors present in the activity in question offering deeper insights into the complexities underlying how this learning is accomplished.

4.2.2 The Research Settings

The settings involved in this study were the university where the preservice teachers were finishing their teacher education course and the schools where they were doing their practicum. The university is located in the South of Chile, and is one of the CRUCH (or traditional) universities described in Chapter 2, which gives the institution special status of prestige and tradition in the country. The university’s academic activity started in 1959 as the *Cursos Universitarios* (University teaching diplomas) with the aid and support of the Pontifical Catholic University of Chile. In 1972, it officially became a branch of the Pontifical Catholic University of Chile to later become an autonomous institution in 1991. Since then, it has been run by the city’s Catholic bishopric. It was the first higher education institution founded in the city where this study was conducted. As mentioned in its own website, at its onset, the university had an exclusive focus on teacher education programmes, which led it to become the ‘largest teacher training institution of the south of Chile’ in the early seventies.

Illustrating the university’s tradition in teacher education, the *pedagogía en inglés* programme was one of the first programmes to open with other *pedagogías*

such as Spanish or Mathematics (*Pedagogía en Castellano* and *Pedagogía en Matemáticas* correspondingly). However, as mentioned by the programme leader, due to the low interest in studying teaching programmes in the 1990s, maybe as a consequence of the damage caused by the military regime to the teaching profession during the 1970's and 1980's as discussed in Chapter 2, the programme closed in 1996. In 2002, however, *pedagogía en inglés* reopened as a five-year bachelor's degree in education because of the increasing demand for learning English in the country. In fact, I was one of the student-teachers enrolling in the 2002 cohort.

As the programme leader (who had been a student of the programme before its closure in 1996) stated in her interview, the greatest difference between its old and current version lies in the inclusion of early *prácticas* and their articulation with the module of *didáctica*, which focuses on different aspects of language teaching and learning, such as the teaching of the four skills, vocabulary, and pronunciation, *inter alia*. She also added that the course is critically influenced by the current belief in language teacher education that one's own language learning experiences are pivotal in one's teaching practices, and that reflection on these can positively influence teaching and innovation. On the whole, following Wallace's (1991) reflective model, the course is a reflection-oriented and competency-based programme. The subjects that the preservice teachers have to take range from English and linguistic and discourse analysis to English language teaching methodology (*didáctica*), public policy and educational contexts, curriculum design, assessment, Information and Communication Technologies, educational psychology, and a strong practicum component starting in the second year, amongst others (see Appendix 10 for an overview of the course structure).

This *práctica* component is particularly important in this context. Called by the participants '*práctica progresiva*' (progressive practicum; see Chapter 2), it encompasses visiting schools on a regular basis since year two until the *internado* or *práctica final* in year five (final practicum). The activities the preservice teachers have to do in the *progressive practicum* involve doing ethnographic observation to analyse the schoolteachers' practice of ELT (as well as other considerations such as discipline, personal relations, etc.), planning and designing their own lessons at least

two times per term, which they have to film and analyse, focusing on critical incidents that reflect the contents they are taught in *didáctica* (e.g. teaching skills, teaching vocabulary, grammar, etc.), and/or the contents of the *facetas* of the Framework for Good Teaching (e.g. Faceta B - creation of an appropriate learning environment; see section 2.3.2). The *internado* or *final practicum*, on the other hand, is a 20-hour school placement in the final term of the programme. Here the activities that the preservice teachers do can range from assisting the schoolteacher in the preparation of lessons, materials, and tests, to taking full responsibility of a class with the schoolteacher watching over the preservice teacher. The experience of both the progressive and final practicum varies from school to school and is contingent upon the schoolteachers' view of what mentoring a preservice teacher entails.

Like most higher education institutions in Chile, the university organises its academic year in two terms: the first from March to July and the second from August to December. I spent the first term of 2017 collecting data at the institution. Typical of universities in Chile, the course structure of the programme is very rigid. The different modules are offered only once per year and only on campus. When a student-teacher fails a module, they are not allowed to resubmit, but only to take the module again the following year (some modules are, however, offered during the summer to allow the students to progress). Very often, the student-teachers who fail different subjects might take more than the expected five years to complete their degree. This is true of some of the participants of the study who had started the course as early as 2009.

To be part of the teaching staff of the programme, it is necessary to hold at least a master's degree in a relevant area of ELT such as applied linguistics, education, TESOL, etc. Thus, all the lecturers hold an MA and some hold doctoral degrees. Only one teacher was a native speaker of English, and he holds a doctoral degree in second language teaching. The staff were mostly focused on the delivery of lessons and the marking of assignments. Nevertheless, some of them were involved in research in teacher education or language learning. Yet, as voiced by the programme leader in the termly meeting I was invited to attend in early March 2017, the university required the teacher educators to increase their research agenda in foreign language teaching.

With regards to the schools, the preservice teachers in this study were distributed across four schools, and were hosted by practicing ELT schoolteachers. Two schools were in the city centre and two were about half an hour away. The schools can be broadly classified as low-income schools and as middle-class schools (though the conceptualisation of middle-class in Chile usually describes what in the UK refers to the working classes; see Leyton and Rojas, 2017). Three of them were '*particular-subvencionado*' schools, which is a category used in Chile to refer to schools that are privately-managed but publicly-funded using a voucher system, and one of them was a '*municipal*' school, which in Chile is the term used to refer to publicly funded and run schools. I only had access to three of these schools as the practicum coordinator advised me to not visit one of them because the university staff had previously had conflicts with one schoolteacher and my presence could jeopardise the continuity of the preservice teachers placed in that school. The schools were following the national curriculum either based on the curricular documents or the textbooks that are given by Mineduc to all publicly-funded schools across the country. Below I describe the schools in detail. I replaced their names using School 1-4 to protect the institutions' identities.

School 1 is located about 20 kilometres away from the city. It is the only Catholic confessional school involved in this study and receives public funding which makes it '*particular-subvencionado*'. It offers pre-school, primary and secondary education, hosting 3,593 pupils, with an average of 37 per class. According to the *Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación* (Agency for the Quality of Education; 2020), a unit of the Mineduc, the school has a 'medium' academic performance. As stated by the school's headmaster, the pupils largely come from a middle-class socioeconomic background (personal communication).

School 2 is also a '*particular-subvencionado*' school. It opened in 2004 and is located in the outskirts of the city, which allows students from nearby towns to enrol in it. It offers education from Year Seven of primary to Year Four of secondary to students from a predominantly middle-class socioeconomic background. It has 898 students and 35 per class in average. According to the *Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación* (2020), the school's academic performance is 'medium'.

School 3 is likewise a '*particular-subvencionado*' school located in a popular neighbourhood in the city centre. It offers pre-school, primary and secondary education to pupils of low-income families. It has 529 pupils with 29 students per class in average. According to one of the interviewees, the learners' parents are usually workers in the nearby vegetable market. The school's academic performance according to the *Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación* (2020) is 'below medium' in primary, and 'low' in secondary.

School 4, also located in the city centre, was initially a girl's school which opened in 1905. This municipal public school offered secondary education to women only for over a century; however, in 2012 the school merged with a public primary school (possibly to increase its funding as a result of the voucher system) and today it offers pre-school and primary education to both boys and girls. It has 638 students with an average of 30 pupils per class. According to the *Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación* (2020), the school ranks 'medium' for academic performance. As mentioned by one teacher working there, the pupils come mostly from low-income backgrounds (personal communication).

4.2.3 The Participants

A total of 19 individuals participated in the study. Seven preservice teachers in their final year of the programme volunteered for one semi-structured interview, two stimulated recall interviews, the provision of two pieces of language materials designed by themselves, and the possibility of observing their lessons. Also, six preservice teachers in their fourth year who were doing the *didáctica* module participated in a focus group. Seven teacher educators, in charge of *didáctica* (didactics), English, or *taller pedagógico*, ('pedagogical workshop'; it provides opportunities for the preservice teachers to put into practice theories of language teaching through activities such as micro-teaching), participated in one semi-structured interview. The programme leader, who facilitated access to the programme, also participated. Four schoolteachers mentoring the abovementioned preservice teachers participated in one semi-structured interview each.

This is the place to say that the preservice teachers have a central position in this research since it is *their learning* of materials design what motivates this study.

However, in giving them a central position, by no means do I intend to devalue the contributions made by the other participants; on the contrary, it is in acknowledging their important influence in the preservice teachers' learning that they come to be part of this research.

4.2.3.1 *Programme leader (PL)*

I start with the programme leader as she was key to having access to the programme, and chronologically, she was the first participant I got in touch with. I contacted her via email in August 2016 to organise a meeting that then took place in October of the same year. In this meeting, I explained the research, its objectives, who I was interested in interviewing, and how this research could be used. This meeting was particularly relevant as the PL was not only a prospective participant, but also an important gatekeeper. Had she not agreed to participate, I would have not had access to the data sources being described in this chapter. She asked for permission from the dean of the Faculty of Education of the university so that I could do fieldwork in the institution; she allowed me to attend a staff meeting held at the beginning of the academic year in March 2017; and requested permission on my behalf to access the official documentation of the programme. In addition, she participated in a semi-structured interview in July 2017.

4.2.3.2 *Preservice teachers (PSTs)*

In order to contact the preservice teachers doing their practicum, I asked the practicum coordinator of the programme about the possibility of organising a meeting to explain the research project to the prospective student-teacher participants. As I am familiar with the programme and the Chilean educational system in general, I emailed the practicum coordinator in January 2017, knowing that their practicum would begin in March with the new academic year. In response to my request, the practicum coordinator arranged a meeting one hour before an online portfolio induction the PSTs had to attend, so that I had enough time to describe the research to the prospective participants. Nine PSTs came to the meeting out of a total of ten in the final year of the programme. After I described my connection with the university and the programme, and answered questions asked

by the PSTs, all of them agreed to participate. They completed a form with contact information to later coordinate the individual interviews. A week later I contacted each of them via email and WhatsApp and only eight replied and participated in the study. I used the following pseudonyms to protect the PSTs' identity: Carlos, Emilia, Marcos, Francisco, Fernanda, Valeria, Miguel, and Gabriel.

Table 4. 1 PSTs' participation

PSTs	Interview 1	Stimulated Recall 1	Stimulated Recall 2	Observation	School	Schoolteacher	Supervisor
<i>Carlos</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	School 1	Schoolteacher 2	No
<i>Marcos</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	School 2	No	TE4
<i>Valeria</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	School 2	Teacher Educator 1	TE4
<i>Gabriel</i>	✓	No	No	No	School 3	Schoolteacher 3	ScT3
<i>Fernanda</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	School 3	Schoolteacher 4	ScT3
<i>Francisco</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	School 3	Schoolteacher 1	ScT3
<i>Emilia</i>	✓	✓	✓	video	School 4	No	PL
<i>Miguel</i>	✓	✓	✓	video	School 4	No	TE5

The eight PSTs were placed in four schools (see 4.2.2) where they had to spend a total of 20 hours a week in charge of an English language class, and one weekly form meeting, which in Chile usually covers counselling, pastoral care, and administrative activities relevant to the form. As part of their duties, the PSTs also helped the schoolteacher hosting them with lesson planning, grading, developing materials, or sometimes substituting for other English language teachers. As shown in Table 4.1 below, all the PSTs, except one, were interviewed three times: one semi-structured interview and two stimulated recall interviews (one PST quit his practicum due to personal reasons after Interview 1). Table 4.1 summarises the participation of each PST, the school where they did their practicum, the schoolteacher that hosted them, and who their supervisor was. Valeria's schoolteacher was also Teacher Educator 1, who worked at the university and at one of the schools.

4.2.3.3 *Teacher educators (TEs)*

I met some of the teacher educators involved in the study during the termly staff sitting held in early March. At this meeting, I described the project to the TEs, what their participation would entail, and gave them information sheets about the study (see Appendix 9.3). At the end of the meeting, eight TEs agreed to participate in one semi-structured interview (including the PL). One of the TEs present in the meeting declined the invitation citing lack of time. Most of them were in charge of different modules such as English (different levels), *didáctica*, and *taller pedagógico*. Some of the participating TEs taught English and *didáctica*. Some of them also performed the role of supervisors for the final year preservice teachers doing their practicum. One of them, TE1, had in fact three roles: *didáctica* teacher, a supervisor (although not supervising student-teachers during my study), and schoolteacher. Each interview with the TEs lasted about one hour. To protect the TEs' anonymity, they are referred to as TE1-7.

4.2.3.4 *Schoolteachers (ScTs)*

The schoolteachers acted as mentor teachers for the preservice teachers, hosting them and guiding them in the schools. They were approached individually at the schools where the PSTs did their practicum with the aid of the practicum coordinator, who had previously informed them that I would visit the schools. Four out of seven ScTs agreed to participate. One of them declined to my invitation citing lack of time, and the other two were not contacted due to the previously cited conflict between the university and the school (see 4.2.2). The ScTs' participation in this study was key to have a more institutional, cultural and historical view of the schools where the PSTs were placed, and how the activity of materials design emerged in these contexts. In the interest of anonymity, I refer to them as ScT1-4.

4.2.3.5 *Supervisors*

Supervisors were either TEs or ScTs who worked for the *pedagogía en inglés* programme monitoring the PSTs during their final practicum. The roles adopted by the supervisors varied significantly depending on whether they were based at the

school or at the university. For example, ScT3 supervised Fernanda, Gabriel and Francisco, and because she was a schoolteacher she was in much more contact with the PSTs at the school than, for example, TE5, who was based at the university and supervised Miguel. This meant that whilst ScT3 was able to hold regular meetings with the PSTs and was much more familiar with the school as she was part of it, TE5 only went to the school on a few occasions to observe Miguel’s teaching and debrief him, in addition to holding supervisions with him at the university to monitor his progress. In the interest of readability, I will refer to the supervisors as ScT if they were based at the school, or TE if they were based at the university, and will indicate when their comments address issues concomitant with their roles as supervisors.

4.3 The Methods

A number of methods in line with AT helped explore the learning of materials design. From March 2017 to July 2017 I conducted a total of 20 semi-structured interviews and 14 stimulated recall interviews, the latter based on the collection of 14 pieces of materials designed by the preservice teachers. I also conducted five classroom observations, and one focus group with students in their fourth year of the programme. I collected a number of documents provided by the university and official documents available online such as the Guiding Standards and the national curriculum, thus providing official and institutional data. Table 4.2 summarises the contributions of each participant for this study.

Table 4. 2 Summary of each participant’s methods

Participants	Interviews	Stimulated Recalls	Observation	Focus group	Materials	Docs
7 PSTs	1 each	x2 each	1 (2 filmed lessons)		x2	
7 TEs	1 each					
4 ScTs	1 each					
1 PL	1					1
6 PSTs (focus group)				1		
Online Docs						1

The methods described here seek to gather data that offers the possibility, through iterative analysis, of arriving at thick descriptions of the phenomenon studied (Dörnyei, 2007), i.e. the rich details sought in qualitative research obtained through the study of people's actions and behaviours in situated contexts (Geertz, 1973). These descriptions allowed me to triangulate the different data sources emerging from the different methods, which further enabled me to diminish the chances of systematised biases typical of qualitative studies, giving the study a higher level of rigour and robustness.

4.3.1 Interviews

An important and prevailing method for gathering qualitative data is the interview (Dörnyei, 2007). This also rings true of qualitative studies in applied linguistics, where most interviews correspond to the semi-structured type (Dörnyei, 2007). Following the applied linguistics tradition, I chose to use semi-structured interviews for my research because of their 'depth, nuance, complexity and roundedness in data' to construct social explanations and arguments (Mason, 2002:65).

Given the exploratory character of semi-structured interviews, they allowed me to elaborate from impromptu comments made by the participants as well as to develop spontaneous questions when I thought it was necessary. As Newby (2010:340) writes, this type of 'interviews has the freedom to clarify people's understanding and to ask follow-up questions to explore a viewpoint, to determine knowledge or to open up other explanations and answers'.

The interviews I conducted were face-to-face interactions that allowed the emergence of direct communication between the interviewees and myself. As Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006:128) pinpoint '[i]nterviews are a meaning-making partnership between interviewers and respondents [a sort of] [...] knowledge-producing conversation that occurs between two parties'. This meaning-making partnership, in addition to the abovementioned flexibility, allows for the co-construction of data between interviewers and interviewees where the latter are allowed to express their ways of thinking and feeling, including their values, motivations, desires and beliefs (Gaínza, 2006). Illustrating the power of semi-structured interviews, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) also say that these spaces of

communication and knowledge production allow the participants to negotiate texts where issues of power, gender, race and class intersect. Thus, through interviews, one can gain insightful understandings of people focused on a certain topic (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006) encompassing the 'hows of people's lives [...] as well as the traditional *whats*' (Fontana and Frey, 2003:62). For example, by focusing on the preservice teachers' experience on learning to design materials through interviews, I gained insights into how different actors and artefacts moulded this experience, which other research methods did not offer (Mason, 2002).

I conducted semi-structured interviews with the PSTs doing their practicum, TEs (English and *Didáctica*), ScTs, and the PL. The interviews lasted about one hour and were conducted at the university in the case of the PSTs, TEs and PL, and at the schools in the case of the ScTs. All the interviews were conducted in Spanish except for the one TE whose mother tongue is English.

The interviews with the PSTs doing their practicum were conducted before they participated in the Stimulated Recall Interviews (see below). These interviews aimed at uncovering their language learning backgrounds, the role of materials in their language learning trajectories, their views on language learning materials, and how they thought the *pedagogía en inglés* programme contributed or not to this learning (see Appendix 9.1 – Interview 1 Protocol).

I conducted the interviews with TEs of English and *didáctica* to explore the likely influences of these participants and the content of the modules they taught on the PSTs' learning of materials design. Here is important that we remember that some TEs taught both English and *didáctica* (see Appendix 9.3 – TE Interview Protocol). The interviews with the English TEs focused on what language learning materials were used in those classes, and how they used them. The interviews with TEs of *didáctica* explored what content and skills related to materials development were considered in that module, as well as what perceptions they had of language learning materials for prospective teachers of English.

I interviewed ScTs to explore how they influenced the PSTs in their learning of materials development at the school. The ScTs were interviewed in their schools and were invited to describe the school's materials ethos as well as their own views (see Appendix 9.2 – ST Interview Protocol).

4.3.2 Stimulated Recall Interviews (SRI)

Stimulated recall interviews, also known as retrospective interviews (Dörnyei, 2007), are a type of mediated verbalisation where the research participants make covert processes or thoughts about an activity overt (Johnson, 2003). This type of interview consists in retrieving thoughts through the use of a stimulus, 'a sort of memory prosthesis' (Dempsey, 2010:352), hence the name stimulated recall. The type of stimuli that are used to retrieve relevant thoughts are typically videos of the participants performing a task, or audio recordings of what the person has said (Calderhead, 1981). However, Dörnyei (2007:149) adds that showing the participant 'a written work that he/she has produced' can also be used to recall thoughts (see also Gass and Mackey, 2000:53). This procedure suggests that showing the person an aural or visual reminder will stimulate retrieving and verbalising relevant thoughts occurring in the person's mind whilst doing an activity. In fact, the whole theoretical foundation of SRIs lies in information processing, where the access to memory is enhanced by prompts aiding the recalling of information (Gass and Mackey, 2000:17). In this way, SRIs can yield insights into teaching and learning processes that would be difficult to observe using other means (Nunan and Bailey, 2009).

SRIs are particularly useful in situations where concurrent verbalisation, which involves having participants think aloud while performing a task, is not possible. For example, it would be logistically impossible to study what teachers think while they are teaching, as this would disrupt the flow of the ongoing lesson (Nunan and Bailey, 2009). Nonetheless, it has been a useful method to enquire about teacher cognitions (e.g. Calderhead, 1981; Polio, Gass and Chapin, 2006), learner cognitions (e.g. Lam, 2008), and SLA (e.g. Gass and Mackey, 2000).

SRIs take place some time after an activity has been done. This inevitably makes the retrieval of relevant thoughts rely on memory, which is the source of the strongest criticism against SRI, as incompleteness and inaccuracy can undermine the recall (Johnson, 2003). However, Bloom (1954, cited in Gass and Mackey, 2000:18) found that if the recall is elicited within 48 hours after a task is done, recalls can be 95% accurate. Another criticism laid at its door is that some areas of knowledge may be unlikely to be verbalised by the informant (Calderhead, 1989). This lies in the idea that some forms of tacit knowledge, constructed through experience and/or trial and

error, may not be spontaneously communicated by the participant regardless of the stimuli presented during the interview. Calderhead (1989) makes the particular case of experienced teachers whose know-how's may be automatised, thus not spontaneously accessible through recalls. This problem is discussed by Gass and Mackey (2000:107) under the name of 'nonveridicality', which is 'the lack of correspondence between a protocol and the underlying primary process'. Nonveridicality allows the emergence of two types of errors: errors of omission and errors of commission. I would associate the problem of non-verbalisation posed by Calderhead (1989) with an error of omission, i.e. the idea that some areas of tacit knowledge cannot be expressed. However, Gass and Mackey (2000:108) argue that this has 'little consequences when dealing with stimulated recalls', by which they seem to mean that the lack of access to some types of knowledge does not necessarily affect the validity of whatever is actually communicated.

On the other hand, the errors of commission discussed by Gass and Mackey (2000) may indeed affect the validity of the recall. Nisbett and Wilson (1977) argue that higher order cognitive processes cannot be accessed directly through the use of introspection, relying on the idea that participants are unaware of the processes conducive to the development of an action. They claim that instead of introspecting, participants connect a priori and/or implicit common sense theories to the action being recalled, and contend that stimuli have to be salient to the activity/task being retrieved. In response to this, Ericsson and Simon (1984) argue that the accuracy of verbal reports lies in the procedures used to retrieve the requested information and the actual sequence of noticed information. Ericsson and Simon (1984) claim that the reports on which Nisbett and Wilson (1977) based their critiques were invalid, alluding to inadequate procedures for eliciting verbal reports, or to requesting information that could not be given even if the thoughts were accessible.

These critiques, that there are thoughts which cannot be recalled, and that recalls may not be valid, are important arguments against the use of SRIs. However, these issues also apply to traditional qualitative methods such as interviews or diaries (Dempsey, 2010). With regards to the issue posed by Calderhead (1989), i.e. automatised thoughts which are unlikely to be recalled by experienced teachers, I would argue this is less applicable to my study as I worked with final year PSTs,

whose know-how's, I would claim, were not yet routinised. In addition, I acknowledge that the use of SRIs cannot provide a whole picture of the learning of materials design; therefore, a series of other methods was used to explore the elements influencing the learning of materials design by student-teachers as a socially situated activity rather than an isolated one.

4.3.2.1 *Piloting the Stimulated Recall Interview*

Since the SRIs had a central role in accessing the mental processes involved in the development of materials, I conducted a pilot SRI. The pilot combined a traditional semi-structured interview followed by a SRI about the design of English language teaching materials by a teacher for a specific group of learners. The teacher involved was an MA TESOL student at the UCL Institute of Education, who had taught English in Chile for 4 years before doing her postgraduate course in the UK.

The pilot involved sending the participant an email asking her to think of a group of learners that she had taught in Chile and design a piece of language teaching material for them, with consideration of the content and tasks that she thought would be appropriate (see Appendix 9.7). Once she designed the material, she emailed it to me so that I could develop the SRI protocol. Twenty-four hours after she designed the material, we met to conduct the SRI, which was conducted in Spanish. I started the procedure with the semi-structured interview to find general information about the material (who it was for, what were the expected outcomes, etc.). Then, I implemented the SRI where I focused on specific aspects of the material, such as the reasons underpinning the selection of topic, tasks, format, etc.

The pilot revealed three problems with the use of stimulated recalls as a method to explore cognitive processes. First, the participant developed a defensive attitude when answering questions, which may be related to the seemingly 'judging' tone of the questions eliciting the reasons why she decided to design the materials the way she did (e.g. *Why did you include the writing of a letter in your material?*). However, a further explanation and clarification that the interview did not attempt to judge her decision-making but to explore the processes involved in her design allowed her to continue explaining her rationales without apparently keeping information to herself. The second problem observed is that some of the answers

did not reliably reflect a thinking process occurring while designing the material. This was evident in the answer to one question where the participant acknowledged she did not know why she chose to have the students writing a letter, but then provided a delayed explanation using Task-based Language Teaching as a rationale for her decision-making. Finally, the third problem I observed was that the answers got shorter in the course of the SRI. This raised issues about how informative the responses would be towards the end of the interviews.

Despite these shortcomings, the combination of the stimulated recall with a semi-structured interview allowed to access a significant amount information about designing materials. This was especially noticeable with regards to her teaching and learning trajectories, which emerged to explain many of the decisions she made about her design. Additionally, maintaining a relaxed ambience with the participant helped diminish the defensive attitude she was developing to answer the SRI questions. With the above considerations in mind, I conducted the SRI as described below.

4.3.2.2 SRI Procedure

As discussed earlier, SRIs are usually based on video prompts presented to teachers in order that they recall the thoughts underlying their decision-making whilst teaching. However, it was logistically complex to film a preservice teacher design their materials due to the long time this procedure would take or having them design materials in a place where they do not normally do it. For this reason, I discarded the possibility of using videos to prompt their recalls. Instead, I used extracts from their actual materials to develop the protocols I used to conduct each of the SRIs. Although I know of no study employing extracts from the participants' written work to stimulate their recalls (this includes language teaching materials), I thought using SRIs in this way could equally grant rich and thick data to explore the materials writing process if heed was paid to the cautions and suggestions offered in the relevant literature (e.g. Gass and Mackey, 2000; Dörnyei, 2007; Nunan and Bailey, 2009).

I conducted two SRIs with each preservice teacher at different times and based on two different pieces of material. Initially eight PSTs decided to participate

but one quit his practicum after interview 1, thus I conducted 14 stimulated recall interviews (see Table 4.1). In the same way as in the pilot, each PST sent me the materials they had designed for one lesson of their practicum. Once I received it, I developed a protocol to conduct the specific SRI. Most of the SRIs were conducted within 48 hours from the design of the materials. However, due to the time constraints experienced by some PSTs because of their busy schedules, some of them could only meet me after 48 hours had elapsed, with five days being the longest in one case. Each SRI was divided in two parts. The first part was a semi-structured interview aimed at accessing general information regarding the design of the material, such as who it was intended for, how it was supposed to be used (e.g. on paper or digital), what its goals were, etc. The second part of the meeting was the actual SRI, using prompts taken from the material. I developed the SRI protocol using the Insert Comment tool available for Word documents and PowerPoint Presentations depending on what format the PSTs had decided to use. I printed two copies of the material to conduct the interview: one copy of the original to prompt the participants' thoughts, and the other one with the SRI protocol for my own use. Before each SRI, I read the preservice teachers a paragraph in Spanish explaining the procedures and aims of the SRI as well as what their participation would entail.

4.3.3 Focus Group

In addition to the above, I conducted one focus group with six PSTs in their fourth year of the programme. Sometimes called 'focus group interview' (e.g. Hansen *et al.*, 1998; Dörnyei, 2007), focus groups place special emphasis on communal human interactions, and can bring up the multivocality of the participants' beliefs, experiences and attitudes with regards to a given issue. As Canales (2006) writes, focus groups bring in the typical experience of a group. In this way, my motivation to conduct a focus group lay in the opportunity this method offered to have the participants thinking together, inspiring and challenging each other, and reacting to issues emerging during the discussion, while maintaining the strengths that traditional qualitative methods such as interviews and observations offer (Madriz, 2003). In addition, these collective interactions, as Flick (2006) argues, allow for the creation of a synergistic environment where the participants' opinions, beliefs, and

experiences can be compared and contrasted. What is more, this synergistic atmosphere also allows to construct high-quality data from insightful and deep discussions (Dörnyei, 2007), providing pointers to relevant issues, themes and concerns (Hansen et al, 1998). In light of this, the focus group I facilitated became a tool to reconstruct the individual and group opinions more accurately about their experiences in the learning of materials design.

It is important to draw a distinction between ‘focus groups’ and ‘group interviews’. Even though sometimes research methods authors use the terms interchangeably (e.g. Madriz, 2003, Denzin and Lincoln, 2003), a point of divergence between them lies in the interactivity between the participants and facilitator. Gibbs (2012) makes this difference clear arguing that *group interviews* emphasise the individual contributions that participants in the groups can offer to the questions asked by the facilitator, whereas *focus groups* stress the interactivity amongst their participants and the collective stances that can naturally emerge from the groups. In addition, whilst focus groups tend to be more associated with market inquiries, group interviews tend to lean more towards academic research (see Merriam and Tisdell, 2016). Acknowledging the differences between both terms, I use the term focus group in this research to highlight the collective character I seek to give to this study through the use of Activity Theory.

I had initially planned to organise a focus group including two students of each cohort of the whole programme except for the first year, i.e. two students of second, third, fourth and fifth year each. However, the programme leader strongly suggested that I only worked with the students in their fourth year because only those PSTs had already taken the *didáctica* module (the programme offers *didáctica* from the third year; the students doing their third year had only had two months of *didáctica* when I organised the focus group). Following her advice, I asked the teacher of *didáctica III* if I could attend her class to recruit participants, to which she agreed, giving me 15 minutes at the beginning of her class. I managed to recruit six PSTs, who I met the following week. I conducted the focus group right after the participants’ *didáctica* at the university in order to minimise the creation of an artificial environment.

Following Flick (2006) and Dörnyei (2007), my role during the focus group involved facilitating the emerging discussions, preventing dominance of the floor, having the shyer participants express their opinions, and preventing dominating or inhibiting comments. As Dörnyei (2007) suggests, I used a list of 5-10 open-ended questions to conduct the session (see Appendix 9.6 – Focus Group protocol); however, these only served as a guide, thus giving more space to naturally-emerging data rather than direct answers to the questions. At times it was unnecessary to ask the intended questions as the PSTs naturally commented on the issues I wanted to explore. The focus group was video-taped due to the difficulties that the number of participants posed for transcription. The participants of the focus group were named Student 1-6.

4.3.4 Documents

I collected a number of official documents relevant to teacher education, the national curriculum, and the *pedagogía en inglés* programme in order to give the study an official context to compare and contrast the data constructed with the participants (Flick, 2006). In terms of teacher education, I collected and analysed the ‘Guiding Standards’ and the ‘Framework for Good Teaching’ (see Chapter 2). These documents are publicly available on websites run by the Chilean Ministry of Education. The national curriculum was publicly available on the same virtual space. The university documentation, such as the programme course structure, syllabus and practicum handbook, were obtained through the programme leader. The university required a signed confidentiality letter where I committed to use the documents only for this research, without compromising the possibility of presenting the findings at conferences or other forms of communication such as journals, blogs, etc. All these documents were in Spanish. I translated all the extracts that are quoted in this thesis.

4.3.5 Language Teaching Materials

As mentioned earlier, each PST emailed me two pieces of language teaching material, except for Gabriel, who quit his practicum after Interview 1 but sent me the material we were going to analyse in SRI1. Thus, I was able to collect 15 pieces of

language teaching material in Word and PowerPoint formats. When the material included videos, I was given the link to YouTube. These materials were mainly made in the form of worksheets for reading and to a much lesser extent listening. The analysis of these materials had a twofold purpose. First, I studied them to design the protocol to develop the SRIs. Secondly, I analysed them as part of the data that to complement the analysis.

4.3.6 Observations

I conducted five lesson observations in order to explore the PSTs' use of their own materials as well as to identify contextual elements potentially influencing their design. To do this, the PSTs let me know when they would use their material. Prior to attending the schools, I sought out permission from the schools to attend the lessons. This permission was obtained through the supervisors who informed the schools that I was conducting this research. All the schools allowed me to enter their classrooms (one school was not approached, as suggested by the practicum coordinator; see 4.2.2). An important challenge posed by classroom observations is adopting a non-participant/observer role. Dörnyei, (2007:179) argues that this is almost impossible as one cannot 'observe in almost every non experimental situation without some participation'. In fact, from an AT viewpoint, Bakhurst (2009) writes that researchers have to actively work their way into the system. In doing this, Bakhurst (2009) argues, one can adopt the perspectives of the various agents in the activity and further perceive the sociocultural factors that influence the way in which an activity is carried out. Keeping Bakhurst' formulation in mind, I developed the classroom observations.

4.4 Transcriptions and translations

Transcribing is a key process in the analysis of qualitative data based on language and making it explicit is an advised procedure (Lapadat, 2000; Duranti, 2006; Davidson, 2009). Doing this establishes a more transparent relationship between the researcher's epistemological assumptions and the interpretation of the data. Davidson (2009) highlights how transcribing has been traditionally neglected in qualitative research, even at the stage of postgraduate research studies. In order to

avoid presenting the process of transcribing as a transparent one, naturalising its selective nature, and trying to believe that I transcribed exactly what went on during the interview, below I present an account of how I developed this process.

Green, Franquiz and Dixon (1997) argue that transcriptions are the reconstruction of data for research purposes, not just written down conversations. Thus, the transcriptions I wrote are the re-representations of tapes and videotapes, and the latter are the representations of different events, rather than the actual event from which the transcriptions emerged. Duranti (2006) observes that transcriptions are representations achieved through a combination of symbols, icons and indexical signs; they are highly selective and portray, often with an attitude, what the world was like at some point in time. Viewing transcriptions in this way then inevitably leads to the questions of what I wanted to transcribe and in which ways I would carry out such process.

Together with gathering all the data by myself, I also transcribed the interviews, SRIs, and focus group personally as I knew this would constitute one of the first instances of data analysis. As Lapadat and Lindsay (1999:82) argue, during the transcription process 'analysis takes place and understandings are derived through the process of constructing a transcript by listening and re-listening, viewing and re-viewing'. I saw this reflected in my own transcription process, from where I developed the first ideas and even codes, which I registered using the *Insert Comment* tool provided by Word while transcribing.

Since I am concerned with *what* the participants had to say rather than *how* they said it, and in the interest of readability, I removed discursive phenomena such as false starts, hesitations, and repetitions, amongst others. I used standard orthography and punctuation, including the participants' pauses, overlaps, slip-of-the-tongues, hesitations, and stressed words, only whenever I thought that doing so would enhance the understanding of the messages the participants wanted to convey. This selection process was accompanied by the creation of a transcription key, which I present below in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3 Transcription key

[xxx]	Incomprehensible
[talk]	Best guess of what was said
{ }	Overlapped speech
(context)	Context information
CAPITAL	Stressed word(s)
...	Silence of less than 0.5 seconds
=	when a turn is suddenly taken by either of the participants
<i>Italics</i>	Spanish speech

In addition, Table 4.4 below shows the system of notation I used in the transcriptions in the interest of making clear which data source is being referenced.

Table 4. 4 Data sources

Interview 1
SRI1: Stimulated Recall Interview 1
SRI2: Stimulated Recall Interview 2
FG: Focus Group

Together with transcribing, I also had the issue of translating. As most of the participants spoke English as a second language, most of the interviews were conducted in Spanish to enhance the expression of thoughts and opinions. As mentioned earlier, one teacher educator was a native speaker of English. We conducted that interview in English for the same reasons as above. I transcribed the interviews in Spanish and English correspondingly, and decided to translate only those excerpts that were included in the data analysis chapters (5-8). Converting the interviews into texts in the same language prevented me from making on the spot decisions about meanings because of impromptu translations, which could have potentially altered what the participants voiced. With Spanish as my mother tongue, I translated the excerpts quoted in the thesis myself.

4.5 Analysis

4.5.1 Approaching the data

One of the key characteristics of qualitative research is the possibility of generating a detailed and in-depth account of a given problem by providing insights into people's experiences, and exploring phenomena of which sometimes not much is known (Grbich, 2013). Here I find it opportune to ask the question of *whose insights*. Paying heed to the sociocultural epistemology within which I am framing this research, I recognise that analysing the data is in no way a process through which I only have access to the participants' lives. In effect, as Bakhurst (2009) writes, I cannot place myself outside the activity system of learning to design materials, therefore analysing my participants' data was inevitably a process reflecting my own sociocultural trajectories, such as the ones I described in the introduction to this thesis (see Chapter 1). In this regard, in an attempt to find out the best way to represent my participants' voice while recognising my own, I tried analysing a set of eight interviews three times using different data analysis techniques and the qualitative data analysis software NVivo.

The first analysis was an exclusively deductive one in which I attempted to find AT categories such as tools, rules, motives/goals, etc. However, I soon realised that this process was too constraining and prevented me from making sense of what the participants had actually said. In light of this, in the second analysis of the same eight interviews, I used inductive principles of Grounded Theory, which proved to be much richer owing to their bottom-up nature, allowing me to explore areas I had not anticipated. However, the sentence-by-sentence analysis known as *in-vivo* coding, which is typical of Grounded Theory, became extremely difficult to handle and contrast with the AT framework I had chosen for the study. For this reason, I decided to conduct a third and last analysis of the same set of interviews using a combination of deductive and inductive techniques. This allowed me to rely more explicitly on my theoretical sensitivities while recognising what the participants had contributed through the different data collection methods. I applied this method, generally known as thematic analysis, to the rest of the data.

4.5.2 Thematic Analysis

Although Spencer et al. (2014) argue that there is generally no agreement as to what thematic analysis is, Braun and Clarke (2006:79) define it as 'a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data'. Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that thematic analysis is present in the major qualitative traditions such as Grounded Theory and Narrative Enquiry thanks to its process of thematic coding, which provides a resourceful analytical tool, allowing freedom and flexibility. Following Braun and Clarke (2006:78), I take the view that thematic coding 'can potentially provide rich and detailed, yet complex account[s] of data' about the activity of learning to design materials.

The reliability of qualitative research has long been object of critique (Kurasaki, 2000). To deal with this, I followed the six steps suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006) to conduct thematic analysis, namely: 1) becoming familiar with the data set; 2) generating initial codes; 3) searching for themes; 4) reviewing themes; 5) defining and naming themes; and 6) producing the report. I now describe how I conducted each of these procedures.

Step One, which Braun and Clarke (2006) define as immersing oneself in the data to become familiar with the depth and breadth of the content, started when I first came into contact with the data provided by the research methods, such as collecting materials and documents, and conducting all the interviews, stimulated recall interviews, and focus group. In addition to gathering this large amount of data myself, as mentioned above, I transcribed verbatim each of the interviews that are part of the data corpus of this thesis. Thus, my familiarisation with the data was an extremely active, long and comprehensive process. After transcribing the interviews, SRIs and focus groups, I transferred the data to NVivo where I started the second phase.

Step Two, generating initial codes, consisted in systematically defining what the data were about (Charmaz, 2003). For Braun and Clarke (2006) this presupposes an ongoing organic process, which is conducted in an inductive fashion, that is, theorising from the data as opposed to preconceived theoretical constructions (Glaser, 1992). Acknowledging the difficulties of detaching myself from my theoretical constructs, I relied on superordinate categories related to materials and

teacher learning, which Charmaz (2003) refers to as sensitising concepts. For example, I used sensitising concepts such as ‘apprenticeship of observation’, ‘textbook’, or ‘beliefs’ as points of departure and not as an end for the generation of analytical categories. This openness enabled me to find themes that I had not anticipated from my review of the literature (e.g. Chapter 6).

In Step Three, I re-focused the analysis to search for themes, or patterns, at a broader level. To this end, I collated all the relevant codes in NVivo (Braun and Clarke, 2006). This process was an iterative journey between the data set and the patterns being constructed until the very end of the analysis. This is how I created themes related to the content of the materials, the language teaching methodologies, and relevant actors in the activity of learning to design (learners, schoolteachers, etc.), amongst others.

In Step Four, I systematically reviewed the themes to refine them. The purpose of refining the themes was to make the data cohere together meaningfully, through making clear distinctions between themes. For example, I started differentiating different types of beliefs the preservice teachers held about their learners, such as ‘positive beliefs about the learners’ or ‘disparaging beliefs about the learners’.

In Step Five, I further refined and named the themes in order to capture the essence of what each theme was about. I went back to the themes and organised the extracts into coherent ‘stories’, identifying sub-themes within them. For example, I divided the theme ‘beliefs’ into ‘beliefs about the learners’ dispositions’, and then ‘positive beliefs about the learners’ dispositions’ and ‘disparaging beliefs about the learners’ dispositions’. I followed a similar procedure with ‘beliefs about the learners’ aptitudes’.

At the final stage of the analysis, I wrote up the report, which is the heart of this thesis. I chose the most salient and illustrative extracts from each theme to describe what I thought was going on within themes and across them. Only those themes for which I had enough evidence were chosen for the final report. In the final report, I organised the analysis in a progression from description, where I arrange the themes semantically, to interpretation, where I discuss the patterns attempting to theorise their significance and their implications.

4.6 Ethics

In order to avoid the harm likely to arise from intruding into the human private sphere, a series of considerations were taken to minimise the ethical stakes of this research (Dörnyei, 2007; Hennik, Hutter and Bailey, 2011). First, I applied for consent to conduct research involving human participants to the Research Ethics Committee of the UCL-Institute of Education (see Appendix 8 for the application form sent to the Research Ethics Committee). No contact was established with the institution until I received consent from the Research Ethics Committee.

Second, once I received approval to start collecting data through the methods described in this chapter, I approached the programme with a formal letter requesting the possibility to conduct the research described thus far in the *pedagogía en inglés* programme.

Third, all the participants were given an information letter with a description of the research (its goals, the reasons why they were invited to participate, what would happen to them when participating, and the possible risks of taking part) and a consent form with information regarding confidentiality, how the results would be used, and a statement explaining their right to withdraw at any point of the research (see Appendices 9.1-9.4). In the case of the school observations, since learners were present when I observed the PSTs use their material, I asked the PSTs to send a letter to the learners' parents informing them about the research and asking them to sign an opt out form attached to the letter if they did not want their children to be present during the observations (see Appendix 9.5). No parent returned the form.

Once the data was gathered, I immediately anonymised it by using pseudonyms and storing it in a computer that only I can access using a password. To ensure the data was seen just by me, I personally transcribed and translated the audio and video recordings following the procedures mentioned in 4.4. Lastly, by following the methodology described earlier, I make sure that the data is reported professionally in the form of a doctoral thesis.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter has described the methodological approaches undertaken to understand the process of learning to design language teaching materials by a group of preservice teachers in their final year of an English language teacher education programme in Chile. I made the case for the use of a case study taking place at the university where the participants were doing their teacher education and at the schools where they were doing their practicum. In line with methods typically used in qualitative and sociocultural studies, I argued for the use of interviews, stimulated recall interviews, focus groups, observations and document analysis to explore the process in question. I then discussed how the transcribed data was analysed through the use of thematic analysis in order to foster the participants' voices while recognising my own theoretical sensitivities in carrying out this process. The analysis was conducted following Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps involving the coding and recoding of themes, which further supports the reliability of the study. I concluded the chapter describing some ethical considerations.

The next four chapters offer the main findings of this study. Each chapter is named after one of the four conceptual tools I identified in the data: Chapter 5 – The Receptive Turn; Chapter 6 – Dumbing Down; Chapter 7 – Textbook Dependency; and Chapter 8 – Subordination of Thematic Content. The chapters are organised in accordance with each research question stated in 3.7. Thus, I begin discussing a systemic contradiction emerging in the PSTs' designing of materials. I then discuss the relevant conceptual tool emerging in the systemic contradiction. I finish each chapter discussing the school and university elements influencing the development of the relevant conceptual tool by the PSTs.

Chapter 5 The Receptive Turn

'At the end of the lesson there is never time to do the production'

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter I illustrate and explain the tendency adopted by all the PSTs to prioritise the teaching and development of the receptive skills of reading and listening rather than the productive ones of speaking and writing, a phenomenon that I call the receptive turn. I show how this is a conceptual tool that emerges within the context of a secondary contradiction between the overall motive/object of the *pedagogía en inglés* programme to educate teachers within the tenets of the communicative approach and the lesson plan model taught to the PSTs at the university. As a result, the bulk of the materials designed by the participants emphasise reading, and to a lesser extent listening, and give considerably less emphasis to the development of speaking and writing. This results in only scant opportunities for the PSTs' learners to develop abilities that allow them to express themselves in a foreign language.

I organise the chapter illustrating the contradiction between the overall motive/object of the university to train teachers whose expected practice of ELT is framed within the communicative approach and lesson plan model offered to the PSTs by the university to design lessons during their *práctica*. Then I describe and discuss the form that this receptive turn takes in the PSTs' materials. This is followed by a discussion of the elements of the school and university settings that aggravate this rationale underpinning the PSTs' designing of materials.

5.2 A secondary contradiction between educating communicative teachers of English and a lesson plan model

As mentioned above, the prioritisation of the receptive skills over the productive ones in the PSTs' materials occurs amidst the contradiction of two elements present in the university setting, namely, one of the overarching institutional motives/objects of educating CLT oriented teachers who emphasise the

development of all communicative skills (Mineduc, 2014), and the lesson plan model taught to the PSTs during the *didáctica* modules and the practicum.

5.2.1 The motive/object of educating CLT-oriented teachers of English

Given the well-established position that CLT has as the dominant methodological model in ELT (Thompson, 1996; Thornbury, 2016), it is not surprising that the programme embraces the tenets of CLT as part of what Activity Theory (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010) would define as the motive or object of the activity of educating teachers of English. In fact, the programme publicly adheres to this approach stating on its website that the graduates of *pedagogía en inglés* are expected to '*design, implement and assess teaching situations to promote the development of the communicative competence in English in meaningful learning contexts*' (university website – my translation). This is not only a statement available to the community within and beyond the university, but, as I show below, a declaration resonating strongly within the university's institutional ethos.

Some institutional assertions are testament to the programme's commitment to the development of a teaching professional embracing the principles of CLT. For example, when discussing the methodological orientation the programme requires from the PSTs in their practice of ELT, the PL mentioned that '*at the university, we (meaning the teaching staff) ask [the PSTs] to design their lesson plans considering the tenets of the communicative approach*'. Others, like TE3, mentioned that the selection of materials to teach English to the PSTs is based on the perceived communicative nature of, for example, the coursebook *New Headway* used for such purpose (see Chapter 7).

This language teaching approach is not only a requirement imposed on the PST, but also a requirement imposed on the *pedagogía en inglés* programme itself by Mineduc through the Guiding Standards (see 2.3.2). These official guidelines, defined as the '*goals that the institutions involved in [English] teacher education must achieve*' (Mineduc, 2014:3), have an increasingly high stakes role in light of the accreditation processes which universities, and in particular, teacher education programmes, are subjected to (see Chapter 2). In the extract below the PL explains

how the programme pays heed to these guidelines and introduces the principles of CLT in the first module of *didáctica* in the fifth term of the course.

[In] the first didáctica, we always try to integrate the four skills, the principles of the four skills within the communicative approach. Why? Because the ministry of education requires that our students, within the disciplinary standards (meaning Guiding Standards), when they plan [lessons], they integrate the development of the four skills. (PL)

The extract above clearly reflects the programme's commitment to following the official teacher education policy, and how this policy is framed within a communicative view in which the development of all four skills is integrated. In fact, the document takes a strong stance regarding the integrated development of all four communicative skills, as mentioned by the PL, which is clearly reflected in Mineduc's (2014:21) indication that the communicative skills are 'the most important aspect in the learning of the language'.

As shown in Chapter 2, the Guiding Standards are ten statements divided into a varying number of indicators which specify the achievement of each standard. These point out the knowledge, content and dispositions expected from graduates of *pedagogía en inglés* programmes of both primary and secondary education across the country (Mineduc, 2014). Five standards directly address areas concomitant with CLT, namely, those related to the development of receptive and productive skills (Standards Two and Three correspondingly), one standard addressing the integration of the four skills (Standard Four), one standard associated with the mastery of language teaching and learning theories (Standard Seven), and the standard tackling the issue of materials adaptation, selection and design (Standard Eight).

Standard Two, which emphasises the development of receptive skills, is to a large extent addressed by the PSTs through their materials. However, those standards touching on the development of the productive skills, or their integration, are mostly not met. For example, Standard Three, which tackles issues pertaining to the development of the productive skills, is only marginally addressed by the PSTs through their materials as I shall show in 5.2.3.

Standard Three:

The teacher-to-be comprehends the importance of the development of the skills of oral and written expression by their pupils, [he or she] uses this knowledge as an organising axis in the teaching and learning process. (Mineduc, 2014: 25)

This standard is further divided into nine indicators pointing out the knowledge and procedures conducive to the development of the productive skills. The indicators emphasise the knowledge of the linguistic and cognitive elements involved in the production of oral and written texts. They further stress that the productive skills require linguistic knowledge; highlight that writing and speaking are modelled by authentic texts of a diversity of genres; and that the productive skills are a means for the development of critical and creative thinking. In addition, the indicators underscore the construction of messages by the teachers to be used as models of production, and the planning and designing of activities aimed at developing the ability to communicate with consideration of strategies supporting the development of the skills in question.

With regards to the integration of the four skills, Standard Four below, emerges as a combination of Standards Two and Three.

Standard Four

The teacher-to-be comprehends the importance of the integrated development of the communicative skills in their pupils, [he or she] uses this knowledge as an organising axis in the teaching and learning process. (Mineduc, 2014: 26)

Six indicators under this standard pinpoint the knowledge and procedures encompassed in the integration of the four communicative skills. The indicators emphasise recognising that language acquisition is promoted through the integration of the four skills, and highlight the design, use, and planning of activities and strategies conducive to such integration.

Standard Seven is present in all standards. It alludes to the PSTs' knowledge of the theoretical underpinnings underlying the development of the communicative competence in English. Even though this standard does not prescribe which language teaching methods the teacher should know, as stated earlier, other parts of the

document emphasise the use of CLT-derived methods, such as TBLT, the Natural Approach or Content Based Instruction. Thus, in light of the assertion in this standard that the mastery of language theories will allow the PSTs to choose ‘the most effective methodological approaches, and the most adequate strategies for the processes of teaching and learning’ (Mineduc, 2014: 30), it is safe to say that for the document, the ‘effective methodological approaches’ are only those falling under the rubric of the communicative approach.

Standard 7

[The teacher-to-be] masters theories of foreign language learning, which allow her/him to select and apply the most effective methodological approaches, and the most adequate strategies for the processes of teaching and learning. (Mineduc, 2014:30)

Finally, a direct connection is made between the emphasis given to the four skills in the standards and issues concomitant with language teaching materials. In fact, the standards described thus far seem to suggest that language teaching materials embody the knowledge and skills highlighted in the guidelines regarding the teaching of receptive and productive skills. This is clearly seen in Standard Eight, which places emphasis on the selection, adaptation and design of teaching resources. One of the indicators of this standard states that:

[The teacher-to-be] designs and uses resources that allow the integrated development of the four skills: listening comprehension, reading comprehension, oral expression, and written expression in English. (Mineduc, 2014:32)

The point I am making here is that, in addition to the programme’s pedagogical views about CLT, the Guiding Standards give CLT a central role in the education given to the PSTs. Within these guidelines, there emerges strongly the integrated development of communicative skills, which the PSTs are expected to consider, not only in their lesson planning, but also in their selection and design of materials.

However, this motive/object of the activity of educating teachers of English clashes with one of the tools of the same activity, namely, the lesson plan model that the programme teaches to the PSTs, and which they are expected to replicate in their own teaching, allowing the emergence of a secondary contradiction. As I show below, the use of this lesson plan model results in the bulk of their materials addressing almost exclusively receptive skills. As a result, the PSTs give their learners only scant opportunities for the development of speaking and writing.

5.2.2 A lesson model for reading (and listening) comprehension

The materials designed by the PSTs were by-and-large defined by the popular pre-while-post lesson plan model. This model is given to the PSTs by the *pedagogía en inglés* programme as a tool to mediate the PSTs' learning of teaching, and is also used as a rubric organising the PSTs' own teaching. As can be seen in the lesson plan format (see Figure 5.1 below), the lessons and the materials accompanying the lessons, revolve around the comprehension of a written or oral input and the development of comprehension activities associated with it, placing the teaching of productive skills at the end of the lesson, raising issues for the development of these skills, as I illustrate later in the chapter.

Testifying to the use of this pre-while-post format, some of the PSTs' comments about their materials reflect that this structure is deeply ingrained in their design of materials. For example, in the following extract, Miguel describes with precision the pre-while-post organisation that the PSTs typically use.

We're given a model at the university. We basically have the pre, while, and post, and before that we have the start of the lesson, with some type of warm-up. We've never been shown a rubric that says 'your lesson plans have to have this', but for some reason, it's been imprinted on us that the lesson plans have to have the four things I told you. Then you have to include the type of assessment and tools that you are going to use for the assessment. (Miguel, SRI1)

Miguel's comment highlights that the model is a strong element guiding his design of lessons and materials as shown in Figure 5.1. In fact, he does not only refer

to the core of the model, namely the pre-while-post structure, but also to other moments suggested in the lesson plan, such as the warm up and the assessment placed at the beginning and end of the lesson correspondingly.

CLASS PLAN	
Teacher's name:	Level:
Time:	Date:
Communicative function:	Type of Text:
Students' needs and interests considered:	
Topic:	
Previous knowledge required:	
LEARNING OUTCOME/S	CONTENT
	Concept: Procedure: Attitude:
ACTIVITIES	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Start: (Greeting, learning outcome, Warm up, rules) 2. Development: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Pre: (prior knowledge activation, presentation of key words or structure, prediction) b) While: (INPUT and development of activities that lead to achieving the goal) c) Post: (linguistic reinforcement and production) 3. Closing: (evaluation/systematisation) 	
Possible adjustment:	
Resources:	
ASSESSMENT	
Type of assessment (process / product – formative/summative – self assessment):	
What will be assessed:	
Assessment tool:	

Figure 5. 1 Lesson plan model given by the programme to the PSTs.

The person in charge of designing this lesson plan model for the programme was TE4, who was also the practicum coordinator at the time I conducted the research. In the interview with her, she said that the development of this structure 'fell on her shoulders' when she started working in the programme in the early 2000's. As mentioned by TE4, her design came to being as:

...almost something intuitive, which I later improved seeing different models, from abroad and local too; [a model] that was something uniform for the preservice teachers, but also capable of embracing the de-uniformity of the school system. So, I saw different models, and I made a hodgepodge, which is the model we have (TE4).

The model has a long history in the programme. Its first use actually dates back to 2002 when the programme re-opened (see 4.2.2), and as TE4 said, has only undergone slight modifications since. In fact, while describing the model during the interview, TE4 referred to my own experience as a PST in the programme: *'When you studied here and wrote your lesson plans, the lesson was divided into pre, while and post, which is more or less the same now'* (TE4). In effect, as a past PST in the programme, my own experience testifies to the use of a similar tripartite lesson plan model aimed at the development of receptive skills. Here it is important to mention, however, that the lesson plan used in the early 2000's reflected the ELT policy of the time, which, as mentioned in Chapter 2, emphasised the development of reading and listening by and large (see McKay, 2003). Because the model has not significantly changed since 2002, the development of receptive skills can be said to be at the core of its design and use in the *pedagogía en inglés* programme, and the prioritising of reading and listening can be interpreted as anchored in an ELT curriculum that is no longer in force, and which does not promote speaking and writing.

Further descriptions of the model by TE4 characterise it as follows:

Firstly, the lesson plan has to be logical, it has to have a logic from the beginning to the closing of the lesson, and it has to have the three basic elements that are the beginning, the development, and the closing. The two or three most important things for me are the activation of prior knowledge or contextualisation, or connection with the previous lesson when the goal takes more than one lesson, and that is, broadly speaking, the input, what you give to the students to then develop an output, that would be the production part. (TE4)

Anchored in the idea that a lesson plan like this provides a logical sequence for the development of a lesson, this model is formed of *'three basic elements'* in TE4's view, by which she means the parts of the lesson. Some of these 'elements' emphasise the learners' schematic knowledge (see Wallace, 2001). This is evident in TE4's reference to *'activation of prior knowledge, or contextualisation, or connection[s] to previous lessons'* in the pre-stage of the lesson. These prototypes are then followed by the use of inputs for comprehension, which later serve as

models of language production, what she refers to as *'an output'*. TE4 sees the integration of these elements as *'the most important things'*.

Other teacher educators also mentioned that this structure was the methodology taught to the PSTs to organise their lessons and materials. TE1, who teaches the *didáctica* module, also described this organisation as the one that she taught to the PSTs, in a similar way as TE4.

Didáctica... pre, while, and post... they learn this, quote unquote, because they associate and all, we see what is done at each stage, we see videos, we look at worksheets to see how [the pre, while, and post model] is transformed into practice, how the keywords can be taught in a worksheet, and all, and then the students write their lesson plans. (TE1)

In the comment above, TE1 describes how the PSTs are taught the model, what materials she uses to teach it, and what form the model eventually takes. This is in fact the form that the bulk of the materials in this study took. As was clearly said by TE1, the worksheet is the way in which the PSTs learn to *'transform [the lesson plan model] into practice'*. It is in this transformation of theory into practice that the conceptual tool that I call the receptive turn emerges as a strong and almost exclusive way of articulating the design of materials. In so doing, the PSTs focus almost completely on the development of receptive skills, and leave little space if any, allocated to the development of speaking or writing. In the next section I address this issue.

5.2.3 The Receptive Turn: Reading and listening worksheets

Out of 15 pieces of material that PSTs shared with me, 14 are worksheets (known in Spanish as *guía*), defined by McGrath (2002) as a particular category of handout designed to facilitate learning (see Appendices 1-7). Twelve of these worksheets have a full pre-while-post sequence, whilst two of them have clearly noticeable while and post activities. One worksheet is composed of two grammar drill tasks only. The model discussed above thus has a pivotal role in the learning of materials design by

the PSTs given its prominence in the organisation of the content and tasks as well as in the overall form that these materials take.

This prevalence was qualitatively echoed by TE3, who was in charge of *didáctica* and English language modules. When I asked her what type of material the PSTs design, she said that *'generally, [the PSTs] prepare the worksheet, which IS a supporting material, and that is usually very well-structured'*.

The relevance of the *guía* in this study does not only lie in the numbers cited above, but also in its frequent mentions by most participants in reference to materials design. In light of this, the significance of the worksheet for the lesson plan model discussed above rests in the idea that *'the design of the material would be the worksheet that is the by-product of the lesson plan'* (TE2). In other words, the lesson plan model is used as a tool for learning to design worksheets. This is construed by the majority of the participants as the natural embodiment of the tripartite lesson plan structure and the form that teacher-made materials take. TE2 describes this view:

That's the logics of the TP (didáctica), you plan your lesson, you not only plan the lesson, but you also have to design, there you design the worksheet to use in that lesson. (TE2)

But what do the materials actually look like? With most participants adopting a similar structure for their worksheets, concepts typical of the pre-while-post structure, such as pre-teaching vocabulary, stimulating predictions, tasks to identify general and specific information, and linguistic reinforcement, were frequently mentioned by the PSTs as structural elements of their lessons and materials. Fernanda's (SR1) comment below is illustrative of this:

The methodology we are asked [by the teacher educators], which is, to recognise general and specific information, but before there's also, as shown in the worksheet, the key words, some key words so that [the learners] can comprehend the text. Then to look for general and specific information, then a bit of grammar and production, which is... that they are able to produce a text in relation to what they've learnt.

Fernanda's reference to general and specific information seems to place reading at the core of her material when she says that the methodology that she and her fellow PSTs are asked is the recognition of such information. This focus on reading, as she recalls, is preceded by pre-teaching vocabulary that, in her view, is 'key' to develop an understanding of the text, and is later followed by a focus on language reinforcement and production. Pre-teaching vocabulary and language work fall in the categories of pre and post-reading/listening respectively as shown in the lesson plan model (see 5.2.2). In addition, Fernanda's comment that after reading the text, there is '*a bit of grammar and production*' signals the issue of lack of production – and the receptive turn – of the PSTs' materials.

Fernanda's description of the methodology that she and her fellow PSTs are asked to use points out the three stages of the model and the typical tasks that can be part of each stage. My analysis of the materials provided by the PSTs, as shown below, suggests that each of the stages is frequently divided into rigidly-sequenced subparts which have the intended function of contributing to the development of comprehension and language acquisition. In addition, each of the subparts of this linear structure in turn seems to be seen by the PSTs to predetermine what types of tasks can be used to promote the comprehension of inputs and later language learning.

Table 5.1 below summarises the stage of pre-listening/reading, the purpose of its subparts and the tasks typically used by the PSTs. As can be seen below, there is a concern in the PSTs' design with the activation of prior knowledge and prediction of topics, possibly owing to the recognised powerful and positive effect on the learners' process of comprehension (see Tudor, 1990; Grabe, 1991, 2004; Hudson, 2007; Mihara, 2011). Further, the notable variety of activities used by the PSTs to pre-teach vocabulary highlights the role the PSTs give to language in their design of worksheets as a means of developing understanding of the texts, possibly because of the potential that activating the learners' schematic knowledge and priming them conceptually has for comprehending the text they will read (see Tudor, 1989).

Table 5. 1 Activities used by the PSTs in the pre-stage section of their worksheets

Stage	Purpose of task	Task
Pre	To activate prior knowledge	Questions
	To pre-teach vocabulary	Images Definitions Word search Matching Elicit vocabulary Examples Translations
	To predict content	Questions Commenting on statements

In a similar fashion, Table 5.2 below shows the stage of while-reading/listening, which is usually divided into two subparts: one aiming to develop general comprehension of the text with little variety of tasks, and one intended to develop detailed comprehension of it, mostly promoting the accurate identification of factual information within the texts.

Table 5. 2 Activities used by the PSTs in the while-stage of worksheets

Stage	Purpose of task	Task
While	To identify general information	Questions Multiple choice
	To identify specific information	Multiple choice Questions True or False (or Doesn't Say) Sentence completion Matching Matching headings to parts of text Complete chart Circle correct option Underline known words

As shown in Table 5.2, most of the while reading tasks fall into the category of *content* questions (see Freeman, 2014) given the emphasis placed on the identification of information of both sections. The section aimed at identifying general information, however, tends to address issues associated with formal

discourse structures, such as type of text or the communicative function of the text, possibly owing to the fact that knowing how a text is organised enhances comprehension (see Grabe, 1991; see Appendices 1-7 for a detail of the tasks used by the PSTs in their materials). However, as I show next, some PSTs seem to use these questions rather mechanically, without really recognising their pedagogical value.

This is best reflected in the following extract by Francisco. When I asked him what he was thinking when he included a question about the text genre, he said that *'that's a question that stays there (meaning at the beginning of the while reading section), and probably, it will always be there'* (SRI2). Francisco's answer suggests that the tasks to be included in the worksheets are pre-determined by the model. In order to find out if this was the case, I probed him further to know whether it was the lesson plan model that determined the use of such question to elicit comprehension of the text or it was his own decision, which he answered thus:

No, because it's a way of... I mean, the general questions, about the texts, are very limited because... for example, if I said 'ask something general about the text' that didn't require some specific knowledge of it, the questions available are very limited 'what type of text is it? What is it about? The intention... broadly speaking because there are no more questions that I remember, no, nothing. I mean... they're like very very very very limited 'what type of text is it? What's the idea of who wrote it? Or the narrator? Or What is it about? Type of text, intention, and frankly what it is about, because the rest, most of the other things would be detailed information. (Francisco, SRI2)

Francisco attributes the limited range of *'general questions'* to the nature of the information that the while-stage of the lesson model is designed to elicit, such as the text type or the communicative function of the text, and not to issues arising from the model itself. As shown in Table 5.2, only two types of activities are deployed by the participants in the while reading phase, namely questions and multiple choice, which are used by the PSTs to have their learners provide evidence of comprehension of the text at a general level. In addition, the brevity of the

answers required by such questions exacerbates the issue of lack of language production.

With regards to the second part of the while-reading/listening section, which aims at identifying specific information, a larger number of tasks tends to be used, compared to the general information part. In addition, a bigger variety of tasks than in the previous section is deployed, probably as a result of the bigger number of tasks typically included in this section of the PSTs' materials. This said, this diversity of tasks tends to be repeated across the different pieces of materials provided by the PSTs as shown in Table 5.2. A likely explanation can be found in Emilia's SRI2. When I asked her how she had come up with the activities of her worksheet, she said that tasks such as *true or false*, *multiple choice*, and *gap-filling* always had to be included. When I asked her to elaborate on such notion, she said that they had to be used because:

The learners are always going to work with those. So, it's like, actually, the traditional ones, that's why I think they are the unavoidable ones, I mean, it's like (she laughs), it sounds really informal to say this, but they're like the 'vieja confiable'. (Emilia, SRI2)

A '*vieja confiable*' (reliable old lady) in Chile, is an informal expression used to refer to someone or something that is reliable, and can guarantee efficacy. Thus, Emilia's answer reveals that typical tasks, such as the ones mentioned above, are the type of educational practice which she perceives as a reliable source for her own teaching performance through her materials. Relatedly, her description of such tasks as '*the traditional ones*' points out the long-lasting use they have been put to and that she, and her fellow PSTs, perpetuate through their materials, further highlighting how her learning of materials design is a socio-historically embedded practice.

This reliability is in fact stressed in the use of certain tasks aimed at identifying specific information, through which some PSTs ensure that the learners engage with the texts. During SRI2, I asked Emilia what she was thinking when she included '*doesn't say*' as a third alternative to '*true or false*' to which she answered

saying that sometimes the learners *'do not even have the need to read the text to [...] find the answer'*. Therefore, in adding the third option, Emilia believed the learners would read the text *'one way or another'*, again reflecting the characteristics of the *'vieja confiable'* mentioned above. In the same way, I asked Francisco during SRI2 what he was thinking when he included an item with the instruction *'Complete the sentences with information from the text'*. In his response, he also stressed the idea of ensuring that the learners engaged with the text when he said that he wanted the learners to *'search in the text the textual words that they had to use (meaning the same words), and that [they] did not randomly fill in the gaps with anything'*. In doing this, both Emilia and Francisco's main concern is that the learners go through the process of identifying specific and explicit information from the texts they used in their worksheets, and that the learners adhere strictly to the lesson plan structure. The way in which Emilia and Francisco make sure that their learners read the text echoes the description of 'literal comprehension' (Day and Park, 2005:62), aimed at identifying specific meanings in the texts such as facts, vocabulary dates, times, and locations, possibly in the interest of making sure that their learners understood the basic or surface meanings of the inputs they used in their material (see Day and Park, 2005). However, as I show below, the way both Emilia and Francisco try to make sure that the learners engage with the text contrasts diametrically with the efforts they give to having the learners engaging in oral and written production as stipulated in the lesson plan model.

The post-reading/listening stage reflects similar scenarios to those created in the previous sections. As shown in Table 5.3 below, the post-stage of comprehension of the materials analysed in this study is usually formed of two broad sections: one where there is explicit *linguistic reinforcement*, in which the PSTs typically emphasise grammar and to a lesser extent vocabulary, and a second one where they focus on *language production* of the textual and linguistic features of the input(s) presented in the while-stage.

Table 5. 3 Activities used in the Post-stage of reading/listening comprehension worksheets

Stage	Purpose of task		Task
Post	To reinforce linguistic content	Grammar	Gap filling (text) Complete chart Complete sentences using grammar tense Grammar explanation box Copy sentences from text Transform to negative
		Vocabulary	Noticing (look for adjectives) Unscramble words Matching images with food groups Word search
	To produce language		Write sentences (4-7 lines) Write own CV Write healthy lifestyle plan Draw profession and write about it Role-play Write short job interview (5 exchanges) Interview classmate (5 questions given)

Again, the summary of the activities and subsections in Table 5.3 reflect well the post-stage structure suggested in the lesson plan model. However, a slight departure from the model is shown in the extract below by TE4, who said that she teaches the PSTs that the *linguistic reinforcement* and *production* do not have to follow a linear sequence, and can instead occur concurrently.

The activities, you know, in the post, we used to ask [the PSTs] for a linguistic reinforcement and the development of production. Now, I say to [the PSTs] that this linguistic reinforcement does not have to go in one activity necessarily, but it can go together with the production, so one can reinforce linguistically while the learners are working on their production. (TE4)

Notwithstanding TE4's recommendation to blend language production and linguistic reinforcement, the post-stage of the PSTs' worksheets, as shown in Table 5.3 and their own comments, indicates that they heed the lesson plan model instead of TE4's advice, possibly due to the assessment role that the model takes (see 5.4), thus following a linear sequence as opposed to doing both stages concurrently. For

example, in the extract below, Francisco describes the structure that he says he typically uses in the post-reading/listening of his material.

And after that (meaning the while-reading/listening) we revise the grammar or well, the boring part of the lesson, which is the focus of the lesson, and after that, we do a production, I mean, that's usually a structure, that's what's usually worked on.
(Francisco, SRI2)

Francisco's comment reflects accurately the sequence and type of activity that the PSTs typically ask their learners to do after the while-reading/listening stages. His comment is also interesting because it draws attention to the prominence that language constructs have in the materials he designs, as well as other PSTs. When he says that these structures are '*the focus of the lesson*', he voices his interpretation of the post-stage of model, which for him, seems to be the central part of the lesson, or as he says, its '*focus*'. A number of tasks such as gap-filling, sentence completion, chart completion and copying sentences, are used in the way mentioned by Francisco as shown in Table 5.3 above.

As for the *production* part of the post-reading/listening stage, the bulk of the tasks included in the materials are mostly aimed at practicing the linguistic constructs reinforced previously. This is by-and-large done through asking the learners to write isolated sentences using the linguistic feature(s) that are '*the focus of the lesson*'. In fact, the task '*write sentences*' was present eight times (in 14 pieces of material), asking the learners to write from four to seven sentences as the maximum for language production. In addition, other tasks, such as *writing a healthy lifestyle plan*, *role-play*, *write a short job interview*, and *interview a classmate*, only require writing a similar amount of sentences (as described by the PSTs during the SRIs or as mentioned in the very instructions of the tasks; see Appendices 1-7), thus reducing the production of language to writing isolated sentences using specific grammatical and lexical contents, such as verb tenses and shopping, job interviews or health.

Returning to the secondary contradiction between the university's aim of educating CLT-oriented teachers of English and the lesson plan model taught to

them, clearly the scarcity and type of language production elicited from the learners through their materials discussed in this study, the receptive turn, is at odds with the type of communicatively oriented practice of ELT endorsed by the *pedagogía en inglés* programme through its adherence to CLT and the Guiding Standards. In this regard, the use of the pre-while-post reading and listening lesson plan model given by the university, construed as a 'logical' (TE4) and linear organisation of language teaching by both PSTs and some TEs, contradicts some of the principles of language teaching that the institution embraces, especially those concomitant with language production and the integration of linguistic skills. This issue becomes more acute when language production, as the materials suggest, is taken by the PSTs to be the practice of previously taught and studied linguistic content, particularly grammar, suggesting that the post-reading/listening is used to disguise language work as productive skills development.

In addition to the role of the lesson plan model, the receptive turn is aggravated by a number of other elements from the school and university settings. In the next section, I illustrate and explain these factors.

5.3 The School

The school setting has an important role in the development of the receptive turn. This is mainly done through the schoolteachers, who believe that the complete implementation of the pre-while-post lesson plan is not suitable to the 'school reality' (ScT2). In addition to this, the ScTs actively inhibit the PSTs from designing and implementing lessons and materials to develop the learners' speaking and writing skills thus having an important role in the PSTs' learning of materials aimed primarily at reinforcing reading and listening.

5.3.1 The schoolteachers: '*Doing the pre, doing the while, doing the post, and the closing. It's like too many stages that I feel here, in this reality, no'. (ScT2)*

A common issue influencing the development of the receptive turn is the perception by some ScTs that the pre-while-post lesson structure is not suitable for the school

'reality', a perception that they tend to reinforce in the PSTs. Their comments highlight the idea that this model has been devised without consideration of the different constraints posed by '*the Chilean reality and the reality of each school*' (ScT2). As we shall see, this notion exerts an important influence on the prioritisation of the teaching of reading and listening over speaking and writing by the PSTs.

In the extract below, ScT2, who was Carlos' schoolteacher, refers to the pre-while-post sequence described in this chapter and how the *pedagogía en inglés* programme, in her opinion, fails to acknowledge that the school context does not allow its complete implementation.

I feel the university asks for, maybe, lessons that come with pre, while, post, that come with motivation activities, but broadly speaking, in practice [...] the reality doesn't allow for that. It doesn't mean that if one doesn't get to cover everything is not a successful lesson, it means that the reality here is not what the university usually suggests. (ScT2)

ScT2's views were also voiced by Carlos, who, during Interview 1 associated the issue of lack of emphasis given to productive skills with the conditions under which he had to implement his lessons. When I asked Carlos about the overall process of learning to plan his lessons, he expressed a similar concern, and further mentioned that one of the main issues he has had has been to implement the pre-while-post structure completely during his previous progressive practicum, mainly due to the lack of time to have the learners doing the production section at the end of lessons.

I never really had problems other than the time, because at the end of the lesson there is never time to do the production. (Carlos, Interview 1)

Even though this comment alludes to his previous *práctica progresiva* experiences and not necessarily to his current *práctica*, here is important to mention that his schedule at the time I conducted the interviews was particularly difficult for the successful implementation of the whole tripartite structure compared to other participants. His class, Year Three of secondary education, is by law required to have

135 minutes of English weekly in no more than three slots of 45 minutes each (Mineduc, 2018). Typically, a level will have one longer period of 90 minutes and one of 45 minutes weekly, as was the case for all PSTs except him. In contrast, Carlos's schedule distribution was three separate periods of 45 minutes which he considered to be a problem for implementing lessons with the pre-while-post structure. ScT2 was aware of this issue and said that his distribution of teaching hours created a disadvantage for him. In her opinion:

[Carlos] gets really puzzled when creating material, but not in the sense of not knowing how to design it, but in the sense of how to be able to apply it and meet [the requirements], how to be able to apply the pre in one lesson, how to resume that [in the next lesson] and then the while, and then how to close [his lesson] with his hours being all split'. (ScT2)

ScT2 then justified the incomplete implementation of the pre-while-post model alluding to issues emerging from her school 'reality' such as the learners' losing the focus between lessons and the lack of time to allow them to do the tasks at their own pace. As a result of this, she said that 'the issue of time [wore] him out' and 'caused him to be insecure'. In fact, she emphasised Carlos's anxiety emerging from the inability to implement all the steps of his lesson plans and materials in a single lesson – possibly referring to the post-reading – due to the constraints emerging from the school lesson distribution, which Carlos had no control of.

I feel that somehow he also gets nervous because of this thing of not meeting the activity of motivation, doing the pre, doing the while, doing the post, and the closing. It's like too many stages that I feel here, in this reality, no. (ScT2)

Carlos' relationship with his schoolteacher suggests that ScTs have an influential role in the development of cognitions by the PSTs about the lesson plan model taught at the university and the receptive turn. In fact, for the PL this is hardly surprising in her experience as a teacher educator and leader of the programme. She mentioned that promoting the design of lessons and materials emphasising speaking

and writing has been one of the biggest difficulties for the *pedagogía en inglés* programme and pointed at the schoolteachers as the main culprits as regards this phenomenon. She argued that the ScTs' practice of ELT focuses mainly on the receptive skills thus offering the PSTs few, if any, opportunities to teach speaking and writing during their *práctica*.

Regarding the productive skills we have a bit more of trouble, ok. Why? Because those are the skills that are worked the least in the school context. And they are also the skills that take us the most effort to modify in the programme, speaking and writing. Why? Because in the educational context (meaning the schools), those skills are practically not taught by the teachers, nothing. So, they give very few opportunities to our student-teachers to develop innovations in those contexts as they do not give importance to them. (PL)

In fact, the PL's comments were echoed by one of the participants of the focus group. Student 1 mentioned that the ScT he was working with in his progressive practicum at the time had discouraged him from teaching a lesson focusing on listening and speaking, and that was based on an interest survey given to the learners, in which they had shown their wish to work on those skills. As far as Student 1 remembered, the teacher said that '*the learners say [they want to do this], but when they work in groups, they get messy and when you ask them to speak, they don't do it*' (Student 1, FG).

Notwithstanding the acknowledgement of the constraints posed by the ScTs, the PL also said that the *pedagogía en inglés* programme '*cannot put more pressure [on the PSTs] because [...] the teachers open their classroom doors [...] they are doing [the programme] a favour and if they want, at a given time, they close them*'. The PL's comment reflects the programme's dependence on the schoolteachers' willingness to host and mentor PSTs.

To sum up, the school context, as described by the participants, appears to pose a number of obstacles to the PSTs' learning to design materials that emphasise speaking and writing. This is mostly reflected in how the ScTs tend to criticise the methodological formats taught to the PSTs at the university, especially the pre-

while-post lesson plan model, which they characterise as unsuitable for their school 'reality'. What is more, some ScTs seem to take an active role in discouraging the development of lessons and materials that emphasise the teaching of productive skills by the PSTs. This can be said to play an important role in the cognitions the PSTs develop about materials design and the appropriation of the receptive turn.

5.4 The University

Some data suggests that the university sabotages its own motive/goal of educating teachers whose practice of ELT is communicatively-oriented, and who place equal emphasis on the development of all four skills. The most prominent element appears to be the pre-while-post model itself, as a rule of the university setting, which determines what the PSTs can or cannot do during their practicum. In addition, the type of language teaching that the PSTs are exposed to by their TEs during their learning of English at the university appears to be in line with the emphasis given to receptive skills at the expense of the productive ones.

5.4.1 The lesson plan model as part of the practicum assessment criteria: 'If your lesson plan says you're doing A, B, C, and D, don't you dare add E' (Miguel, Interview 1).

Along this chapter I have discussed the influence of the lesson plan model as the dominant language teaching conceptualisation in the PSTs' learning of materials design, particularly worksheets. The high frequency of the use of this model does not only arise from its pedagogical underpinnings, but also from its role as a rule of the *pedagogía en inglés* activity setting. The data provided by the PSTs suggests that they follow this model to the letter in the interest of meeting the demands imposed by the university during their progressive practicum in years two, three, and four, and later during their final practicum in year five. This strict adherence to the model resulting from the regulatory role attributed it can be said to aggravate the development of the receptive turn.

In effect, as mentioned by Valeria below, the model defines the first experiences that the PSTs have in planning lessons and designing materials as the

model is intentionally used to teach the receptive skills only:

Actually, in our first progressive practicum experiences, we only worked on reading and listening, the receptive skills. (Valeria, Interview 1)

Because of its regulatory role, the PSTs adhere to the format systematically until their final practicum. For example, below Miguel emphasises the idea that the PSTs cannot deviate from the lesson plan model, which determines all the steps that his lesson and materials will include:

If your lesson plan says you're going to do activities A, B, C and D, your material should have A, B, C and D, don't you dare adding an E! In fact, during my progressive practicum we were asked to include everything in the worksheet. If we're doing a warm-up, the warm-up had to be in the worksheet, in the instructions. And the same for all the steps of the lesson, the linguistic reinforcement, everything in the worksheet. (Miguel, Interview 1)

The way in which Miguel phrases his comment suggests that there is no scope for flexibility, and that even activities which, one would argue, do not necessarily have to be printed on the worksheet, such as a lesson warm-up, are to be written in it due to the regulatory nature of the lesson plan. The lesson plan model – as a rule governing the PSTs' actions during their learning of teaching – came to the fore when I asked Miguel why he had to include 'everything in the worksheet'.

I didn't dare to ask why [...]. We were requested that, and it was part of what was assessed. So, we were assessed, we did it, as simple as that. We are going to be teachers, but now we are students, and we want to pass the modules. (Miguel, Interview 1)

What is interesting from the comment above is how Miguel positions himself. The regulatory role of the model seems to undermine the development of Miguel's agency over his own learning of teaching during his teacher education and the resulting decision-making ability over his design of teaching and materials. This can

be seen in how, in his role as a student-teacher, he assumes that he cannot question the language teaching methods imposed by the teacher education course. He further seems to construct the idea that passing the course involves not questioning what he is taught, in this case the model.

Miguel's learning trajectory at the university with regards to the lesson plan and materials design can be further seen when he added that:

From the first progressive practicum, to the last ones and then the [final] practicum, it's like the first lesson plans, and therefore the materials [you design], follow the rubrics or guidelines or the checklist to the letter, in order that no one (meaning TEs) tells you that [your lessons and materials are] wrong. (Miguel, Interview 1)

What Miguel thus suggests is that, despite 'there always being tension on behalf of [the PSTs]', which I interpret to mean that the PSTs may disagree with this the lesson plan model (see below), the PSTs have to comply with this lesson plan format one way or another in order to pass the modules of *didáctica*, which are spread across four terms, and the *práctica* in their final year.

Emilia made the abovementioned 'tension' explicit, expressing frustration towards having to comply with the model and also bringing up issues directly related with the receptive turn. During SRI2, she said that having the production section at the beginning could be equally beneficial for the learners, and further added that she introduced the while-reading/listening only to pay lip-service to the model, rather than because she was actually convinced of its pedagogical underpinnings:

'if [the learners] have to produce something and then show it to the classmate and share, the classmate will also have to comprehend what they [produced] (i.e. using the learners' own texts as input for comprehension), so I feel that this [meaning the while stage] is just like padding, it's just to comply more than anything else. I feel the most significant part of the material always goes in the end... in the production part'. (Emilia, SRI2)

However, as discussed in the previous section, the last part of the model

seems to be left uncovered as mentioned by some ScTs and PSTs.

The regulatory role of the pre-while-post lesson model seems to render this mediating tool of the learning of language teaching a very inflexible one, as described by Miguel and Emilia above. This is further illustrated by Carlos below, who, it will be recalled (see 5.3.1), had a timetable that made the implementation of the pre-while-post structure difficult. During SRI2, Carlos said that he had commented to his supervisor on the issue of lacking time for implementing his pre-while-post sequences in just 45-minutes, and also asked her if he could spread the pre-while-post stages across the three 45-minute slots:

I spoke to my supervisor, because my initial idea before starting to implement was to teach extended lessons: to use 45 minutes with pre (in the morning), then the while in other 45 minutes (in the afternoon), and leave the lesson of Thursday for the production. But she said no. She told me that it was indeed more practical, but that she needed to see the whole lesson at the moment of supervising me, beginning, development, post, the closing... She said that what I could do was to [do everything in 45 minutes]. (Carlos, SRI2)

As shown above, Carlos's attempt to develop pedagogical agency was undermined by his supervisor's advice and the inflexibility with which the model was treated. This incompatibility between the pre-while-post model and his timetable seems to have pushed Carlos to relinquish the development of productive skills in his materials, particularly writing as shown below. Thus, it could be said that his learning of lesson planning and materials design that emphasise the productive skills, or an integration of all four, is highly constrained by the regulatory nature of the model (in addition to the other factors previously mentioned). Below Carlos describes how he relinquishes the teaching of productive skills as a result of the inflexibility with which the model is treated in the programme:

Not long ago they told me that 'no, [the skills] can be mixed' (meaning integrated – possibly referring to TE4 in 5.2.3 or the Guiding Standards), the communicative approach and all that, but maybe, I'm doing this because I have three periods, I may

not be able to do the last part, in this case the writing, and if I had stated (in the goals of the lesson) 'to develop writing skills' or something like that, I would have felt that that the lesson would have not been successful if I didn't meet the goal... it's like what I can actually meet. (Carlos SRI1)

In fact, the inflexible way in which this model is treated by the *pedagogía en inglés* programme raises issues amongst some TEs. TE5, who supervises Miguel, said that much of the process of reflection about teaching by the PSTs tends to be done according to the criteria associated with the model, which he saw as a shortcoming. Even though TE5 acknowledged that teacher educators and PSTs alike *'have to follow the guidelines or the things that [they] are looking for'*, he felt that occasionally these become a mere bureaucratic procedure, resulting in a mechanisation of the design of lessons, materials, and reflection:

Sometimes I think it's kind of, [it] becomes some kind of administrative thing, they have to fill in this paper, they have to do this, you've got to have all these things included in your planning, the pre, while, post and all these different rubrics that we have to follow and rubrics and everything else, and I find that the students become very robotic in the way they approach it. (TE5)

TE5 expanded his notion of *'robotisation'* referring to a supervision with Miguel. He admitted that the process of reflection by the PSTs about their teaching and materials has *'become so conditioned [by the TEs, who lead the PSTs] to act and think and do things in a very mechanical way'*. He also criticised how Miguel instinctively reflected on his pedagogical performance by referring to the pre-while-post stages of his lesson rather than to pedagogical concepts inherent to all stages such as learner engagement or meaningful learning.

I work with a student (Miguel) right now in his practicum that, you know, he is just not reflecting, and I said, 'look, you know, what did you do today? You know, what did you like about it' and he thought in mechanical ways... 'I think the pre was good, I thought the while was really good... but I really think the post, you know, I had a hard time' (TE5)

In summary, it can be said that the regulatory role given to the lesson plan model by the members of the university community has an extremely influential role in the PSTs' learning of materials design. One of these effects seems to be the mechanisation of the processes involved in lesson planning and ultimately in the worksheets the PSTs develop. This phenomenon appears to undermine the processes of reflection expected from the PSTs in their teacher education.

5.4.2 Modelling the receptive turn: *'The idea is that pre, while, and post has to be reflected in my classes' (TE2)*

Whilst in the previous section I argued that the pre-while-post lesson plan model is a requirement of the *pedagogía en inglés* programme, in this section I argue that the PSTs are also exposed to this way of organising language teaching during their own learning of English at the university. I would argue that this then becomes part of their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), which would transform the receptive turn into a pervasive element in the PSTs' cognitions.

I was able to notice the above when I asked Valeria how she had created the activities included in her reading material to which she responded saying that *'they [had just come] up to [her] mind'*. Even though this quote does not address any specific factor of the mental activity involved in her design of materials, her comment did, however, indicate that her focus on the receptive skills in her material was linked to her experience learning English at the university, where, it appears, her TEs provide the PSTs with plenty of exposure to the receptive turn:

Reading helps a lot to see the system (i.e. to study grammar), the structure and all those things. Moreover, if there are words they don't know, they also learn vocabulary, so it's always good to use reading... it's also an influence of my teachers (educators)... they also prepare PowerPoints. (Valeria, SRI1)

Valeria's reference to her teacher educators raises issues regarding the type of language teaching that she – and her fellow PSTs – are exposed to. My supposition that the PSTs' are extensively exposed to the receptive turn is confirmed by TE2, who teaches English and *didáctica* in the programme. For TE2, the TEs of *pedagogía en*

inglés 'are constantly modelling' the practice of ELT. As I show below, this practice is again in line with the tripartite structure discussed in this chapter:

I teach didáctica as well. At some point I will have to ask for a lesson plan, I have to ask for a lesson plan with all its steps, for example, pre, while, and post, and that has to be reflected in my classes [of English]. If not [the PSTs say] 'she's asking for pre, while, and post, and the teacher herself is not doing it'. So, the idea is that the activities that we teach in our lessons [of English at the university] are replicable for them in their future classes. (TE2)

Here I believe an important issue has to be raised. If the PSTs' teaching of English is expected to be framed within CLT as discussed in 5.2.1, then it is fair to ask to what extent they are provided with a model of communicative practice of ELT by the TEs of the programme through their use of the pre-while-post structure. This question is particularly relevant in light of the previous discussions in this chapter where the use of the pre-while-post structure results in the receptive turn. Whilst I am not suggesting that the TEs do not embrace a communicative practice of ELT, some data seems to contradict the PL's comment that '*for the development of the [PSTs'] communicative competence, at the university, [the TEs] adopt the communicative approach*'. The comment below by Emilia suggests that again, in the same way as the PSTs do with their own materials, some TEs seem to use the post-stage of the lesson plan model to focus on the practice of linguistic features rather than on the production of communicative language.

So the teacher gave us other types of worksheets with specific information (meaning grammar). And we learnt that specific information and applied it immediately. I feel it was a lot more efficient than working on the textbook that was based on a couple of activities, conversation and eventually, that material was not meaningful. (Emilia, Interview 1)

What is interesting of Emilia's comment is that she seems to place materials – again worksheets – at the centre of what she seems to deem a more '*meaningful*' practice of language teaching by one of her TEs. Furthermore, the worksheets with

which she says she has learnt English seem to discard language production as specified in the standards discussed in 5.2.1, which emphasise the use of communicative language teaching and the integrated teaching of the four skills. It could thus be said that the pre-while-post lesson is used by the PSTs during their practicum in the same way as their TEs use it at the university, that is, as a way to emphasise the development of receptive skills, limiting language production to the practice of discrete language features.

All in all, the university setting appears to reinforce the development of the receptive turn on two fronts. First, when the lesson plan becomes part of the requirements that the PSTs have to meet during their *práctica*, the PSTs have no choice but to comply with it even if they feel that there are other ways of organising lessons and materials. Thus, the lesson plan model is not only used as a tool of the activity of teaching the PSTs how to teach English and design materials, but also as a rule of the activity determining the set of ELT practices available for the PSTs during their teacher education. In addition, I have shown how the extensive use of the model by the TEs at the university provides the PSTs with an accumulation of language teaching/learning experiences that emphasise the development of reading/listening as opposed to speaking and writing. In tandem, both situations reinforce the learning of materials design that emphasises by and large the teaching of receptive skills.

5.5 Conclusion

In this chapter I have illustrated and explained the development of materials emphasising reading and listening, which I have referred to as the receptive turn. This rationale seems to emerge from a tension between the motive/object of the *pedagogía en inglés* programme of having the PSTs teaching English with an emphasis on all communicative skills, and the lesson plan model used by the programme which lends itself to de-emphasise the teaching of speaking and writing. I also illustrated how this phenomenon is reinforced in the school setting where the ScTs deem the lesson model, particularly its language production component, as unsuitable for their school '*realities*'. In addition, some ScTs actively discourage the

PSTs from designing lessons and materials to develop speaking and writing as mentioned by PSTs and the PL. I also explained how the university unwittingly contributes to the PSTs' appropriation of the receptive turn through rendering the lesson plan model one of the rules of the *pedagogía en inglés* programme, determining what the PSTs have to do, and not allowing them to experience other forms of ELT. The programme further promotes the receptive turn when some TEs extensively use the lesson plan model to teach the PSTs English, again prioritising the teaching of receptive skills at the expense of the production of communicative language.

Chapter 6 Dumbing Down

'The kids are not going to produce an answer like the one I expect'

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter I illustrate and explain dumbing down as a conceptual tool underpinning the PSTs' design of materials. I argue that this conceptual tool emerges amidst a primary contradiction between the PSTs' positive and negative beliefs about the learners' capacities and dispositions to learn English. The prevailing negative beliefs held by the PSTs about the learners result in a number of pedagogical decisions that undermine the intellectual challenge posed to the learners through the materials. This occurs in a twofold manner: a simplification of the tasks and a reduction of the amount of production elicited from the learners through the materials.

The development of dumbing down is significantly influenced by the ScTs in the school settings by presenting models of dumbing down or through directly asking the PSTs to dumb down their materials as part of their division of labour. At the university, the *pedagogía en inglés* programme seems to be aware of this tendency and tries to redress it by tackling teaching views and practices that can undermine the pedagogical value of the PSTs' materials.

Following this introduction, I illustrate and explain the mixture of positive and negative beliefs held by the PSTs. I then illustrate and explain how dumbing down is realised in the PSTs' materials. After that, I illustrate and explain the elements within the school setting that aggravate the development of this conceptual tool, and finish the chapter discussing how the *pedagogía en inglés* attempts to prevent its emergence.

6.2 A primary contradiction between the PSTs' beliefs

As mentioned above, the PSTs experienced a primary contradiction within their system of beliefs about the learners' abilities and dispositions to learn English. On the one hand, they tended to initially evaluate their learners positively in terms of

their intellectual ability and attitudes; however, when it came to justifying their decision-making processes, an important number of disparaging beliefs prevailed as rationales underpinning their design of the materials.

6.2.1 PSTs' positive beliefs about the learners' capabilities and dispositions: '*they're very fast, they get the ideas very quickly*' (Emilia, SRI1)

A number of positive views about the learners' capabilities and dispositions were voiced by the PSTs. The PSTs seem to construct these beliefs through their interactions with the learners. The extract from Emilia's SRI1 below shows how she develops these views about the learners. In fact, the way in which she worded her comment suggests that, in spite of having a low level of English, the learners will successfully accomplish the challenge of learning English:

I have worked with the learners, but they have a low level of English, but they're very clever, so I know that as we work, they will do well, because they're very fast, they get the ideas very quickly, they don't have problems in that regard. (Emilia, SRI1)

Likewise, Miguel relied on his short experience with the learners to develop a positive assessment of their likely use of his material:

The main change or reflection I'd see in this, because I know my students a bit more, I'd say, is what they are able to do and what they are not able to do, and that maybe, I'm more confident that they will be able to do the tasks without me having to support them so much. (Miguel, SRI2)

Carlos held a similar view about his learners. This was evident when he referred to some of them as '*really good elements*' ('*súper buenos elementos*' in Spanish), which in Chile is an expression used by teachers to describe learners who embody positive dispositional and intellectual characteristics. His view of the learners was so good that he even mentioned that at times, some of them would be

capable of taking on board teacherly tasks, such as explaining to other classmates what he himself would not be able to.

I believe they will respond to this material successfully and... there are really good elements in that class. The good thing is, as I told you, that they help each other, sometimes what I can't explain, the classmate can. (Carlos, SRI2)

What can be seen in Emilia, Miguel, and Carlos' comments is that their opinions are not only optimistic beliefs about their learners' likely academic performance using their materials, but also constructs emerging from their own interactions with the pupils in the course of their practicum.

Some PSTs developed positive views about the learners from the way they had used their materials before. For example, when Fernanda said that '*they're very receptive and always eager to participate, to respond, to ask questions*' (SRI1), she highlighted the learners' positive attitude, which was reflected in their interest and enthusiasm during her lessons. She further added that '*if they have questions, they interrupt [her] a lot in order to complete the handout*' (SRI1). This comment is particularly interesting because it speaks about the way in which she develops a positive view about the learners from their reactions to the material she had previously provided them with.

Furthermore, Emilia attributed a number of qualities to her learners that she believed that were favourable for language learning, such as obedience to the teachers' instructions, willingness to do what they are asked to do, as well as being competitive learners who wanted to stand out amongst their peers:

The learners are very [...] obedient in a way, because, everything they're asked to do, they have the goodwill to do it, or until now, when I have had to work with them, they have a good disposition to participate, they're very competitive so that leads them to want to participate, to want to stand out in the class (Emilia, SRI1)

To sum up, the PSTs developed positive beliefs about their learners' capabilities and dispositions towards learning English from their interactions with them during their practicum. Here is important to mention, however, that when I

started conducting interviews, the PSTs had only spent one or two weeks in their school placements. In light of this, it could be suggested that their positive views about the learners may also reflect their positive expectations about them rather than views developed from their actual contact with them. However, whether these positive views were beliefs or expectations, the PSTs did not seem to articulate their design of materials based on them. In fact, the bulk of the comments provided by the PSTs reflects a very different scenario, one in which, notwithstanding the previously discussed positive appraisals, the PSTs designed materials for their learners based on a large number of disparaging views about them.

6.2.2 Negative beliefs about the learners' capabilities and dispositions

6.2.2.1 The learners' capabilities: 'It's more complex than what they can actually handle' (Francisco, SRI2)

Along lines very different from the points made in 6.2.1, more than half of the PSTs drew attention to the learners' lack of skills and knowledge necessary for the successful manipulation of language learning materials. The PSTs' comments about the learners tended to be generalisations about their passivity and their struggle to deal with materials such as dictionaries and difficult linguistic content.

A good starting point for illustrating this is the way in which Marcos conceptualised his learners as passive students. When I asked him how his material positioned his pupils in the language learning process, he argued that despite there being different types of learners, he considered the group as a rather passive one.

There's always different types of individuals... [but] if we see the class as a whole, they are very passive, as a class in general. (Marcos, SRI1)

Emilia's extract reflects how these beliefs can be indeed exercised in the PSTs' practice of language teaching:

The kids may take ten minutes looking for a word, and on top of that, when they find it, they find a lot of words that are similar and they exploit. And it's like 'no', so for that reason, I'm not too keen [on using the dictionaries] and I'd rather they ask me

'teacher, what's the meaning of this', instead of using the dictionary because it takes them too long. (Emilia, SRI2)

Emilia's comment is interesting for two reasons. Firstly, it reveals her negative conceptualisation of the learners in an issue directly related to their use of materials, in this case dictionaries. What is more, it shows how her negative view of the learners pushes her to make pedagogical decisions in the classroom that conform with her negative beliefs, resulting in her acting as a translator of vocabulary, rather than as a mediator of language teaching, thus preventing the learners from developing skills associated with the learning of new vocabulary.

In reference to the struggle experienced by some pupils to learn English, Francisco attributed this to the idea that English is an inherently complex language to learn. For example, when I asked him why he had decided to teach the modal verbs, in addition to alluding to his ScT asking him to teach that linguistic content, he further said that he felt that such linguistic content was beyond the learners' ability to 'process':

The modal verbs... basically because they asked me, because I feel it's something more complex than what [the learners] can actually [handle], or they can process. (Francisco, SRI2)

What is interesting here is that Francisco seems to disapprove of the content he is expected to teach through his material. This disapproval is based on the idea that the learners are incapable of learning modal verbs. In fact, it could be suggested that if it was up to him, he would not teach such linguistic content at all. I gather this from some of his opinions during Interview 1, in which he alluded to the thematic content of materials that he had previously designed in the course of his progressive practicum, and the reasons underpinning the use of celebrities in these materials, such as the learners' lack of schematic knowledge and the learners' low socioeconomic background. When I asked him how he had designed those materials, he referred to the school's socioeconomic characteristics as a key element to consider in the process. He compared the learners of his school with the learners of

one of the most prestigious schools in the city, where learners come from a notably higher socioeconomic level. He claimed that in schools such as the latter, he would be able to introduce topics such as foreign politics, which the learners in his current school would not know of. He then extended this denigrating view to all learners in 'vulnerable' schools, which is a category used in Chile to refer to low socioeconomic schools. In his opinion, these learners should be taught thematic content of only scant intellectual challenge due to their lack of 'culture', thus denying them the possibility of accessing more educational content.

The process I generally follow is to look for previous material in order to have a sort of template, and then, from that material I see what I have to work on particularly. For example, what content, in what school I am. I mean, that's a key issue because, without being pejorative, it's not the same to work in this school than working in the Baptist school. The learners' level is different to the reality one faces here, the topics that you can work on are different. I mean, if in the Baptist school one works on foreign politics, they may even know the topic, but if you talk about foreign politics in this school, they don't even know what it is. If I speak to you about Nicolas Sarkozy, you may know who he is, in fact, a relatively cultured person knows him, but if I speak about him to learners in a vulnerable school, [they say] "who is he?" They may even think he is a footballer. I mean, that for me is a key issue. First, I see where I am, what I have to do, and then I take into account what my students are like, what type of student I have, and then I start to develop the worksheet, to organise the worksheet that I will design. (Francisco, Interview 1)

All of the above illustrates the disparaging beliefs held by the PST about the learners' ability to learn English that inform their decision making when designing materials. Below, I illustrate and explain how these negative views are also extended to the learners' dispositions.

6.2.2.2 The learners' dispositions: 'No, I don't think they will participate' (Student 4, FG)

In common with much of the previous section, the extracts below illustrate the negative beliefs about the learners' attitudes affecting the PSTs' designing of materials. Student 4 of the focus group summarises this issue by explicitly addressing the way in which PSTs in the programme, regardless of the year, tend to avoid certain types of tasks due to negative conceptualisations about the learners' dispositions and the pressure of having them engage with their materials.

We're always thinking how the class... [...] we have told ourselves several times 'ok, if we do this... No, I don't think they will participate'... it may also be our own fault to think so, to limit them before even trying, but it happens... it's the pressure of how the CLASS is going to react to what I do. (Student 4, FG)

Emilia also conceptualised the learners' dispositions negatively. During the first interview with her, conducted during the second week of her practicum, she stressed the role of the learners' negative attitude in the inclusion (or not) of certain types of tasks in her design (even though she had referred to the learners positively earlier during the same interview). This emerged when I asked her what a good task would be for her learners, to which she replied saying:

[Material] that was dynamic, to be honest; that the students finish and [...] that gets the students' attention; that keeps them focused, because sometimes the kids see it and say 'I don't like this', or do it unwillingly. So, something that gets their attention, that gets them interested. (Emilia, Interview 1)

Emilia's concept of a good task for her learners is highly defined by her negative conceptualisation of the learners' dispositions. This is seen in how she believes that the learners' ability to 'finish' the task and be 'focused' on it are dependent upon their liking of it and willingness to do it. What is thus seen in Emilia's response is a rationale in which the perceived negative dispositions tend to prevail in her idea of design regarding what tasks should be included in the material.

A similar justification emerged during Emilia's SRI2. When explaining her decision to include a task consisting of writing five sentences in the end of her worksheet, for which she provided the spaces for the learners to write, she claimed that the learners were not keen on writing and that '*everything [had] to be made for them*'. In this way, Emilia's assumption that the learners would not want to write leads her to 'save' them the emotional (and intellectual) labour of having to write in their notebooks or elsewhere. This well-meaning decision appears to result in Emilia doing '*everything*' for her learners.

If I wanted them to write it on their notebooks, it would be like 'what a bother!'... the kids never want to write, but (xx) you have to give them everything done. (Emilia, SRI2)

In fact, Emilia's perceptions that the learners had a negative disposition towards writing was an important rationale driving the decisions she made to design her material. She further mentioned the learners' dislike for writing was reflected in their taking pictures of the grammatical content she writes on the board rather than writing it themselves. For this reason, she said that she preferred to include it in her materials rather than having the learners write it.

Of course, the above can in fact be true of Emilia's learners' dispositions to note-taking and the inclusion of the content in the worksheet can be an appropriate pedagogical choice. However, what is interesting in Emilia's comment is that her decision is not justified by the content that she would teach, or a pedagogical rationale associated with deductive language teaching; instead, her decision was based on her perception that the learners did not like taking notes, thus again, '*doing it for them*' (Emilia, SRI2).

The following sample by Miguel is representative of a tendency on the part of the PSTs to conceptualise the learners negatively even before knowing them. During Interview 1, Miguel claimed that he would face a number of limitations on using certain types of materials and tasks in his current *práctica* – even though he had only started a few days earlier. He said that these limitations would emerge from the class being a newly-formed one, that is, formed both of students who had finished

their primary education at that school, and of newcomers who were enrolled at the school for the first time. In his opinion, this mixture of learners who did not know each other would prevent them from trusting one another, thus inhibiting their participation in certain types of activities.

Now I'm in this year one class (of secondary), and I feel I will have more limitations. The class has just been formed since many students that finished their primary at the school passed to this class, and there are also many students who are new. There's no trust, so those who are good at singing (he uses singing as an example) will not do it. (Miguel, Interview 1)

In summary, the samples illustrate the PSTs' perceptions about the learners' dispositions to learn English. Emilia's case is particularly interesting as her beliefs about the learners seem to disguise disparaging views as well-meaning decisions preventing the learners from engaging in more challenging activities. What is also interesting in these comments is that they reflect prejudiced views about the learners, such as Miguel's belief that he would face difficulties to implement certain tasks and materials although he was not acquainted with the learners yet. In the next section I illustrate and discuss how these disparaging views materialise in the PSTs' worksheets.

6.2.3 Dumbed down worksheets

In this section, I discuss how dumbing down mediates the PSTs' realisation of materials based on their disparaging beliefs about their learners. Two main ways of reducing the intellectual value of the materials were observed in the data, namely, the simplification of the tasks and the reduction of the amount of language production elicited through some of the tasks. Next, I illustrate and discuss these ways of dumbing down the materials.

6.2.3.1 Simplifying the tasks

The PSTs often simplified the tasks of their materials in order to have the learners use them successfully. For example, during SRI2, when Miguel and I examined a

worksheet whose last activity was writing a dialogue, he claimed that although his material was *'simple enough'*, he felt that the learners would complain about the tasks as soon as he gave them the worksheet, especially the final dialogue they had to create. As a way of preventing the learners from developing this negative disposition, he said that he would tell the learners: *'no, kids, work in pairs'* (Miguel, SRI2), which brings out an important issue. In giving the learners the instruction to work in pairs when they complained about the task of writing a dialogue, Miguel seemed to conceptualise pair work as a simplification of his already *'simple enough'* materials, rather than as an appropriate pedagogical organisation of the learners to write a dialogue, or in fact, an appropriate organisation to develop an interaction. Thus, he repurposes pair work: the rationale underpinning its use is making a task easier rather than having the learners engage in a communicative activity.

Francisco also adopted a strong stance to simplifying the materials he designed. During SRI2, he claimed that he *'prepares material of a relatively low level so that [the learners] can complete it'*. He commented this right after he used his material in the school, which he recalled as an unsuccessful experience saying that *'regardless of the material one prepares, that day it was impossible'*. In effect, during my observation of his lesson, the students struggled to complete the material; they frequently went off task, and their poor behaviour can be said to have contributed to lack of development in Francisco's lesson. This negative experience, I would argue, reinforced Francisco's belief that his learners struggle to cope with material of even a *'low level'*, which he apparently designs regularly as mentioned above.

Emilia's simplification of her materials makes a direct reference to a cognitive rationale. When I asked her why she introduced a multiple-choice activity of three superficial/explicit information questions (see Freeman, 2014) in a reading comprehension worksheet of two texts of 150 words each, she associated the use of this type of task with preventing the learners from getting mentally tired. In her view, reading is an activity that tires the learners, therefore an item that does not cause this effect is best. What was interesting in her comment, however, was that she equated making the activities less tiring with making them easier. As Emilia says, *'an activity that's easier to answer [...] and gives the learners a rest'*, such as multiple choice, will avoid this unwanted effect.

I feel that after reading one needs an activity that is a bit lighter, like multiple choice. Because after reading, who is going to want to answer if they're a bit tired already? No, I feel that it's lighter...after a reading, an activity that's more... that's easier to answer, that does not require...that... that gives them a rest, actually. (Emilia, SRI1)

Emilia further explained that in addition to multiple-choice being a short and less tiring task to develop reading skills, it enables the learners to provide an answer by randomly choosing one of the choices available if they do not understand the text, which suggests a trivialisation of multiple-choice questions. Thus, what really seems to operate in Emilia's use of this type of task is dumbing down her materials through a trivialised reading task, which she believes would allow the learners to complete her worksheet, even if they did not really understand the texts and the answers were wrong. This came to the fore when she said that the learners '*would not have to infer or require more work*', which suggests that the learners will only have to prove their literal understanding of the text through the completion of the multiple-choice task.

That's why I chose multiple choice, [...] multiple choice gives them options as well, in case they cannot come up with an answer on their own, this gives them a base. And in this case, for example, in these questions, they're really specific, so if they read the text, they will be able to look for them, it's going to be there... it's not something that they are going to have to infer or that is going to demand more work. (Emilia, SRI1)

A similar rationale seems to underpin Fernanda's design. Although she says that she adds difficulty to the tasks she creates, her comments actually reveal a higher degree of reduction of the overall difficulty of her material. This was clearly seen during SRI2 in which we discussed a reading comprehension worksheet about occupations. When I asked her why she had decided to include three alternatives for each of the two questions of a multiple-choice task, she said that she did it '*so [the learners] think a bit more, because two alternatives, if it's not one it's the other, three alternatives makes them think a bit more*'. Whilst it could be argued that a higher number of alternatives can indeed raise the difficulty of the task, the

comments below show that the correlation between more choices and more difficulty does not find support in the actual complexity of the questions, which were of explicit/superficial information. I noticed this when I asked her what she was thinking when she introduced such multiple-choice items. She claimed that multiple-choice is overall an easier task for the learners to answer, compared to, for example, open questions:

...but with alternatives (meaning multiple-choice), I think it makes it easier for them, in that way they do not hesitate... so in that way they know directly what they have to answer. (Fernanda, SRI2)

She further explained the simplification of her material through the use of multiple-choice questions when she referred to how the learners should interact with this type of task. She said that she would help the learners find an answer telling them to look for words in the text that were present in the questions, thus removing the task of having to actually comprehend the text and limiting the reading activity to identifying literal/explicit expressions that would later help the learners choose an alternative. She acknowledged this issue when she claimed that *'each question [was] like explicit in the text'*.

For example, there I ask them... where does Sarah live? So they go to the text and I tell them to look for the words, where is 'live', and so they underline it and then they transfer it to the answer. (Fernanda, SRI2)

Another example of Fernanda's simplification of the tasks of her material can be found in an activity in which the learners are asked to identify four sentences in present simple from a short text completely written in that verb tense. Having noticed the linguistic features of the text, I asked Fernanda why she had decided to ask them to do that. She justified her decision stating that the activity had been introduced to reinforce grammar through the recognition of sentences and further claimed that it was *'going to be easy [for the learners] to distinguish'* the sentences because *'[the learners] wouldn't even get confused'*. She then added that she could

have had the learners write sentences similar to those in the text, but then thought that it would be too complicated for them, and preferred to have them write their own sentences at the end of the worksheet. This way of organising the learning process seems to place a growing difficulty on the learners as they go through the materials, which implies that the activities laid out at the beginning of her worksheet would be of an even lower intellectual demand.

Because the other option was that they wrote sentences that were similar to the text but not the same, but it was going to be too difficult for them, because later I ask them to write their own sentences and all that, so... it was like, like a previous step to be able to do the next activity that I request in the end, where they have to create their own sentences... eh... using the structure of the present simple. (Fernanda, SRI1)

The examples used in this section illustrate the way in which the conceptual tool of dumbing down mediates the process of materials design. This is done through the process of simplification of the materials. The pervading negative expectations of how the learners would react, as well as the well-meaning intention of preventing the learners from getting cognitively 'tired', or 'confused' emerge as relevant factors determining the degree of intellectual challenge that the PSTs expose their learners to through their materials.

6.2.3.2 Reducing the amount of production

The second form dumbing down takes affects the amount of production the PSTs ask of their learners, which in fact reflects the receptive turn discussed in Chapter 5. Much of the underlying rationale of this phenomenon is the disparaging beliefs about the learners' capabilities professed by the PSTs. The following sequence of extracts from SRI1 and SRI2 with Emilia illustrates this reduction of the amount of language production that she requires of her learners.

They are only short things because I can't attempt to include a question of production in which they give me a [long] answer, no... because it would not be real,

it's something that is not going to happen... the kids are not going to produce an answer like the one I expect. So it's better to start with a short phrase. (Emilia, SRI1)

Indeed, the phrase *'I can't attempt to include a question of production'* seems to determine much of what she asks of her learners throughout her material: largely to show superficial/explicit understanding of two short texts about hobbies. In addition, when she says *'it would not be real'*, she constructs her classroom reality as one in which the possibility of having the learners doing an activity demanding stretched and interconnected pieces of language is not possible. This is reflected in the last activity of her first worksheet, which encompassed writing *'seven lines'*, which she equated to writing a biography: *'The biography is there because it's in the national curriculum, but clearly, they won't write a biography...a real biography. So, I said "ok, seven lines"'*. Emilia further justified the introduction of this final isolated *'seven lines'* activity of the worksheet saying that *'they're only starting, so I cannot ask them to write a big paragraph because they won't know what to do'*. Two issues arise from this comment. Firstly, the seven lines or sentences she asked of the learners are to be taken from a chart she provided with sentences to be completed with personal information, such as *'I like_____'* or *'I hate_____'* (see Appendix 2.1 Emilia SRI1 protocol), thus not really asking the learners to write, but to complete sentences (further issues could be raised about whether or not the sentences she asks of her learners actually make up a biography). Secondly, when she says that her learners are *'only starting'* she probably refers to the learners' level, as her learners, who are in Year Two of secondary education, have had at least five years of English. Mineduc's regulations make English a compulsory subject since Year Five of primary school. The justifications for not asking the learners to write an actual biography seem to lie in Emilia's denial of their ability to do this.

A similar rationale operated in the amount of language production of the material Emilia and I discussed in her SRI2. Again, the learners were asked to write *'in no more than seven lines'* a news article after reading a 200-word text about a girls' mobile phone. Despite this being *'an activity suggested in the "programa de estudio"'* and her own stated belief that the learners should *'get used to writing'*, Emilia restricted the amount of production to seven lines due to her belief that

asking them to write more would result in the learners *'getting bored'* or, as she says, *'collapsing'*, an argument that she previously used to justify her negative views about the learners.

It was an activity suggested in the 'programa de estudio'. I thought it was good. It's not the first time the kids write in short paragraphs, I feel it's good they get used to writing, and it's helped them a lot, truth be told, at least they have improved in that [skill], but no more than seven lines because that's like their limit, if I ask for more, no... they get bored, or they collapse... (Emilia, SRI2)

Miguel took a similar stance, mentioning that his learners would not be able to write an extended piece of text. In SRI2, he said that his materials encompassed *'only a few questions of multiple choice and [...] one short answer to an open question that should not take them more than a sentence'*. He justified his choice of comprehension questions arguing that he knew that the learners would not respond well to the last activity consisting of writing a job interview, although he had given them a turn-by-turn template to guide the production of such an interaction. He offered the learners this turn-by-turn template, which consisted of writing only *'a couple of interactions that [were] four lines for each character [of the interview]'*, because he believed that the learners did not *'have much knowledge about structures or how an interview works'*. In fact, this was reflected in *'giving [the learners] the exact space'* to write the dialogue. To judge by Miguel's comments, he conceptualises the development of productive skills as a product rather than as a process that he could mediate with his material. In doing this, he seems to relinquish the possibility of teaching the learners how an interview works and reduces the amount of language production to *'four lines'*. Again, the main rationale underlying this decision is his negative evaluation of the learners' capacities.

The sequence of extracts below illustrates how Fernanda takes a similar view to that adopted by Emilia and Miguel with regards to how much language she elicited from the learners. During SRI1, Fernanda argued that even though she asked the learners to write *'a few sentences only'*, which she believed to be a small amount of production, she still thought that such an amount was adequate, possibly due to

the negative cognitive and dispositional conceptualisations about the learners discussed in this chapter.

I asked for a few sentences only, but with four of them, I think it's enough.

(Fernanda, SRI1)

Although Fernanda's material asks the learners to write four sentences, she further mentioned that *'at least, about two sentences, for [her], were enough'* (Fernanda, SRI1). Her suggestion that during the actual use of her material she would ask the learners to write fewer sentences aggravates the issue of lack of language production.

On the whole, the PSTs' disparaging views about the learners underpin many of the decision-making processes carried out in their design of materials through the conceptual tool of dumbing down. This conceptual tool, which involves a lowering of the cognitive challenge encompassed in the PSTs' worksheets, materialises through a simplification of the tasks and the reduction of the amount of language production they ask of their learners.

6.3 The School

The dumbing down of materials design was intensified by the ScTs through two forms their division of labour, that is, the roles they took up as members of the school community. They exposed the PSTs to models of teaching highly underpinned by disparaging beliefs about the learners, as well as actively promoted the development of negative views about their pupils. Below I discuss these influences.

6.3.1 Exposing the PSTs to dumbing down: *'so the teacher [is] in front of the class "right, be quiet"'* (Miguel, SRI1)

The data suggests that the ScTs provide the PSTs with plenty of exposure to dumbing down practices which are underpinned by negative views about the learners. In fact, for the PL, who was aware of this phenomenon, some ScTs openly disparage their learners and pose few cognitive demands on them, which, I would argue, served as

models of language teaching that the PSTs tended to adjust to. The PL attributed the development of these beliefs by the ScTs to the issues emerging from the implementation of more cognitively challenging tasks, such as an apparent 'chaos' resulting from speaking activities, or the learners' reluctance to write. She further said that tackling this issue is beyond the programme's reach because the *pedagogía en inglés* programme, as discussed in Chapter 5, depended on the ScTs' willingness to host PSTs.

...because speaking creates chaos, and writing because the learners are not going to write anything, that they only write sentences, and [the schoolteachers] disparage and disparage (the learners) ... So, because we depend on the educational system, our students have few possibilities to implement innovations. (PL)

Confirming the PL's opinion, ScT1 said that she provided opportunities for the discussion of materials design with the PSTs, not only those doing their final practicum, but also those doing their progressive one. As I show below, although she seems to provide a balanced account of positive and negative experiences that the PSTs may witness by working with her, it is interesting how she places the failure of innovative teaching practices on the learners' lack of interest, as opposed to, for example, issues regarding the teaching innovations themselves, broader contextual factors, or even herself. In this way, the prevalent discourse about negative results in the implementation of pedagogical innovations seems to be one in which it is the learners who are responsible for 'not caring', thus leading to negative conceptualisations about them.

There're always opportunities [for discussing materials design]. Now, it's not always possible, unfortunately. But I feel that [the PSTs] see [and say] 'oh, how interesting! One day, when I'm a teacher, I'll be able to innovate too, I'll have that possibility, I'll be allowed at the school'; or even say 'once, the teacher implemented a project, but the students didn't care'. I mean, it can be good or bad, like 'ok, not always an activity that's not traditional will work'. (ScT1)

Miguel's comments illustrate the exposure to teaching models that led him to construct negative views about his learners. During SRI1, he referred to the teaching practices of his ScT saying that *'most of the classes I have seen, or the classes in which I have participated, the students are mainly waiting for the worksheet to be handed out, that they are taught content'*. He further described his ScT's typical teaching approach, impersonating him: *'so the teacher [is] in front of the class "right, be quiet", PowerPoint, the slides, "well, we're going to work on the worksheet with this"'*. What is interesting in his comments is that whilst he claimed that the pupils' passive learning disposition in the classroom was an inherent quality, his comment did not refer to his ScT's teaching practices, which positioned the learners as passive agents in their learning process in the first place. It could thus be argued that as a consequence of his ScT's teaching approach, the learners can only develop a passive disposition to ELT, which is reflected in Miguel's comment that *'[the learners] are not used to questioning what they are being taught at the school'*.

I see this more clearly reflected towards the end of his comment when he said that as a response to the teaching practices the learners are exposed to, they react with *'the typical questions "teacher, what do we have to do?" instead of them trying to work in a more autonomous way themselves'*. Whilst acknowledging that the learners do enquire about the tasks they are asked to do or perform, the rest of his statement seems to ignore this when he said that they do not respond more autonomously. It could be then said that the development of negative beliefs about the learners is strongly influenced by the teaching model that Miguel is exposed to by his ScT during his practicum.

This negative cognitive and attitudinal conceptualisation about the learners was strongly emphasised by some of the ScTs of this study. ScT3, who was not only a schoolteacher, but also worked as a supervisor for the university (supervising Gabriel, Francisco and Fernanda), highlighted the learners' demotivation for learning English. She claimed that the learners' *'lazy'* attitude was deeply entrenched in their dislike for the subject of English. When she said that *'they don't like [English] because they don't understand it, they don't watch films in English because they're lazy about reading the subtitles'*, she constructed a reality in which only personal factors determined the pupils' learning of English. She further argued that *'when you*

talk to them, only then do they realise [that English is everywhere] (and say) “oh, she’s right” ... but for them it’s not a necessity either’. Whilst this can be said to be the recognition of the irrelevance of English in her learners’ daily lives, ScT3 seemed to neglect that this could in fact underpin the learners’ lack of interest, and attributed their failure to learn English to their unmovable ‘*lazy*’ learning spirit (a view shared by Francisco who was supervised by her; see 6.2.2.1). This neglect of pedagogical and broader sociocultural elements possibly influencing the learners’ lack of motivation to learn English results in a conceptualisation of the learners that has an important role in dumbing down the materials designed for them, as ScT3 mentions below:

The learners here are like... they have a constant laziness, they were born tired, and because of the age. I try that my material is as infantile as possible, with cartoons everywhere. (ScT3)

This comment illustrates the extremely denigrating views that ScT3 holds about her learners. One can infer from the way in which ScT3’s phrases her opinion that, for her, the characteristics she attributes to the learners, such as ‘*constant laziness*’ or ‘*being born tired*’ are immutable qualities, and therefore highly unlikely to be modified. Furthermore, when she refers to her material as being ‘*as infantile as possible*’, she explicitly associates these negative views to her materials, which highlights the presence of dumbing down as a conceptual tool mediating materials selection or design in her practice of ELT. In this way, her materials conform to an extremely disparaging construct rather than to an attempt to redress the perceived learners’ characteristics.

The models of textbook use by the ScTs is an important input influencing the PSTs’ dumbing down of materials. For example, ScT1, who mentored Francisco, said that she had to modify ‘*absolutely everything from the textbook*’ in a way that would demand a lower cognitive effort from the learners:

Speaking of MY context, MY students, the textbooks [...] the learners use the textbook, but I modify absolutely everything from the textbook, because it’s

something too neutral, the learners are... how can I say it? It isn't 'not to create challenging material', but not to demand from them more than what I know they can do, I'd rather they do something more of their level instead of making them go to the moon, but it's not either like... how can I say it?... underestimate them, on the contrary. (ScT1)

Although ScT1 was aware that in modifying *'absolutely everything'* she could risk lowering the cognitive demand posed on the learners, there seemed to prevail a consideration about the learners' difficulty to work with the school material in her adaptation process. Her comment *'something more of their level instead of making them go to the moon'* suggests that the dumbing down the textbook is a frequent and preferred choice vis-a-vis setting high expectations for the learners. The way ScT1 phrases her comment suggests the PSTs that work with her – in this case Francisco – are frequently exposed to these modifications to the school textbook.

6.3.2 Pushing the PSTs into dumbing down: *'The teacher said: "look, when they work in groups they get messy [...] and don't speak"' (Student 1, FG)*

In addition to providing models of dumbing down underpinned by disparaging beliefs about the learners, the ScTs overtly pushed the PSTs into reducing the intellectual complexity of their materials. For example, Student 1 of the focus group described how he resisted an episode of this type, saying that his ScT had advised him to not use group work because the learners would go off task and would not practice speaking as part of the activities that Student 1 intended to include in his material. What is interesting in this comment is how Student 1 rejected the schoolteacher's suggestion of not using group work arguing that the implementation of new techniques would lead the learners to *'get something anyway'*.

So, I talked to the schoolteacher the other day [and he said] 'look, they say this to you, but when they work in groups they get messy, and when I ask them to speak, they don't speak'. So I said, it doesn't matter, I will take the risk and I will do listening and speaking, I will group them, after all, the result doesn't matter, they're going to

get something anyway, and the important thing is to try something new. (Student 1, FG)

However, not all the PSTs challenged their ScTs. In the following extract, ScT1 explains how at the onset of the PSTs' practicum that she has mentored, the PSTs' materials have tended to be of a higher difficulty than what she believed the learners were able to cope with. She pointed out Francisco's case, praising his materials and tasks for their initial degree of difficulty, but later deeming them not fit for the school 'reality'. ScT1 then recalled how Francisco familiarised himself with the school and how he got involved in the design of tests and activities, which she believed eventually led him to 'understand' that his material was 'too complicated' for the learners. What I see in ScT1's comments is a description of how Francisco was pushed into reducing the intellectual challenge that he posed to his pupils through different school activities that were part of his duties as a student-teacher, such as designing tests and activities, and using of the school textbook, possibly in a similar way as ScT1.

At the beginning, maybe the exercises were too complicated, that YES, it was great that the learners would have been able to do them, but our reality was not the appropriate [for those exercises]; so, he understood that, he got to know the learners, he got involved in the school activities, he got involved in the design of tests, the design of activities, so, he is familiarised with that... he also got involved with the issue of the textbook... (ScT1)

In a similar fashion, ScT3 brought out her concern with the overall length of the PSTs' materials. When I interviewed her, I asked her if she had witnessed the process of materials development by the PSTs, to which she replied saying that their materials were too long. ScT3 was critical of the length of the PSTs' worksheets and appears describing it as a problem in light of the learners' 'constant lazy attitude' that she pointed out previously and which she voiced once more:

For a start, they shouldn't come to give me a worksheet of four pages because that immediately makes the learners [reject it] ... and even more as the learners here have a constant lazy attitude (ScT3)

In summary, the ScTs emerged as an important element reinforcing the PSTs' construction of disparaging beliefs about the learners. As I have shown, the PSTs' development of dumbing down as a conceptual tool mediating their design of materials is promoted by the ScTs' division of labour taking two forms: providing models of ELT based on disparaging views about the pupils, and directly pushing the PSTs into dumbing down their materials.

6.4 University

Contrary to much of the previous discussion in this chapter, the university setting appears to discourage the dumbing down of materials. This seems to be done through tackling dumbing down practices and promoting pedagogical views that stimulate the learners' cognitive development.

6.4.1 Addressing the dumbing down: *'[The supervisor] wants me to add more things' (Fernanda, Interview 1)*

Contrary to the tendency shown by the ScTs, who promoted the development of dumbing down practices in the school, the *pedagogía en inglés* programme seems to stimulate the design of materials that raise the cognitive demands that the PSTs posed on their learners. For example, in the extract below, TE7 describes an interaction between her and the PSTs of her English language module in which they discussed a materials design issue. As part of her teaching of adverbial clauses, she asked the PSTs to prepare a microteaching session about the grammar point in question in order to discuss it during the next lesson. When the day came, she decided to start reviewing some of the materials designed by the PSTs for their microteaching and noticed that one of the pieces of material clearly reduced the cognitive demand posed on the end users, which she decided to tackle:

...and some of them said 'we want to use [powerpoint] so everyone can see it', [to which I replied] 'ok, then give me the USB and I [will project it]'... Well, they had about ten sentences, all of them with different words (meaning subordinators), and different colours: red, blue, yellow, green. I looked and asked them 'what are you going to do with this?' There were four rectangles down here in different colours that represented the sentences... [I asked] 'What are you going to do with that?' [and they said] 'oh, [the learners] have to place the words in the rectangles', and I said to them 'but the colour is telling me the answer, I mean, the red one goes in the red rectangle, the yellow one in the yellow one'... they found their activity was perfect. (TE7)

Even though the rest of the interaction then moved into how to transform the grammatical content under discussion into part of the PSTs' pedagogical knowledge, in exposing this 'light' way of teaching a grammar point, she showed an actual effort to tackle a form of materials design underpinned by a dumbing down framework. In doing this, the English language module was not only a space to study and learn English, or where teaching models were tacitly presented to and possibly appropriated by the PSTs, but it also became a setting where, through paying attention at the PSTs' own materials, dumbed down teaching materials were deconstructed, reconceptualised and reconstructed in the interest of promoting the PSTs' learning of English.

Another example of interactions in which the PSTs are encouraged to increase the cognitive challenge of their materials emerged between Fernanda and her supervisor (ScT3). A week before I started collecting data for the study, Fernanda had designed a worksheet which she thought her learners would struggle to complete because, in addition to being too long, she believed the learners were 'very lazy'. She mentioned that her supervisor, who worked for the university as a supervisor but was indeed a schoolteacher where Fernanda was doing her practicum (although she was not Fernanda's ScT; see Table 4.1), had asked her to include more activities of general comprehension in her worksheet before she implemented it, which Fernanda found problematic for the reasons named above. Whilst Fernanda argued that she was more familiar with her class than her supervisor, the fact that

her supervisor, ScT3, was a teacher at that school contradicts Fernanda. ScT3 was in effect more familiar with the school context than Fernanda and, by default, with the degree of intellectual challenge of the materials given to the learners. Thus, Fernanda's attempt to disparage the learners through her worksheet was hindered by her supervisor who knew the learners and indeed the types of material mediating their learning process at that school more than her. This further highlights the pivotal role of teacher educators/supervisors who are familiar with the school settings in which the PSTs do their practicum.

She wants me to add more things... another thing for general information, but I also have other items of true or false, first they have to order the sentence and then true or false, and then they have to fill in a box [...] and that for me is enough, because I know how they work, they're like very lazy, and I believe that they're not even going to complete the box, or it's going to be complicated for them, and if I have to add more items to that worksheet, I'm not going to see that worksheet completed. The learners are going to get more scared. (Fernanda, Interview 1)

Deviating from the trend presented by his fellow PSTs, the excerpt below by Student 1 of the focus group shows the effect of the programme in the PSTs' development of teaching beliefs preventing the emergence of dumbing down. For him, teaching involves addressing the learners' weaknesses, a view which diverges dramatically from the previous section in which an avoidance behaviour towards focusing on these 'weaknesses' was observed. In Student 1's opinion, 'failure', as he calls it, is seen as motivating his instruction and design of material rather than something to be avoided. When he says that what is important for the university is to tackle the learners' weaknesses rather than avoid them, he signals a disposition to follow the conceptualisation of the teaching of English that is determined by the university as opposed to what he had seen in the school. The construction of this belief, in Student 1's view, has been 'long learnt' at the university, which highlights the programme's intent to prevent dumbing own.

Long ago I learnt that, for example, our implementations (meaning teaching his own lessons) for the university, the result does not matter but what we do with it. For example, here at the university, what's important is that your class, quote unquote, even if it fails, what we have to do is to work with that weakness, and work with it.
(Student 1, FG)

The fact that he was only starting Year Four of the programme and was not permanently based in a school nor in extensive contact with the learners and schoolteachers, unlike the PSTs doing their practicum, may explain his different attitude. This notwithstanding, Student 1's disposition contrasts diametrically with the rest of the evidence presented in this chapter.

6.5 Conclusion

In this chapter I have discussed the pervasiveness of dumbing down as a conceptual tool mediating the design of materials by the PSTs. I have shown that while the PSTs initially hold a mixture of positive and negative beliefs about the learners' capacities and dispositions, their design of materials is mostly underpinned by disparaging views about their learners, which results in a dumbed down practice of ELT materials design. Two forms of dumbing down are observed: one affecting the complexity of tasks and another affecting the amount of language production elicited from the learners. I also explained how the schoolteachers tend to reinforce the disparaging views about the learners through their division of labour, while the university attempts to prevent this issue.

Chapter 7 Textbook Dependency

'In the book what has to be taught that day in that unit is complaints, I didn't decide it'

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter I illustrate and explain how some PSTs' dependency on textbooks mediated their process of materials design. Two textbooks are frequently mentioned by the participants in this chapter, namely, the textbooks provided by Mineduc (*English Sexto Básico: Stepping Up* (Olate and Meza, 2017), *E-Teens 8* (Curven and Pontón, 2017), *English Primero Medio: Teens in Motion* (Polk, 2017a), *Teens Club Segundo Medio* (Alvarado, 2017), and *Global English Tercero Medio* (Polk, 2017b)) and the textbook accompanying their own learning of English at the university, namely, the series *New Headway*. Concomitant with this phenomenon is a secondary contradiction between the preservice teachers' pedagogical agency and the textbooks used in their school placements, particularly in situations where the textbooks were used as syllabus design artefacts, which rendered them the motive/object of English instruction.

In line with the previous two chapters, the development of the conceptual tool of textbook dependency was exacerbated by a series of factors emerging from both school and university settings. With regards to the school, the ScTs not only provided the PSTs with models of textbook use that promoted textbook dependency, but also pushed the PSTs to use the textbook at the expense of their design of materials and the pedagogical decisions entailed in this process. As for the university, the development of textbook dependency seemed to be aggravated by the PTSs' perception that the school material embodied some of the language teaching methods that they were required to use in their teaching by the programme, as well as by a process of textbook reification to which they seem to be exposed during their teacher education.

I structure the chapter illustrating and explaining the secondary contradiction between the school textbook and the PSTs' agency. I then illustrate and discuss how this dependency on textbooks was realised in the PSTs' materials. I finish the chapter

discussing the influence of the schoolteachers on the emergence of textbook dependency, followed by a discussion of how the university, through some of its ELT requirements and TEs, promoted the development of this phenomenon.

7.2 A secondary contradiction between the PSTs' agency and the textbooks used in their school placements.

As I mentioned above, a secondary contradiction emerged between the PSTs' agency over the pedagogical processes encompassed in materials design and the textbooks used in their school placements. This issue was particularly acute when the school textbooks had been used as a syllabus design artefact by the schoolteachers, which made covering the textbook the motive/object of English instruction.

7.2.1 The textbook as the object/motive of instruction

The overarching activity of teaching English, within which the activities of materials design and use are embedded, was largely defined by the national curriculum in the schools where the PSTs were based. In this regard, I observed a tendency to 'cover' the textbook as the motive/object of the activity of teaching English, especially when the schoolteachers mentioned that they had designed the syllabus of their courses using the Mineduc textbook as opposed to the *programas de estudio* of the national curriculum (see Chapter 2).

Miguel's comment below illustrates the use of the textbook as a curriculum design artefact by his schoolteacher. His comment is interesting as it reflects an extreme scenario in which the ScT used the textbook provided by Mineduc to organise the everyday practice of ELT at the school. During Interview 1, Miguel told me that his ScT (who I did not have access to; see Chapter 4) developed the yearly lesson plan based completely on the textbook offered by Mineduc. In fact, Miguel referred to the use of the school material by his ScT as a mathematical equation consisting of the division of the total number of pages of the textbook by the number of lessons to be taught during the year, whose result would determine what got taught and when.

The year starts, one takes the textbook, it's 90 pages, I have 40 days of classes, 90 divided by 40... 'ok, I have to cover two pages per day'... As a teacher you have to make all those decisions... for example, my schoolteacher is now working at the rhythm of the textbook. He said it at the beginning that he planned based on the textbook. (Miguel, Interview 1)

Miguel's description positions the teaching of English in his school placement as a bureaucratic process rather than an educational endeavour, in which the textbook has become the motive/object of instruction rather than an artefact mediating the learning of English. Miguel's comment reflects how this covering of the textbook pushed Miguel's ScT to quantitatively cover the official material rather than tailoring it to meet contextual needs.

When I conducted this study, all the levels of compulsory English education, except for the last two levels of secondary, showed a correlation between the curricular material and the national curriculum (see Chapter 2). What is interesting about this mismatch is that it brings out the issue of using the textbooks as a syllabus design artefact rather than the *programas de estudio* of those two levels. Some ScTs referred to this mismatch as an important flaw of the textbooks, further reflecting the overall discontent of English teachers in Chile with the public ELT materials (Mineduc, 2017; see 2.5.1). ScT1, for example, voiced her concern about this issue and argued that in '*year three and four of secondary [education], [she did not] follow the syllabus [because] the textbooks do not match [the curriculum]*'; hence, she preferred to use the textbook to design the syllabus of the last two levels of secondary education, as she explains:

'now in MY school I have the freedom of doing it in years three and four (of secondary education) because I spoke to the headmaster and showed her the mess between the [national] curriculum and the textbook in order to take advantage of the coursebooks' (ScT1, personal communication)

With regards to the rest of the levels, where the *programas de estudio* and textbooks match, ScT1 said that she did not use the Mineduc textbooks as syllabus

design artefacts because of the congruence between the two educational artefacts. Instead, she used the *programas de estudio* without having to worry about the abovementioned incongruence. This was evident when she said that '*she did so until year two of secondary education*' (ScT1, personal communication). Her decision suggests that what determines the curricular organisation of ScT1's classes is the textbook, as her use of the *programas de estudio* to plan her syllabus is only conditional upon the degree of matching with the textbook provided by Mineduc.

The point I am making here is how the textbooks provided by the Mineduc become the motive/object of instruction when they are used as a syllabus design artefact rather than a tool to mediate the teaching and learning of English in the schools involved in this study. This reconfiguration of the textbook as the motive/object of the activity of teaching English seems to pose a series of constraints to the PSTs' exercise of their pedagogical agency in their learning to teach process at the school. Below I illustrate and discuss how the PSTs' agency clashes with this use of the curricular material.

7.2.2 The PSTs' pedagogical agency

The use of the textbook as a syllabus design artefact by the ScTs challenged the development of some PST's pedagogical agency during their *práctica*. This was reflected in the constraints experienced by some PSTs regarding the possibility of making decisions about what gets taught, when, and how, through designing materials. In the extract below, the decision made by Miguel's schoolteacher to follow the textbook to the letter as discussed earlier clearly illustrates the detriment caused to Miguel's exercise of his pedagogical agency. During SRI1, when I asked him why he had decided to make the students read a dialogue about a job interview, he again alluded to the textbook being used as the *de facto* syllabus:

To be honest, this is what I was requested. It's part of the national curriculum, it's in the students' book. My teacher grabbed the textbook and is using it as the syllabus, the textbook as the syllabus [...]. He planned [the lessons] based on the textbook, and his organisation is based on covering the totality of the textbook, with the topics and

skills that are worked in it. Therefore, in a way, I am obliged to work with this.

(Miguel, SRI1)

When Miguel said that he was *'requested'* and *'obliged to work with this'*, he brought out how the transformation of the textbook into the motive of ELT in his school denies him a position in which he can make pedagogical decisions that he himself is expected to make as part of his practicum experience. Thus, the use of the textbook as the *de facto* syllabus undermines the development of the pedagogical agency entailed in materials design.

Another illustration of this phenomenon is Marcos' inclusion of a while-reading activity in his material. However, Marcos presents the decision to include this activity not as his own, but as an action that was pre-determined by the coursebook used in the class he taught. In fact, Marcos alluded to a similar mathematical distribution of the content of the school textbook as that evoked by Miguel (see 7.2.1) when he said *'the while (meaning the while-reading part of his material) is in the book, and in the book what has to be taught that day in that unit is complaints, I didn't decide it'* (Marcos, SRI1). This, again, highlights the use of the curricular material as the *de facto* syllabus, which reduced considerably decision-making possibilities that Marcos had at the school.

The clash between the school textbook and Marcos' pedagogical agency emerged in the two stimulated recall interviews we had, which suggests a pattern over time. During SRI2, when I asked him what he was thinking when he included a task of filling in the gaps in a text, he answered that he needed to include a reading comprehension item, which he decided to take from the school textbook rather than designing it himself:

But that I created an activity based on the reading, I basically preferred to take another activity from the textbook. (Marcos, SRI2)

In this extract it is possible to see that even when he did have the possibility of creating his own task of reading comprehension, he instead chose to use one from the textbook, again preventing himself from exercising his pedagogical agency. In

this way, he seems to apply a similar procedure to that used in SRI1, in which he had withdrawn the decision-making involved in designing his own task to favour the use of one from the textbook.

A likely explanation for this removal of agency might be found in one of his comments in the same SRI. During SRI2, Marcos asked me if I would continue interviewing PSTs during the next term. When I told him I would not, he replied: *'if you continued interviewing people who came to this school, they would also... all their lesson plans are going to be based on the textbook' (SRI2)*. Marcos' perceptions of the distribution of duties that PSTs have to take at that school raises issues about the PSTs' pedagogical agency in that institution, which appears to be characterised by reduced opportunities to make relevant pedagogical decisions. In fact, Marcos' comments are confirmed by Valeria, who was doing her *práctica* in that school. When I asked Valeria why she had decided to include present simple and present progressive in her material, she said that she had based her decision on the textbook *'because present simple is taught in the first unit [of the textbook], and in the second one present continuous, and later in the second unit they make the difference between the two' (SRI1)*, again showing how, in following the school material, she abandoned the making of curricular decisions entailed in materials design.

In sum, the secondary contradiction between the textbooks used at the schools and the PSTs' agency emerges as an institutionalised practice in some schools. This tension puts at stake the PSTs' development of pedagogical agency during their school placements, which results in the development of textbook dependency, which, as I show next, mediates an important part of some PSTs' designing of materials.

7.2.3 Textbook dependency

The data suggests that some PSTs developed textbook dependency. This was reflected in the fact that much of their process of materials design was carried out with an eye on the curricular material used in their schools. Carlos' case, albeit not representative of extent to which the rest of the PSTs depended on the coursebook, is nonetheless interesting because, despite having the possibility of not using the coursebook, a possibility that some of his fellow PSTs did not have, he still chose to

design most of his material based on the textbook provided by Mineduc. The context in which Carlos was doing his practicum was one where his schoolteacher, ScT2, had not used the textbook but the national curriculum to organise the syllabus of her classes: *'I did not use the textbook so much'*. ScT2 also mentioned that her decision was based on her analysis of both instruments, which concluded that *'most of the time they (textbook and curriculum) are not in the same order'* (in reference to the textbook/curriculum discrepancy mentioned in 7.2.1). The decision to not rely on the textbook clearly ascribes more curricular value to the national curriculum than to the textbook to plan her lessons, unlike other ScTs. In fact, this is reflected in her comment that: *'first and foremost, it is ME who designs the material and looks for and adapts for each level'* (ScT2). This clearly illustrates how she takes on board the responsibility for designing, searching for, and adapting materials for her learners, as a result of using the national curriculum to plan her courses rather than the Mineduc textbook. Therefore, the overall scenario to which Carlos was exposed was one where he could deviate from using the textbook to design his own material and the way of delivery of his teaching.

This notwithstanding, Carlos did not use this agentic position to write his own materials, but instead decided to noticeably rely on the Mineduc textbook to 'write' his own. This stance was evident even at the beginning of his practicum, when he had not yet designed materials for his learners. During Interview 1, Carlos summed up the extent to which he would use the textbook as a source for materials design, and the elements he would take from it in that process (e.g. inputs, tasks, methodology, ancillary resources). The comment below illustrates his predisposition to borrow a piece of listening material encompassing the comprehension tasks and post-listening work.

I'm going to do an activity from the textbook. It's a listening, as they come with all the material, with the CD, and the list of questions for general and specific information; it even has after-listening work... the book really helped me. (Carlos, Interview 1)

During SRI1, Carlos carried out the process he describes above. The material we discussed in SRI1 reflects how he lifted a whole lesson from the school textbook, copying the text, content, and tasks of a unit and pasting it in a word document. During SRI1, I sensed that he ‘hedged’ his answer in order to avoid disclosing that he had copied his material from the coursebook. I noticed this in the manner in which Carlos referred to the coursebook as a source of activities, which ranged from timidly mentioning one task as taken from it, to later openly acknowledging that he had done the same with a number of other activities in the textbook. For example, when I asked him how he came up with the activities of his worksheet, he said ‘*I think there is one item that’s in the student’s book*’. However, later during SRI1, he made explicit references to borrowings from the school textbook in comments such as ‘*I also took that one from the [textbook]*’. The reason for Carlos’ strong dependency on the textbook for his own design is closely related to using a reading passage from it. He specified this when he said: ‘*I took the text from the textbook, the student’s textbook*’ to then add that he ‘*didn’t even want to play with changes [to the text] as it could end up being messed up*’ (SRI1), in reference to screenshotting the text from the PDF version of the textbook as opposed to typing it manually. Thus, what can be seen is that Carlos only transferred a lesson from the textbook format to a worksheet with no adaptations. His process of materials ‘design’, then, contrasts diametrically from that cited by his schoolteacher (ScT2), who had earlier said that she took care of the overall process of materials design as a result of basing her syllabus on the *programa de estudio* and not on the textbook.

This high dependency on the coursebook by Carlos does not seem to be an exception. In fact, TE1, who was a ScT and a TE of *Didáctica I* (see Chapter 2), said that some PSTs ‘*defiantly transform[ed] the text from the textbook into a worksheet*’, which she described as ‘*doing nothing*’. She further said that the PSTs who did not plan their lessons from scratch, which involved writing the accompanying materials, did not carry out the educational procedures expected from them by the programme.

During our interview, TE1 remembered a situation in which two PSTs of year three enrolled in her *Didáctica I* module, instead of writing their own material for their progressive practicum, decided to transfer a lesson from the school textbook

into a worksheet in a similar way to Carlos, even though they were required by the programme to write their materials from scratch. Because of her dual role as a TE and a ScT at the same school where the two PSTs of her module were doing their progressive practicum, she was familiar with the textbook used at that school, and was able to recognise the lesson as belonging to the textbook and not the PSTs' own doing:

For example, there are two girls of didáctica 1 who work with English in Motion, a textbook by Richmond. The girls came once with a lesson that had been put together really well. The activities were well sequenced in relation to one another, and I said 'oh this doesn't smell good', and I opened the textbook and everything was there, pre, while, post... so they only stated the objectives and [completed] the lesson plan [format], but the worksheet came all done, I mean, the lesson was all done. (TE1)

Other PSTs also developed dependency on the school materials, albeit to a lesser degree. An interesting case was Marcos' recall of the reasons justifying the use of the activities that he used in the material we discussed in SRI1. When I asked him 'how the activities had come to [his] mind', he answered thus:

'The activities? Not much, as I said, the activities are in the "while" that is in the textbook' (Marcos, SRI1).

What is interesting in his comment is that he exposed the low level of intellectual activity invested in the design of the while-stage of his material, due to adhering to the content and tasks that the textbook provided. This raises important issues about the negative implications of developing textbook dependency at an early stage of a teaching career, where making pedagogical decisions seems to be subordinated to the coursebook.

Thus far I have attempted to focus on the secondary contradiction between the PSTs' agency and the textbook used in the schools, which results in the development of textbook dependency as a conceptual tool mediating the PSTs'

designing of materials. In the next section I illustrate and explain how the school influences the development of this phenomenon.

7.3 School

The school setting has an extremely important role in the development of textbook dependency. In line with the previous two chapters, in this section I discuss how the ScTs present models of textbook use that promoted the PSTs' development of dependency on the textbook, as well as how they actively pushed the PSTs to use the school textbook while discouraging the design of their own materials.

7.3.1. Modelling textbook dependency: '*I never say the textbooks are bad because all of them are good*' (ST4)

In section 7.2.1, I discussed the use of the textbook as a curriculum design artefact by some ScTs. I argued that this use transformed the textbook into the motive of ELT instruction. What emerges in this context is that some of the ScTs themselves seemed to depend on the textbook to a large extent, thus exposing the PSTs to models of textbook dependency during their *práctica*. Miguel's description of his ScT's division of the total of pages of the curricular material by the total number of lessons was illustrative of this scenario (see 7.2.1). His comment that '*I have to work two pages per class, and that is what I am going to do*' (Miguel, Interview 1), reflects how he adhered strictly to the way in which his ScT used the textbook. What is more, his comment that '*as a teacher, you have to make that type of decisions*', reflects how he develops a concept of what is entailed in the division of labour of ScTs, whereby the mathematical distribution of the content of the Mineduc textbook is an important curricular procedure.

This exposure to models of textbook use as the *de facto* syllabus can be clearly seen in an interaction between Marcos and his schoolteacher, who did not participate in this study. During Marcos' lesson, the overhead projector broke and he could not continue using the PowerPoint slides he had prepared for his learners. Even though he tried to continue by transferring some activities onto the board, the overall course of the lesson was seriously interrupted as many students went off-

task. When the class finished, the ScT debriefed him and advised him to use the textbook if the digital material did not work, probably because Marcos' material was based on the school material. After discussing this issue, they planned the next lessons that Marcos would teach by going through the textbook and discussing which contents could be taught and assessed.

This short interaction reveals two important issues. Firstly, it shows how Marcos' material was significantly based on the textbook, which was evidenced by how the ScT saw no discontinuity if Marcos moved from the PowerPoint he had prepared to the printed material when the former failed. More importantly, it reveals that, for his ScT, Marcos' dependency on the coursebook was not an issue; in fact, it was an encouraged practice. The second issue is how the ScT and Marcos discussed the preparation of future lessons and materials based on the coursebook; they went through the textbook and evaluated which contents could be taught and assessed next. This does not only show the use of the textbook as the *de facto* syllabus, but it also shows how Marcos is exposed to a pedagogical model of textbook dependency that he seems to be embracing given his materials reflected a good amount of the school textbook. Here it is also important to mention that Marcos and his ScT were based in the same school as TE1, who had earlier criticised the use of the textbook by some PSTs to plan their lessons. This further reflects the mismatch of views even between teachers of the same school about the relationship between the PSTs, the school material, and the design of materials.

In the next two extracts, a similar phenomenon occurred between ScT4 and Fernanda. In the interview with ScT4, in addition to referring to the socioeconomic reasons that lead her to use the free-of-charge textbook provided by Mineduc, she mentioned that she was generally positive about all textbooks. In fact, her positive view about textbooks – in her words, '*I never say the textbooks are bad because all of them are good*' – may explain her use of textbooks in all her classes.

ScT4's comments show how the Mineduc textbooks are an important part of her teaching, which she highlights describing their quality. These views and use of the textbook by ScT4's are in fact perceived by Fernanda, who said that she had '*been observing how [her] schoolteacher [...] teaches*', describing her use of the textbook as a practical activity:

She has the dynamics of using the textbook, but she's more practical. For example, she has the textbook, she's got activities in the textbook and she sort of uses the model, but not completely in the same way. (Fernanda, SRI1)

In sum, all of the above reflects that some PSTs are exposed to models of textbook use which can promote the development of textbook dependency. Whilst some of these models are more explicitly presented and taken up by the participants, such as Miguel and Marcos' cases, Fernanda's case is equally interesting as it shows how the PSTs are attentive to the models of textbook use by their schoolteachers.

7.3.2 Pushing the PSTs to use the textbook: '*At the beginning I started using worksheets and then the teacher asked me to use the textbook more*' (Fernanda, SRI2)

In Chapters 5 and 6, I showed that the ScTs took an active role enculturating the PSTs into their ways of practicing ELT and how this affected the PSTs' designing of materials. This chapter is no exception in that regard as the data suggests that the ScTs took an active stance to make the PSTs gravitate towards using the school textbooks.

Providing an overall description of this situation, during Interview 1, Francisco referred to how some ScTs inhibited the PSTs' design of materials and pushed them into using the school textbook. He said that in his previous *práctica progresiva* experiences in different schools, some teachers did not allow the PSTs to move away from the textbook:

There are teachers who [say] 'no, if it doesn't belong to the textbook, it can't be used'. And there are schools that tell you 'we only work with the textbook', and it shouldn't be like that, because I feel the textbook is a supporting material, not the Bible or the Koran (Francisco, Interview 1)

Reflecting the scenario described by Francisco, Marcos referred to how his schoolteacher insisted that he adhered systematically to the textbook, and how she questioned his use of other materials – even if they were his own – especially if these did not reflect the syllabus which was embodied in the coursebook.

I designed [an activity] to reinforce [the topic of environment], and also the future tense, and the teacher at the school said 'but why this? Where is this in the textbook? And I said 'no, I did that to reinforce the lesson, a reinforcement', and she said 'right, but you have to teach the contents'. So it was very contradictory. If I depart too much from the textbook, it's like, I perceive a bit of criticism, that's why I can't move away from the topic of environment. (Marcos, SRI2)

In his position as a PST, Marcos had no choice but to follow the schoolteacher's suggestion and 'teach the contents' through his material. Whether or not the suggestion by his schoolteacher is appropriate, what is interesting is how Marcos perceives that departing from the textbook emerges as a negative manoeuvre in the context of his school. In light of this, it could be said that his perception reinforces the idea that *not* relying on the coursebook is not representative of the types of teaching practices that he is expected to carry out by his ScT. The following comment reinforces this point and illustrates how Marcos seems to conceptualise taking activities from the textbook as 'the most significant way' to design materials, which was indeed his schoolteachers' advice.

Yes, it's copied exactly from the textbook for two reasons. First, I believe it was the most significant way, a suggestion from the schoolteacher, right? She advised me that because what we had to cover was 'going to' and 'will', I could use [the activity from the textbook] in order that I didn't have to create material. (Marcos, SRI2)

The overt promotion of the use of the textbook by the ScTs has a direct impact on the opportunities that the PSTs have for designing materials. As shown in Fernanda's comment below, although her initial approach to teaching English in her school

placement was through designing her own materials, this practice was discouraged by ScT4.

At the beginning I started using worksheets and then the teacher asked me to use the textbook more. (Fernanda, SRI2)

In sum, the school setting as a site of teacher learning has an important influence on the development of textbook dependency by the PSTs through the ScTs' promotion of the textbook. The ScTs did this by presenting models of textbook use that were closely associated with textbook dependency, and which the PSTs seemed to adopt as their own approach to using such materials. In addition, some ScTs explicitly pushed some of the PSTs to rely on the school textbook discouraging the PSTs from designing their own, which, as shown by Marcos, the PSTs are not able to challenge given their position of student-teachers in the school.

7.4 University

Having shown that some PSTs are pushed to depend on the textbook by some ScTs, in this section I show that this is also a phenomenon promoted at the university. First, I discuss how the PSTs' perception that some of the university requirements related to language teaching methods were embodied in the school textbooks. Then, I illustrate and explain how some TEs tended to reify published coursebooks, attributing to them characteristics of language teaching authority.

7.4.1 The *pedagogía en inglés* methodological requirements: 'The [school] textbook is in PPP' (Fernanda, SRI2)

Some PSTs perceived that the language teaching requirements posed by the university for their *práctica* were embodied in the school textbooks. This perception led these PSTs' to use such material as a source of language teaching methods to emulate. Examples of this were Fernanda's justification of the integration of the four skills, use of specific methods such as Presentation, Practice and Production (henceforth PPP), or use of multimodal resources to mediate meaning making,

Valeria's organisation of linguistic content and practice, and Carlos' use of noticing features, amongst others.

Illustrating the connection between the language teaching methodology instructed at the university and the school textbook, Fernanda's quote below shows that her positive assessment of the textbook is justified by its resemblance to the language teaching methods that she is taught at the university and which she is required to use.

The textbook is in PPP, because, I mean, the presentation, everything, everything... so then there's production. Sometimes it's writing or sometimes it's speaking, it's just how they (teacher educators) ask us to organise [our material] ... yes, it's good material (meaning the textbook). (Fernanda, SRI2)

My analysis of the textbook used in Fernanda's school, namely, *Stepping Up* (Olate and Meza, 2017) provided by Mineduc, reveals that, in addition to reflecting the PPP method, the textbook also reflects the pre-while-post structure discussed in Chapter 5, having a salient role in the overall organisation of its units. It will be recalled from Chapter 5 that this organisational model featured prominently as a requirement for the design of lessons in the PSTs' practicum regulations, and that it shaped much of the material shared with me by the PSTs.

'The activities of beginning, pre, while, post and systematisation are explained and outlined clearly' (Appendix 11, English Lesson Plan Evaluation Criteria – number 7).

Fernanda's use of the textbook, in addition to borrowing '*ideas to work*', as she said, also encompassed broader language teaching considerations, such as the level of the language she would teach, or the length of the inputs she would use in her worksheets. She exemplified this with the specific case of the key words and the length of the reading text of her material, which, in her recall, had been defined by the written inputs of the school textbook: '*I designed this material based on that*' (Fernanda, SRI2).

7.4.2 Reification of published textbooks: ‘it’s been proved that [textbooks like Headway] work’ (Miguel, Interview 1)

The development of textbook dependency by the PSTs is intensified by the beliefs held by some TEs about the role of textbooks in the practice of ELT. These beliefs appear to naturalise the removal of materials design from the PSTs’ agency, as well as to construe published coursebooks as artefacts of intrinsic authority for the tasks of teaching English and training preservice teachers of English.

Reflecting the removal of materials development from the PSTs’ tasks, in the extract below, TE2 positions the design of teaching materials, and by extension the pedagogical considerations involved in it, outside the practice of novice teachers. She argues that ‘*the textbook is a lifesaver*’ for novice teachers, suggesting that PSTs of the programme will have to necessarily depend on it upon graduation, even after studying five years. She further mentions that the use of other resources will be the result of an on-the-job learning.

The textbook is your lifesaver, you see. Now, I believe that, maybe, after about five years one stands well in their shoes and says ‘right, I now know that here is the textbook, and it helps me, it’s really useful, but I can use anything around me in the classroom as a resource. But I insist, it’s a matter of greater expertise, unless you are a novice teacher who is really creative, and with good discipline control, and very histrionic, etcetera... it has to do with that too. (TE2)

A number of issues emerge from TE2’s comments. For example, in using the metaphor of a ‘*lifesaver*’, she takes the view that without a textbook it is not possible for a PST to ‘survive’ the early stages of teaching, which for her, is a period of about five years, the stage of a teachers’ career that Farrell (2014) refers to as novice teaching. In addition, TE2 seems to naturalise that preservice teachers and novice teachers will unavoidably depend on coursebooks. This suggests that she sees textbooks as the embodiment of pedagogical decisions that the PSTs and novice teachers graduating from the *pedagogía en inglés* programme cannot carry out on their own, and that, in fact, the teacher education of which she is part should be

limited to teaching the PSTs how to use textbooks. Thus, the underlying belief in TE2's comments seems to be the reification of textbooks, that is, the consideration of the textbook as language teaching authority embodying the process of language teaching, and apparently, teacher education.

Other TEs also showed evidence of textbook reification. For example, in the extract below TE3 praises the methodological suitability of the coursebook used at the university to develop the PSTs' communicative competence in English, based on her perception that it is underpinned by the tenets of communicative language teaching.

I like Headway because it's based on the communicative approach and there is no doubt about that. (TE3)

When TE3 said that '*there is no doubt*' about the communicative underpinnings of *Headway* (which is used in most of the programme's English language modules since its opening in 2002), she was stating this belief as if it were a fact of unquestionable nature. In doing this, she was conceptualising the coursebook as an appropriate instrument for the education of PSTs in the *pedagogía en inglés* programme in light of the programme's adoption of CLT as the desirable language teaching approach to educate teachers (see Chapter 5). TE3's evaluation, however, does not mesh well with the comments of scholars about the teaching methods underpinning it (e.g. Gray, 2010; Freeman, 2013; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013), which suggest that *Headway* has a clearly foregrounded grammar syllabus and that it places more emphasis on language practice than on the development of its users' communicative competence. In fact, as stated on the textbook's promotional website, the authors of this bestseller, Liz and John Soars believed that 'grammar has a core place in language teaching and learning' (Oxford University Press: English Language Teaching, 2018).

TE3 further reified *Headway* when referring to the affordances it can provide. For example, she said that it granted a suitable organisation of linguistic contents, which are fit to '*the level*'. However, in her explanation there is no indication of what a suitable organisation was, or what the characteristics of the level were or what

actually made the textbook fit the level. In this way, TE3 seemed to think of *Headway* as the referent of language and language teaching, whose logic and organisation, as shown below, are not part of TE3's division of labour.

Because the content (of Headway), the linguistic contents, the contents of vocabulary, of grammar, they are what they have to be according to the level, and that's ok... it's well-graded. (TE3)

The data also suggests that some PSTs reify coursebooks in the same way as their TEs do. For example, Miguel took the view that *Headway* was a textbook of intrinsic methodological validity. When speaking about it during Interview 1, he argued that its usefulness was supported by its long-standing presence (in the market or the programme) and its '*proved*' efficacy in helping its users' learn English.

I daresay that textbooks like Headway are many years old and that it's been proven that they work, so to speak. (Miguel, Interview 1)

Miguel's comment is interesting for various reasons. Firstly, whilst the unspecified long period of time that he refers to seems to justify the value and efficacy of the coursebook, its methodological characteristics appear to be taken for granted. In addition, when he says '*textbooks like Headway*', he is in fact extending his belief about the textbook's '*proven*' efficacy to other published materials of similar characteristics.

The reification of coursebooks by the TEs mentioned earlier is perceived to reproduce certain English language practices in the programme. During Interview 1, Gabriel alluded to the programme's attempt to embrace a competency-based curriculum. When he referred to the renaming of some of the modules making up the course structure of the programme in the context its reformation, he mentioned that the change of name of the English language modules from '*Lengua Inglesa*' (English Language) to '*Competencia Lingüística*' (Linguistic Competence) had only been a superficial one since the language teaching methods used in the module had remained the same.

The 2011 cohort is the first one to be in a competency based course structure. That meant changes for the modules. For example, the English Language modules were no longer called like that, but Linguistic Competence, although the way of working was the same. (Gabriel, Interview 1)

When I probed him further to know what he meant by *'the same'*, he said that, for him, the methods of delivery of the module had not changed because the materials, particularly the coursebook, had not been changed along with the names of the modules.

What I remember is that, for example, the material was the same, the textbooks were the same... the only difference was that one had to achieve a certain level. (Gabriel, Interview 1)

Gabriel's comment reveals the noticeable role of *New Headway* in determining the language teaching methods used to teach the PSTs English. This was mentioned by TE5 (who was in charge of the modules of Linguistic Competence (or English Language)). When I asked him about the language teaching methods used in the modules he taught, he said that *'methodologically, we follow a textbook, we have the Headway textbook'*. In addition to alluding to the rest of his colleagues who taught English in the programme, the way in which TE5 phrased his comment suggests that the textbook is an artefact which determines how the language teaching process is carried out. In turn, this reflects, at least to some extent, the same clash undermining the PSTs' exercise of pedagogical agency discussed in 7.2.2 due to the presence of an artefact at the university that is apparently vested with more language teaching methods authority than the TEs themselves.

The presence of *New Headway* in the teaching methods used in the programme was also mentioned by Fernanda. During Interview 1, when discussing her language learning experience in *pedagogía en inglés* and the role of language teaching materials in this process, she referred to how some TEs of the programme *'follow[ed] the textbook dynamics a lot'*. The use of the term *'dynamics'* (*dinámica*), which in Spanish is indexical of the language teaching methods deployed in the

coursebook, further points out a degree of dependency on the textbook on behalf of some of her TEs, in a similar way to that experienced by the PSTs as discussed in 7.2.3.

With the other teacher [educators], it was the use of the textbook, and they followed the textbook dynamics a lot, of Headway, and it was always the same. In the end, the class was monotonous, and we had to follow the pace of the textbook.
(Fernanda, Interview)

Various issues emerge from Fernanda's comment. Firstly, Fernanda's association of '*follow[ing] the textbook dynamics a lot*' with the concept of monotony can be construed as a criticism of the language learning experience that she had with some TEs and their use of the textbook. In relation to this, when Fernanda says that her fellow PSTs and herself had to '*follow the pace of the textbook*', she describes her learning pace as determined by the coursebook, and not by a decision made by her teacher educators. In this way, the PSTs' as language learners appear to be subordinated to the textbook resulting from their TEs' decision to '*follow the textbook dynamics a lot*'. This further raises the issue of the kind of language teaching models that the PSTs are exposed to by their TEs in the programme, which the PSTs may eventually adopt as their own as part of their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). In light of this, the dependency of some TEs on *New Headway* can be said to promote the PSTs' development of textbook dependency.

Marcos' comments below describe the likely scenarios emerging from those TEs who, in his view, do not depend on *New Headway* and those who do. One of these scenarios encompasses TE7, who was a veteran teacher educator with 42 years of teaching experience in the programme. In Marcos' opinion, TE7's mastery of *New Headway* allowed her to address emerging issues that she thought to be relevant at the moment of teaching, thus portraying her as a TE whose pedagogical agency was not subordinated to the textbook's methodology unlike other TEs (see TE5 above). On the other hand, he described Miss Martha, who did not participate in the study, and who was as a less experienced TE whose more dependent approach

to using *New Headway* seemed to result in a 'more structured and grammatical' teaching approach.

I saw they basically knew it by heart. They used it every year. For example, if I compare Miss Martha's methodology with TE7, TE7 had it all internalised, to the point of using one exercise and transform it into a whole lesson. On the other hand, Miss Martha was more structured, you could tell that she was more grammatical, she'd always begin with a structure, form and function. She always made that difference. So, Miss Martha always depended on textbooks, and TE7 was generally, like using exercises. (Marcos, Interview 1)

What is interesting from Fernanda and Marcos' comments is that both seem to associate their TEs' dependency on the coursebook with concepts of monotony, structure and grammar. This characterisation of their TEs' dependency on *New Headway* apparently contradicts the language teaching principles they are supposed to have experienced as language learners in the programme, and which they are expected to embrace in their own practice of ELT (see Chapter 5).

In sum, I would argue that the two issues discussed in this section, namely, the university language teaching requirements posed by the university (such as the pre-while-post structure) and the reification of textbooks by some members of the university community, promote the development of textbook dependency shown by some PSTs in section 7.2.3. What is noticeable in the comments offered by the participants is that they share the view that the textbook is an artefact of inherent methodological authority, whose definition of language teaching, contents and inputs seems to be intrinsically appropriate. As shown above, these are not only beliefs about the textbook, but an actual practice to which the PSTs seem to be exposed during their teacher education. I would argue that a conceptualisation about the textbook like this and its materialisation in the *pedagogía en inglés* programme leads the PSTs to construe textbooks as language teaching tools of intrinsic and normative value, regardless of its context of use. I would also argue that these shared views amongst PSTs and TEs may help understand why some PSTs rely in different degrees on the school textbook when designing their own material.

7.4 Conclusion

In this chapter I have discussed the emergence of a secondary contradiction between the PST's agency and the school textbook. I argued that the PSTs' agency over pedagogical processes involved in materials design is at odds with the school textbook, which seems to have more weight to determine what gets taught, when, and how. This, I argued, results in the development of the PSTs' dependency on the textbook when making language teaching decisions involved in materials design. This dependency is in turn reinforced by elements of both school and university settings. With regards to the schools, the schoolteachers' models of textbook use can be said to be highly influential. Also, some schoolteachers explicitly promoted its use amongst the PSTs and inhibited the PSTs' own design of materials. On the other hand, the university appears to reinforce the contradiction in two ways: through the language teaching methods required from the PSTs to plan their own lessons, which they see reflected in the school textbook, and through the reification of the textbook, deeming it an artefact of intrinsic ELT authority.

Chapter 8 The Subordination of Thematic Content

'If it is about jobs, it's to develop vocabulary associated with jobs, structures associated with jobs, and so on'

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter I illustrate and explain the 'subordination of the thematic content' of the PSTs' materials to traditional language-oriented forms of teaching as a conceptual tool mediating the PSTs' design. I argue that this tool emerges amidst a secondary contradiction between the motive/object of teaching English communicatively and the PSTs' beliefs about the role of the thematic content of their materials. This phenomenon seems to be underpinned by an overall disregard of the thematic content by the PSTs. In doing so, the PSTs sometimes include problematic representations of the world in their teaching materials.

I structure this chapter demonstrating and explaining the underlying secondary contradiction between the motive/object of teaching English communicatively and the PSTs' beliefs about thematic content. This is followed by illustrations of how the overall disregard for the topics is realised in the PSTs' materials, and the issues emerging from the uncritical use of the two most common topics of the PSTs' materials, namely, cultural representations and celebrities. I finish the chapter illustrating and discussing the contextual elements of the school and university settings that aggravate this disregard.

8.2 A secondary contradiction between communicative ELT and the PSTs' beliefs

The communicative practice of ELT – where thematic notions which the learners need to talk about have an essential role (see Richards, 2006b) – was significantly undermined by the beliefs professed by the PSTs about the role of the thematic content of their materials. This secondary contradiction led the PSTs to subordinate the thematic notions of their materials to prevailing discrete language forms, resulting in a superficial/uncritical treatment of the representational repertoires that they used in their worksheets.

8.2.1 The motive/object of teaching English communicatively

In Chapter 2, I mentioned that the overall motive of ELT instruction in Chile is that the students learn English and use it as a tool to participate in communicative situations, to access information, and to respond to global communicative demands through mass media and current technologies (Mineduc, 2012b). In order to do this, the learners are expected to develop the four linguistic skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing, and participate in meaningful and authentic communicative tasks (Mineduc, 2012b). In Chapter 2 I also mentioned that the motive of ELT in Chile is stated in two documents, namely the *Bases Curriculares* and the *Programas de Estudio* (Curricular Bases and Study Programmes correspondingly). It will be recalled that the former document is a national framework of learning expectations which Mineduc calls Learning Outcomes (LOs) and the latter a practical organisation and methodological suggestion of how the LOs can be achieved by schoolteachers.

My analysis of both documents reveals conflicting views about the importance of the linguistic and thematic content; I discuss this in detail in section 8.3. In this section, I want to emphasise how the document states that English instruction should focus on the development of the ability to ‘comprehend and construct messages, communicate meanings and exchange information’ rather than developing a proficient mastery of English (Mineduc, 2016b:43), which I interpret to mean that the thematic content of teaching should have a spearheading role in the practice of ELT compared to traditional notions of discrete language teaching. Part of my interpretation of the document is in fact specified in the *Bases Curriculares* (Mineduc, 2012b:267), which state that ‘the learning of grammar and accurate mastery of the language are not the central focus of instruction’. Furthermore, the *programas de estudio* reinforce their communicative orientation stating that the teaching of English should occur through the use of methodological approaches that ‘place emphasis on communication’ such as TBLT, and Content Based Instruction, amongst others (Mineduc, 2016b:40).

To illustrate this argument, I would like to examine the *programas de estudio* of Year One of secondary education, as three PSTs (Francisco, Gabriel and Miguel) were doing their practicum in this level. The relevance of looking at this document, apart from illustrating its communicative orientation and the significance of the

thematic content, is that it also offers practical elements for lesson planning and materials design, such as activities and sources for oral and written input to plan lessons. This document further organises the LOs of the *Bases Curriculares* in four units, thus offering a chronological organisation of the whole school year. Table 8.1 below contains an extract of the overall purpose of each of the four units (my translation).

Table 8. 1 Summary of the purpose of the units of Year One of the *programas de estudio* of English (adapted from Mineduc, 2012b)

Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
‘the learners will be able to comprehend oral and written texts, and express written and oral ideas about the world of work and the challenges this presents today in an active and participatory way’ (Mineduc, 2012b:94)	‘the learners will be able to comprehend and communicate ideas about education in general as well as [education as] a permanent challenge’ (Mineduc, 2012b:130)	‘the learners will be able to comprehend oral and written texts and share and express ideas about different forms of artistic expression and people who have contributed to its development’ (Mineduc, 2012b:166)	‘the learners will be able to communicate ideas and establish connections about traditions, myths, and festivities from different parts of the world and their own country in a spontaneous and creative way with the help of the teacher (Mineduc, 2012b:204)

As can be seen in the extracts, the LOs of the *Bases Curriculares* are organised through the *programa de estudio* of Year One of secondary education. Whilst each unit emphasises different communicative skills, these are expected to be developed within the context of various thematic notions such as the world of work, education, the arts, and traditions, amongst others. These themes, together with the removal of grammar and accurate mastery of the language from the centre of ELT instruction mentioned above (Mineduc, 2012b), can be said to provide an institutional and educational scenario where emphasis on thematic contents is expected to provide a communicative basis on which the learners can develop their ability to communicate. This notwithstanding, these official recommendations are at odds with the PSTs’ beliefs about the nature and value of the thematic notions that they use in their materials. I address this issue next.

8.2.2. The PSTs' beliefs about thematic content: 'English is given more emphasis than the topic' (Gabriel, Interview 1)

The PSTs' beliefs reflect a language teaching view which contradicts the motive/object of ELT stated above. In fact, the thematic notions they use in their materials are subjugated to traditional discrete language forms, which drive their practice of materials design. Gabriel's comment below illustrates his views about the spearheading role of linguistic content, and implies that the thematic notions are used only used as a means to focus on discrete language forms, largely grammar and vocabulary.

It's like English is given more emphasis than the topic. [...] even if topics like travelling, holidays, or work are discussed, what matters is not the topic itself but the development of English. For example, if it is about jobs, it's to develop vocabulary associated with jobs, structures associated with jobs, and so on. (Gabriel, Interview 1)

Gabriel's statement was echoed in a series of comments made by other PSTs in their final year. For example, during SRI2, Carlos illustrated this viewpoint saying that the exercises in his materials '*first respond[ed] to the need of working with the content, the grammar, and secondly, [the need] to work with the text*'. Apart from contradicting the motive of ELT stated in the *Bases Curriculares* and *Programas de Estudio*, what is interesting about Carlos' comment is that he seems to equate content with grammar. This issue is even more accentuated by Marcos, who, during Interview 1, said that '*there has to be a linguistic content one way or another, which will lead everything*'. This was also mentioned by Valeria who said that '*the main topic is the grammatical stuff, that one goes one way or another, it has to be done*' (SRI2).

What is interesting from the comments above is the PSTs' conceptualisation of content and topic. The word '*content*' ('*el contenido*' in Spanish) is to a large extent used by PSTs to refer to discrete language points. In fact, during the focus group, while Student 1 was describing how he designed PowerPoint presentations,

he made a reference to *'el contenido'* of such materials. When I asked him what he meant by that, he answered the following:

For example, I'm teaching present perfect now. And what I put in the PPT was my linguistic reinforcement, that was, for example, the structure of the present perfect tense, and I explain it on the board. (Student 1, FG).

What these comments have in common is equating content with grammar, and the centrality that the PSTs attribute to this form of content in their design of materials. In fact, when the PSTs highlighted the leading function of linguistic content and the impossibility of not including it in their materials, they stated a belief in which designing materials without an explicitly-stated linguistic learning outcome is not a possibility for them, which highlights the subordinated role attributed to thematic content.

The issue of beliefs described here was acknowledged by the PL. In fact, she mentioned that some PSTs held traditional beliefs about language teaching, manifested in how they strongly emphasised the teaching of linguistic discrete points. She referred to this situation as one of the biggest difficulties that the programme has had to deal with, and admitted that the programme has had little impact on the PSTs' modification of beliefs from traditional to more communicative ones. In the extract below, she describes how these beliefs are not questioned by the PSTs during their five years of teacher education, in addition to being reinforced in the school system where the PSTs do their practicum and eventually work.

One of the greatest difficulties in my view to concretise the changes in the educational system is essentially the issue of beliefs, because... what happens? We can't impact, and I tell you this quite honestly, all the students (meaning PSTs). Even though we have them for five years, we have heard that when our students become teachers in the educational system, they tend to have traditional teaching practices, you see? Why? Not because they don't want to, because many times these beliefs are implicit, they tend to be unquestioned, and tend to be reinforced again when they graduate from the university and become part of the educational system. (PL)

In sum, the comments offered in this section challenge the implementation of a language teaching view that places emphasis on communication through the use of thematic contents. The PSTs' traditional beliefs about language teaching seem to be recognised as an enduring phenomenon by the PL. In holding these beliefs, the PSTs seem to abandon the development of their learners' communicative skills for the communication of thematic notions. As I show in the next section, due to the persistent idea that *'English is given more emphasis than the topic'*, the PSTs tend to disregard the topics that they use in their materials, paying only scant attention to the representations of the world that they expose their learners to.

8.2.3 The subordination of the thematic content

The PSTs' beliefs that the thematic content of their materials should be subjugated to a linguistic agenda raises the issue of how much attention the PSTs in fact give to the topics they include in their own material. Valeria's comment below shows that her prioritisation of a grammar tense pushes her to disregard the content of a worksheet she designed. When I asked her what she was thinking when she used factual information about Albert Einstein, she mentioned that that topic would allow her to ask questions through which she could drill simple past, as opposed to having her pupils learning about the physicist.

Well, I was thinking that the learners, after repeating it so much... Because in this question I introduced "Did you know? Did you know?" So, in the first one, who was Albert Einstein? Here I could have several answers, for example, a genius, a physicist. Some said an inventor. So, actually, it was about them saying what they thought of the person and also seeing the tense issue. (Valeria, SRI2)

In Valeria's comment above, although she said she had asked the learners *'what they thought'* of Albert Einstein, this question seems to be rather oriented at having the learners practice a verb tense. This is clear in her comment *'after repeating it (the verb tense) so much'*, which not only reflects that she included facts about Albert Einstein in her material to practice past simple, but also how, through drilling, the learners were expected to practice this verb tense during her lesson.

In addition, a look at the PPT she designed reveals that most of the content and the activities she included in the accompanying worksheet that we discussed during SRI2 were aimed at teaching and reinforcing vocabulary and simple past (see Appendix 7.2 Valeria SRI2). Thus, her whole piece of material was aimed almost exclusively at tackling linguistic elements as there were no activities designed to explore the actual characteristics and work of Albert Einstein and his role as a 20th century physicist.

Emilia's quotes below also illustrate this subjugation of the thematic content. When we were discussing a worksheet about a girl's telephone, which she designed for a unit on technology, I asked her what she was thinking when she included a listening comprehension item about a girl's holidays. She said that she had done so because:

I was told 'you lack a goal associated with listening comprehension' [...] and I thought of including a listening where the person also spoke in present perfect and that they'd identify specific information. (Emilia, SRI2)

When I further asked if the text was about technology as the rest of her material, she said that she had difficulty finding a text combining both the grammar and topic as suggested by the curriculum. Clearly, her response to this difficulty was that her choice of text was driven by the grammatical components of the input rather than its actual thematic content, or, in fact, reinforcing the skill of listening that she had been advised. Consequently, Emilia's listening text and its accompanying tasks were disconnected from the broader thematic context of her material due to serving the sole purpose of reinforcing the verb tense under study.

No, they (the characters of the listening tape) don't speak about technology, actually... there I only focused on grammar [...] because this is still part of the grammar, so... it is sometimes difficult to find a text that covers all you need, I mean, sometimes you need to leave some things aside, and focus on that (the grammar). (Emilia, SRI2)

This lack of attention to the thematic content, as shown in Emilia and Valeria's examples, seems to further reflect the PSTs' uncritical stance to the representations entrenched in the inputs that they used in their materials and that were presented to the learners. What I discuss next is two examples of thematic content, namely cultural representations and celebrities, included in the PSTs' materials which I find illustrative of the problems underlying the subjugation of the topic of materials to grammar and vocabulary.

8.2.3.1 Cultural representations

Even though some PSTs took the view that culture was an important element of language and language teaching, and therefore it was an important element of their materials, the ways in which they presented and justified the cultural representations in their worksheets contradict these views.

Although Carlos said that *'more than English, [the learners] are going to learn lots of things about the world'* (Carlos, Interview 1), the way in which he dealt with the cultural representations of his material raises issues about what the learners are actually going to learn. His disregard for the thematic content appears exacerbated in comments about the content of other materials he had already used at the school. During SRI2, he referred to a video he had shown to the learners at the beginning of the unit of traditions and customs in which ten *'very weird traditions'* from around the world were presented:

I think it was ten very weird traditions around the world, ok... some [learners] were fascinated, they liked it, others wanted to see the last tradition, the teacher didn't allow me because I think it was about the female genital mutilation in I don't know which country, the teacher said 'no, I think this is too much, better not to', and all the students were 'come on, teacher, show it, show it', and no, I wasn't allowed. (Carlos, SRI2)

What is clearly noticeable in Carlos' comment is that he presented the case of female genital mutilation (FGM) in a country that he *'did not know'* as an example of *'very weird traditions'*. What is also interesting is that although Carlos seemed

disappointed by the teacher's decision to stop the video where FGM was being shown, in my interpretation of his comments, the course of the lesson was not interrupted by this censorship. This suggests that the content presented to the students, the *'ten very weird traditions'*, of which FGM was just one, were not presented to have the students engaging actively nor critically with them, but solely to trigger, as Carlos says, their fascination, and consequently were being lightly referred to or trivialised.

Another example of Carlos' disregard for the thematic content emerged during the same SRI2 when we were talking about the second piece of materials he had designed, which tackled the topic of traditions and customs. His worksheet, containing a text entitled *The Do's and Don'ts in China*, only had one task requiring the learners to work based on their understanding of the text. This task, however, was mostly focused on the correct use of the modal verb *should*, as it can be seen in the instruction and example below (see Appendix 1.2, Protocol Carlos SRI2).

Use the modal Should or Shouldn't according to the Chinese customs from the text.

Follow the example.

- 1. In China you **should not** criticize their culture (1st paragraph)*

Apart from the essentialised representation of the Chinese culture, what is interesting about this topic is his own lack of familiarity with it, which may explain the poor/uncritical treatment he gives to it in his worksheet. When I asked Carlos what he was thinking when he included information about what is not appropriate to do in China, such as not talking about politics, religion, or display affection publicly, he admitted not knowing about these issues, and that if questions about them emerged in classes, he would solve them on the spot.

Actually, I will be solving those questions during the class because, to be honest, I still don't, that's a point I still have to work on, until next Wednesday, when I implement [my material], because I'd be lying if I told you I know about politics or why it is a sensitive topic in China. It's something I have to research because I'm more than sure that, with the kids I have, those sitting in the front row, will ask me (Carlos, SRI1)

The day I attended the school to observe his lesson, his disregard for the topic clearly emerged from the use of his materials. During one of the interactions with the whole class, he asked the learners *'what [was] the text about?'* to which one student replied *'about life in China'*, which he confirmed as correct. Another student later replied to him: *'what you can do and can't do in China'*, which he again confirmed as correct. After that, he said *'now we are going to read paragraph by paragraph'*, which he led by reading the text aloud, translating key words, and giving the learners time to translate on their own. When he read the part of the text that suggests not speaking about *'politics, state leaders, recent history, Taiwan'*, he did not explain why these topics could not be discussed in China. Therefore, Carlos' text about China, which he gave only scant treatment to through just one comprehension task, can be said to have exposed his learners to a problematic representation of the Chinese culture, one in which Chinese people unjustifiably choose to not speak about certain things.

In a similar fashion, Miguel described his experience during his previous *práctica progresiva* in other schools. When describing the selection of topics for a unit about *'traditions in different parts of the world'*, he referred to *'something weird'* as a desirable element of the inputs of his material, which, in itself, can be said to trivialise the thematic content, and further raises issues about the likely exoticised cultural representations entrenched in his material.

In year eight, they were working with traditions in different parts of the world, and it was like 'ok, let's include something weird that happens, I don't know, in the Philippines'... (Miguel, Interview 1)

To sum up, what Carlos and Miguel's comments reflect is that some of the cultural representations in their materials are used in the interest of motivating and *'fascinating'* the learners. Because of the emphasis given by the PSTs to discrete language forms as I discussed in the previous section, it can be said that the PSTs use these essentialising and exoticised cultural representations only as a means for the pupils to learn the grammatical or lexical contents that the materials are designed to teach.

8.2.3.2 Celebrity

Five preservice teachers made direct references to the use of celebrities in their materials. Real celebrities such as Penelope Cruz, Alexis Sanchez, and Cristiano Ronaldo, and fictional characters such as Homer Simpson, amongst others, were used largely in the interest of facilitating the learning of English by the pupils. The reasons given by the PSTs for their use of celebrity-related topics appear to lie in a supposed familiarity of the learners with the celebrities, which would apparently remove the task of having to learn new thematic content in addition to English. Also, the PSTs alluded to the motivational potential that these topics have for language learning.

In reference to the first reason, when Francisco was speaking about a piece of material he had designed for his class at the onset of his practicum before I began this study, he mentioned the use of Penelope Cruz's biography and how beneficial he thought it had been for the learners because he thought that they were familiar with the actress. The expressions *'topics that they know'* and *'of a beginning level'* below suggest that this familiarity, in addition to being represented in simple language, would remove the task of having to understand/learn new thematic content through his material. In the same way as in Chapter 5 about dumbing down, Francisco seems to prevent the learners from having to invest extra cognitive effort in learning/reading about something they do not know, in order that they consequently pay more attention to the discrete language forms that were the focus of his material, as he said in 5.2.3 – the receptive turn.

In the listening part, I looked for a simple listening... of... that it was of a beginning level, not so long, of about 150 words and topics that they knew, for example, the actress Penelope Cruz, and of a mammal that I can't recall now. (Francisco, Interview 1)

In other comments, Francisco further elaborated his view that reading about celebrities could facilitate the process of language learning. When talking about the selection of content, he said that an *'average student cannot read English'*, and that the way to overcome this was by making them read about *'a character that is close*

to [their] reality'. I interpret his comments to mean that the learners will necessarily have to be exposed to content about the exceptional lives of famous individuals in order to overcome their lack of reading skill, typical, as Francisco said, of the 'average student' (we need to recall that in Chapter 6, Francisco argued that he would not make his students read about topics such as foreign politics because they came from a lower socioeconomic background). Furthermore, Francisco seemed to assume that because of their fame, celebrities are necessarily close to the learners' reality. Therefore, for him, celebrities are not only famous persons, but also relevant individuals in his learners' lives.

In addition to the above, Francisco then added that his use of a celebrity's biography lay in the idea that this type of text is formed of verb tenses on which he could focus for language instruction, again subjugating the thematic content to the linguistic one.

For example, the biography had different periods of her life and I took different statements of the biography so that they had to use the verb 'to be' to complete them, so I looked for [statements] because that was the content they had to work on. (Francisco, Interview 1)

Valeria's use of celebrity-related texts also seemed to be influenced by the perceived potential to exploit them linguistically. Her use of celebrities to emphasise the practice of grammar even displaces the thematic content suggested in the school coursebook embodying the national curriculum. In the following comments, she described two moments of the development of a unit about historical characters. In the first one, she recalled how she decided to omit the use of a historical character suggested in the textbook in order to include a text about the dead actor Paul Walker so that the students could practice past simple. The reason for this lies in her belief that the suggested content did not relate to the learners. In doing this, Valeria exercised a belief through which she easily disregarded the topic suggested in the coursebook, a process which she did not apply to the verb tense that led her to choose the text about Paul Walker.

For example, we had begun with the past tense and [they] were mmm... historical characters that maybe [the learners] didn't really feel related to, so I changed them for celebrities that have died, for example, Paul Walker and there are various artists that have died, so (she laughs), I kind of modified that there, but the main topic, let's say, is the grammatical stuff, that one goes one way or another (meaning the verb tense). (Valeria, SRI2)

However, later in the development of the unit, Valeria did write a piece of material, which was the focus of SRI2, and which contained a text about Albert Einstein (see 8.2.3) as suggested in the school textbook.

When I implemented [my lesson], I realised that there were many [students] who knew various anecdotes or information about the character, and those who didn't, looked very interested, because even the fact that Albert Einstein left school at the age of fifteen... they [said] 'but he was a genius... How come he didn't study?' They found that strange. So, they were really interested in the topic. (Valeria, SRI2)

In her recall, the use of a text about Albert Einstein was an experience which not only triggered the learners' motivation and curiosity but also proved their familiarity with the historical character of the unit. This notwithstanding, because the focus of her material was placed on past simple, the learners' interest in the information about Einstein could be said to be incidental and, in fact, only emerging from the 'weird' elements of his life rather than something really important. As shown below, one of the only two tasks she included in her material involving the manipulation of the thematic content was actually designed to have the learners drill the verb tense. Thus, the engagement with the information about Einstein can only be said to be the by-product of the task she designed (see Appendix 7.2 – Valeria SRI2 Protocol) and not an expected result of the tasks themselves. In fact, in the post-reading, the learners are required to ask each other questions about their childhood, again in the interest of practicing past simple, and not further engaging with Einstein's life. This further reflects that her choice of text, as well as the tasks of her material, is driven by the linguistic features of the biography rather than the communicative potential that the topic had.

Transform these sentences into negative and question forms (sic.)

Example: **Paul Walker died in 2013**

Paul Walker didn't die in 2013

Did Paul Walker die in 2013?

1. Albert Einstein wanted to study in Zurich

The references to celebrities in the materials designed by the PSTs and the discourses underlying their use reflect that, for the PSTs, texts about the exceptional lives of celebrities should facilitate the learning of English by removing the cognitive task of having to understand new and unfamiliar topics in order to focus on linguistic content. In addition, the choice of texts about celebrities seems to be driven largely by the linguistic characteristics of such texts, such as past simple in the case of dead celebrities, at the expense of the thematic notions contained in them.

To sum up, the way in which cultural representations and celebrities are used by the PSTs illustrate the form that the neglect for the thematic content takes in the materials they design. The essentialising and exoticising cultural constructs as well as the celebration of the success of famous individuals in the materials appear to be Trojan-horsed by the PSTs into their own materials due to a pervasive focus on discrete language forms.

8.3 The School

The development of the subordination of thematic content to language structures seems to be significantly reinforced in the school setting. I argue that the PSTs are enculturated into a school ethos where content is largely defined as a linguistic category by the ScTs' concept of 'content' and the national curriculum.

8.3.1 The ScTs' concept of content: 'It has to be a verb tense' (ST2)

In section 8.2.2, I wrote that some PSTs appear to construe content as linguistic. In line with previous chapters, in this section I argue that this conceptualisation of content is to some extent the result of an enculturation process lived by the PSTs in their school placements with the ScTs again having a pivotal role in it.

For example, ScT2, who mentored Carlos, expressed explicit views about the content of the English class as being linguistic while describing the nature of her interactions with him in the mentoring process. She mentioned that, when examining Carlos' material, her prime concern was its linguistic content, which she referred to as '*the topic*'. She further mentioned that it was *her* who had '*the last check*' of '*the topic*' to make sure it was correct.

I am generally checking [Carlos' work]. I am generally adapting, I mean, looking, in fact, he also asks me, we check, but I always have the last check of the topic [to make sure] it is the right one. I mean, the idea is that the topic is central. If we work on a verb tense, it has to be that verb tense, so that there are no double interpretations because that can create confusion. (ScT2)

To confirm if ScT2 actually conceptualised '*the topic*' (el tema in Spanish) in this way, I asked her what her emphasis was when checking Carlos' work, whether linguistic or thematic. She replied that she focused on the former because she believed that in this way, she could prevent the learners from becoming '*anxious or distancing themselves from the subject of English*' if Carlos' materials did not have a proper treatment of the '*topic*'. The extract below illustrates how she instils in Carlos a concept of content that is used only in reference to discrete language elements.

I generally focus on the linguistic content because the students here have a poor basis. [In this way, I can avoid] generating this type of rejection that most [learners] have towards [English] (she refers to the difficulty of the inputs in Carlos' materials). So, the idea is to bring them closer to the language, little by little and maybe focus on the linguistic content, [to avoid making] the students get anxious and distance themselves from the [English language]. (ScT2)

She also referred to the unit of traditions and culture discussed by Carlos in section 8.2.3.1, which she described as '*too broad*'. Based on this perceived broadness, she argued that the unit needed to be '*more concrete*' and that she pushed the PSTs she had worked with in the school to take the learners '*towards the objective of the unit*', by which she probably meant some type of linguistic content.

The topic of traditions and culture covers too much, so I am always suggesting that, I'm trying to say that it has to be more concrete, that it takes the students where the unit is pointing to... maybe a student will suggest some new vocabulary, or a new word that can be included, but I am generally trying to make [the PSTs] guide them where the objective of our unit points and... that mostly, that it is more concrete (ScT2)

For other ScTs the thematic content of the materials was even more evasive, struggling to conceptualise it when asked about it. The following extract from the interview with ScT4, who mentored Fernanda, reflects her inability to express her views about the thematic content of Fernanda's material, which may suggest that for her, this is not an important issue in her interactions with Fernanda. In the extract below, it can be seen how, when I asked her about the content of Fernanda's worksheets, she instead addressed Fernanda's teaching skills:

Luis: Have you had any opportunities to look at the topic of the material? Do you have any comments about that?

ScT4: We have been working well, [Fernanda] has adapted [to the school] well... yes... she still has to improve a few little things, but obviously, she's learning, she still has to improve, for example, her volume, or make sure that everyone is paying attention, I sometimes say 'to the whole class', because she can go on speaking, speaking, speaking, and the ones at the back are not paying attention... so, better to stop and then have everyone's attention and then go on... right... things like that.

Having noticed that ScT4 may have not understood my initial question, I asked her again what she thought of the topics of Fernanda's materials, to which she replied:

Luis: and the topic? The topic of the readings, for example?

ScT4: No, no... her language is ok... no, her language, I'd say, it's very few mistakes, very small mistakes, but mistakes anyway. (ScT4)

I would argue that the peripheral nature of the answers given by ScT4 to my questions reflects that her conceptualisation of content is mainly linguistic. This is again seen in other answers that ScT4 provided. For example, when I asked her about what types of materials she had learnt to design along her career, she referred to the use of PowerPoints and songs, which she said she selected mainly because of the language elements to be taught, such as prepositions or verb tenses.

ScT3, who worked in the same school as ScT4, and performed the role of a supervisor for Fernanda, Francisco and Gabriel, provided further evidence of the value given to the linguistic content in that institution. When referring to how her school complied with the national curriculum, she described how she and ScT1 (who also worked in that school and was Francisco's ScT) selected '*the contents*', by which she referred to grammar, and '*maybe the topics*'. ScT3 said that some linguistic content, in this case conditional clauses, posed problems for the learners, and that she and ScT1 distributed it across two school years in order to facilitate its learning. This decision, in addition to the seemingly secondary role given '*maybe*' to '*the topics*', evidences that the thematic content does not have a salient place in the curricular and mentoring ethos between ScT1 and ScT3 in that school.

Because what we (ScT1 and ScT3) do with the national curriculum is to consider the contents, and MAYBE the topics, but the contents, ok... I mean, let's suppose that in the third year of secondary we are going to teach the zero and first conditional, and in the fourth year ScT1 will teach the second and third [conditional]... you see, even if on the curriculum it says that we have to teach them all... I mean, WHAT FOR? WHY complicate the students' life? (ST3)

These schoolteachers' views conceptualising content as primarily linguistic are seen as a problem by the PL. In fact, during her interview, apart from referring to the issue of the beliefs held by the PSTs (see 8.2.2), she alluded to the school as a place where the PSTs are '*absorbed by the system*'. In her opinion, many ScTs working at the schools have not yet moved to a communicatively oriented practice of ELT and '*work in an absolutely traditional way*', which she said was reflected in, for example, the fact that '*they speak Spanish, [or] carry out activities that are*

focused on the grammar'. Thus, for her, many PSTs from the *pedagogía en inglés* programme seem to relinquish communicative teaching beliefs and/or practices when they enter the school system as a result of their interactions with the SctTs, who enculturate them into a practice of ELT in which the thematic contents are devalued.

8.3.2 Content in the *Bases Curriculares* and *Programas de Estudio*

In section 8.2.1, I mentioned that the national curriculum, through the *Bases Curriculares* and *Programas de Estudio*, stresses the idea that linguistic discrete points are not central to the teaching of English. Whilst this is true of the outcomes stated in the curriculum, much of the content suggested in both documents for the achievement of the learners' communicative competence seems to be linguistic rather than thematic. These linguistic contents clearly outweigh thematic notions for the development of the learners' ability to communicate, and can be said to further reinforce the issue discussed in this chapter regarding the secondary role given to topics in the PSTs' design of materials.

My analysis of the *Bases Curriculares* of the levels where the PSTs did their practicum reveals that whilst being couched in communicative (functional-notional) terms, these documents place more emphasis on the linguistic content (amongst other aspects, for example, learning strategies for each linguistic skill) rather than on thematic notions. In fact, the *Bases Curriculares* for Years Six (Fernanda) and Eight (Valeria) of primary education, and Years One (Francisco, Gabriel and Miguel), Two (Marcos and Emilia) and Three (Carlos) of secondary education provide a detailed description of the language items that are necessary for the attainment of a number of communicative functions and only a broad-brush mention of the topics about which communication could be. To illustrate this, Table 8.2 summarises the *Bases Curriculares* of Year One of secondary education as three PSTs were doing their practicum in that level. In the same way as the rest of the school years, the *Bases Curriculares* for this level are organised in three axes.

As can be seen in Table 8.2, the *Bases Curriculares* place a strong emphasis on the development of the communicative skills. The attainment of such skills seems to be based on a number of sub-skills associated with the comprehension of oral and

Table 8. 2 Summary of the 16 LOs of the *Bases Curriculares* of Year One of Secondary Education (Mineduc, 2015; my translation).

<p>I. Oral communication (Speaking and Listening) Eight objectives associated with:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Demonstrating comprehension of oral texts about personal experiences, other school subjects, immediate reliance topics, global interest and other cultures; 2. Identifying key words and expressions in oral texts; 3. Identifying purpose, general and specific information, and within-text relations; 4. Selecting and using strategies for comprehension of oral texts; 5. Presenting information orally using multimodal elements (knowledge of content, functions of language and vocabulary, appropriate use of sounds, awareness of audience, context, and purpose); 6. Using pre-while-post speaking strategies; 7. Reacting to oral texts through presentations and group discussions and conversations; 8. Demonstrating knowledge and use of language in conversations, discussions, and presentations (thirteen bullet points mentioning communicative functions and the linguistic elements necessary for their attainment).
<p>II. Reading comprehension Four objectives associated with:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Demonstrating comprehension of general ideas and specific information; 10. Demonstrating comprehension of non-literary texts (purpose, main idea and specific information, within-text relations, key words and phrases, linguistic elements such as collocations, connectors, etc.); 11. Demonstrating comprehension of literary texts (theme, context, plot, and key words and phrases); 12. Selecting and using strategies for reading.
<p>III. Writing Four objectives associated with:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 13. Writing stories and relevant information using multimodal elements about personal experiences, interdisciplinary content, global interests, international culture, texts that have been read; 14. Writing a variety of texts such as short stories, emails, biographies, amongst others, based on a process approach; 15. Writing to explain, express opinions and narrate using a variety of learnt vocabulary and structures, proper orthography, and punctuation; 16. Demonstrating knowledge and use of language in their written texts through: twelve bullet points mentioning communicative functions and the linguistic elements necessary for their attainment.

written texts, the oral and written production of language aided by a number of skill-related strategies, and the mastery of an extensive list of language elements conducive to the development of communicative functions. This communicative orientation, however, seems to be limited in the very small place given to the themes within which communicative interactions could be practiced and developed.

For example, in the oral communication and writing components, the only references to topics suggest very broad themes such as *global interests* and *other cultures*, which offer little in the way of specifying themes to cover in the level, an issue in fact mentioned by ScT2 in the previous section. Additionally, these same topics are also mentioned in the *Bases Curriculares* of Years Seven and Eight of primary school, and Years One and Two of secondary education, which demonstrates that they remain exactly the same in all the levels, whilst the functions of language and linguistic contents are very explicitly specified for each of them and with significant variations.

On the other hand, the *programas de estudio*, as a suggestion for the implementation of the *Bases Curriculares* of each year, offer only broad guidelines regarding the thematic content framing the development of the learners' communicative competence. In fact, it could be said that this document reinforces the development of a subordination of thematic content by stressing the pupils' learning of an extensive list of linguistic elements conducive to the development of communicative functions and skills. Each *programa de estudio* is divided into four units to be covered during the school year. In turn, each unit organises the functions of language to be developed and provides a detailed description of the linguistic elements necessary for the attainment of each function, in addition to sub-sections of connectors, suffixes, and pronunciation to be mastered in the end of each unit, thus mirroring the *Bases Curriculares*.

Table 8.3 below is an overview of Unit 1, entitled Jobs, of the *programa de estudio* of Year One of secondary education. This section of the document, which offers a summary of the level, arranges the contents of each unit in communicative functions, which are followed by the linguistic elements necessary for their achievement. Except for the name of the unit and the function '*to identify and describe occupations and people*', this summary makes no other mention of topics concomitant with 'jobs', again constructing an official view of the curriculum that is by and large focused on linguistic components.

Table 8. 3 Overview of unit 1 “Jobs” of *programa de estudio* of Year One of secondary education (Mineduc, 2016b:86; my translation)

<p>Unit 1</p> <p>Functions of language To express quantities, count, and number, for example: <i>enough/no money/time</i>.</p> <p>To express themselves clearly, using words and expression of regular use, synonyms and compound words, for example: <i>part-time job; apply for a job; what’s it like?; why don’t we...?; nice to meet you; talk about; for example; chopstick</i>.</p> <p>To identify and describe occupations and people (qualities), for example: <i>he is interested in.../ it is interesting; she is good at...; she’s a very organized person</i>.</p> <p>To describe past habits, for example: <i>I used to work at the coffee shop, but now I work at a department store</i>.</p> <p>To confirm information, for example: <i>it’s nice, isn’t it?; your brother wasn’t at school, was he?; you go to the pool on Fridays, don’t you?; she will come tomorrow, won’t she?</i></p> <p>To put ideas together, for example: <i>he learned English so that he could speak with foreigners</i>.</p>
<p>Connectors Connector <i>So that</i></p>
<p>Suffixes ...er, ...ist, ...ess</p>
<p>Pronunciation Initial sound /j/ (year/yes)</p>
<p>Estimated time: 38 pedagogical hours</p>

In addition to this overview, I looked at the detailed description of each unit in the *programa de estudio* in order to find references to thematic content and what role this was given. Reflecting the summary above, there is only scant mention of topics within which the development of the communicative competence in English could take place. Table 8.4 below provides a summary of unit 1 of the *programa de estudio* of the same level. Each unit of the *programa de estudio* is structured in the same way.

Table 8. 4 Summary of Unit 1 of *programa de estudio* of Year One of secondary education (Mineduc, 2016:94-96)

Purpose	To comprehend oral and written texts and express oral and written ideas about the world of work and its current challenges.
Prior Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Expressions: think, find, hate, don't mind, enjoy, etc. ➤ Connectors: because, too, or, so, until, also.
Key words	In my opinion, according to..., I mean..., apply to/for, part-time job, keen on, good at, a very... person, get fired, quit, earn, salary, save.
Knowledge	<p>Communicative functions and linguistic knowledge necessary to express each of them:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Express quantity, count, and number; ➤ Express clearly using frequent words and expressions, synonyms and compound words; ➤ Identify and describe occupations and people; ➤ Point out frequency, degree, and time of actions; ➤ Describe past habits; ➤ Confirm information; ➤ Unite ideas; ➤ Suffixes; ➤ Punctuation.
Pronunciation	Initial /j/ sound as in yes, year, yesterday, university, Europe, etc.
Vocabulary	<p>Thematic vocabulary: nurse, doctor, engineer, etc.</p> <p>Compound words: airport, salesman, etc.</p>
Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Listening comprehension of literary and non-literary authentic and adapted texts; ➤ Speaking about personal experiences, other school subjects, other cultures, global problems, etc.; ➤ Reading comprehension of literary and non-literary authentic and adapted texts; ➤ Writing about personal experiences, other school subjects, other cultures, global problems, etc.
Attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Work responsibly and collaboratively; ➤ Express a positive attitude to themselves, learning, and using the language.

After stating the purpose and list of prior knowledge, key words, knowledge, skills and attitudes, the unit states a list of learning objectives taken from the *Bases Curriculares*, and a detailed list of the indicators that can be used to gauge the extent to which the learners achieve such LOs. The LOs and indicators are in turn followed by suggested activities that depict examples of LOs and a sample task that the teachers can use to attain these objectives. In sharp contrast with the rest of the document, these activities place greater emphasis on the thematic content than

anything discussed until now in this chapter, yet the focus on linguistic aspects is also salient in the examples. One of the suggested activities for unit 1 of the *programa de estudio* of Year One of secondary education, for instance, consists of:

The learners listen to recordings about occupations. They identify the main ideas, the purpose of the text and some details, such as characteristics of the people for a given job, workplace, etc. They also identify thematic vocabulary associated with occupations and connectors to identify the relationship between ideas; for example: so that. Finally, some volunteers read their answers. (Mineduc, 2016: 106; my translation)

Finally, the unit organisation of the *programa de estudio* finishes with guidelines for the assessment of the LO's. Whilst the sample activity I have just described can be said to contradict the argument I am making along this section, the role given to topics such as the one exemplified above, still remains almost absent from the documentation that the teachers are given to actually organise their syllabus. What is more, the document appears to outline a notion of content that is almost exclusively defined by linguistic notions rather than thematic ones. From this point of view, the document largely promotes the organisation of the teachers' syllabi around language features such as functions of language, grammatical structures, vocabulary, and pronunciation, amongst others.

To sum up, considering that the *Bases Curriculares* are the only compulsory documentation that all schools across the country have to follow, the lack of emphasis given to thematic contents to frame the development of communicative skills in English can be interpreted as an official disregard for them, especially if these are compared to the extensive list of linguistic contents offered in the same document. In a similar fashion, apart from addressing thematic contents in sample activities, the *programas de estudio*, as an incarnation of compulsory curriculum, do little in the way of highlighting the relevance of these contents as an important element in the development of the learners' communicative competence, despite claiming that 'the teaching of English through thematic contents facilitates the

integration of skills and offers a more holistic vision of the language and of the construction of knowledge' (Mineduc, 2016b:41).

Thus, the overall lack of references to thematic notions together with the abundant mentions of language features required for the development of the learners' communicative competence, I would argue, aggravates the ScTs' and PSTs' disregard for the topics of their materials in light of the use of these documents in the school. Even if each unit of the *programas de estudio* is framed within the context of a topic, such as *Jobs, Education and Lifelong Learning, The Arts, and Traditions and Festivities*, which are the titles of the units of the *programa de estudio* of Year One of secondary education that I have used as an example, the actual organisation of these documents leaves these topics largely relegated.

8.4 The University

Although the TEs expressed their efforts to tackle the thematic content of the English language classes, they voiced constraints associated with the washback of the exams used to assess the PSTs' communicative competence.

8.4.1 The washback of the standardised exams: '*the structure has to be at some point because the test will evaluate that*' (TE6)

Washback, also known as the influence of testing over teaching (Alderson and Wall, 1993), also aggravates the development of the conceptual tool of subordination of thematic content in the university setting. This is particularly the case of the exams used by the *pedagogía en inglés* programme to gauge the PSTs' English competence as required by Mineduc in the Guiding Standards (see Chapter 2), which state C1 of the CEFR as a minimum upon graduation. As voiced by some TEs below, they struggled to focus on the thematic content of their English modules and provide the PSTs with a language learning experience wherein topics are an important part of their education as a result of having to assess the PSTs with standardised exams.

For example, when TE5 referred to how he treated the content of *New Headway* in his English class, he said that he faced practical constraints such as lack of time.

We give the students an opportunity, and unfortunately, I don't have the time also to just... 'Ok, let's just talk about things' you know. We don't have those opportunities, but I think they are meaningful and I think they're important because, those are the moments when they really start becoming more motivated, their attitude changes.
(TE5)

Although he acknowledged that focusing on thematic notions could motivate the PSTs to learn English, I interpret the cited lack of time to exploit the thematic content of the material to mean that yet another type of content has to be prioritised. In common with the rest of the chapter, the linguistic content does not take long to be mentioned by some TEs as a priority in their teaching of English. According to TE6, despite her efforts to focus on the PSTs' development of communicative competence within the context of certain topics, the linguistic content, which she refers to as '*structure*', by which she probably means grammar, has to be included as it will eventually have to be assessed in the module.

We were discussing where your freedom finishes and where the responsibility of the state of taking care of you begins [...] but the structure has to be at some point because the test will evaluate that (TE6)

The comment by TE6 alluding to a test signals the washback of an evaluation in which the linguistic notions seem to be prioritised. In light of this, it could be said that the instruments used to assess the PSTs' communicative skills, which are all standardised international tests produced by Cambridge ESOL Examinations, aggravate this issue. In fact, TE6 said that it is the name of the test (see below) what is normally used in the programme rather than the level of competency (e.g. C1 or C2 of the CEFR) that can be demonstrated with such exam (TE6, personal communication). Thus, from the first year of their *pedagogía en inglés* course, the PSTs are extensively exposed to a series of standardised exams such as the A2 Key exam and B1 Preliminary (known as KET and PET) in term one; PET in term two; B2

First (known as the FCE) in terms three, four and five; C1 Advanced (CAE) in terms six, seven and eight; and C2 Proficiency (CPE) in term nine.

My examination of each of these tests shows that grammar and vocabulary are a driving element of written production. Samples available on the Cambridge Assessment website as well as descriptions of each of these exams display the communicative orientation of the tests, but at the same time highlight the role of accurate use of grammar and vocabulary, especially in the writing section. For example, the KET exam presents items of multiple choice for vocabulary and syntax. The descriptions of the purpose of the written sections of PET and FCE also emphasise the correct use of vocabulary and grammar (Cambridge Assessment: English, 2018). In line with the previous exams, CPE also has a strong component to assess language accuracy. Its section *Reading and Use of English* has 30 questions spread across four parts assessing the use of sophisticated vocabulary and grammatical structures at C2 level (Cambridge Assessment: English, 2018).

Even though CPE is used at the end of the programme, CAE is the one that is actually used to measure if the PSTs achieve the C1 level, which is the level suggested in the Guiding Standards outlined by Mineduc (see Chapter 2). As stated on the test website of CAE, in the *Reading and Use of English* section the exam asks the examinees to ‘show how well [they] can control [their] grammar and vocabulary’ (Cambridge Assessment: English, 2018). This can be further seen on a sample exam available on the same website where the exam takers are asked a series of 30 questions spread across four sections about sophisticated vocabulary and grammatical structures to prove their accurate use of the language.

In sum, the adoption of an extensive array of international standardised tests to assess the PSTs’ communicative competence in English by the programme seems to constrain the development of pedagogical practices in line with the communicative vision that the programme seeks to use and promote in the PSTs, preventing the TEs from focusing on thematic contents to promote the PSTs’ learning of English. In turn, this can be said to raise issues about what the actual focus of the English modules is in the *pedagogía en inglés* programme in light of this struggle suffered by the TEs to strike a balance between linguistic and thematic content. Thus, the experience learning at the university by the PSTs can be said to

promote a view in which topics have a secondary role in the PSTs' materials.

8.5 Conclusion

In this chapter I discussed *the subordination of the thematic content* of the PSTs' materials to traditional notions of discrete language teaching as a conceptual tool mediating the PSTs' design. I argued that the development of this conceptual tool is shaped by a secondary contradiction between the motive/object of teaching English communicatively, where thematic notions play an important role, and the PSTs' beliefs about the subsidiary role of these notions. I argued that this tension results in a disregard for the topics used in the materials the PSTs design, which is problematically presented, leading to, for example, the use of essentialised and exoticising cultural representations and the celebration of individual success. I argued that this tension is exacerbated by the schoolteachers' conceptualisation of content as linguistic, which they seem to instil on the PSTs, and the focus of the national curriculum on language aspects. I also observed that the university seems to struggle to provide the PSTs with a language learning experience whereby thematic contents are prioritised over language-oriented forms of ELT due to the adoption of international exams that emphasise grammar and lexis to gauge the PSTs' English competence.

Chapter 9 – Discussion: How do the PSTs learn to design materials?

9.1 Introduction

The overarching aim of this study is to understand how a group of Chilean preservice teachers of English learn to design their own language teaching materials. To do this, I designed an activity-theoretical study that would allow me to construe this process in the settings where the PSTs' developing of materials took place, namely the university where they studied to become teachers of English and the schools where they did their practicum. To this effect, using an offshoot of sociocultural theory known as Activity Theory, in Chapter 3 I formulated three questions which I attempt to answer in this chapter, and which should allow me to understand the overall process of learning to design language teaching materials:

1. What systemic contradictions emerge when the PSTs design their own language teaching materials?
2. What conceptual tools mediate the PSTs' designing of materials?
3. What contextual elements of the school and university settings mediate the development of conceptual tools used by the PSTs to design materials, and how?

I organise this chapter in relation to these three questions. In section 9.2, I discuss the concept of systemic contradiction (see 3.6.1.1) and the two types of contradictions emerging during the activity of materials design. In section 9.3, I discuss the notion of conceptual tool (see 3.6.1.3) and the four most salient conceptual tools adopted by the PSTs to mediate their design of materials. Finally, in section 9.4, I identify and discuss the most salient elements of both school and university influencing the development of conceptual tools.

9.2 What systemic contradictions emerge when the PSTs design their own language teaching materials?

Contradictions are a natural and necessary precondition in activity systems. As I mentioned in Chapter 3, for Engeström (1987:xv), contradictions are ‘the driving force of change and development’, and therefore, understanding them is of outmost importance in any activity theoretical enterprise. Roth and Lee (2007) argue that systemic contradictions are historically accumulated tensions within and between the different elements of an activity system (subjects, rules, division of labour, tools, object, and community), and between elements of the different, yet coexisting activity systems. In this regard, these contradictions are not only tensions affecting my participants’ learning of materials design; they are also intrinsic to the activity of learning to become a teacher, which further stresses the importance of scrutinising them.

The examination of contradictions poses a methodological challenge: contradictions do not speak for themselves (Engeström and Sannino, 2011), but are rather articulated through discourse, and can be recognised through the participants’ voices, as opposed to only observing what the participants do (Johnson, 2009). In this regard, I was able to identify a number of contradictions through the application of an array of research methods whereby the participants could express their rationales, beliefs and views about language teaching materials, materials design, teacher education, etc., based on their actions as points of departure for their voices.

As I discussed in Chapter 3, four types of contradictions can emerge in the development of an activity (Engeström, 1987):

- **Primary contradictions** are the double nature and inner unrest within one of the corners of the triangles of an activity system, for example, a teacher’s holding contradictory beliefs about the importance of materials design on the one hand, and acknowledging that it demands too much time to actually do it on the other.
- **Secondary contradictions** are the tensions between different corners of the triangles; for example, between a teacher’s desire to rely less on a

coursebook (subject of the system), and the school rule of having to cover the curricular material (rule of the system).

- **Tertiary contradictions** emerge when ‘representatives of culture [...] introduce the object and motive of a culturally more advanced form of activity into the dominant form of central activity’ (Engeström, 1987:70); for example, the introduction of learner-centred teaching methods into schools.
- **Quaternary contradictions** occur between the central activity and its neighbouring activities in which the object is shared; for example, the different modules making up a *pedagogía en inglés* programme – in which a module of linguistic analysis placing emphasis on the learning of linguistic structures may be at odds with a language teaching methods module placing emphasis on CLT.

I identified two types of contradictions in this study in issues directly related to the PSTs’ designing of material, namely, primary and secondary, which are represented as a black circle and black arrows correspondingly in Figure 9.1. The primary contradiction between the PSTs’ positive and negative beliefs about the learners’ capacities and attitudes to learn English was clearly seen when the PSTs justified the rationales underpinning their materials. The other contradictions were all of the secondary type. There were strong tensions between the object of training CLT teachers and the only lesson plan model used as a tool of the learning of teaching by the programme; between using the textbook as the motive ELT at the school and the PSTs’ pedagogical agency; and between the overall goal of teaching English within a communicative paradigm and the PSTs’ beliefs about the role of thematic content in the development of materials. In the next sections I discuss these tensions.

Although I am aware that tertiary and quaternary contradictions were also present in the study, such as a tertiary contradiction between some ScTs’ beliefs about the unsuitability of the lesson plan model for the school reality and the culturally ‘more advanced’ form of teaching embodied in the lesson plan, or a quaternary contradiction between the programme’s goal of educating CLT teachers and the adoption of international tests emphasising discrete language, the

participants did not highlight their presence to the same extent as they highlighted the primary and secondary contradictions presented in Figure 9.1.

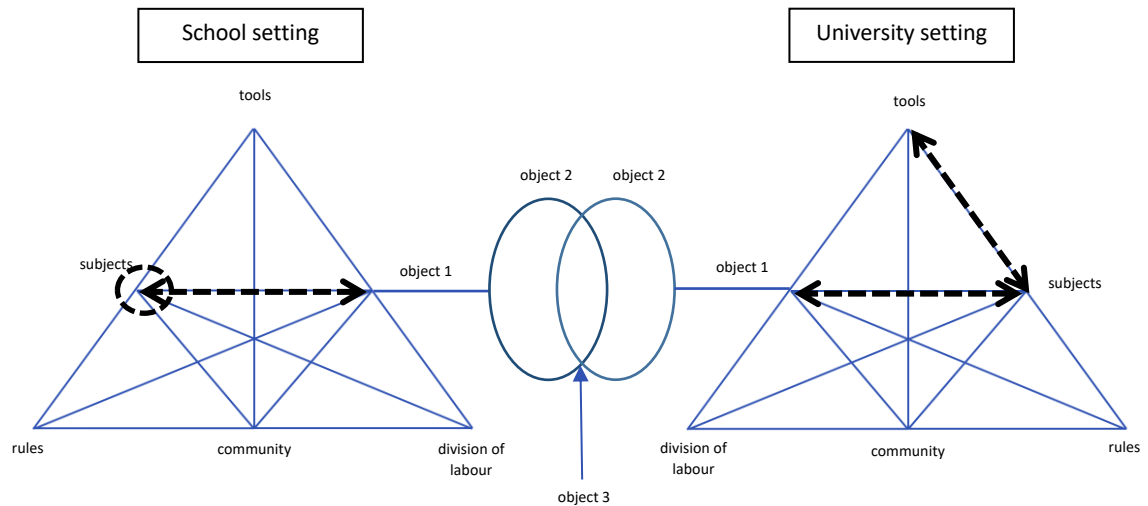


Figure 9. 1 Primary and secondary contradictions identified in the study.

9.2.1 The Primary Contradiction: *The PSTs' beliefs about the learners*

As I explained above, a primary contradiction is the presence of mutually-exclusive elements within one component of the activity system, in this case, the positive and disparaging beliefs professed by the PSTs about their learners (see Figure 9.2 below). Whether positive or disparaging, in Chapter 3 I mentioned that beliefs are 'eclectic aggregations of cause-effect propositions from many sources, rules of thumb, generalizations drawn from personal experience, beliefs, values, biases and prejudices' (Clark, 1988:5). An important characteristic in light of this discussion is that beliefs 'do not even require internal consistency within the belief system', which, in effect, makes them more inflexible, less mutable, and consequently more influential than knowledge (Pajares, 1992:311).

The primary contradiction came to the fore when the data revealed that some PSTs initially evaluated their learners positively in terms of their intellectual faculties and dispositions to learn English, but later justified the decisions involved in their designing of materials through deficit beliefs about the pupils. In line with Richardson's (1996) assertion that beliefs can determine what should be done about an object, the PSTs' disparaging beliefs emerged as having a more pivotal role in how

the PSTs organised and defined the tasks of their materials than the pedagogical knowledge that they may have constructed along their *pedagogía en inglés* programme (see section 9.3.1). Thus, in light of the weight that beliefs have as pointed out above, it is not surprising that most PSTs in my study, whilst praising their learners' attitudes and intellect, justified the pedagogical choices they made through their materials with underestimations about their pupils.

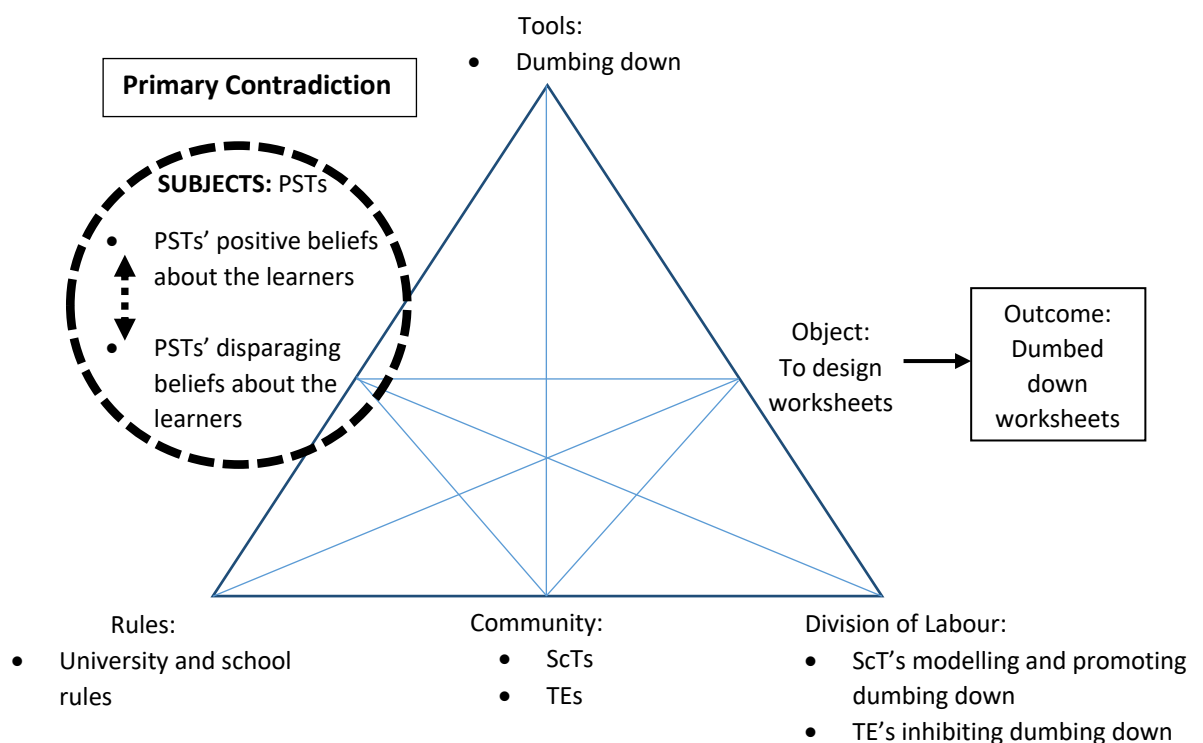


Figure 9.2 Materials design activity system: Primary contradiction between the PSTs' positive and disparaging beliefs about their learners and the elements influencing its development.

Primary contradictions are a common phenomenon in education, and in fact are well-documented in the Chilean context (e.g. Tagle *et al.*, 2012; Barahona, 2016). For example, Barahona (2016) shows the primary contradiction between the beliefs of the PSTs in her study in using English for instructing EFL students, and their tendency to avoid using it, alluding to constraints posed by the school realities. Whilst in her study Barahona (2016) did not look at disparaging beliefs, my analysis of her data reveals that her participants justified their decision to not use English

with deficit beliefs about their learners' ability to understand English. This was clear when one of her participants said that they avoided using English because 'the students don't understand [...] and then they don't want to learn' (Barahona, 2016:160). In this regard, I believe my research contributes with further insights into a type of contradiction affecting the decision-making of Chilean PSTs that has not apparently received attention in previous local research.

My findings are an important insight in this regard as they can help understand the development of PSTs' positive and disparaging beliefs about their learners. Although there is a substantial literature on teachers' beliefs in general (e.g. Richardson, 1996, 2003; Pajares, 1992) and ELT in particular (e.g. Borg, 2003, 2006; Phipps & Borg, 2009), as discussed in Chapter 3, the study of beliefs held by *preservice teachers* about their learners is less common, possibly because preservice teachers interact with language learners less than practicing teachers. In common with Sato and Loewen (2018) who found out that a group of Chilean teachers' understanding of SLA is relatively consistent with SLA research, the positive beliefs the PSTs stated about their learners' cognitive capacities and dispositions were in fact consistent with conceptualisations of the 'good learner' in SLA discussions. For example, the positive beliefs about the learners' *cognitive capacities* I discussed in 6.2.1, such as Emilia's expectation that the learners would succeed in her class because they were '*clever*', and Carlos' reference to '*good elements*' in his class, pinpoint scholarship on the learners' aptitude for language learning (e.g. Rubin, 1975; Ellis, 1994; Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003). Likewise, Miguel's belief that the learners would work on their own on the worksheet he designed signals the concept of learner autonomy, as 'the ability to take care of one's own learning' (Little, 2007:15; see also Cotterall, 2009; Pekkanli, 2009; Benson, 2013). Both aptitude and autonomy have been widely reported as good predictors of language learning (e.g. Rubin, 1975; Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003; Griffiths, 2009; Mishan and Timmis, 2015), which highlights the value of the positive beliefs held by the PSTs' about their pupils.

With regards to the PSTs' positive beliefs about the learners' *dispositions*, these beliefs also revolved around SLA predictors of language learning such as motivation and personal attributes. In fact, motivation, understood as 'what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, and to persist in action'

(Ushioda, 2009:19), has been extensively discussed as one of the main characteristics of 'good language learners' (e.g. Rubin, 1975; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991; Ellis, 1994; Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003; Ushioda, 2009), a belief voiced by Fernanda when she said that her learners were '*always eager to participate, respond, ask questions*' (SRI1). Furthermore, personality traits such as openness to experience and interest are mentioned by Ehrman (2009) as typical of language learners with high achievement, which were mentioned in Emilia's description of her learners' willingness to participate in her lessons, as well as in Marcos' description of his learners' positive reactions to activities involving game/play.

The abovementioned characterisations of the learners, however, coexisted with an important number of disparaging beliefs about their capacities and dispositions – the primary contradiction. Studies on beliefs have documented that teachers can profess disparaging views about their learners' intellectual capacities from the viewpoint of learning expectations. For example, in her review of the literature about beliefs, Pettit (2011) noticed that many mainstream teachers in the US disparage their English language learners for their lack of academic success, blaming *them* for it rather than adapting their pedagogical techniques to accommodate their learners' needs. Whilst the US context can differ dramatically from Chile, the belief that the learners cannot learn the curriculum (Pettit, 2011) meshes well with the views provided by, for example, Francisco about his materials, who claimed that the linguistic content to be taught was more difficult than what the learners could actually handle. Another explanation for these disparaging beliefs about learners' cognitive abilities is that teachers sometimes hold socioeconomic biases and develop deficit views of pupils from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. For example, Rubie-Davis, Hattie and Hamilton (2006) and Vandrick (2014) have suggested that social class biases could determine the development of low expectations about the learners' academic success, which sounds uncomfortably like Francisco's rationale to avoid using topics such as foreign politics in his worksheets, on the pretext that learners from vulnerable schools, i.e., low socioeconomic schools like the one where he did his *práctica*, would not be able to deal with topics of what he thought to be of a higher intellectual complexity.

As for the PSTs' beliefs about their learners' negative dispositions towards learning English, these constructs were articulated in three different ways. Firstly, as Richardson (1996) argues, beliefs can act as biases pushing teachers to respond in prejudiced ways (see Kile, 1993, for example, on preservice teachers' expecting their pupils to have apathy towards education). This was clearly admitted by Student 4 of the focus group when he said in 6.2.2.2 that the PSTs in the programme, including himself, limited the pupil's potential to learn English based on the prejudice that the learners would react negatively to the material if this was too complex, an issue clearly seen in Miguel's assumption that he would face difficulties implementing certain tasks due to the class being formed of old and new students. Secondly, Emilia's tendency to avoid having the learners write was related to her belief that the pupils were reluctant to do it, resonating with Sharkey and Layzer's (2000) 'benevolent conspiracy', where good intentions (in Emilia's case, saving the learners the task of writing) actually aggravated the low expectations held about them.

As I have shown, this tension is multidimensional and reveals not only the interplay of beliefs, but some of the factors underpinning their development, such as expectations and social class biases, amongst others. The PSTs' positive views about the pupils, which were in line with SLA descriptions of successful language learners, call for special attention on behalf of the *pedagogía en inglés* programme. In section 9.4, I examine some of the reasons that these positive beliefs were overwhelmingly absent from the PSTs' design of materials.

9.2.2. Secondary contradiction 1: The programme's motive of training CLT teachers and the reading/listening lesson plan model

As mentioned above, a secondary contradiction is a tension between two elements of the activity system (Engeström, 1987). As shown in Figure 9.3 below, the secondary contradiction in question involves a tension between the university's overarching motive/object of training CLT oriented professionals and one of the tools for achieving this goal, namely, the pre-while-post lesson plan model taught to the PSTs.

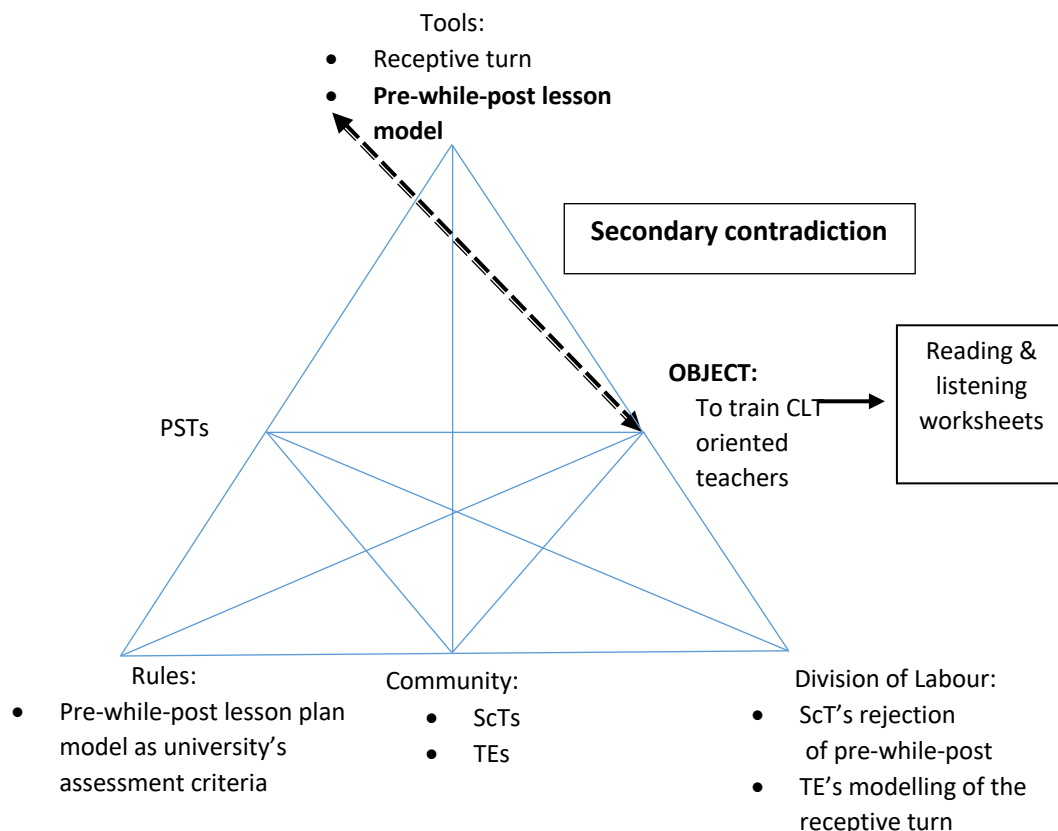


Figure 9.3 Materials design activity system: Secondary contradiction between the motive of training CLT oriented teachers of English and the lesson plan model taught at the university.

With regards to the motive of the *pedagogía en inglés* programme, in Chapter 5, I showed that its overarching object/motive is to educate teachers of English who are able to design, implement and assess teaching situations that promote the development of their learners' ability to communicate in English. The adoption of this motive is probably the result of the dominant role that CLT has been given in ELT as a language teaching approach since its inception in the 1970's (Thompson, 1996; Richards, 2006b), which has evolved into an international tendency to introduce CLT-oriented curricular changes in educational systems such as the Chilean one (e.g. Littlewood, 2007; Pham, 2007; Deng and Carless, 2009; Butler, 2011; Humphries and Burns, 2015; Graves, 2016). Overall, the programme's goal of educating CLT teachers broadly overlaps with the definitions of the communicative approach (e.g. Savignon, 2007), where the development of productive skills can be said to be fundamental through the emphasis given to the

development of the learners' communicative competence (see Canale and Swain, 1981; Canale, 1983; Richards, 2006b; Savignon, 2007; Timmis, 2016).

In Chapter 5, I also mentioned that the adoption of CLT by the *pedagogía en inglés* programme was not only because of the views held by the staff deeming it a more viable approach to achieve the learners' communicative competence, but also because of the relevance given to it as a language teaching methodology in the Guiding Standards with which the programme complies. This compliance is clearly a result of the high stakes involved in not meeting such standards. As mentioned in Chapter 2, in order to secure state funding, teacher education programmes in Chile have to go through obligatory accreditation processes (Espinoza and Gonzalez, 2013; Ávalos, 2014), that are partly based on the Guiding Standards amongst other criteria (Domínguez and Meckes, 2011). Furthermore, we have to remember that since 2008, PSTs of different *pedagogía* programmes (all school subjects) were 'invited' to sit voluntarily for the INICIA test (now called ENFID) to measure their pedagogical content knowledge (see Shulman, 1986) in their corresponding subjects. By the time I conducted the study, the INICIA test was aligned with the Guiding Standards (Domínguez and Meckes, 2011), and it was considered to have an effect on the reputation of the institution if low results were achieved by the PSTs (Ávalos, 2014). In 2018 ENFID test became compulsory for all PSTs before graduation, and those PSTs who do not take it cannot be granted a teaching qualification by their universities (Mineduc, 2019a). Thus, the overarching goal of training CLT-oriented practitioners is not only the main belief underpinning the programme's educational ethos, but also part of a set of guidelines with an extremely high stakes role.

However, the motive of educating CLT oriented professionals was to a large extent challenged by one of the tools used to develop the PSTs' learning of teaching at the university, namely, the pre-while-post lesson plan model given to the PSTs by the practicum coordinator (TE4) at the onset of their school placements. This model is in line with the pre-while-post listening and reading worksheet structure proposed by Williams (1984) for reading and by Axbey for reading and listening (1989, cited in McGrath, 2002:146), therefore its main focus is the development of receptive skills. As discussed in Chapter 3, the model involves the active participation of learners in the pre-stage by retrieving their schematic knowledge (Wallace, 2001), making them

predict content, and prepare language for the listening/reading section (see Tudor, 1989, 1990). Mishan and Timmis (2015) argue that a focus on the learner is typically found in the techniques used at the pre-stage such as brainstorming or semantic mapping, which the PSTs used to a large extent as part of their own design.

Regarding the while-stage, the model is in line with Williams' (1984:39) reading framework, and his suggestion that 'as a rule, while-reading should begin with a general or global understanding of the text, and then move to smaller units such as paragraphs, sentences and words', which signals a focus on the text rather than on the learner as in the pre-stage of reading. This is reflected in how the model points out that the while-stage should include the presentation of an input followed by comprehension activities. The PSTs took this up almost to the letter. In fact, their worksheets were largely organised around a text followed by different tasks that aimed at developing a general understanding of the texts, such as main idea of the text, type and purpose of the text. This reflects Williams' (1984) suggestions of paying attention to the communicative function of the text such as the writer's intentions and the text structure, what Francisco referred to as activities that '*will always be there*' (Francisco, SRI2). After the focus on the general understanding, the PSTs included tasks such as true or false, multiple choice, questions, matching, and the like in the interest of having the learners understand specific information (see Appendices 1-7). Almost all of these tasks can be classified as literal comprehension questions (Day and Park, 2005; Freeman, 2014), which sought to identify straightforward information such as facts, vocabulary, dates, times, and places, amongst others.

Thus far, the lesson plan model does not seem to pose any obstacles to a communicative practice of ELT by the PSTs. However, it is at the post-stage of reading/listening where the PSTs interrupted the development of the learners' ability to communicate when trying carry out the linguistic reinforcement and language production activities as suggested in the model given by the programme. In Chapter 5, I mentioned that the PSTs designed tasks that had the learners drill grammar and produce language at the sentence level. These sentences were expected to reflect salient linguistic features of the texts used for comprehension, which, as Francisco said, were '*the focus*' of the lesson (Francisco, Interview 1). This

contradicts Williams' (1984) recommendation that the post-stage should consolidate what has been read (and listened to), relating it to the learners' views, knowledge and interests. It also contradicts Axbey's (1989, cited in McGrath, 2003) suggestion of including personal responses and activities promoting self-awareness. More importantly, this exclusive focus on linguistic practice contradicts Timmis' (2016) elaboration about the pivotal role of productive skills within a communicative view of language learning, thus contradicting the goal set by the university of educating teachers of English whose practice of ELT is framed within communicative methodologies. This tendency to mask linguistic reinforcement as language production is indeed acknowledged in the materials literature. Mishan and Timmis (2015) note that there is a tendency both in coursebooks and teacher-written materials to disguise linguistic foci, especially grammar, as skills practice. This raises the issue of whether the PSTs' materials and, in fact, the model itself, aimed at having the learners honing reading and listening, or only at accumulating more grammar and vocabulary.

What is more, the discrepancies between the way in which the PSTs treated the development of productive skills and the pedagogical suggestions of Axbey's and Williams' at the post-stage are aggravated by the fact that the lesson plan used by the *pedagogía en inglés* programme was essentially designed to promote the receptive skills. It will be recalled that the model was designed by TE4 at the beginning of the 2000's in response to the Chilean curriculum of the time, which placed 80% of emphasis on the development of receptive skills, and the remaining 20% to speaking and writing (McKay, 2003). This was evident when TE4 reminded me of the use of the pre-while-post model during my own preservice teacher education in the same programme between 2002 and 2006, and when she said that the model '*is more or less the same now*' (TE4). In light of the above, it would be safe to say then that the fundamentals of the lesson plan used by the programme are aimed at the development of receptive skills, thus undermining the promotion of productive skills to a large extent.

In sum, although there appears to be an emphasis on the development of receptive communicative skills by the PSTs through their use of the pre-while-post lesson plan model, the model seems to lend itself to the development of other foci,

mainly the accumulation of grammar and to a lesser extent vocabulary. As a result, this use of the model undermines the development of the PSTs' communicative practice of ELT as intended by the *pedagogía en inglés* programme. Accordingly, the materials that the PSTs are able to design lack a communicative orientation and mainly promote the development of reading and listening. From an Activity Theory viewpoint, the secondary contradiction under discussion raises worrying issues about the use of 'the now orthodox' (McGrath, 2002:146) three stage model as a tool mediating the PSTs' learning of language teaching in the programme, particularly since it has been historically used to teach receptive skills in response to a Chilean curriculum that is no longer in force and which focused only on reading and listening. Ultimately, the model raises issues about the actual opportunities given to language learners to develop their communicative competence, reducing it to traditional grammar and vocabulary-oriented practice in the post reading/listening stage of the PSTs' materials. I expand on this in section 9.3.1.

9.2.3 Secondary contradiction 2: The textbook as the goal of instruction and the PSTs' agency

Another secondary contradiction shaping the learning of materials design lies between the textbook when used as the goal of teaching English and the PST's agency over pedagogical processes (see Figure 9.4 below). In Chapter 7, I mentioned that a number of reasons led the schoolteachers to use the official textbook as a syllabus design artefact or as the *de facto* curriculum, reflecting research in education in general (e.g. Collopy, 2003; Ball and Feiman-Nemser, 1988; Guerrettaz and Johnston, 2013) and ELT specifically (e.g. Richards, 2014; Harwood, 2017) about this use of the textbook. For example, ScT1's comments about her syllabus organisation as based on the textbook in the last two levels of secondary education, and Miguel's description of how his ScT divided the textbook by the total number of lessons he had in the year, give evidence to this use of the curricular material.

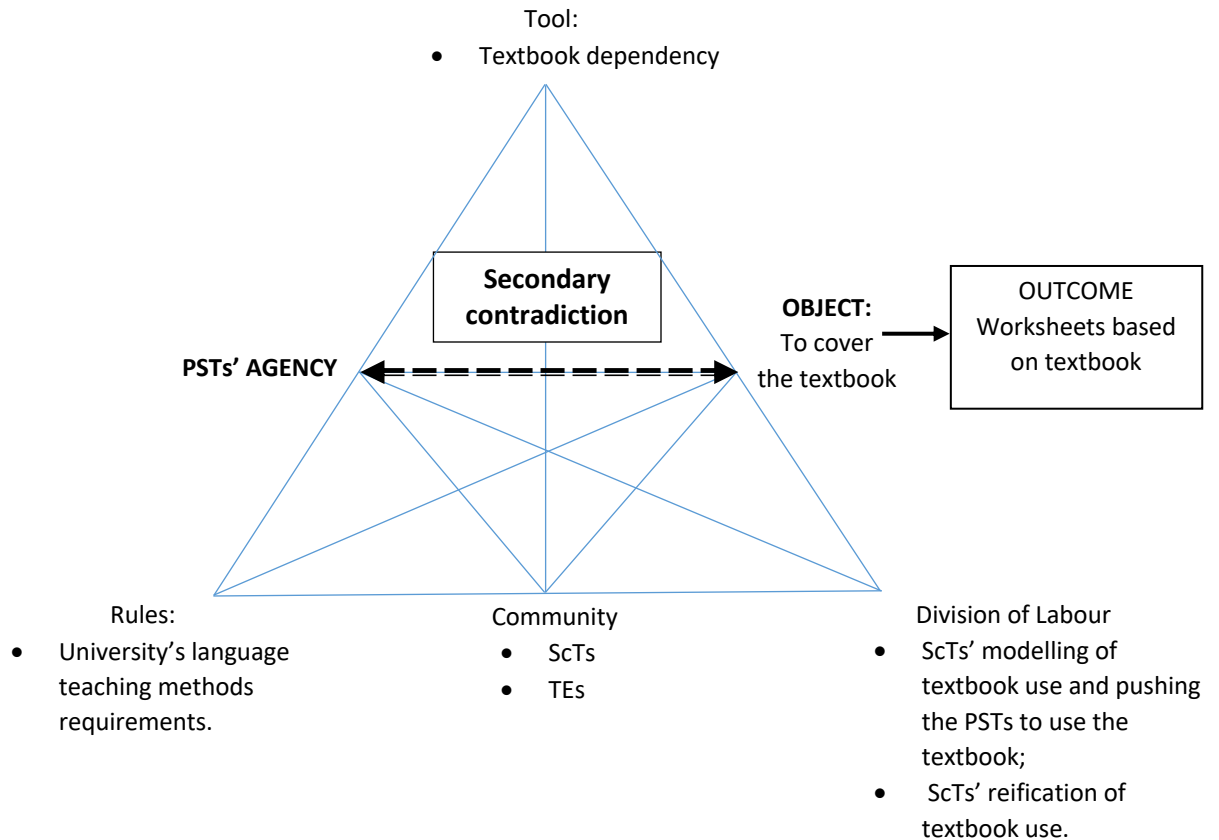


Figure 9. 4 Materials design activity system: Secondary contradiction between the textbook as the goal of instruction and the PSTs' agency as part of their division of labour.

From an Activity Theory viewpoint, this use of the coursebook means that the school textbook was not only a mediating tool for the teaching of English during the PSTs' *práctica* but also the motive/object of teaching English. This means that the actions that the PSTs took regarding their materials design were largely aimed at covering said material rather than promoting the actual learning of English by the pupils. As Wertsch (1985) writes, the motive of an activity determines the behaviours that are taken or left out by the subjects and members of the community of an activity system. Accordingly, the goal of covering the textbook determined many of the pedagogical processes that the PSTs embodied in their materials. More importantly, the transformation of the textbook from a tool to the motive of the activity inhibited the PSTs' use of their own pedagogical agency in the process of design. Consequently, the selection of content, its organisation, and the methods of

delivery were largely defined by the school material rather than by their own pedagogical choices.

The above means that the school textbook and PSTs' pedagogical agency were in constant tension with each other. Following the sociocultural nature of this study, I take the view that agency is socially-constructed and mediated by the relationships established between the PSTs and the members of their teaching and learning communities. Feryok (2012:97) writes that a view like this will have to necessarily recognise the 'affordances and constraints of a particular context'. As part of the context, the school artefacts, such as textbooks, also constrain the development of agency by the PSTs. This is supported by Lasky (2005:900) who sees agency as a triad of individual, tools, and social structures. Thus, adopting the textbook as the goal of instruction renders this artefact constraining and normative in nature, making it impose on my participants what they had to teach and how and consequently reducing their agency. Marcos and Valeria illustrated clearly the constraints posed by the textbook on their pedagogical agency. Their design of materials was to a large extent defined as having to comply with the textbooks used in their school. As discussed in Chapter 7, Marcos' inclusion of certain activities from the textbook in his material was mostly based on what the textbook determined for '*that day in that unit*' (Marcos, SRI1), and not by his own pedagogical rationales. This was reflected when he said: '*I didn't decide it*'. In this way Marcos compromised his pedagogical agency at the school, and, as Apple and Jungck (1990) observe, he lost sight of the pedagogical process entailed in designing materials and control over his own labour. In other words, he allowed the textbook to have greater power over planning and what would go on in his lesson.

However, in no participant is this secondary contradiction more evident than in Carlos' worksheet. It will be recalled that he lifted a whole lesson from the textbook in an attempt to match the contents and objectives of the syllabus incarnated in the textbook, even when he had the possibility of not using the textbook (as was suggested by his schoolteacher). This conflict between Carlos' pedagogical agency and the textbook meant that Carlos gave up the control over what he taught and how, and in so doing, he abandoned the possibility of exercising his PCK through designing materials for a specific group of learners. As a result of

abandoning the decision-making entailed in designing his own material, his teaching became following someone else's lead (Shannon, 1987).

To sum up, the secondary contradiction discussed in this section reveals that the development of agency during the PSTs' *práctica* can be seriously undermined by the use of the textbook as the motive of English instruction in schools. The premise behind this contradiction appears to be one where, as Apple (1981, cited in Ozga and Lawn, 1981:143) argues, the skills and knowledge that were once essential for the teaching of children, such as planning a curriculum and delivering it, or designing teaching and curricular tasks for specific groups based on a close understanding and knowledge of these groups, are not necessary anymore. The redundancy of certain skills and knowledge mentioned by Apple above, seem to be extendable to materials design due to the presence of the textbook. In light of this, the textbook emerges as a problematic contextual tool from a teacher education viewpoint in my study. It removed from the PSTs the possibility of making supervised and situated decisions about what to teach and how, which is essential to their teacher education and a situated practice of ELT. In fact, the current conceptualisation of language teaching as a situated practice responding to everyday settings and ecologies, Bouckaert (2018) argues, demands seeing teachers as decision-makers whose choices prevail over the textbook. However, as Kayi-Aysar (2014:95) writes, 'agency is [only] possible or achieved when individuals are assigned agentic positions'. These positions, however, appear to be disturbingly occupied by the school textbook, which makes the school lose value as a site of teacher learning in terms of developing materials.

9.2.4 Secondary contradiction 3: The object of teaching communicative English and the PSTs' beliefs about the thematic content of their material

The last secondary contradiction I discuss in this study involves the object of teaching English communicatively for the development of the learners' communicative competence – in which a focus on thematic notions and negotiation of meaning are considered essential (Richards, 2006b; Kramsch and Zhu, 2016) – and the PSTs'

beliefs about the role that thematic content has in their materials (see Figure 9.5 below).

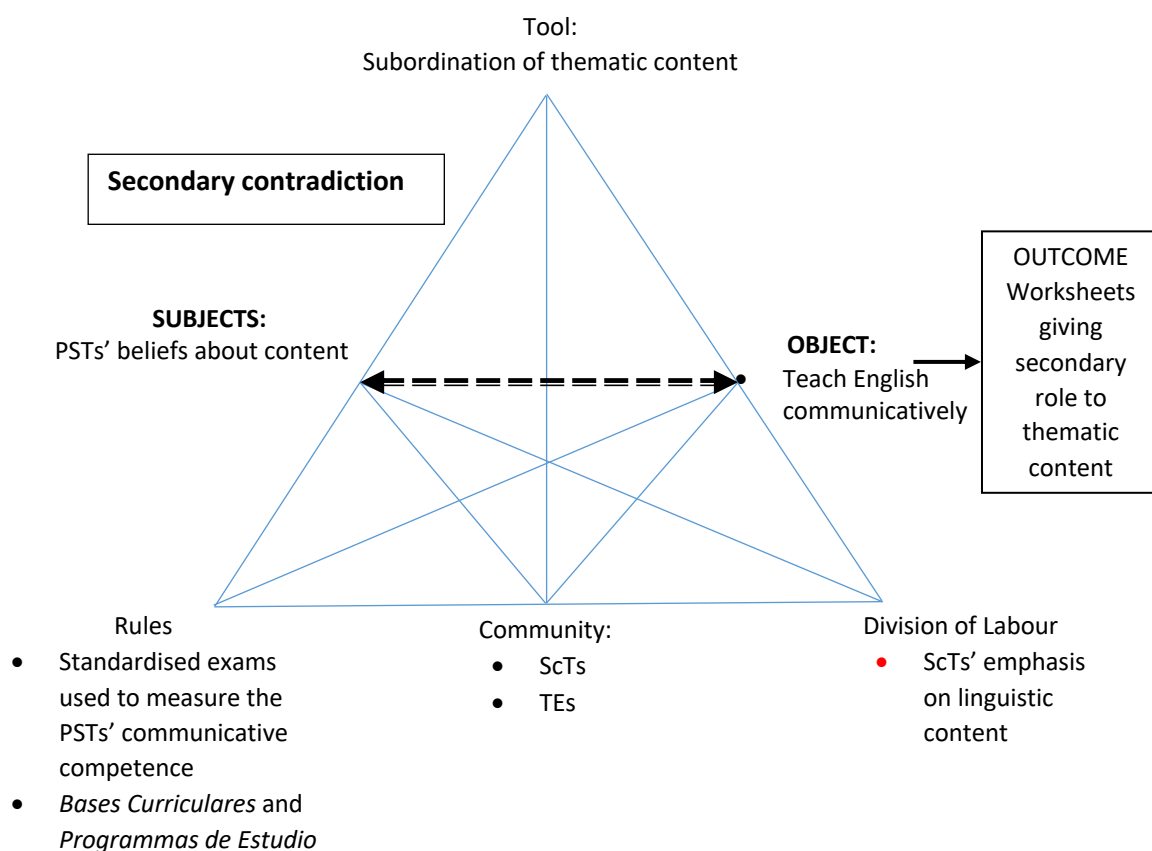


Figure 9.5 Materials design activity system: Secondary contradiction between the PSTs' beliefs and the goal of teaching English communicatively.

In Chapter 2, I mentioned that Mineduc (2014) renewed the Chilean ELT curriculum along the lines of communicative language teaching. Today, there is probably general consensus that CLT meant a remarkable contrast between traditional discrete grammar-centred language teaching and meaning-oriented ones (Savignon, 1987). As Richards (2002:153) argues, the advent of the communicative approach 'ostensibly saw the demise of grammar-based instruction' replacing grammatical syllabi with communicative ones, which is clearly the case of the Chilean curriculum as mentioned above. Accordingly, the *Bases Curriculares* and *Programas de Estudio* highlight that the overall purpose of ELT in Chile is the development of the learners' communicative competence, i.e. 'the ability to

negotiate meaning –to successfully combine a knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse rules in communicative interactions’ (Savignon, 1987:235; my emphasis), and overtly discourage the exclusive focus on linguistic content (see 8.2.1). The outlining of learning outcomes of the *Bases Curriculares* and the organisation of content of the *Programas de Estudio* reflect two of the curricular waves identified by Graves (2016) in line with CLT, namely, a communicative wave, and one contingent on specific contents, social practices (genre/text) and projects. It will be recalled that *Bases Curriculares* organise the learning outcomes of the Chilean curriculum according to the skills of speaking, reading, listening and writing, which mesh well Graves’ (2016) conceptualisation of a communicative curricular wave as organising language according communicative skills. This is further seen in the *Programas de Estudio* and their emphasis on the learners’ development of specific communicative functions.

The Chilean curriculum also reflects the communicative curricular wave identified by Graves (2016) that places emphasis on thematic notions, social practices and projects. This is best reflected in the suggestion of specific language teaching methods, such as Content-Based Instruction (CBI) or broader methodological suggestions such as the use of projects and connecting the subject of English with other school subjects. While it is beyond the scope of this thesis to give a detailed account of CBI, Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989, cited in Cenoz, 2015:10) define it as ‘the concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content material’. This incarnation of CLT is expected to be used by Chilean teachers under the premise that communication is more meaningful when messages and information are relevant, interesting and motivating (Mineduc, 2016b). For Richards (2006b:27), advocates of CBI, as is the case of Mineduc (2012b, 2016b), believe that ‘the best way to achieve communicative competence is using content’. Whilst CBI is normally associated with Canadian immersion programmes (Cenoz, 2015), the Chilean policy clearly sees in using thematic contents which are relevant to the learners and related to other school subjects the potential to hone language learning (Mineduc, 2012b). The potential of thematic content to promote language learning has in fact been suggested by materials development scholars. For example, Tomlinson (1998b)

argues that as one of the principles of materials development, 'materials should maximise learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement', which can be achieved by including 'content that is not trivial or banal and that stimulates thoughts and feelings in learners' (Tomlinson, 1998:21).

However, in spite of the recognition in the national curriculum and ELT and materials literature that thematic content is essential for the development of the communicative competence, the PSTs' beliefs highlight the overwhelmingly subordinated role they give to thematic notions to prioritise the teaching of discrete language forms in the PSTs' materials. As I mentioned in Chapter 3, in teacher education it is now widely accepted that beliefs play a pivotal role in the instructional choices that (preservice) teachers make (e.g. Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2003a, 2003b, 2006; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012). In this regard, as Berry (2004:1302) notes, 'student teachers commonly enter their teacher education with a view of teaching as simple and transmissive' resulting from their many years of 'uncritical observation of their teachers at work'. Berry's formulation significantly overlaps with my findings, and with a growing body of research (see below) about English language (preservice) teachers' beliefs in Chile.

Views about the subjugated role of thematic content in ELT can be broadly classified as traditional forms of language teaching. Research in Chile has previously documented this issue. For example, in a study of the beliefs held by PSTs in their first and final year of a five-year *pedagogía en inglés* programme as well as schoolteachers of English, Blázquez and Tagle (2010) found that, by and large, the participants held traditional and structural beliefs of language teaching with regards to knowledge development, learning activities and language assessment. The authors noted that the first-year PSTs and their school mentors strongly emphasised the development of linguistic knowledge through their language teaching processes as opposed to other forms of knowledge such as sociocultural, textual, or of the communicative context (inter alia). More recently, using PSTs' metaphors, Alarcón *et al.* (2015) documented that a group of PSTs in their first year of another five-year teacher education course held traditional beliefs about ELT, deeming the role of the teacher as a knowledge-transmitter. In a similar study, Alarcón *et al.* (2014) had already noticed that the views the PSTs held of themselves as knowledge

transmitters were deeply rooted in a language teaching paradigm in which modelling and fixing language patterns defined their roles as teachers. The authors of these two studies explain that one of the reasons for the development of these beliefs could be the models of language teaching that the participants had in their schooling, an issue explained by Lortie's (1975) concept of 'apprenticeship of observation', and discussed extensively in the development of English language teachers' beliefs scholarship (e.g. Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Borg, 2003a, 2003b; Johnson, 2009; Blázquez and Tagle, 2010; Barahona, 2016; Archanjo, Barahona and Finardy, 2019).

In light of the above, it is hardly surprising that, for example, Gabriel's comments that '*topics like travelling, holidays, or work*' are ultimately used as a medium for the development of '*vocabulary associated with jobs, structures associated with jobs*' (see 8.2.2; Gabriel, Interview 1). Emilia's design of a worksheet where the selection of an audio was based on its grammatical features rather than its topic is not surprising either: '*I thought of including a listening where the person also spoke in present perfect*' (Emilia, SRI2). Student 1's comment that his design of PPTs was based on '*el contenido*' (the content), by which he meant grammar, also reflected the scant role of thematic notions in the materials design processes the PSTs carry out.

In sum, the contradiction between the place given to thematic content within a communicative paradigm of language teaching – part of the motive of learning English in Chile – and the beliefs held by the PSTs about the role of such content in their materials confirm previous discussions about the challenges that implementing CLT faces in various contexts. This does not mean that my participants did not use thematic notions in their materials. As shown in the evidence, they framed their materials within certain topics, such as those broadly suggested 8.2.3. However, they did not include these topics in their materials in order to improve the learners' ability to communicate in English; they instead subordinated their communicative value to traditional forms of discrete language teaching. I elaborate on this in 9.3.4.

9.3 What conceptual tools mediate the PSTs designing of materials?

As discussed in Chapter 3, tools are key in sociocultural theory of learning (e.g. Vygotsky, 1978; Engeström, 1987; Cole, 1999; Johnson, 2006, 2009; Engeström and Sannino, 2011, 2012). For Vygotsky (1978), the relevance of tools not only lies in how they define the way in which individuals interact with their environment, but also in the effect they have on human thinking. In fact, Ellis *et al.* (2010) argue that the development of the human mind can be scrutinised by looking at tools and how they mediate actions. Paying heed to Ellis *et al.* (2010), in this section I discuss the tools used by the PSTs during their design of materials to construe the unobservable aspects of this process.

Before going any further, we need to recall that two types of tools are outlined in sociocultural theory, namely physical and psychological tools. For Wertsch (1985), physical tools are those used to act upon the exterior world, and play a key role in transforming the relationship between individuals and their environment (e.g. a saw, fishing hook, an umbrella, etc.). Psychological tools, on the other hand, are internally oriented and influence one's behaviour and the mastery of our actions (e.g. a textbook, a theory, a symbol) (Vygotsky, 1997). It will be recalled that in this study I pay attention to psychological tools under the more pedagogical nomenclature provided by Grossman, Smagorinsky and Valencia (1999:14) of *conceptual tools*, which they define as 'principles, frameworks, and ideas about teaching, learning' used by teachers as heuristics guiding their pedagogical decision-making. It will be recalled that I extended this definition to pedagogical notions not necessarily taught in teacher education programmes but nonetheless tacitly learnt by preservice teachers in the contexts where they learnt to teach.

Thus, in this study four main conceptual tools mediating the activity of materials design by the PSTs came to the fore, namely, *the receptive turn*, *dumbing down*, *textbook dependency*, and *the subordination of the thematic content*. Figure 9.6 below shows Engeström's (1987) activity system model and the four conceptual tools together with the network of mediating elements in the activity of materials design. Below I discuss each of these tools.

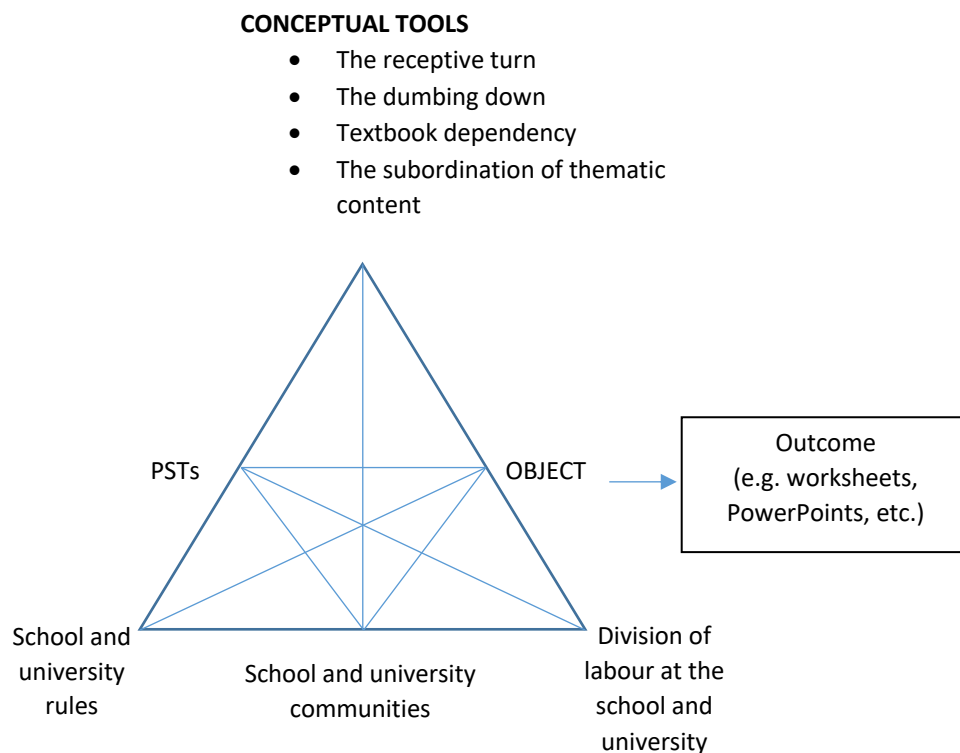


Figure 9.6 Conceptual tools mediating the activity of materials design

9.3.1 Conceptual tool 1: The Receptive Turn

As mentioned in Chapter 5, 14 of 15 pieces of material shared with me by the PSTs placed greater emphasis on the development of the receptive skills of reading and listening than on language production, notably reducing writing and speaking to the creation of sentences aimed at practicing specific grammatical features. This happened with the backdrop of the secondary contradiction between the university's goal of training ELT professionals and the lesson plan model taught to the students at the university (see 8.2.2.1). I call this conceptual tool *the receptive turn*.

This receptive turn resonates with recent discussions about materials. Mishan and Timmis (2015:121), for example, have written that 'the treatment of the speaking skill in ELT materials has remained curiously ill-defined and unsystematic' and that only relatively recently has writing been treated in materials as a skill in its own right. This phenomenon can be attributed to the overall delayed emergence of the productive skills as recognised branches of teaching, learning and assessment in

ELT (Bygate, 2001; Reid, 2001). Timmis (2016) finds that the unsystematic approach to teaching productive skills is curiously problematic as there seems to be agreement of the centrality of productive skill development within communicative methodologies (e.g. Canale and Swain, 1981; Canale, 1983; Savignon, 2007; Thornbury, 2016).

In Chapter 5, I showed that this emphasis on the receptive skills appears to take the form of reading and listening worksheets based on the pre-while-post lesson plan model given to the PSTs by TE4. Even though Williams (1984) argues that this structure should involve language work to facilitate comprehension and language production in the form of a response to the content of what has been read (a focus given to listening too by Axbey, 1989 cited in McGrath, 2002), the PSTs' worksheets were largely aimed at developing a general or global understanding of texts as well as of smaller units such as paragraphs, sentences and words, again materialising the receptive turn. What also gives cause for concern is that most of the activities deployed by the PSTs, as shown in Chapter 5, reflect formulaic tasks typically used to develop comprehension such as the classic repertoires of 'wh- and how + quantifier questions' (Mishan and Timmis, 2015:108), what Day and Park (2005) refer to as literal comprehension questions (see also Freeman, 2014). For Mishan and Timmis (2015) this is an issue emerging from teacher education. They argue that these comprehension check models are usually taught in teacher education programmes as a way for teacher candidates to have their learners understand texts, but also as a way to promote classroom management by teacher candidates. This suggests that the receptive turn is part of the socio-historically rooted practices that *pedagogía en inglés* programme offers to the PSTs as part of the teacher education course. I explore this more in depth in section 9.4.2.

To sum up, the receptive turn mediated the design of most of the materials collected in my study. Largely based on the pre-while-post lesson plan model, given the long-standing use of this tool to teach ELT by the programme, it could be said that the receptive turn is historically and culturally embedded in the community under research. In light of this, this conceptual tool emerges as a normative way of thinking and acting by the PSTs, which, I would argue, significantly determines the number of opportunities that they are likely to give to their language learners to

hone their abilities to express in the foreign language. What is more, as suggested by Mishan and Timmis (2015), the receptive turn seems to be an issue not only affecting the PSTs of this study, but the broader ELT materials development community.

9.3.2 Conceptual tool 2: Dumbing Down

The dumbing down of materials was an overwhelmingly-highlighted conceptual tool in my study. As I showed in Chapter 6, the PSTs demonstrated a strong inclination to deliberately reduce the cognitive demands posed on their learners, using this conceptual tool as a heuristic for the development of materials (see Grossman *et al.*, 1999). In light of Tomlinson's (2011:21) assertion that 'materials should maximize learning potential by encouraging *intellectual*, aesthetic and emotional involvement' (my emphasis), this emerges as an extremely worrying conceptual tool.

Although there is little literature about this issue – and this tends to focus on published textbooks (e.g. Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013; Santos, 2013; Andon and Wingate, 2013; Mishan and Timmis, 2015) – my findings support the existing evidence from previous studies that language teachers can indeed reduce the cognitive demands posed on their learners when devising or adapting tasks (e.g., de Araujo, 2012; Pettit, 2011; Lux and Wochele, 2013). In a qualitative study about how three Maths teachers in the US adapted materials for their English language learners, de Araujo (2012) found that the teachers' modifications of the tasks' content and instructional formats (e.g. arrangement of students such as group work, or time allowed) frequently resulted in lowering the cognitive demand posed on the learners. In fact, in common with my own findings (see 6.2.2), de Araujo's (2012) study reveals that the three teachers' diminishing of intellectual demand was underpinned by concerns about the pupils' cognitive and dispositional characteristics.

As discussed in Chapter 3, it is concurrently well-established that the beliefs of teachers and preservice teachers have an extremely influential role in the instructional choices they make in the classroom (Richardson, 1996, 2003; Borg, 2003a, 2003b, 2006, 2011; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012; Basturkmen 2012; Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2017). Thus, the disparaging beliefs the PSTs had about their pupils can

be said to have played a pivotal role in the PSTs' designing of materials. In fact, almost three decades ago, Pajares (1992) argued that student teachers are likely to develop disparaging views about their learners' capabilities on the assumption, for example, that they are lazy. Whilst Pajares (1992) did not document how this belief is embodied in instructional materials, my study shows that this conceptualisation about the learners, amongst others, acted as a trigger to dumb down the materials in a twofold manner: a simplification of the material and its tasks and a reduction of the language production elicited from the learners.

Simplification appears to be the by-product of an affective concern for the learners in the materials literature, i.e. to provide a comfortable instructional environment without necessarily facilitating academic development (see Sharkey and Layzer, 2000). Tomlinson (1998b:10) writes that 'materials should help learners develop confidence'. Whilst this does not strictly refer to the learners' intellectual abilities and dispositions, Tomlinson laments that the SLA suggestion that 'relaxed and self-confident learners learn faster' (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982, quoted in Tomlinson, 1998b:10) has been interpreted by materials developers as a simplification of the materials, asking learners to use simple language and to accomplish easy tasks such as 'completing substitution tables, writing simple sentences and filling in the blanks in dialogues' (Tomlinson, 1998b:11). Tomlinson's (1998) lament was epitomised by Miguel, Emilia and Fernanda, who simplified their material through the inclusion of items such as multiple choice and the use of questions eliciting short answers as comprehension activities to reading passages, usually in order to prevent the learners from getting tired or overwhelmed. The tasks and activities used by the PSTs of my study would fall in the lowest classification of Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive skills (see Mishan and Timmis, 2015), as the learners were mainly asked to recall data or information from inputs at the surface level. This contrasts markedly with Tomlinson's claims that, in order to engage the learners cognitively, materials should have activities that are not simple and cannot be done too easily (Tomlinson, 1998), thus higher in Bloom's taxonomy (as pointed out by Mishan and Timmis, 2015). Other activities that Tomlinson (1998) sees as having little cognitive processing and short-term learning effect are mechanical drills, rule

learning, and simple transformation activities within content that is trivial or banal, which overwhelmingly populated my PSTs' materials.

All the activities cited above have in common a lack of language production, which is the second form of dumbing down seen in my study. In this regard, Tomlinson (2010:82) criticises the materials writers' belief that a 'clear presentation and active, relevant practice are sufficient to lead to acquisition' treating language learning beginners as 'intellectually low level learners' (Tomlinson, 2008b:8). Tomlinson's comments match the findings that I presented in Chapter 6, about how the PSTs reduced considerably the amount of language that they asked of their learners, based on deficit beliefs about them. Examples of this were Emilia asking her learners to complete sentences; Miguel's writing of a four-sentence dialogue in pairs; and Fernanda asking her learners to write four sentences – and even saying during SRI1 that it was ok if the learners wrote only two. Again, these decisions were all justified with disparaging opinions about the learners' capacities and dispositions to produce language. In reducing the amount of production, it may be the case that the PSTs, as Tomlinson (2008b, 2010, 2011) observes, wanted to give the learners (and probably the ScTs and TEs) the illusion that they had completed the materials, and had thus achieved language learning.

In sum, dumbing down was an extremely frequently used tool mediating the materials written by the PSTs. It emerged as a natural way of coping with the difficulties perceived by the PSTs to teach their learners, such as the apparent lack of cognitive skills and appropriate dispositions required for language learning. This finding is extremely important as it unveils the detrimental and far-reaching effect of some of the beliefs developed by the PSTs during their teacher education about the learners' cognitive and affective development.

9.3.3 Conceptual tool 3: Textbook Dependency

Some PSTs depended on the school textbook as a source of inputs and tasks rather than engaging in the many pedagogical decision-making processes encompassed in designing materials. This finding reflects Horsley's (2007:256) assertion that studies on teacher education in general reveal that 'between 75% and 85% of student teachers use textbooks to develop units of work and plan lessons'.

Textbook dependency as a conceptual tool was used in different degrees and in different ways. The examples I presented in Chapter 7 by Marcos, Valeria and Carlos, showed varying degrees of dependency, manifested in borrowings from the school textbook ranging from isolated inputs and tasks to whole lessons. These degrees of dependency, I would argue, led the involved participants to adhere systematically and at times almost exclusively to the scope and structure of the curricular material. This issue is extremely problematic in light of previous research on textbook use. For example, Shawer (2010) writes that high degrees of dependency can be associated with an overall impoverished language teaching pedagogy, which is best illustrated in Carlos' copy and paste of a whole lesson onto a worksheet. His case is interesting because even though he was not apparently encouraged by his schoolteacher to depend on the textbook (unlike Marcos who was overtly pushed by his schoolteacher to do this), he abandoned his materials design almost entirely. Hutchinson (1996:347), in her study of textbook use in the Philippines, showed that when teachers lack experience 'they are likely to depend on the textbook', which may well explain, for example, Carlos' high degree of dependency on the coursebook used in his school.

A different type of dependency was illustrated by Fernanda, who relied on the textbook to articulate the language teaching methods and language characteristics that she wanted to use in her materials. McGrath (2013) argues that inexperienced teachers, such as Fernanda, can find linguistic and methodological support in textbooks. Hutchinson (1996) explains this from the point of view of lesson planning, arguing that the teachers use the textbook as a source of content and management. However, although Fernanda's use of the textbook would not seem to be a problematic case of textbook dependency (as she only appears to see the textbook as a resource of methodological support for materials design), I would argue that it is intrinsically problematic that the language teaching approaches shaping her materials come directly from the textbook as opposed to her own teacher education or the recommendations of her supervisor or mentoring teacher, especially since she was in the fifth year of her English teacher education programme (like her fellow PSTs). This subtle form of dependency affecting the teaching methods of her materials is aggravated if we recall that one of the critiques against

coursebooks is that they can be methodologically flawed (e.g. Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013; Gray, 2016), a critique that I believe to be equally extendable to the textbooks produced by Mineduc. This is not to say that Fernanda's decision was wrong, (after all, her use of the textbook reveals a resourceful attempt to pay heed to the levels her pupils would be at, and a smart use of the material; see 7.4.1), but to highlight the tension emerging from how the textbook appears to displace the mediating roles of relevant members of the school and university communities in her pedagogical decision-making processes, such as schoolteachers and supervisors, an issue affecting other PSTs as well, especially those with a high degree of dependency such as Carlos, Marcos and Valeria.

On the whole, from a sociocultural viewpoint, both cases of textbook dependency raise important concerns. As I have mentioned earlier, for Vygotsky (1978), conceptual tools have an important role in shaping the way in which individuals think. Thus, as Macgilchrist (2018:169) writes, textbook dependency can 'normalise ways of knowing, ways of being and ways of understanding [present in textbooks] as common sense/and or as desirable' (Macgilchrist, 2018:169) – which are often disassociated from those ways of knowing, being, and understanding that are experienced and practiced by the specific communities where these materials are used.

Furthermore, the development of textbook dependency raises important issues about the role of the coursebooks in teacher education. With most ELT classrooms featuring some kind of textbook (see Richards, 2014), as Hutchinson (1996) writes, it is important that student-teachers are prepared for a textbook-based reality where they can adapt and supplement these materials. In doing this, courses such as the *pedagogía en inglés* programme under study can prevent PSTs from becoming dependent on materials external to the realities where they teach. In this way, PSTs such as Carlos can transform into concrete artefacts their theories and beliefs about language teaching, and reflect on the suitability of their materials for their teaching contexts in lines like the reflective model of teacher education. As argued by Bouckaert (2018), the new conceptualisations and roles of teachers in ELT depart from pre-packaged methods typical of coursebooks, and require that teachers are responsive to specific teaching settings. Views of teachers like this

strongly question the role of coursebooks as artefacts which perpetuate content and practices that are disassociated from specific realities. These views further require seeing teachers as more advanced professionals who are indeed able to select, adapt and design their own materials, instead of only depend on textbooks.

9.3.4 Conceptual tool 4: The Subordination of Thematic Content

Contrary to Richards' (2006b:23) assertion that CLT activities typically 'make use of *content* that connects to students' lives and interests' (my emphasis), the thematic content of the PSTs' materials, such as culture and celebrities, amongst others, was to a large extent subordinated to the pupils' learning of some – apparently more important – linguistic content, predominantly grammar. Examples of this were Carlos' essentialising text about China, or his description of the use of a motivational video trivialising female genital mutilation, and Miguel's comments that a text about '*something weird*' from a remote country would motivate the learners. Another example was the use of celebrities by Francisco, based on the idea that texts about these individuals were written in simple language, or Valeria's use of celebrities on the basis that the language used in texts about them contained the grammar she would teach in her lessons.

What these topics have in common in my study is that the PSTs did not exploit them for communication, but instead they were only used to have the pupils learn the linguistic features of the texts. This issue is hardly surprising in light of the language materials literature. Two decades ago, in reference to the ELT coursebook, Thornbury (1999) argued that the topics and texts contained in textbooks were rarely tapped for their communicative potential and were used by the textbook writers only as means for the presentation and practice of discrete language forms. In light of Richards' (2006b:25) formulation that a focus on meaning should be 'the driving force of learning', the use of the conceptual tool of the subordination of thematic content by the PSTs as a heuristic to design their materials emerges as particularly problematic.

Instead of calling this conceptual tool 'the prioritisation of grammar', I am referring to it as the subordination of the thematic content as I do not see the teaching of grammar as intrinsically problematic, given its role in an individual's

communicative competence (see Canale and Swain, 1981; Canale 1983). However, I would argue that an almost exclusive focus on grammar – as was the case in most of the PSTs’ materials – becomes a problem when it is carried out at the expense of the thematic content and meanings conveyed in texts. In doing this, the PSTs sometimes constructed problematic representations of the world (e.g. essentialist cultural representations, stereotyping content, etc.), which was offered to the learners as true meanings mirroring reality in light of the tasks used to develop only literal comprehension about the texts (see Hall, 1997). Some of these representations were in fact sometimes even more problematic than those typically criticised in published materials (for example, Francisco’s self-written text about a window cleaner whose extremely low wage and precarious working conditions did not give sufficient cause for him to complain about his job – see Appendix 4.1).

Thus, despite being two decades old, Thornbury’s (1999) claim that there was an obsessive concern for form in materials does not sound like something of the past. In fact, a body of recent theoretical and empirical literature suggests this remains very much present in ELT materials production (e.g. Ur, 2011; Thornbury, 2016) and teacher education (e.g. Blásquez and Tagle, 2010; Seferaj, 2014; Humphries, 2014; Maizatulliza and Kiely, 2018; Abraham and Silva, 2017). In reference to the latter, Seferaj (2014) documented the use of a textbook with CLT features by an Albanian teacher, and how her adaptation of it and supplementary materials resulted in traditional whole-class, teacher-led and accuracy-focused activities, undermining the focus on meaning. Likewise, Maizatulliza and Kiely (2018) have recently documented how three teachers in Malaysia, while working on communicative tasks with the learners, placed greater attention on grammar issues when interacting with them at the expense of the topics about which the learners were working. As for the Chilean context, Blásquez and Tagle (2010) have argued that much of the ELT going on in schools where PSTs do their *práctica* is in line with traditional grammar-oriented methods (see Chapter 2).

In sum, the subordination of thematic content was another widely-used conceptual tool mediating the PSTs’ design of materials. Whilst this finding reflects persisting discussions in materials development and teacher education regarding the enduring centrality of grammar in the practice of ELT, it furthered the idea that PSTs

seem to give only scant attention to the topics of their own materials due to prioritising the teaching of discrete language points of their teaching agenda. As a result, the subordination of thematic content raises worrying issues about the entrenched representational repertoires that are 'Trojan-horsed' through the materials into the EFL classrooms due to the PSTs' almost exclusive concern with language features.

If teacher-made materials are the alternative to the pervasive presence of textbooks, which have been described as both lacking 'intelligent adult content' (e.g. Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013:233) and educational potential (e.g. Gray and Block, 2014), then there emerges the question of whether or not these alternative teacher-made materials are actually more educational than the published ones in terms of their thematic content and its treatment. In this regard, it is important to bring this issue back to teacher education again and ask the question of what is understood by *content* in courses such as the *pedagogía en inglés* programme. In light of the evidence presented in Chapter 8, it would be safe to say that content remains very much construed as a linguistic category in the teacher education of the PSTs. This was clearly evident in the ScTs' views of content as well as in the washback of the standardised tests used by the TEs to measure the PSTs' English, in spite of the institutional efforts of the *pedagogía en inglés* programme to move to a communicative practice of ELT, where content – as a thematic category – should have an essential place.

9.4 What contextual elements of the school and university mediate the development of conceptual tools used by the PSTs to design materials, and how?

Based on sociocultural theoretical and empirical discussions (e.g. Johnson, 2006, 2009, Yamagata-Lynch, 2010; Borg, 2003a; Richards, 2008; Engin, 2014), in Chapter 3 I argued that the learning of materials design is spread across two settings, namely the school and university. Both settings exerted an important influence in the development of the conceptual tools displayed by the PSTs during their designing of materials.

I organise this section by first discussing the school elements that critically shaped the adoption of the conceptual tools discussed in the previous section, by and large, the schoolteachers through their division of labour as models of language teaching and mentors of learners of language teaching. I then discuss the university, whose regulations and tools emerged as most influential in the development of some of the conceptual tools discussed in section 9.3.

9.4.1 The school

9.4.1.1 *The schoolteachers' division of labour: from models of teaching to training PSTs.*

The school setting has been long recognised as a place where prospective teachers develop views about how to teach. More than three decades ago Calderhead (1988) argued that the practicum experience has an impactful role in the development of PSTs' conceptions about the nature of teaching and learning, and that the roles of mentoring teachers were pivotal in this process. In line with this, more recently Farrell (2008b) has argued that mentor teachers are seen as the most influential agents in a teacher's learning of teaching during their practicum. With no previous studies exploring the process of learning to design materials by PSTs that I am aware of, my research is not only testament to Calderhead and Farrell's claims, but also contributes to highlighting the extremely important role that the schoolteachers have in the development of conceptual tools mediating the PSTs' designing of materials.

From an Activity Theory point of view, the schoolteachers' division of labour, which, it will be recalled, Yamagata-Lynch (2010) defines as the distribution of responsibilities and tasks within the community of an activity, was spread between two different yet interrelated roles, namely, as models of ELT and teacher educators. Whilst the *pedagogía en inglés* programme was not organised in what Wallace (1991) calls a 'craft model' of teacher education, whereby student teachers are expected to replicate their teacher mentors' models of teaching (Wallace, 1991), but in a reflective one, where they construct practical knowledge from a symbiotic cycle of practice and reflection (Pachler and Paran, 2013; see Chapter 3), the

schoolteachers inevitably provided educational models which they further expected the PSTs to imitate in their teaching and designing of materials. Although some of these models were not about designing materials as such, they were nonetheless influential in how the PSTs related to materials. A good example of this was provided by Miguel who said that during his current *práctica*, most of the lessons taught by his schoolteacher consisted of the teacher handing out a worksheet, with the learners waiting to be taught content. From these observations of his Sct's practice of ELT, he developed a concept of the learners as passive and as '*not used to questioning what they are taught*' (Miguel, SRI1), which contributed to his emergence of dumbing down.

Fairbanks, Freedman, and Kahn (2000) argue that, in observing models of teaching, the student-teachers have access to their mentors' craft knowledge, i.e. the knowledge gained with experience of teaching, which they adopt as their own (in this case knowledge used in materials use) possibly because they see it as a source of 'principled professional knowledge' to be emulated (Fairbanks *et al.*, 2000:107). Thus, it is not surprising that the PSTs adopted the conceptual tools of dumbing down, the receptive turn, textbook dependency and subordination of thematic content which they were exposed to during their *práctica*. Richards (2008:165-166) further explains this phenomenon saying that teacher learning is 'contingent upon relationships with mentors' by virtue of their roles as 'instructional models as sources of guidance'.

Further research has documented that student teachers adjust to their mentor teachers' models of teaching. In a study conducted in the US, Valencia, Martin, Place and Grossman (2009) noted that mentor teachers believed that their mentees learnt to teach through mimicking their practice, thus expecting the student teachers to follow their teaching to the letter, which the mentees had no choice but to imitate. This is also an issue recently documented in Chile by Salinas and Ayala (2018), who discuss how PSTs tend to adjust to their mentor teachers' models of teaching. Thus, Miguel's description of his schoolteacher's division of the textbook by the number of lessons he had in the year was particularly interesting as a model of using the textbook as a syllabus design artefact, especially in light of Miguel's empathy with this procedure shown in his phrase '*as a teacher, you have to*

make that type of decisions' (Miguel, Interview 1). From a sociocultural view, these models are 'normative ways of thinking, talking and acting' which are historically embedded in school communities (Johnson, 2009:17). In light of this, it is safe to say that my participants had no choice but to follow these models (see Tsui, 2003 on how novice teachers enter the profession of language teaching).

This takes us to the second form of division of labour taken up by the schoolteachers. In addition to the issue of tacit models discussed above, some of the participating ScTs explicitly persuaded the PSTs to assume the ScTs' ways of teaching, thus embracing an active role as teacher educators. This can be in part explained by Grossman *et al.* (1999) who argue that all participants in teacher education, including the schoolteachers, hold beliefs about how student-teachers learn to teach. For example, ScT1's comments that Francisco's worksheets evolved from being '*too complicated*' (ScT1) to being more in tune with the learners' capacities through the experiences she provided him with at the school, such as designing tests and activities, evidence Francisco's development of the conceptual tool of dumbing down. This further reflects how the schoolteachers adopted of the role of teacher educators in the school setting, thus embracing the university's motive of training teachers in issues concomitant with materials design. Thus, the teacher education beliefs held by the ScTs about how teachers learn, together with their power to make the PSTs gravitate towards their educational ethos (see Valencia *et al.*, 2009), can be said to have had a pivotal role in the PSTs' adoption of the conceptual tools discussed in 9.3.

Whilst the ScTs had an effect on the development of all the conceptual tools discussed in the previous section, the development of textbook dependency again exemplifies the ScTs' pivotal influence on the PSTs. Marcos' description of being asked by his ScT to use activities from the textbook to 'cover' the grammatical contents of the curricular material, or Fernanda being asked by ScT4 to use the textbook more after initially designing her own worksheets, reflect Arnold's (2006) findings that schoolteachers prioritise the student-teachers' coverage of the textbook as part of their roles as mentors. Similarly, the emergence of the receptive turn was closely associated with the schoolteachers actively discouraging some PSTs from implementing writing or speaking activities due to practical constraints such as

lack of time for writing or the expected emergence of discipline problems when teaching speaking. Illustrative of this was Student 1's recall of how his ScT told him that the learners did not speak during activities involving oral production. This, once again, reflected the schoolteachers' crucial role in the student-teacher's socialisation into the profession (Velez-Rendon, 2006).

To sum up, the above raises three issues. Firstly, above all, my study highlights that the ScTs were strikingly influential in the development of the conceptual tools identified in this research, which supports the literature about their pivotal role in the enculturation of preservice teachers into the teaching profession (e.g. Calderhead, 1988; Farrell, 2008b). The second issue is that the schoolteachers' division of labour emerges as a hybrid element in the activity system of materials design. In other words, while performing their roles of EFL teachers, the ScTs not only act as models of language teaching but also as teacher educators who impose their own language pedagogies on the PSTs. This, for me, further raises the question of what roles the ScTs are expected to embrace at the school and what knowledge and skills are required from them to perform these roles. In relation to this, the last issue is in fact the question of what models of teaching the PSTs are being socialised into through their interactions with the ScTs during their *práctica*. This calls for special attention in light of the type of conceptual tools that I have discussed in this chapter, where for example, the schoolteachers contributed to the development of disparaging beliefs about the learners by the PSTs, resulting in a considerable reduction of the cognitive challenges posed to their learners through the PSTs' materials; or pushed the PSTs to over-rely on the school textbook which compromised their pedagogical agency.

9.4.2 The university

9.4.2.1 *The rules of pedagogía en inglés: the lesson plan model*

As Johnson (2006:237) writes, 'social activities are regulated by normative ways of reasoning'. In Activity Theory parlance this is broadly equated to the rules of the activity system, which are established as the formal and informal procedures affecting in varying degrees how an activity takes place (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). A

number of explicit and tacit regulations shaping the ways in which the PSTs carried out their design of materials emerged in the university setting. As I will discuss below, this was particularly evident in the development of the conceptual tool of the receptive turn.

As shown in Chapter 5, the receptive turn was severely aggravated when the lesson plan model described in 9.2.2.1 no longer had a mediating role in the development of lessons and materials, typical of the tools of an activity system (see Engeström, 1987), but was vested with a normative character through its transformation into one of the rules of the *práctica*. In fact, it was the only lesson plan model the PSTs had to comply with to organise their teaching and materials; therefore, its presence was notably marked in the PSTs' worksheets. We need to recall, for example, Miguel's strict adherence to the model and his perception that if the lesson plan had '*A, B, C, and D, your material should have A, B, C and D*' and that one should '*not dare to add an E*' (Miguel, Interview 1), again highlighting the normative status of the model. Emilia is also an illustrative case. Her comments that the while-reading part of her material was '*just to comply*' and that she in fact believed that '*the most significant part*' of her material was in the post-reading where she could have had the learners producing language (Emilia, SRI2), reflect that framing her materials within the structure of the lesson plan model was determined by its normative status rather than her own stated pedagogical belief.

Some sociocultural studies have highlighted the issues emerging from the regulations established for the school placements of student-teachers. Valencia *et al.* (2009) in the US documented that student-teachers are sent to the schools with a dual goal, that is, to get acquainted with the school system and to try the concepts and strategies they learn as part of the teacher education. Given the conspicuous role of the lesson plan model as *the* pedagogical formula to be tried in the schools, it is not surprising that the PSTs adopted a 'survival' mode and put most of their efforts into applying this model on their materials, which was part of the regulations that would allow them to pass the course (Valencia *et al.*, 2009:305, Barahona, 2017). In fact, Barahona (2017) recently found that the main motivation for a group of four Chilean preservice teachers during their practicum was to meet the university assessment criteria, which they further saw as a source of constraints for their

development of a sense of freedom and ownership to teach, in a similar way as Emilia above.

Thus, the normative role given to the pre-while-post lesson plan model by the programme had a pivotal role in the degree to which the receptive turn was appropriated as a conceptual tool by the PSTs' in their designing of materials. It is particularly interesting that this was the only regulation of both university and school settings directly affecting their design of materials, which the PSTs explicitly mentioned as a regulation of their practicum. What is more, it was the only lesson plan model suggested in the practicum handbook given to the PSTs. An important issue emerges from this. If this is the only lesson model taught to the PSTs, designing materials may risk becoming an activity formed of a set of actions which, Dewey (1933:17 quoted in Akbari, 2007:196) would argue, are 'merely repetitive, blind, and impulsive', an issue indeed flagged by TE5, who felt that '*the students (PSTs) become very robotic in the way they approach [planning their lessons]*' in order to comply with the pre-while-post model. This can be said to be a shortcoming in the *pedagogía en inglés* programme in relation to its adoption of the reflective model of teacher education, in which the normative role given to the lesson plan emerges as a constraint to the development and education of reflective teachers. What emerges from the transformation of the lesson plan into a regulation of the *práctica* is that the PSTs do not pay heed to the pedagogical underpinnings that could inform their practice of materials design and consequently ELT, but to a rule that is systematically and – at times – mechanically complied with.

9.4.2.2 The tools of *pedagogía en inglés*

As I discussed earlier, tools are a key concept in sociocultural theory (e.g. Vygotsky, 1978; Engeström, 1987; Johnson, 2006, 2009), and their relevance in this study lies in their potential to understand the PSTs' learning of materials design. In light of this, the textbooks used by some TEs and PSTs, particularly the textbook used at the university, *New Headway*, and its reification, emerged as a strong factor influencing the participants' behaviour (Vygotsky, 1997), further contributing to the development of the conceptual tool of textbook dependency discussed in 9.3.3. In a similar fashion, the various international exams used by the *pedagogía en inglés*

programme to assess the PSTs' English competency, appeared to have a washback effect on the TE's practice of ELT, which raises issues about the PSTs' language learning experience at the university. As discussed in 8.4.1, this washback seemed to promote the development of the conceptual tool of subordination of thematic content.

9.4.2.2.1 Textbook reification

Reification, which Silva (2013:80) defines as 'the human tendency to apprehend abstractions as things' was evidenced in the use of metaphoric language as well as explicit descriptions of the textbook as an artefact of inherent pedagogical authority by some TEs and PSTs. With regards to the use of metaphors, McGrath (2006a) argues that these can provide insights into teachers' attitudes and practices. Such is the case of TE2's reference to the textbook as a '*lifesaver*' (see Chapter 7), which suggests that, for her, textbooks are part of a high-stakes activity in which the PSTs would 'drown' if they did not have the vital aid of a coursebook. Furthermore, TE3's reference to *New Headway* as an unquestionable incarnation of CLT and whose contents were fit for an unspecified level of language mastery in the programme, also reified the coursebook through treating its content and pedagogical underpinnings as 'a concrete object or immutable procedure' (Shannon, 1987:313), which are true and should not be questioned (Richards, 1993). This way of conceptualising the textbook by both TE2 and TE3 reveals their subscribing to a view through which it is the coursebook, 'not the labour of authors, artists, typesetters, and so on' that language learners, in this case the PSTs, interact with (Shannon, 1987:314), inexorably conferring on it the wisdom of language teaching.

In line with Feenberg's (2015:490) assertion that reified elements provide a 'structure through determining a specific type of practice that reproduces institutions', the reification of *New Headway* shown above appeared to perpetuate a given type of ELT practice in the programme despite the programme's efforts to move to a different type of curriculum. This issue was raised by Gabriel's perception that *New Headway* had inhibited the implementation of curricular innovations affecting the English language modules in the programme. In this way, the textbook in question was perceived by Gabriel as exerting a 'form of technical control'

(Shannon, 1987:319) over the TEs and their intent of transforming these modules, even if the use of *New Headway* was their own collective choice.

With the above scenario, it is not surprising that, through exposure to this treatment given to *New Headway*, some PSTs reified textbooks in the same way as some of their teacher educators did. Richards (1993) argues that teachers lacking experience are even more likely to reify coursebooks. For example, Miguel's comments about the long-standing presence of *New Headway* in the market and/or *pedagogía en inglés* programme, and its 'proven' efficacy, are not surprising from this point of view. In fact, novice teachers – and by extension PSTs – are likely to take curricular and commercial materials at face value and attribute to them qualities of excellence, validity and truth; possibly, as some have argued, because inexperienced teachers tend to see it as a manual written by experts (e.g. Cortazzi and Jin, 1999; Mishan and Timmis, 2015). Recent research supports this. A study conducted by Bosompen (2014) in Ghana revealed that, in a group of 12 teachers, those who were less experienced avoided adapting their textbook because they felt they could not challenge its authority, thus reifying this material at the expense of their own pedagogical decision-making. Likewise, in a study about the views held by English teachers about a newly introduced textbook advocating for CLT in Bangladesh, Roshid *et al.* (2017) documented that the novice teachers of the study tended to be notably more positive about the textbook than their more senior colleagues.

In treating the textbook as though it were alive and had a will and power of its own, the TEs and PSTs risk assuming that the social relations concomitant with language teaching are embodied in a single artefact. The complex social relations embodied in the textbook appear as a natural solid object (Feenberg, 2015) on which TEs and PSTs place a worrying amount of pedagogical trust. From an apprenticeship of observation viewpoint, the reification of *New Headway* by some TEs becomes particularly problematic. For example, the negative associations made by Fernanda between some of her teacher educators' dependency on *New Headway* and concepts of monotony and following '*the pace of the textbook*' can be said to be an effect of its reification (see Shaver, 2010 for the negative effects textbook dependency on teaching). In addition, in an evaluation of 6 coursebooks by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2013), *New Headway* was overall defined as a coursebook

that had almost no communicative orientation due to its strong focus on accuracy of reception and production, rather than on promoting the learners' ability to communicate. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2013:241) further argue that 'nearly all the 'production' activities are actually language practice activities, as the learners are told what to say and how to say it'. These assessments can be said to strongly contradict TE3's view that '*Headway [...] is based on the communicative approach and there is no doubt about that*'. Thus, the TEs' assumption that *New Headway* is by definition communicative leads them to adopt an uncritical stance to this material and its use. In turn, the TEs reify this textbook and start a cycle whereby they reproduce and perpetuate language teaching practices that could be said to fall outside the realm of communicative language teaching.

9.4.2.2 International exams

In Chapter 8 I discussed how the PSTs are exposed to a large number of international exams by the programme in order to gauge their level of language competence, which, according to the Guiding Standards of Mineduc, should be no less than the C1 level of the CEFR upon graduation. I also argued that the use of exams such as A2 Key, B1 Preliminary, B2 First, C1 Advanced, and C2 Proficiency – all produced by Cambridge ESOL Examinations in accordance with the CEFR – pushes the TEs of the programme to give priority to discrete forms of language, mostly grammar and vocabulary, which these exams have a strong focus on in addition to the communicative skills. I further argued that as a result of the use of these exams and its corresponding washback, the PSTs are given language teaching and learning experience that seems to be driven by structural components of the language as opposed to thematic notions, or a balance between both. Consequently, these experiences can be said to become part of the PSTs' apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), which later influences their design of materials.

The above described washback is probably hardly surprising in light of an accumulation of research in language teaching highlighting how tests are powerful determiners of what happens in the classrooms (e.g. Alderson and Wall, 1993; Watanabe, 1996; Cheng, 1997; Green, 2013; Gebril and Eid, 2017). As voiced by

some of the TEs themselves, their focus on thematic notions in their practice of ELT with the PSTs seemed to be constrained by the presence of tests that had a focus on 'structure' (TE6). The constraining association between TE6's practice of teaching and the 'test' can be said to take the form of negative washback, that is, the 'test's content or format is based on a narrow definition of language ability and so constrains the teaching/learning context' (Taylor, 2005:154) – at least in issues concomitant with thematic notions.

Indeed, TE6's comments are true of at least part of the tests she mentioned. Docherty (2015), for example, argues that Cambridge English exams at B1 or below test language knowledge explicitly as part of skill assessment, such as reading and writing on the assumption that 'lexical and grammatical knowledge sit comfortably alongside these two skills' (Docherty, 2015: 15), which would affect the first years of the PSTs' learning of English in the programme. Likewise, from B2 upwards, Hawkey (2009:82) notes that the section 'Use of English' of exams such as FCE and CAE, now known as B2 First and C1 Advanced correspondingly, tests knowledge of vocabulary and grammar with components of 'meaning, word formation, collocation, lexical relationships, lexical cohesion, modality, complementation, phrase, structuring, clause combining and grammatical cohesion (Hawkey, 2009:82). For Docherty (2015:17), the use of this extensive set of focus on language components is based on the assumption that more advanced learners 'not only have a larger repertoire of language knowledge at their disposal but that they have more control over this repertoire so that they are able to use it flexibly'.

Docherty (2015) argues that the inclusion of the abovementioned components can be broadly classified as production items that test language knowledge in context, and further observes that they are expected to have a positive washback in the classroom because of the focus on the use of language rather than only on language form. Whilst this can be true of the design of the tests, it would seem that their washback is not necessarily beneficial for the promotion of themes and topics as valid components of the TEs' practice of ELT in the programme in order to hone the development of the PSTs' communicative competence. As Cheng (1997:40) argues, 'any test, good or bad, can be said to be having beneficial or detrimental washback'. In addition, considering Bailey's (1996:261) formulation that

communicative testing must concentrate on content as communication amongst people is always about something, i.e. that tests 'provide something for test takers to talk and think about', then clearly the washback of the abovementioned exams limits, at least to some extent, the TEs' communicative practice of language teaching in which, Richards (2006b) observes, thematic notions play an essential role. The TEs' behaviour then reflects the evidence suggesting that teachers tend to limit the content of instruction to material covered in the test (Green, 2013).

In sum, the use of textbooks and standardised testing in the programme can be said to raise a number of issues related to materials design. On the one hand, the use and reification of *New Headway* by the TEs seems to provide the PSTs a language learning experience in which they are exposed to different degrees of textbook dependency by their own TEs, as well as to a questionable practice of ELT considering that such experiences are likely to become part of the PSTs' apprenticeship of observation. On the other hand, the use of standardised tests seems to constrain the TEs' practice of ELT in which thematic content could be further exploited to promote the development of the PSTs' communicative competence, again feeding into the PSTs' apprenticeship of observation. What emerges from the use of the abovementioned textbook and exams – tools of the activity of educating English language teachers – is that the TEs carry out instructional activities, such as discrete language teaching, which the members of the *pedagogía en inglés* programme are trying to break away from (see for example 5.2.1).

Furthermore, from a sociocultural viewpoint, the above raises an important issue. If teacher educators are expected to play a critical role in the process of enculturation of the PSTs into a reflective cycle of instructional practices, then there emerges the question as to what extent the TEs reflect about the tools used in the activity of educating preservice teachers of English. This seems to be a valid question in light of the effects that of the use of *New Headway* and standardised testing seems to have on the designing of language learning materials, but ultimately in their conceptualisation and practice of language teaching.

9.5 Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to answer the three questions leading this thesis. I have first highlighted how the activity of designing materials is significantly defined by different systemic contradictions, which range from tensions between the PSTs' own beliefs about their learners, to clashes between different elements of the activity system, namely, between the motive/object of training CLT teachers and the lesson model used for that purpose; between the textbook and PSTs' agency; and between the motive/object of teaching English communicatively and the PSTs' beliefs. These contradictions reveal that the participants lived designing language teaching materials as an internally and externally conflicted activity.

Concomitant with the contradictions was the emergence of four main conceptual tools namely, dumbing down, the receptive turn, textbook dependency and the subordination of thematic content, whose use as heuristics in the process of materials design had an important role in defining the form and content of the materials.

Finally, paying heed to the sociocultural perspective of the study, the chapter ended with a discussion of the main elements aggravating the contradictions commented in section 9.2 and influencing the development of conceptual tools discussed in section 9.3. I highlighted that the schoolteachers had an extremely influential role, followed by elements from the university setting such as the rules of the programme, the reification of textbooks, and the washback of the international exams used to assess the PSTs' communicative competence.

Overall, this discussion of findings reflects a worrying scenario. If teacher-made materials are an alternative to the pervasiveness of published textbooks, which have been criticised by scholars in both materials as curricular and cultural/ideological camps (e.g. Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013; Gray, 2010, 2012 correspondingly), then there emerges the question as to what extent the materials designed by teachers are actually a more educational alternative for EFL pupils in light of the rationales used for their design (e.g. dumbing down, receptive turn, textbook dependency, subordination of thematic content). Thus, this snapshot of the process of learning to design materials provides evidence about the importance of

the study of materials development as both curricular and cultural artefacts in teacher education courses.

Chapter 10 Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

The scholarly developments in language teaching materials and language teacher education towards the end of the 20th century have become important fields of enquiry in applied linguistics today. Their combined study, however, as Graves and Garton (2019) argue, has remained poorly addressed in academic discussions in spite of the centrality of materials in the practice of English language teaching worldwide. Addressing this intersection is therefore of great importance.

In this study I set out to explore the learning of materials design by a group of preservice teachers of English of a teacher education programme in Chile. In light of the increasing scholarly and state recommendations for its instruction, I wanted to explore how this learning was attained against a backdrop of only scant attention to the development of this teacherly know-how during the participants' teacher education. The activity-theoretical approach deployed in this study enabled me to bring out some of the main systemic contradictions lived by the participants during this process, the conceptual tools on which they relied to design their language teaching materials, as well as the sociocultural influences present in the contexts of the university in which they were finishing their teacher education and the schools where they were doing their practicum.

In this chapter I recapitulate the main findings of my research. Then I discuss some of its limitations, followed by some suggestions for further study.

10.2 Overview of findings

In an attempt to answer the question of *how preservice teachers in Chile learn to design language teaching materials*, I developed the following three questions based on key concepts of activity theory.

10.2.1 Research Question 1: *What systemic contradictions underlie the process of materials design during the preservice teachers' practicum?*

A number of contradictions emerged during the design of materials. These fell under the primary and secondary levels in line with Engeström (1987). In activity theoretical parlance a primary contradiction is a tension within one element of the activity system whilst secondary contradictions allude to a conflict between two elements of the activity.

The primary contradiction lived by the preservice teachers affected their system of beliefs about the end users of their materials, namely, their learners. This was manifested in that the PSTs professed positive beliefs about their pupils whilst basing the many processes involved in their design of materials on a large number of disparaging views about them. These positive and negative beliefs affected two domains of the preservice teachers' perceptions about the learners, namely, the learners' cognitive ability to learn English and their dispositions towards learning and the subject itself.

The secondary contradictions affected a number of elements present in the activity system of materials design. One of these was the tension between the university's goal of training CLT-oriented teachers of English and the reading/listening lesson plan model given to the preservice teachers by the university staff. This tension was manifested in the limitations posed to the development of speaking and writing by the lesson plan model, which was used by the participants to promote the receptive skills at the expense of the productive ones. This does not mean that the model itself was designed to inhibit the development of productive skills; in effect, the model did suggest language production, but only to a small extent. Further, it emerged that the participants disguised linguistic reinforcement, particularly of grammar, as the development of speaking or writing within the framework of the pre-while-post reading/listening structure embodied in the lesson plan model.

Another secondary contradiction arose between the textbook used at the preservice teachers' school placements and their own pedagogical agency. This tension was clearly seen when the school textbooks were used as the *de facto*

curriculum by the schoolteachers. This use of the textbook significantly undermined the PSTs' possibility of exercising their agency through making situated decisions about the content and way of delivery incarnated in their materials.

The last secondary contradiction emerged between the preservice teachers' beliefs about the role of the thematic content of their materials and the communicative practice of ELT. This contradiction was manifested by the preservice teachers in a number of decisions for the design of their materials that devalued the potential that the use of topics/themes has for honing language learning. In fact, in spite of their teacher education, which aimed at the development of CLT-oriented practitioners, and the national curriculum, which placed a strong emphasis on communication, the student-teachers relied on traditional beliefs about the role of thematic content and language teaching.

Overall, these findings are supported by many previous studies regarding the existence of contradictions along the learning of student-teachers (e.g. Blázquez and Tagle, 2010; Alarcón *et al.*, 2014; Barahona, 2016). For example, research in Chile has documented how student-teachers hold antagonistic beliefs about teaching and learning reflected in their possession of traditional beliefs undermining the communicative practice of ELT (e.g. Blázquez and Tagle, 2010).

But my study also extends our knowledge of what we know about the contradictions lived by the preservice teachers in their exercise of materials development, which indeed raises a number of issues pertaining the tools used in language teacher education and language teaching in general. With regards to teacher education, the lesson plan model provided by the university emerged as a problematic artefact when the PSTs used it in a way that can prevent language learners from experience the teaching of productive skills. In a similar fashion, the normative role given to the textbook in the schools rendered it a constraining artefact due to its use as the goal of teaching English by the school community rather than as a tool to teach English. Consequently, the aim of covering the textbook diminished the school's value as a site of teacher learning through denying some of my participants agentic positions in which they could perform pedagogical tasks such as choosing and organising content, deciding how to deliver it, etc. Both cases call

for careful consideration of the tools employed in teacher education and what uses they are put to.

10.2.2 Research Question 2: *What conceptual tools mediate the preservice teachers' designing of language teaching materials?*

Broadly speaking, the activity-theoretical framework that I used defines conceptual tools as internalised ways of thinking that are underpinned by beliefs, rationales, knowledge about language teaching and learning and education in general (Grossman et al., 1999). In light of this definition, I was able to identify four main conceptual tools mediating the student-teachers' learning of materials design. The conceptual tools covered a wide range of areas ranging from the operationalisation of disparaging beliefs about the learners, and the prioritisation of reading and listening above speaking and writing, to the development of dependency on the school textbooks, and the subordination of the thematic content of their materials.

The first conceptual tool I identified was referred to as dumbing down. It emerged as an overwhelmingly frequent conceptual tool mediating the design of materials. It was used by the preservice teachers as a way to reduce the cognitive challenge they posed to their pupils based on a large number of deficit beliefs about the learners' cognitive and dispositional characteristics. The preservice teachers dumbed down their materials in two ways, namely, simplifying the materials and tasks and reducing the language production elicited in the materials.

The second conceptual tool, the receptive turn, was present in almost all the materials the participants shared with me. In using this tool, the preservice teachers placed greater emphasis on the development of reading and listening rather than on the development of speaking and/or writing. In fact, the focus they placed on the productive skills was minimal, reducing it to traditional grammar and vocabulary practice only. The receptive turn emerged as a normative way of thinking and acting by the preservice teachers and it significantly undermined the opportunities given to the pupils to improve their ability to communicate, which raises important issues within a CLT view of language teaching.

The third conceptual tool mediating the participants' design was textbook dependency. This tool emerged in different ways and in different degrees across all

the participants. From lifting whole lessons from the school textbook, to using it as a language referent and language teaching model, the participants frequently relied on this artefact more than on the mediation of their own teacher educators or the schoolteachers to make pedagogical decisions about how to design their materials.

The fourth and last conceptual tool used by the participants was subordinating the thematic content of their material to the teaching of linguistic aspects of the language. The preservice teachers operationalised this conceptual tool through devaluing the affordances that topics have for enhancing language learning. This also meant that the participants paid little attention to the actual content of their materials, which sometimes carried problematic representations of the world.

Some of these findings reflect persisting discussions in ELT. For example the subordination of the thematic content to language forms has been extensively discussed and associated with traditional language teaching practices (e.g. Santos, 2014; Humphries, 2014; Seferaj, 2014; Alarcón *et al.*, 2014; Alarcón *et al.*, 2015). Likewise, the development of textbook dependency has been commented in both general education and ELT.

However, my findings furthered what we know about the rationales underpinning materials design. For example, with very little literature focusing on the reduction of the cognitive challenges posed to learners through teacher-made materials, what I refer to in this thesis as dumbing down, my study documents the ways in which preservice teachers operationalise disparaging beliefs undermining the cognitive development of language learners. In a similar fashion, the receptive turn offers insights into the scant attention paid to speaking and writing by the participants, and how this issue is likely to be rooted in the only lesson plan model they are acquainted with during their teacher education and the ambiguous treatment of productive skills in other types of materials, such as published ones, to which the preservice teachers were exposed during their language learning process.

10.2.3 Research Question 3: What contextual elements of the school and university mediate the development of conceptual tools used by the PSTs to design materials, and how?

Exploring the contextual elements shaping the learning of materials design was key to understand this process. In fact, the elements affecting how the preservice teachers appropriated the conceptual tools and designed their own materials naturally emerged as salient factors in the activity system of materials design.

With regards to the school settings, the schoolteachers mentoring the preservice teachers were extremely important agents influencing the development of the tools mediating the participants' design, as well as aggravating the contradictions the preservice teachers lived during their practicum. This was reflected through the schoolteachers' division of labour, which took two forms. Firstly, they modelled their practice of ELT for the preservice teachers and expected them to replicate it as in traditional apprentice-based models of teacher education. Secondly, the schoolteachers took an active role enculturating the preservice teachers into the school ethos and pushing them to act in ways of thinking and behaving similar to theirs. Both forms of division of labour adopted by the schoolteachers affected the development of all the conceptual tools mediating the preservice teachers' design of materials, thus it is safe to say that the schoolteachers had a pivotal role in the learning of this craft by the student-teachers during their practicum.

In addition, the context of the university also promoted the development of some of the conceptual tools used by the preservice teachers and the contradictions they experienced. This was particularly acute in the development of issues pertaining the receptive turn, textbook dependency and subordination of thematic content. With regards to the receptive turn, the regulatory role given to the pre-while-post lesson plan model by the university during the preservice teachers' practicum was key in fostering its influence on the PSTs' design. In other words, rather than using the lesson plan structure to mediate the preservice teachers' development of lessons and materials, it was used as a rule of the activity system, imposing on the preservice teachers the form that their lessons and materials should take. Since this

was the only lesson plan model the preservice teachers were given by their teacher educators, the pressure of using it was even stronger as they had no choice but to comply with it and try to cover its three phases, usually resulting in having to disguise grammar reinforcement as speaking and/or writing practice towards the end of their worksheets.

Concomitant with the development of textbook dependency was the reification of the textbook used at the university to mediate the preservice teachers' learning of English. It emerged that some teacher educators tended to attribute to the coursebook qualities of linguistic and methodological excellence on which the preservice teachers were expected to rely. This view of the textbook was also taken up by some preservice teachers, who further conferred on the coursebook qualities of excellence and authority at the expense of their own expertise as future language teaching professionals.

Finally, the adoption of a series of standardised international exams to gauge the PSTs' level of language competency as a response to the Mineduc's mandate that teachers should have a C1 level of English can be said to exert a negative washback on the TEs' practice of ELT. This is particularly salient in how they struggle to strike a balance between thematic and linguistic content due to the emphasis of the exams on the assessment of linguistic knowledge – grammar and vocabulary.

These findings echo similar conclusions of other discussion regarding the roles of schoolteachers during the practicum of student-teachers (e.g Calderhead, 1988; Fairbanks, Freedman, and Kahn, 2000; Farrell; 2008b, Valencia *et al.*, 2009; Salinas and Ayala, 2018). They confirmed that schoolteachers inexorably influence the student-teachers' development of ways of thinking about teaching and learning. In fact, the evidence of this study reports that the schoolteachers influenced the development of all the conceptual tools through their roles as models of ELT practices, as well as school-based teacher educators, which was reflected in their strategic choices over which aspects of teaching and learning they wanted the preservice teachers to embody in their design of materials.

My findings also extend what we know about the influences of the context in teacher education. This is particularly the case of the university setting and the tools and discourses used at that institution. For example, the transformation of the pre-

while-post lesson plan model from a tool mediating the preservice teachers' learning of teaching to one of the rules of the practicum appeared to have an important impact on the choices the preservice teachers made when writing their materials regarding the efforts given to reading/listening vis-à-vis speaking/writing. In a similar fashion, the discourses about the textbook mediating the participants' learning of English as an object of intrinsic ELT authority emerged as a hindrance to the development of pedagogical agency by the preservice teachers in their exercise of materials design. Likewise, the use of standardised tests to comply with the standardisation of teacher education seems to have negative implications for the practice of the type of teaching that both policy and programme seek to promote in the preservice teachers. All cases, the lesson plan model, the textbook and use of standardised exams raise important issues about the use of tools by the *pedagogía en inglés* programme in the education of English teachers.

10.3 Limitations of the study

In retrospect, this study could have benefited from a number of considerations. The first one relates to the length of the time spent in contact with the participants. Along this thesis I emphasised that within the sociocultural tradition teacher-learning is deemed a lifelong process. In this regard, a more longitudinal study could have better examined how the process of learning to design materials occurred. For example, having also considered a time before the preservice teachers did their practicum could have given more insights into how this learning was promoted (or not) within the context of the university. Equally important would have been to follow the preservice teachers into their first year of novice teaching in order to examine how their decision making took place without the presence of teacher educators, mentor teachers or supervisors. In relation to the ongoing nature of teacher learning, more information about language teaching materials used along the PSTs' English learning histories could have been used to explain their rationales underpinning their decision-making. By the same token, the study would have benefited from looking at the schoolteachers' designing of materials and whether their way of doing it was being passed on to the preservice teachers.

With regards to the methodology of this study, the methods I employed were not free from shortcomings despite their frequent and long-standing use in the qualitative tradition. This is especially the case of stimulated recall interviews, which may have not directly elicited the actual thoughts that the participants had while designing their materials but their *a posteriori* reflections and/or learnt theories, or in fact, what they thought I expected them to answer. In relation to this, even though the interviews, stimulated recall interviews and focus group interview were based on semi-structured protocols, the reformulation of questions or, in fact, follow-up questions and comments to hone the participants' understandings of my queries may have had a leading effect on their responses, making them answer in ways which were aimed at satisfying my concerns rather than giving an authentic account of what they actually thought, believed or did. In addition to this, the methods I used to gather the data should not be taken as windows into my participants' minds nor the data itself as unbiased representations of their lives. The data ought to be taken as their own constructions of the phenomenon under scrutiny, and further be seen as influenced by the social, cultural, and institutional realities of which they were part when the study took place.

In line with the above, my interpretations of the data were heavily influenced by my own history as a former student-teacher and later teacher educator of the programme (see Chapter 1). Whilst this certainly facilitated my access into the programme as a PhD researcher during the fieldwork, it also led me to make assumptions based on my previous experiences there that may no longer be true, such as the roles of TEs, and the duties of PSTs in the schools, amongst others. Moreover, my analysis and interpretations of the data were influenced by my evolving identity and expertise on materials design and teacher education. Sometimes, this led me to adopt an evaluative stance of the data I had created with my participants.

Finally, a number of reflections can be made about the use of activity theory to understand the learning of materials design. Even though Engeström's triangle model helped me have a handle on the interactions I wanted to explore, a number of limitations are entrenched in its use. For example, activity theory can be said to be 'just another tool' to understand the phenomenon of learning to design materials: it

helps to systematise, organise, and make sense of the data, yet as Bakhurst (2009:207) contends, the model remains a 'vacuous' schema, whose analysis of the system and contradictions was dependent on the type of activity under scrutiny. In addition, it would be naïve of me to think that by exploring only the activity system spread across the university and school settings I could have a whole picture of how the learning of materials design took place. In other words, the participants had their own personal and private lives where this learning could have also been promoted, which escaped the analysis of the two systems involved in this study. For example, the participant of the pilot SRI mentioned that she had learnt about worksheet design when leading teenage workshops in a Christian organisation she was part of. This certainly falls outside the settings I explored in this study, which may be equally true of the participants I worked with. Finally, my own expertise and experience with activity theory at times became a challenge of its own. I hope to have remained loyal to the design, implementation, analysis and reporting of data, as well as to the sociocultural tenets of Activity Theory, and most importantly, to the participants and the data we constructed.

10.4 Implications for Language Teacher Education

This study has significant implications for English Language Teacher Education. First, in studying how the activity of materials design is learnt by a group of preservice teachers, this research serves as a snapshot of the current state of affairs of such learning in the *pedagogía en inglés* programme under scrutiny. The four contradictions revealed the tensions that lead the preservice teachers to develop certain ways of thinking and acting, and how these ways of thinking are further promoted by contextual elements of the university and schools. While some of the tensions and conceptual tools are well-known in ELT, some others can be said to be less so but strikingly problematic. For example, the dumbing down of ELT through the design of materials was underpinned by a worrying number of negative beliefs about the learners, which were not only reinforced in the schools, but actually promoted by some schoolteachers. Even though it would be impossible for the *pedagogía en inglés* programme to prevent the emergence of such beliefs due to the complexity of the construction of beliefs as discussed in Chapter 3 and illustrated in

Chapter 6, their recognition and modification can be tackled along the teacher education course and modified through procedures falling in the realm of Wallace's (1991) reflective model. The receptive turn, textbook dependency, and subordination of thematic content can be equally subjected to scrutiny by PSTs and TEs through reflective activities and procedures.

Some of the conceptual tools can be said to raise more issues than others in teacher education. I take the view that textbook dependency is particularly salient in this regard. Whilst the *pedagogía en inglés* programme is a five year course, formed of a large number of modules of the foundations movement (such as sociology and psychology of education) and underpinned by the tenets of the reflective model of teacher education, the development of textbook dependency by the preservice teachers can be said to throw overboard at least part of this education, allowing the writers of textbooks to determine what gets taught and how instead of the student-teachers. Given the role of published materials in the spread of English and their facilitation of ELT internationally, this is an extremely important issue with global implications.

The obvious implication of this study is the promotion of materials design in language teacher education. As suggested by the findings, paying attention to the process of learning to design materials can provide significant insights not only into the process of materials design itself, but also into the overall processes of learning to teach and teaching English. As discussed in Chapter 3, materials are the embodiment of a vast number of language teaching and learning rationales, as well as cultural, ideological and political beliefs. Thus, the inclusion of materials design courses within teacher education as a focus rather than as a default process has the potential to enhance the learning of language teaching and promote the development of education professionals within situated practices in lines like those of the reflective model.

10.5 Recommendations for further study

With little previous literature focusing on the intersection of materials design and language teacher education, a number of suggestions can be made for further study. One of these is that the process of teachers' learning of materials design merits

much more attention not only at the preservice stage of their careers but also during their in-service lives. It is telling that against a background of growing literature about language teaching materials, I found no other studies focusing on how preservice teachers learn this craft. Therefore, exploring how student-teachers and teachers develop knowledge and skills for the design of the artefacts that are used in their exercise of ELT is essential to understand how they relate to their profession.

In line with the above, it is also essential to explore how preservice teachers interact with the existing tools being used in ELT. Graves and Garton (2019) have recently argued that exploring the use of materials by teachers is extremely under-researched – an issue which is aggravated amongst preservice teachers. This is particularly salient within the sociocultural tradition where learning to teach is broadly defined as a ‘dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts and is distributed across persons, *tools*, and activities’ (Johnson, 2009:1; my emphasis). Thus, the study of the use of existing teaching materials by student-teachers is of outmost importance and can provide meaningful insights into how preservice teachers enter the profession. My study has indeed pointed out issues about the detrimental effect of textbooks in the development of the preservice teachers’ pedagogical agency. This can be a good starting point to explore the relationship between student-teachers and teaching materials.

In addition, in the same way as I relied on Activity Theory to understand the phenomenon under scrutiny, the inclusion of other theoretical approaches from fields relevant to education, such as, anthropology, sociolinguistics, political economy or psychology, can spark insightful debates about the nature of the learning of materials design. For example, from a political economy viewpoint, it would be important to study the issues around the lack of training in materials design vis-à-vis the ever growing multi-million pound language teaching materials industry. Similarly, from a psychology viewpoint, it would be extremely interesting to study the role of textbooks in the development of the teachers’ professional identity.

Finally, in response to the lack of emphasis to materials development in teacher education, and in line with the interventionist strand of Activity Theory, it would be important to design language teaching materials courses for teacher education programmes, and explore the benefits and shortcomings of their

inclusion. Studies of this type would contribute to highlighting the professionalisation of teachers within an ELT and educational context that tends to push teachers and students of teaching to depend on the materials designed by others rather than their own.

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Appendices

APPENDIX 1 Carlos' Stimulated Recall Interviews

Appendix 1.1 SRI1 Protocol- Carlos- April 18, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
4. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
5. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
6. ¿Por qué estás enseñando cómo leer un texto informativo acerca de cómo redactar un CV?
7. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan el contenido del texto, redactar un CV?
8. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
9. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
10. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?
11. ¿Por qué crees que tu material se lee de forma vertical?

English worksheet – Reading

Name: _____ Date: _____ Grade: 3°C

Objective: To develop reading comprehension by reading four informative texts.

Comentado [aa1]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir el objetivo al comienzo del handout?

I. **Key words.** Write the corresponding word under the corresponding description.

Comentado [aa2]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste trabajar con key words al comienzo de tu clase?

An attempt to find something.	A particular ability or type of ability.
-	-
Financial aid provided to a student on the basis of academic merit.	A deficiency or flaw.
-	-

II. **Before you read.** Discuss the following statements and decide what kind of information you should and should not include in a CV.

Comentado [aa3]: ¿Con qué propósito decidiste incluir una actividad donde deben especular qué información se incluye o no en un CV?

Address and telephone number	Languages you speak
Age and place of birth	Name and surname
Education	Pets you like and dislike
Favorite holiday place	Reasons why you hate your current employer
Hobbies	References

III. **Read the text “Preparing a CV” and answer these questions.**

Comentado [aa4]: ¿qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste estas preguntas ANTES de que los estudiantes lean el texto?

- a) What do you need a CV for? _____
- b) What can you explain at a job interview? _____
- c) What should you promote and what should you avoid mentioning in a CV _____

IV. Read the following text about how to prepare a CV.

Comentado [aa5]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando organizaste el texto de la forma en que está presentado (distribuido) en el handout?

PREPARING A CV

The First Step To Getting A Job

A Curriculum Vitae is a marketing tool. With your Curriculum Vitae, commonly referred to as a CV or a resume, you should promote your **skills** and qualities and you should not highlight or stress your **shortcomings** and problems. Imagine the CV as a brochure that will list the benefits of a particular job or service, the service being your time and skills! When

You might ask yourself these questions when writing your Curriculum Vitae.

- Would you stand out against the competition (the other candidates)?
- Would the manager want to talk to you for a possible job?

Ministerio de Educación

You will need a CV for the following situations:

- when applying for a job;
- when applying for a **scholarship**;
- when applying for admission to a university;
- when applying for speaking engagements, lectures, conferences;
- when publishing your work.

Networking and interviewing are essential for your job hunt; your CV is just the first step in the job **search**. If you are invited for an interview, you would then be in a position to explain and expand on what is in your CV. You might want to prepare yourself for the interview and ask a friend or relative to first read your CV to check it for errors and also to offer you some advice on the structure of the CV. Second, you might want to ask your friend to “interview” you for the position you are applying for, making this role play as similar to real life as possible.

V. Match the questions in column A with their corresponding answer in column B.

A
1. How many times should I check my CV for errors?
2. Should I type or write my CV by hand?
3. Why should my CV look nice?
4. Why should my CV be concise?
5. Why is it important to check spelling and grammar?

B
_____ because first impressions are important
_____ as many as possible
_____ because employers pay attention to grammar and spelling errors
_____ it's better to type, as it's more readable
_____ because no employer will want to read a CV several pages long

Comentado [aa6]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir un item de matching para chequear comprensión del texto?

¿qué implicancias observas en la formulación de las preguntas para sus posibles respuestas?

VI. Look at the CV sample below and put these headings in the correct order (A-F).

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| A. Optional information | D. Personal information |
| B. Contact information | E. Employment history |
| C. Professional qualifications | F. Education history. |

Comentado [aa7]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir un sample de CV como actividad?

¿Dónde obtuviste el sample?

Sample Curriculum Vitae Template

<p>I. _____ Name and surname Address Telephone Cell Phone Email</p>	<p>IV. _____ Start with Secondary School and then any further studies</p>
<p>II. _____ Place of Birth Date of Birth Gender</p>	<p>V. _____ Certifications and Accreditation / Computer Skills</p>
<p>III. _____ List in chronological order; include position details, employer name, and dates.</p>	<p>VI. _____ Awards and honours Languages spoken Interests References</p>

(Your name) _____

Comentado [aa8]: ¿Por qué decidiste que los estudiantes escriban su propio CV?

(Contact information) _____

(Personal information) _____

(Employment history) _____

(Education history) _____

(Professional qualifications) _____

(Optional information) _____

Appendix 1.2 SRI2 Protocol - Carlos- May 16, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Qué diferencias observas entre este material y el material que compartiste conmigo antes?
4. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
5. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
6. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
7. ¿Por qué estás enseñando acerca de lo que se puede o no hacer en China?
8. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema del texto?
9. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
10. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
11. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?

English worksheet – Reading

Name: _____ Date: _____ Grade: 3°C

Objective: To develop reading comprehension by reading a descriptive text.

To develop listening skill through guided reading

VII. Read the text below.

Do's and Don'ts in China

- Chinese people are just as proud of their country as visitors are of theirs, and probably more so. They can get a little irritated when customers favor them with **criticisms of China**. They know that things are not perfect, and they also know that they, like other countries, are working hard to deal with problems of environment and population and so on. **Discussions regarding politics, state leaders, recent history, and issues about Taiwan, Xinjiang and Tibet are still seen as sensitive.**
- **Do not overreact** when asked personal questions regarding marital status, family, age, job or income, because this is done to seek common ground.
- **Keep calm** when dealing with government officials if tense situations arise. Raising your voice or getting angry will help with nothing but creating a losing-face situation for all.
- Never write things in **red ink**. It symbolizes protest or severe criticism.
- **Punctuality** is considered a virtue in China (though on average Chinese are 10 minutes late for engagements). Being on time shows respect for others. Chinese people show up a bit earlier to show their earnestness. Being on time for your tour or at any other time shows respect for the guide, and for fellow travelers
- **Public displays of affection** are frowned upon. Do not back slap, hug or put your arm around someone's shoulder, which will make a Chinese feel uncomfortable, since they do not like to be touched by strangers. Of course you can do so if you are familiar with each other.

- We use **should** and **shouldn't** to give advice or to talk about what we think is right or wrong.
- **You should** means something like **I think it is a good idea for you to do it.**
- **You shouldn't** means something like **I think it is a bad idea for you to do it.**

Comentado [aa9]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste los objetivos al comienzo del material?

¿Qué pensabas cuando pusiste un fondo azul al cuadro que encierra los objetivos?

¿Por qué los estudiantes deberán desarrollar la habilidad de escuchar a través de una lectura? ¿Cómo harán esto?

Comentado [aa10]: ¿Por qué los estudiantes leerán un texto acerca de China?

¿De dónde tomaste el texto?

¿Por qué hay partes del texto que están en negrita, e.g. Criticisms of China?

Cierta información del texto, e.g. discussions about politics, Taiwan, Tibet, o public displays of affection, no es problematizada... ¿qué pensabas cuando incluiste esa información?

Comentado [aa11]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste Should-shouldn't en tu material?

¿Por qué hay frases ennegrecidas en la descripción de should-shouldn't?

¿Dónde obtuviste las descripciones de Should-shouldn't?

IX. Complete the following sentences with should and shouldn't.

1. You _____ be so selfish.
2. I don't think you _____ smoke so much.
3. You _____ read the book for the next test.
4. The teacher _____ give us more homework.
5. We _____ be friends!

X. Use the modal Should or Shouldn't according to the Chinese customs from the text. Follow the example.

1. In China you **should not** criticize their culture (1st paragraph)
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____



Comentado [aa12]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste este ítem de completación?

Algunos ejercicios pueden ser completados con ambas opciones (should/shouldn't) ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir aquellos ejercicios?

Comentado [aa13]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste un ítem de creación de oraciones usando should/shouldn't con referencia al texto que los estudiantes leyeron?

Comentado [aa14]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir un ejemplo?

Comentado [aa15]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando ennegreciste "should not"?

Comentado [aa16]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando diste espacio para que los estudiantes escriban las oraciones?

Comentado [aa17]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando diste referencia al párrafo en el texto?

Comentado [aa18]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste esta imagen?

APPENDIX 2 Emilia's Stimulated Recall Interviews

Appendix 2.1 SRI1 Protocol- Emilia- April 12, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Tiene este material alguna orientación metodológica? ¿Cuál?
4. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
5. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
6. ¿Por qué estás enseñando acerca de los hobbies?
7. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente, algún otro?
8. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
9. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?
10. ¿Por qué decidiste usar el tema de "hobbies" para que los estudiantes aprendan a usar los adverbios de frecuencia?
11. ¿Por qué decidiste organizar tu material de la forma que lo hiciste?
12. ¿Qué razón subyace el uso de un video para explicar los adverbios de frecuencia? ¿En qué momento pretendes usarlo?

Worksheet

Name: _____ Date: _____

Mention at least three hobbies that you know

I. What do you think the text will be about?

II. Read the text to confirm your predictions.

My favorite hobby: Reading books

My favorite hobby is reading. I enjoy reading a book when I am free. I started to do it when I was four years old. The first time I did it, I felt interested. So I kept reading. The teachers always taught me to read the difficult words. I was happy when I read a story with a happy ending. I was thrilled when I read a detective story. I enjoy reading because I like to explore the imaginative world of my favorite author, J.K.Rowling who writes "Harry Potter". There are a lot of advantages of reading. Reading can make me relaxed and calm. I can also learn new vocabulary items. Then I can further improve my English. Moreover, it can give me an unlimited imagination, so I can write books in the future. I can learn the different cultures and customs of other countries in the world too. I read at least one hour every day. I read books by myself. I usually read it at home. I wish I could read different kinds of books because it might be very challenging.

Kate, 17



Comentado [aa19]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste hacer que los estudiantes mencionen hobbies que conocen?

Comentado [aa20]: ¿Qué pensabas cuando decidiste hacer que los estudiantes piensen de qué se tratará el texto?

Comentado [aa21]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir lectura acerca de hobbies a tus estudiantes?

¿Por qué asignaste el hobby de leer y jugar fútbol a Kate y Timothy respectivamente?

¿Por qué utilizaste las imágenes que hay en tu material?

My favorite hobby

My favorite hobby is playing football. I play football when I am free. I started to play football when I was seven. I was interested in it at that time because it was stimulating and it could make me healthy. At the first time, my football coach taught me how to play football. I like my hobby because it is exciting. It is also good for my health because it can exercise my body. I practice playing football for two hours every Saturday and fifteen minutes on Sundays. I play football with my classmates at school and my dad and uncles at the church. I hope I can be good at playing football and have a competition for my school in the future.

Timothy, 13



III. Circle the correct answer:

- 1) What is the topic of the texts?
 - a) Reading
 - b) Hobbies
 - c) Sports

- 2) How often do Kate and Timothy do their hobbies?
 - a) Just when they have time
 - b) Every day
 - c) Two times a week

- 3) Why Kate and Timothy do these hobbies?
 - a) Because someone told them to do it
 - b) Because they don't like to stay at home
 - c) Because they get benefits from their hobbies.

Comentado [aa22]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incorporaste un ítem de alternativas múltiples para identificar información general y específica?

IV. Answer the following questions:

- 1) Why did Kate start reading so much?

- 2) Which are the benefits of reading according to Kate?

- 3) How old was timothy when started playing football?

- 4) What is the main dream of Timothy in the future?

Comentado [aa23]: ¿Por qué decidiste utilizar un ítem de preguntas para que los estudiantes identifiquen información específica?

V. **Fill the gaps with the following frequency adverb**

Always – Never – Often – Rarely - Usually - Sometimes

1. I _____ eat cereals for breakfast
2. I _____ arrive late to classes
3. I _____ visit my grandparents

4. I _____ go to the cinema
5. I _____ play videogames
6. I _____ do sports

Comentado [aa24]: ¿Por qué utilizaste un ítem de completación para practicar los adverbios de frecuencia?

Comentado [aa25]: ¿Por qué decidiste que cada ejercicio comenzase con 'I'?

VI. **In pairs choose a famous person and complete the chart. You can add your own ideas.**

Name	
Nationality	
Age	
Activity	
Free time Activities	
Things she /he likes (food, music, colors, sports, etc)	He/she likes _____ He/ she loves _____ He/ she always _____
Things she/he doesn't like (food, music, colors, sports,etc)	He/ she doesn't like _____ He/ she hates _____ He/ she never _____

Comentado [aa26]: ¿Por qué decidiste considerar a una persona famosa para completar el cuadro?

VII. In no more than 7 lines, write a biography of the person you chose using the information that you wrote in the previous activity and the adverbs of frequency studied.

Comentado [aa27]: ¿Qué pensamientos se te vinieron a la mente cuando decidiste hacer que los estudiantes escriban una biografía?

VIII. Complete the chart with your own information and share it to your classmates.

Comentado [aa28]: ¿Por qué decidiste hacer que los estudiantes completen la tabla con su propia información?

Name	
Nationality	
Age	
Activity	
Free time Activities	
Things you like (food, music, colors, sports, etc)	I like _____ I love _____ I usually _____
Things you don't like (food, music, colors, sports, etc)	I don't like _____ I hate _____ I rarely _____

Appendix 2.2 SRI2 Protocol- Emilia- June 8, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Qué diferencias observas entre este material y el material que compartiste conmigo antes?
4. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
5. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
6. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
7. ¿Por qué estás enseñando acerca del teléfono celular?
8. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema los tres textos?
9. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
10. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
11. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?

Worksheet

Name: _____ Date: _____

- I. Read the sentence on the board, and try to guess the hidden message.

Comentado [aa29]: ¿Qué oración?

Pre- reading:

- II. Watch the pictures of technological objects and then name the ones you use every day.
- III. Write in your copybook the key words and the meaning of them
- IV. Considering the pictures from the power point, what do you think the text will be about?

Comentado [aa30]: ¿Qué imágenes? ¿Cómo son presentadas?

Comentado [aa31]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando hiciste que los estudiantes escribieran en sus cuadernos las palabras claves y sus significados?

Comentado [aa32]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste esta pregunta?

While – reading:

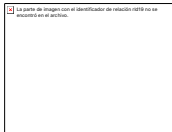
- V. Read the text to confirm your predictions

Comentado [aa33]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando hiciste que los estudiantes lean acerca del telefono celular?

¿De dónde proviene el texto? ¿Tiene modificaciones?

¿Por qué decidiste enmarcar el texto?

My mobile phone



Hello! I'm Kate. I want to write about my mobile phone. I got it from my parents for my birthday two years ago. I like it very much and I think it's sometimes good to have it in my bag.

I always keep it in my bag or in my pocket so my parents and my friends can always telephone me. It's got a calculator in it so I sometimes use it at school. It's also a kind of information file. I can use my mobile phone to connect to the Internet and look through the news or read emails on my computer. Isn't it fantastic?

Last year I was on a cycling holiday with my friend. We went cycling but the weather wasn't good. It was cold and windy. It started to rain and it got dark. Suddenly my friend fell off her bike and she broke her leg. At first I didn't know what to do but then I thought about my phone. It was in my rucksack so I telephoned for help. After fifteen minutes a doctor arrived.

Sometimes people are not keen on mobile phones. They are a real problem because they always ring at the wrong moment. I'm not crazy about my mobile phone but I feel safe when I have it with me.

VI. **TRUE, FALSE or DOESN'T SAY:** write a T if the answer is TRUE, a DS if the information is not mentioned in the text, or an F if the answer is FALSE. Justify the false ones.

1. Kate can't exist without her mobile phone. _____
2. She got her mobile in January. _____
3. Her parents bought her the mobile phone one year ago. _____
4. There's a calculator in her mobile. _____
5. She can connect to the Internet with her mobile. _____
6. She usually listens to music on her mobile. _____
7. She can't read emails on her mobile. _____
8. There is often a lot of problems with mobile phones. _____
9. Kate always talks on her mobile to her friends. _____
10. She doesn't like the mobile phones. _____

Comentado [aa34]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un ítem de T/F/Doesn't Say?

Comentado [aa35]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando pediste justificar las falsas?

Comentado [aa36]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando diste este espacio?

Comentado [aa37]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando diste este otro espacio?

VII. **Answer the following questions:**

1. What is the topic of the text?
 - a) Technology
 - b) Kate's life
 - c) Cycling
2. In the second paragraph Kate mentions:
 - a) places where she can put her mobile phone
 - b) Places where she can use her mobile phones
 - c) The different uses you can give to your mobile phone
3. What is Kate's opinion about mobile phones?
 - a) She thinks mobile phones are not useful
 - b) She thinks mobile phones are very useful
 - c) She thinks mobile phones are irrelevant

Comentado [aa38]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un ítem de opción múltiple?

¿Por qué hay preguntas de comprensión general después de las preguntas de comprensión específica (V/F)?

Post – reading:

VIII. Complete the following sentences using the present perfect and verb in the correct form:

1. They _____ London this month. (leave)
2. He _____ a lot of English papers. (bring)
3. She _____ me about it. (tell)
4. I _____ a long letter from father this week. (get)
5. I _____ to Radio City. (be)
6. I think the director _____ the town. (leave)
7. I _____ my office. (paint)
8. We _____ her since she arrived to our city. (know)
9. I _____ your name. (forget)
10. He _____ the door. (close)

Comentado [aa39]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un ítem de completar oraciones usando presente perfecto?

IX. Write your own sentences using the verbs in brackets:

1. I _____ (Work)
2. She _____ (Play)
3. You _____ (Eat)
4. Mark and I _____ (Go)
5. They _____ (Read)

Comentado [aa40]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un ítem de escribir oraciones usando los verbos en paréntesis?

X. Listen to the audio and tick (✓) the activities Mary has done during her holidays.











XI. In no more than seven lines invent and write your own news fact and include:
Two sentences in past simple, two sentences in present perfect and at least three connectors.

Comentado [aa41]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste un listening?

Comentado [aa42]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste tiquear las actividades con imágenes?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste los cuadros bajo cada imagen?

Comentado [aa43]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando solicitaste a los estudiantes escribir sus propias oraciones usando pasado simple, presente perfecto y al menos tres conectores?

**XII. In pairs write five questions about unusual thing and ask them to your partner.
For example: Have you ever seen a ghost? Have you ever eaten an insect?**

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Comentado [aa44]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando solicitaste escribir cinco preguntas acerca de algo inusual?

APPENDIX 3 Fernanda's Stimulated Recall Interviews

Appendix 3.1 SRI1 Protocol- Fernanda- April 10, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
4. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
5. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
6. ¿Por qué estás enseñando cómo acerca de un estilo de vida saludable?
7. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema un estilo de vida saludable?
8. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
9. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
10. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?
11. ¿Por qué crees que tu material se lee de forma vertical?

III. Circle the correct answer if it is **TRUE (T)** or **FALSE (F)** of the following sentences.

Comentado [aa51]: ¿Por qué incluíste un ítem de verdadero of falso?

- 1.- ___ Abbey gets up at 7:00 am
- 2.- ___ Abbey has cereal and milkshake for breakfast.
- 3.- ___ Abbey walks to school with her friend, Carl.
- 4.- ___ Abbey likes to play soccer with her friends.
- 5.- ___ Abbey usually goes to bed at about 10:30 pm.

IV. Write 4 sentences in present simple from the text.

Comentado [aa52]: ¿Por qué decidiste hacer que los/las estudiantes tomen oraciones en presente simple desde el texto a estas líneas?

Ex: Abbey gets up at 7:00 am

- 1. -----
- 2. -----
- 3. -----
- 4. -----

REMEMBER!

X



Present simple Form	
Positive and negative	
I We You they	Live in Chile. don't live in Chile
He She It	Lives in Italy. doesn't live in Italy

Comentado [aa53]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir este cuadro explicatorio de gramática aquí?

¿Qué función cumple el smiley acompañado la gramática?

IV.- The following activity consists in finding words related to the text you read in the previous activity.

Comentado [aa54]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir una actividad de word search en tu material?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste el vocabulario que las/los estudiantes deben encontrar?

Word Search

G	E	P	X	S	C	H	E	E	S	E	U	J	BREAKFAST
F	B	M	L	F	S	J	S	O	E	O	S	T	CEREAL
V	T	R	W	T	R	L	L	F	J	N	E	K	CHEESE
I	U	S	R	A	E	U	E	A	A	V	V	S	DIET
J	B	O	A	E	L	Q	I	C	E	P	M	Z	EXERCISE
L	P	O	P	F	S	K	K	T	W	R	C	D	FOUNTAIN
S	Y	I	H	E	K	T	Q	E	I	G	E	Q	FRUITS
A	N	Z	C	M	P	A	I	V	C	A	S	C	JUICE
G	L	V	I	D	W	S	E	U	T	I	B	H	SLEEPING
P	T	H	I	O	V	Z	X	R	R	D	U	R	SNACK
S	C	E	S	C	P	H	F	N	B	F	L	J	SPORTS
U	T	O	N	E	R	E	R	C	I	S	E	V	WALK
V	P	Z	U	S	N	I	A	T	N	U	O	F	

V. - Write a Healthy Lifestyle plan for you. Use the vocabulary learnt during the class.

TIME	ACTIVITIES	FOOD
7: 00 am	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I get up • I have breakfast • I walk to school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I drink a glass of juice • I eat cereal
12:00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have lunch • I play football 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I eat rice and chicken for lunch
15:00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I play with my dog 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I eat an apple
19:00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have dinner • I do my homework 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I eat lettuce and eggs
21:00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have a shower • I go to bed 	

Comentado [aa55]: ¿Por qué decidiste que las/los estudiantes escribieran una rutina saludable para ellos? ¿Qué pensabas cuando decidiste darle las oraciones para que hagan su rutina?

Comentado [aa56]: ¿Por qué decidiste que los estudiantes utilizaran el vocabulario aprendido en clases?

Appendix 3.2 SRI2 Protocol- Fernanda- June 7, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Qué diferencias observas entre este material y el material que compartiste conmigo antes?
4. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
5. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
6. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
7. ¿Por qué estás enseñando acerca del medio ambiente?
8. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema los tres textos?
9. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
10. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
11. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?

WORKSHEET

Name: _____ Grade: _____ Date: _____

Objective: _____

I. Look at the pictures and then write the number of the picture with the corresponding word.



Comentado [aa57]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste dejar el espacio del objetivo en blanco?

Comentado [aa58]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste una matching activity para pre-enseñar vocabulario?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste hacer un matching de imágenes?

TEACHER: _____

BUSY: _____

POLICEMAN _____

DUTY: _____

POLICE STATION _____

CHEF: _____

SHIFT: _____

KITCHEN: _____

¿De dónde son las imágenes?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando pusiste el cuadro con el vocabulario al costado derecho de la guía?

II. Read the following texts.

Hi! My name is Sarah and I live in Michigan. I am a third grade teacher and I love to teach and to spend time with children. I teach from 8:00 am until 2:00 pm Monday through Friday and coach baseball after school and on the weekend. I'm always busy but that's the way I like it!



Comentado [aa59]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste hacer que los estudiantes lean tres textos?

¿De dónde provienen los textos?

¿qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste una imagen al costado derecho de cada texto?

Hello! I'm Rick and I'm a policeman in New York City. When I'm on duty, I drive around the city in my patrol car, respond to 911 calls, and arrest criminals. At the end of my shift, I go back to the police station and write a report.



Hey! My name is Mark and I'm a chef. I work in a restaurant and cook in the kitchen all afternoon and night. My specialty is Lasagna Bolognese. I love food!



III. Choose the correct option in each question.

1. What is the topic of the texts?
the texts?

- a) Sports b) Professions c) Places

2. Who are the main characters of the texts?

- a) Sarah, Jack and Mark
b) Sarah, Mark and Anna
c) Mark, Rick and Sarah

Comentado [aa60]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un ítem de selección múltiple?

¿Por qué tres alternativas?

IV. Answer the questions based on the information of the texts.

Sarah:

1. Where does Sarah live?

2. What is Sarah's profession?

3. What does Sarah do after school and on the weekend?

Rick:

4. What is the policeman's name?

5. What does he do when he is on duty?

Comentado [aa61]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un ítem de preguntas cerradas para cada texto?

¿Por qué pusiste las preguntas en un cuadro?

Mark:

6. What is Mark's profession? _____

7. Where does Mark work? _____

8. What is Mark's specialty? _____

V. Unscramble the words and write a sentence.

1. AECTHRE: _____

2. SBUY: _____

3. ILOCEMANP: _____

4. DYTU: _____

5. IOLCEP ITATOSN: _____

6. ECHF: _____

7. TSIFH: _____

8. NKICHET: _____

Comentado [aa62]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un ítem de vocabulario?

¿Por qué decidiste incluir unscramble para vocabulario?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando solicitaste a los estudiantes escribir una oración con cada palabra?

VI. Draw the profession that you would like to be as an adult. Write a short description about your duties.

A large cloud-shaped outline with a thick black border. Inside the cloud, on the left side, is a rectangular box with a folded bottom-right corner, intended for drawing a profession. To the right of this box are seven horizontal lines for writing a short description of duties.

Comentado [aa63]: ¿qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste hacer que los estudiantes dibujaran la profesión que querrían ser de adultos?

Comentado [aa64]: ¿Qué pensabas cuando pediste pedir a los estudiantes que escriban una descripción corta de las tareas de su futura profesión?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando pusiste los espacios para dibujar y escribir dentro del contorno de una nube?

Comentado [aa65]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un sol junto a la expresión "you can do it"?



APPENDIX 4 Francisco's Stimulated Recall Interviews

Appendix 4.1 SRI1 Protocol- Francisco- April 17, 2017

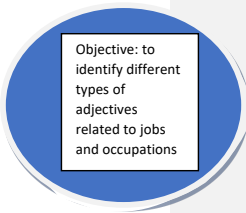
Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
4. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
5. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
6. ¿Por qué estás enseñando cómo acerca de un estilo de vida saludable?
7. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema un estilo de vida saludable?
8. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
9. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
10. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?
11. ¿Por qué crees que tu material se lee de forma vertical?



This is my job

Name: _____ Grade: _____ Date: _____

I. Pre- Reading:

What adjectives can be used to describe a job or a work? Name the ones you know:

Comentado [aa66]: Por qué?

II. Key words:

- 1. Window Cleaner: _____
- 2. Dangerous: _____
- 3. Grabbed: _____
- 4. Injure: _____

Comentado [aa67]: what were you thinking?

III. Read the following text related to jobs and occupations.

Comentado [aa68]: Why jobs and occupations?

This is My Job

My name is Bob, I'm 35 years old and I work as a window cleaner, it is a very dangerous job, I work at 200 meters in the air, only grabbed by a safety cable, I have to be very careful during the day while I'm cleaning the windows of very high buildings, I don't earn a lot of money like other people, but it is enough for me to keep my family in good conditions. My wife is the less happy with job because I am risking my life every day and she says that I don't get the money that I should for the job that I am doing.

I know it is not the best job in the world but I am happy to have one and I can't complain because there is a lot of people without a job and if I can't change my job I have to stay as happy as I can.

Hopefully in the future I can work in a more calmed job, not as dangerous, risky and with these possibilities of injure me.

IV. **What type of text is this?**

- A) Expositive B) Narrative C) Dialogue

Comentado [aa69]: why text type?

V. **What is the intention of Bob?**

- A) To complain B) To talk about his wife C) To describe his job

Comentado [aa70]: What were you thinking/function of language?

VI. **True and false**

1. ____ Bob is 40 years old
2. ____ He works at 200 mts. In the air
3. ____ Bob is grabbed by an aeroplane
4. ____ His wife complains a lot
5. ____ Bob would like to have another job
6. ____ He thinks that he doesn't get paid what he should.

Comentado [aa71]: Why true or false?

VII. **Select the correct alternative**

1- Bob works as a?

- A) Window Cleaner B) Football player C) Lawyer

Comentado [aa72]: Why multiple choice?

2- His job is?

- A) Safe B) Dangerous C) Funny

3- Window cleaners are people that

- A) Work cleaning high buildings B) Cut the grass C) Sing in shows

VIII. Look in the text "This is my job" for different sentences that include adjectives in them.

Comentado [aa73]: Why looking for sentences?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

IX. Linguistic Reinforcement:

If I want to give to a job or occupation a certain characteristic I can use the following structure:

Subject + work/works + as a/an + job/occupation, it is a (adjective) job/occupation

Comentado [aa74]: Why this reinforcement? In the end?

Ex: I work as a Detective, it is a risky job

Ex: He works as an Attorney, it is a safe job

Comentado [aa75]: Why example?

X. Write 4 different sentences describing 4 different jobs from the list using the contents of the linguistic reinforcement and also the words:

Comentado [aa76]: Why writing sentences (only)?

Safe, Risky, Dangerous and Demanding

Jobs to choose: Architect, Nurse, Chemist, Reporter

- A) _____
- B) _____
- C) _____
- D) _____

Appendix 4.2 SRI2 Protocol- Francisco- May 16, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Qué diferencias observas entre este material y el material que compartiste conmigo antes?
4. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
5. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
6. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
7. ¿Por qué estás enseñando cómo acerca de la vida académica de una estudiante?
8. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema del texto?
9. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
10. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
11. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?

“My school life”

Objective: To identify general and specific information about studies in a reading text.

Comentado [aa77]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste el objetivo en el borde superior derecho?

¿Por qué decidiste enmarcar tu worksheet?

Keywords: Match the word with the corresponding examples:

- | | | |
|-------------|-------|----------------------|
| a) subjects | _____ | Mathematics, English |
| b) grades | _____ | 4,0, 45, 7.0 |
| c) pay | _____ | attention, money |
| d) enough | _____ | sufficient |

Comentado [aa78]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste keywords al comienzo de tu material?
¿Cómo llegaste a ESTAS palabras y no otras?

¿Por qué la instrucción y el vocabulario están ambas en negritas?

¿Por qué los ejemplos del vocabulario y los ejemplos corresponden a distintas categorías (e.g. ejemplos, collocation, y sinónimo)?

I. Read about the life of Patricia, a high school student.

My name is Patricia. I'm 15 years old, and I'm in my first year of high school. I am not a good student, but I'm not bad either. My favourite subjects are Math, Sciences and History. I have good grades so I needn't study for that. However, I have problems with English and Biology. I have a Biology test next week, and if I don't study, I might have a bad grade. Tomorrow, I will meet with my friends Sara and Jocelyn. If we study hard enough, we will get good grades! We shall not use our cellphones, to pay more attention in class.



Comentado [aa79]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando hiciste que los estudiantes leyeran acerca de la vida escolar/académica de una estudiante?

¿Por qué una estudiante y no UN estudiante?

¿Por qué el texto plantea la idea de que inglés es una asignatura difícil o que a ella le cuesta?

Comentado [aa80]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste esta imagen?

¿Por qué la imagen está al lado derecho del texto?

What type of text is this?

What does the text talk about?

Comentado [aa81]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste preguntar por la tipología textual?

Comentado [aa82]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando preguntaste 'what does the text talk about'?

II. Complete the sentences with information from the text.

1. Patricia is in _____ of high school.
2. Her favourite subjects are _____, _____, and _____.
3. Patricia has problems with English and _____.
4. Patricia will meet with her friends _____ and _____.
5. If they study hard enough, they will get _____.
6. They shall not _____.

Comentado [aa83]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste un ítem de completación?

III. True or False: read the sentences and decide True (T), False (F) or Doesn't it say (Ø)

- a. Marcos is a scientist. _____
- b. Marcos will stay in the Antarctica for 4 months _____
- c. Marcos will kill penguins _____
- d. Marcos must not cross the borders _____
- e. Marcos is not sure if he will see penguins _____

Comentado [aa84]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir un ítem de True or False or Doesn't it say? "nuestro querido verdadero o falso"

Linguistic reinforcement

1. Modal verbs express conditions.

Need/Needn't: Expresses necessity or lack of it.

I needn't study for the test.

Shall/ Shall not: Expresses obligation, willingness to do something or offering.

Offer: Shall I open the door?

Obligation: You shall not use cellphones in class.

Willingness: They shall receive their prize, if they study hard.

Will: Expresses something that happens in the future.

I will pass the course 😊

Might: Expresses uncertainty. Something that is not very possible.

I might not pass the course.

Comentado [aa85]:

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste un reforzamiento lingüístico?

¿Qué importancia le das al R.L.?

¿Por qué decidiste enseñar verbos modales y no otra cosa? (e.g. algo emergente de los estudiantes?)

¿De dónde tomaste estas explicaciones gramaticales?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste subrayar "I will pass the course" junto con un smiley?

Your turn:

Write **predictions** about your grades in different subjects using modal verbs. Follow the example.

Example: I **needn't** study for Mathematics.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Comentado [aa86]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste que los estudiante escribieran predicciones?

Comentado [aa87]: ¿Por qué decidiste usar "I needn't study" como ejemplo de predicción?

APPENDIX 5 Marcos' Stimulated Recall Interviews

Appendix 5.1 SRI1 Protocol- Marcos- April 10, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
4. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
5. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
6. ¿Por qué estás enseñando cómo hacer 'complaints'?
7. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
8. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
9. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?
10. ¿Por qué decidiste usar el tema de 'shopping' para que los estudiantes aprendan a usar 'complaints'?

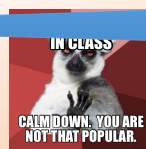
Objective:
 -To develop speaking skill performing a role-play by using vocabulary and structure learned in class.

1. ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir los objetivos en tu PPT?

2. ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste que los estudiantes desarrollaran la habilidad de habla después de haber enseñando vocabulario y

Rules

- Students can eat during the break.
- Keep your cellphones and headphones.
- Students must go to the toilet during the break
- Rise your hand if you want to talk in class.
- No cap in class.
- No earring in class.
- Use the correct uniform.



3. ¿Por qué decidiste incluir las reglas en tu material?

4. ¿Por qué decidiste incluir estos memes para graficar las reglas de la clase?

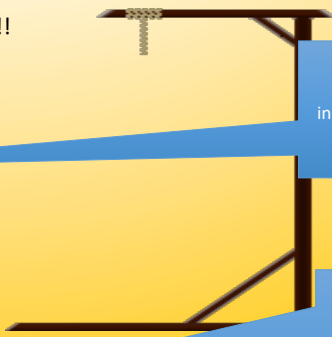
Let's warm up: hanged

• Try to guess the letters of the word!!

• U _____

• P _____

• B _____



5. ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste este juego en tu material?

6. ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste tres palabras en tu material?

7. ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste esta imagen de las gallows en tu material?

Trouble Shopping (complains)

• What can I do?



• What have I done?



8. ¿Por qué decidiste incluir una imagen de Homero en tu material?

COMPLAINT	
TEL:	DATE:
WROTE FILED:	DATE:
DESIRED OUTCOME:	DATE:
COMPLAINT:	ADDRESS:

9. ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste estas frases en tu material?



Final activity

- In pairs, you must create a role-play.
- One student will be the customer.
- One will be the customer services worker.

- Each student must speak at least 5 times.
- You must use new vocabulary.
- You must say full sentences.
- You must speak loud and clear.
- You must be enthusiastic.

12. ¿Como llegaste a organizar la actividad de speaking de la forma que lo hiciste ?

13. ¿Qué pensabas cuando decidiste incluir solo texto en esta parte de tu material?

Role-play

Appendix 5.2 SRI2 Protocol- Marcos- May 30, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Qué diferencias observas entre este material y el material que compartiste conmigo antes?
4. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
5. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
6. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
7. ¿Por qué estás enseñando acerca del medio ambiente?
8. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema del texto?
9. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
10. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
11. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?

Stimulated Recall (PPT)

- ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste los objetivos?
- ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste un video en el warm-up? ¿Por qué ese video? ¿qué características le atribuyes a ese video que te puedan ayudar a comenzar la clase? ¿Deseas estimular algún tipo de discusión al usar el video? ¿Deseas estimular el uso de algún ítem lingüístico al usar el video? (cuál/es?)
- ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste que los estudiantes lean para identificar tiempos futuros? (as opposed to comprehend the information)
- ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste que los estudiantes escribieran 5 oraciones en futuro?
- ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando hiciste que los estudiantes vean un video?

- ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste esto?

Future Tenses

'm / a hairdresser / be / going to

Live / in a different city / might

Have / probably / a car / 'll

'm not / work / going to / in an office

Won't / probably / Chinese / speak

To cook / might / learn

- ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste este cuadro? ¿Por qué los diferentes colores?

USE	Subject	Auxiliary	Verb (Infinitive)	Complement
Future Prediction	We	Will probably	Live	In an iHome.
	We	Probably won't	Live	In an iHome.
Future Possibility	Our children	Might	Live	In one.

- ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir esta check list?

Check List			
Student	Did the class finish the activities?	Did the class work properly?	Did the student respect the teacher and classmates?
Class			

The Environment

Name: _____ Date: _____

- I) Read the text and complete the paragraph using future tense. Use will or going to.

My family and I want to make some changes to our house. First of all, we _____ (insulate) the windows. This _____ (save) electricity. I _____ (use) old containers to put pens and pencils in, and my mum _____ (recycle) glass and cardboard. This _____ (protect) the environment. In the future, our house _____ (be) more environmentally friendly.



Comentado [aa88]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste enseñar Will y Going ?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste usar un item de fill-in-the-gap?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando utilizaste un texto y no oraciones aisladas?

¿De dónde surge este item? (creado o tomado de algún otro lugar?)

- II) Match the verbs with the corresponding concepts.

1. Insulate
2. Recycle
3. Use
4. Generate
5. Re-use
6. Collect
7. Install
8. Save

- ___ Solar panels
- ___ Energy
- ___ Wind power
- ___ Glass and paper
- ___ Windows
- ___ Electricity
- ___ Containers
- ___ Rainwater



Comentado [aa89]: ¿qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste que los los estudiantes unieran las collocations?

Comentado [aa90]: ¿qué estabas pensando cuando incluíste esta imagen?

APPENDIX 6 Miguel's Stimulated Recall Interviews

Appendix 6.1 SRI1 Protocol- Miguel- April 20, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
4. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
5. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
6. ¿Por qué estás enseñando cómo leer un texto informativo acerca de tener una entrevista de trabajo?
7. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan el contenido del texto, una entrevista de trabajo?
8. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
9. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
10. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?
11. ¿Por qué crees que tu material se lee de forma vertical?

Worksheet "The right person for the right job"

Name: _____ Grade: _____ Date: _____

1) Read the following job **interview** where someone is applying for a part-time.

Interviewer: Good afternoon, nice to meet you.

Interviewee: Hello. Nice to meet you, too.

Interviewer: We'd like to ask you a few questions. Can you tell us about your previous work experience please.

Interviewee: Yes, of course. I am unemployed at the moment, but my last job was at a supermarket. I worked there for 8 months.

Interviewer: What skills have you got that would help you in this job?

Interviewee: I'm very organized and always on time. I can cook and I have a certificate in food safety.

Interviewer: Why do you want this job?

Interviewee: I like meeting people and talking to customers. Also, I can work at lunch times and in the evenings – the hours are good for me.

Interviewer: You can start right away, can't you?

Interviewee: Sure, I can!

Interviewer: Have you got any questions?

Interviewee: Yes. How much will I get paid per hour? Which days will I have to work?

Interviewer: You'll get £10.50 per hour and work Wednesdays to Sundays.

Interviewee: I did get the position, didn't I?

Interviewer: Yes, you'll fit right into the company. We'll be in touch.

Adapted from: esol.britishcouncil.org



Comentado [aa91]: ¿Por qué decidiste introducir el tema de postulación a un trabajo a través de una entrevista?
¿De dónde tomaste la entrevista?

Comentado [aa92]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir esta imagen en tu material?

Vocabulary:
Previous work experience: Experiencia previa
Unemployed: Desempleado
Skills: Habilidades
Certificate: Certificado
Position: Puesto

Comentado [aa93]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir este vocabulario y sus correspondientes traducciones?

II) Answer the following questions.

1) What type of text was the previous text?

2) Where is the Interviewee applying to?

3) Is the interviewee working on the morning or afternoon?

4) Did the interviewee got the job? Why? Why not?

Comentado [aa94]: ¿Por qué decidiste hacer este item de comprensión a través de preguntas?

Comentado [aa95]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir la tipología textual como pregunta?

III) Choose the correct answer for the following questions.

1) The interviewee mentions that he/she is...

- a) Smart and witty.
- b) Strong and agile.
- c) Organized and timely.
- d) Educated and has lots of degrees.

2) What information about the interviewee is **not** mentioned in the text?

- a) He/She got fired from the supermarket.
- b) He/She is busy during the mornings.
- c) He/She has a certification.
- d) He/She can cook.

3) Why is the interviewee applying to the job?

- a) He/She studied something related.
- b) He/She is having financial issues.
- c) He/She is good when dealing with customers.
- d) He/She can work the whole day.

4) The interviewee **won't** work during:

- a) Wednesday and Thursday.
- b) Saturday and Sunday.
- c) Wednesday and Sunday.
- d) Monday and Tuesday.

Comentado [aa96]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir un item de selección múltiple?

IV) Grammar focus – Question Tags

- 1) Go back to the text and underline the questions tags that you can find.

X

They are used when someone **thinks** he or she knows an answer and wants confirmation.

He's from Italy, isn't he?

She's living in London, isn't she?

To make a tag question, first state the information you want to confirm, then follow it by a Yes/No question.

You like English classes, don't you?

Affirmative Sentence + Yes/No Question

7. In pairs write a short job interview (no more than 7 questions and answers), between an applicant, for a job your choice, and an interviewer at the work place. Request information about experience, skills and reasons. Also, be sure to use a question tag to confirm information.

Example:

Interviewer: Good afternoon Mister Gómez. May I ask you a few questions?

Mister Gómez: Sure.

Interviewer: You have experience in this field, don't you?

Mister Gómez: I don't think so, it is my first time doing this.

Interviewer: Do you have the necessary skills?

Mister Gómez: Well, I have an English certificate. And I like working with animals.

Interviewer: Why would you apply for this job? You have a teaching degree, and we need a veterinarian!

Mister Gómez: I just need the money.

Interviewer: You are wasting our time. Please, get out of here.



Comentado [aa97]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir un foco en gramática?

¿Por qué question tags?

Comentado [aa98]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste este cuadro explicatorio de gramática?

¿De dónde tomaste este cuadro?

¿Por qué decidiste destacar en colores, subrayando y con letras más grandes el foco grammatical?

Comentado [aa99]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir un ejemplo del diálogo que los estudiantes tienen que escribir?

¿Por qué decidiste incluirte como ejemplo?

Comentado [aa100]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir esta imagen en tu material?

¿Por qué a la derecha del ejemplo?

Names:

Comentado [aa101]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste dar a los estudiantes el formato para que hicieran su cuestionario?

Interview

Speaker 1: Good afternoon . May I ask you a few questions?

Speaker 2: Sure.

Speaker 1: Do you think ?

Speaker 2: _____
_____.

Speaker 1: _____
_____.

Speaker 2: _____
_____.

Speaker 1: _____
_____.

Speaker 2: _____
_____.

Speaker 1: _____
_____.

Speaker 2: _____
_____.

Appendix 6.2 SRI2 Protocol- Miguel- May 26, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

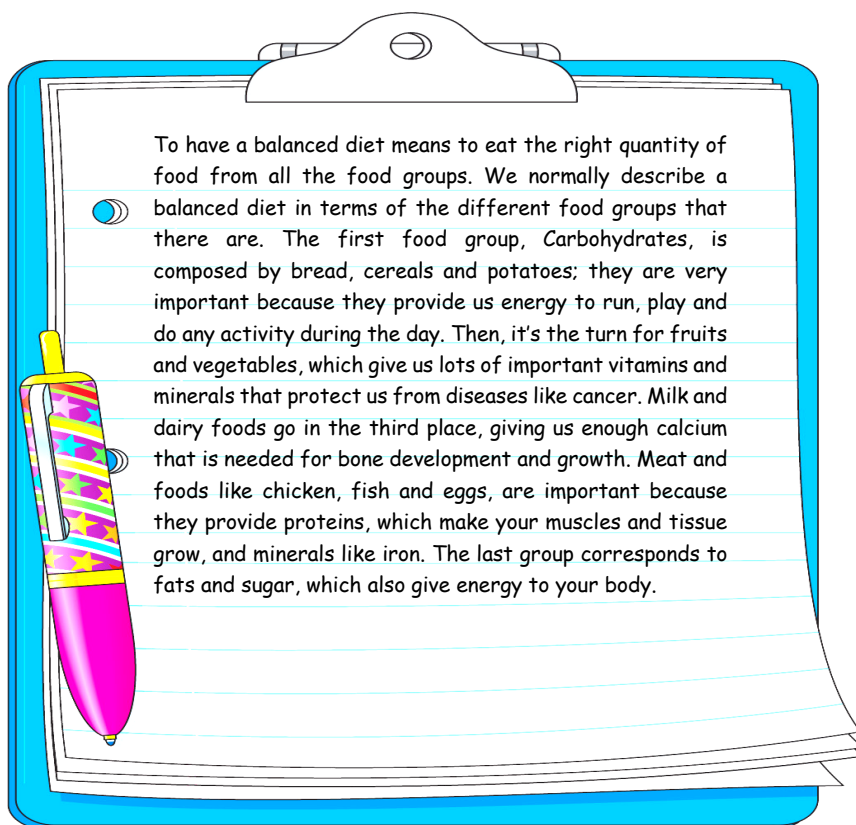
1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Qué diferencias observas entre este material y el material que compartiste conmigo antes?
4. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
5. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
6. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
7. ¿Por qué estás enseñando acerca del medio ambiente?
8. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema del texto?
9. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
10. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
11. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?

Guía de Inglés

TEMA: Healthy Eating

Nombre:	Curso:	Fecha:
Tema:		
Objetivo:		
Instrucciones:		
Tiempo estimado:		

☆ Read the text below and answer the questions.



Comentado [LCL102]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando pusiste cuando incluiste este cuadro?

Comentado [LCL103]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando insertaste el texto en el marco?

I. **Multiple choice.** Circle the correct answers in the following questions.

1) What is the text about?

- a. It is about the food groups.
- b. It is about eating only fruits and vegetables.
- c. It is about having a balanced diet.

2) What is a balanced diet?

- a. To eat only fruits, vegetables and dairy food.
- b. To drink a lot of water and eat little portions of food.
- c. To eat all kind of healthy food in the right portions.

II. **True or false.** For questions 3 to 6, write a T if the statement is TRUE or an F if the statement is FALSE. Justify the FALSE ones.

3) _____ Bread, cereals and potatoes compose the food group called Carbohydrates.

4) _____ Fruits and vegetables give you energy to run and play.

5) _____ Milk and dairy food give us calcium that makes our muscles grow.

6) _____ Fat and sugar give energy to your body.

Comentado [LCL104]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste ocupar un multiple choice para verificar comprensión general?

Comentado [LCL105]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste incluir este ítem de verdadero y falso?

Comentado [LCL106]: ¿Por qué decidiste explicar True of False?

III. Matching. Match the images in column A with their corresponding food groups in column B.

A



B

Dairy

Carbohydrates

**Vitamins
& minerals**

Proteins

**Fat &
Sugar**

Comentado [LCL107]: ¿Por qué decidiste incluir un ítem de matching?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste emplear la plana entera/la página completa?

¿Por qué decidiste usar las palabras en big font?

IV. Grammar Focus. Fill in the blanks with **must, mustn't, have / has (not) , needn't.**

1. You _____ bring your tracksuits for your PE (Physical Education) classes.
2. The monitors _____ to be cleaned before leaving every night. That's number 1 rule.
3. Those who finish their test _____ start making noise.
4. The workbooks _____ be brought to the class unless I tell you to bring them.
5. Students _____ to pay for the transportation as the university has its own bus.
6. If a student breaks a school rule, s/he _____ to stay at school after hours to meet with the principal.

Comentado [LCL108]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste este grammar focus?

Comentado [LCL109]: ¿Qué pensabas cuando decidiste practicar el contenido gramatical con un fill in the blank?

¿Por qué decidiste hacer este fill in the blank con oraciones o contenido temático que no está relacionado con comida?

Comentado [LCL110]: ¿Qué estabas pensando ennegreciste el contenido gramatical?

APPENDIX 7 Valeria's Stimulated Recall Interviews

Appendix 7.1 SRI1 Protocol- Valeria- May 3, 2017

Introducción:

La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
4. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
5. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
6. ¿Por qué estás enseñando Presente Simple/Continuo y una lectura?
7. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan el contenido del texto, Jonathan's last day?
8. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
9. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
10. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?
11. ¿Por qué crees que tu material se lee de forma vertical?

Comentado [aa111]:

Present Simple VS Present Continuous

Veronica Pino
May 4th class

1. ¿Por qué decidiste contrastar el presente simple con el presente continuo?
2. ¿De dónde surge esta idea?

Present Simple

- o It is used to express routine and habits.
- o It uses time expressions
- o Every day, every week, every month, every year, every morning ...
- o It uses frequency adverbs always, sometimes, often, never.
- o It uses Do / Does for negative form
- o It uses Don't / Doesn't for interrogative form.

3. ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste explicar el presente simple de la forma en que lo hiciste?
4. ¿De dónde tomaste las explicaciones?

Affirmative form

- o Mario **sings** every Sunday at church
- o My mother **works** every day after lunch
- o Dogs **play** in the park sometimes

5.¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste explicar el presente simple dividiendolo en afirmación, negación e interrogación?

6.¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste usar negrita en el verbo de estas oraciones?

Negative Form

- o Marcelo **doesn't eat** meat.
- o Teachers **don't work** at weekends.
- o Cats **don't take** a bath very often.

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste dar 3 ejemplos por cada forma?

Interrogative form

- o Do my parents **have** holiday every summer?
o Yes, they do. / No, they don't
- o Does Laura **dance** every Saturday?
o Yes, she does / No, she doesn't
- o Do you **help** at home every day?
o Yes, I do / No, I don't

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste usar distintos colores para las preguntas y las respuestas?

Present Continuous

- o It is used to express events or actions that are happening now.
- o It is an action in progress
- o It uses time expressions like Now, at the moment
- o It uses verb to be "is" / "are"

Affirmative form

- Felipe and Carmen are painting a wall now
- I am travelling by bus now
- Alexis is playing football

Negative form

- My sisters are not watching tv at the moment
- Patricio is not wearing a black jacket
- Fernando and Pedro are not writing their task

Interrogative form

oIs my mother cooking dinner?

o**Yes, she is / No, she isn't**

oWho is talking so loud?

o**Vanesa is talking so loud**

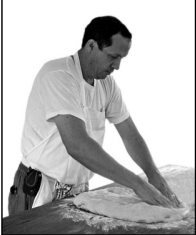
oAre my pets eating their food?

o**Yes, they are / No, they aren't**

oWhat are you reading?

o**I'm reading a magazine**

JONATHAN'S LAST DAY



Jonathan is a famous baker. He's hard-working and punctual. He always gets up at three o'clock every night and bakes his products. Then he has his breakfast with his wife and opens his bakery. He has many customers during the afternoon. At noon, he has lunch at home. After lunch, he leaves the bakery to his son and sleeps about two hours. He returns to the shop and chats with his favourite customers. He has many friends who shop at his bakery. He has the same routine every day.

Today his daily routine is not the same. This is the last day in his bakery. He's going to retire tomorrow. He is going to be in Hawaii with his wife next week. He normally wears white clothes but today he is wearing a Hawaiian shirt. He always has a siesta after lunch, but today he is having a cup of espresso with his best friend. They are talking enthusiastically.

He has had a wonderful working life. Now, he is ready to start a new life.

Comentado [aa112]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste un texto acerca del último día de trabajo de alguien?

¿dónde obtuviste el texto?

1. Underline the words that you know
2. Read the text
3. Answer the following questions

Comentado [aa113]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste la actividad de subrayar el vocabulario que los estudiantes conocen?

Comentado [aa114]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste estas preguntas?

a) **Who is Jonathan?**

b) **Write 3 Jonathan's routines**

Comentado [aa115]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste hacer que los estudiantes escribieran tres rutinas de Jonathan?

c) **Why today is different from other days?**

In pairs write about what these people do every day.

Mother, Father, Teacher, Friends, Pets.
<i>Example: What does my grandmother do? She stays at home always/ every day.</i>
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Comentado [aa116]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando solicitaste a los estudiantes escribir acerca de distintas personas?

Comentado [aa117]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando subrayaste la palabra DO en tu instrucción?

In pairs write what these people are doing now

Mother, Father, Teacher, Friends, Pets,
<i>Example: What is my grandmother doing? She is watching tv now.</i>
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Comentado [aa118]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste hacer que los estudiantes escribieran acerca de lo que ciertas personas están haciendo ahora?

Appendix 7.2 SRI2 Protocol- Valeria- June 20, 2017

Introducción:

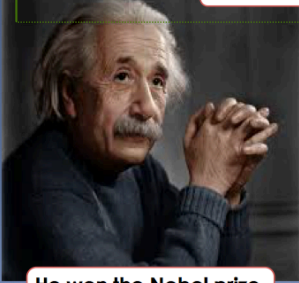
La siguiente entrevista consiste en un set de preguntas orientadas a obtener una descripción de cómo tú desarrollaste el material que has compartido conmigo.

Te haré preguntas acerca del proceso general del diseño, seguidas por preguntas acerca de lo que tú estabas pensando cuando diseñaste partes específicas de éste. Sin embargo, siéntete libre de hacer cualquier comentario que se te venga a la mente acerca del proceso, incluso si yo no te lo pregunto.

Preguntas Generales:

1. ¿Para quién es este material?
2. ¿Cuál es el objetivo de usar este material? ¿Qué quieres que los estudiantes consigan al usarlo?
3. ¿Qué diferencias observas entre este material y el material que compartiste conmigo antes?
4. ¿Cómo está este material orientado metodológicamente?
5. ¿Cómo planeas implementarlo? ¿Impreso, proyector, algún otro?
6. ¿De qué forma crees que tu material cubre las necesidades de tus estudiantes?
7. ¿Por qué estás enseñando acerca de Albert Einstein?
8. ¿Cómo crees que los estudiantes se relacionan con el tema del texto?
9. ¿Cómo tienen que trabajar los estudiantes este material? ¿En pares, individualmente?
10. ¿Cómo se te ocurrieron las actividades que hay en el material?
11. ¿Cómo están posicionados los estudiantes en su proceso de aprendizaje a través del uso del material?

Who was Albert Einstein?



He left the school when he was 15 years old

Doctors investigated his brain, when Albert died

He won the Nobel prize in 1921

KEY WORDS

1. Prodigy	Prodigio
2. Preferred	Prefirió
3. Left	Dejó
4. Changed	Cambió
5. Removed	Removió
6. Century	Siglo

Negative <i>didn't</i> + infinitive	I didn't listen. He didn't stop.
Questions <i>did</i> + subject + infinitive	Did you go? What did she do ?
Short answers	Yes, I did . / No, I didn't .

Comentado [aa119]: ¿qué estabas pensando cuando introdujiste a Albert Einstein a través de información factual?
¿Por qué incluiste esta imagen y no otra?

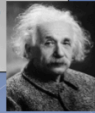
Comentado [aa120]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando introdujiste este vocabulario?
¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste presentar el vocabulario a través de traducciones?

Comentado [aa121]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando introdujiste el pasado simple en sus tres formas?
¿De dónde tomaste este cuadro gramática?

1. Einstein left the school when he was 15 years old.

2. Einstein didn't leave the school when he was 15 years old.

3. Did Einstein leave the school when he was 15 years old?



Comentado [aa122]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste estas tres oraciones en tu PPT?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste la imagen del rincón inferior derecho?

Find the verbs!

Q K O U O U H G D P N Y F A R
 K O O F Q O Y J E Q N J N F H
 X X Q M G V M M T W D Q S A E
 B Q E W S Y M L N Z O I G D L
 W A N T E D I K E Z J R E G P
 D V Y N A K O G V U R D K G E
 U O M P E R N B N V E K H E D
 I Q H D X Y U K I E G C A S D
 N A K K C H Q R N E D A M R T
 W K N L O M B V T C S K M M Z

ATE
 LIKED
 WANTED
 HELPED
 MADE
 WORKED
 INVENTED
 NEEDED

MATCH THE WORDS WITH THEIR MEANING IN SPANISH

- | | |
|-------------|---------------|
| 1. ATE | ___ Trabajar |
| 2. LIKED | ___ Hacer |
| 3. WANTED | ___ Comer |
| 4. HELPED | ___ Necesitar |
| 5. MADE | ___ Ayudar |
| 6. WORKED | ___ Gustar |
| 7. INVENTED | ___ Querer |
| 8. NEEDED | ___ Inventar |

Comentado [aa123]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste esta sopa de letras?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando pusiste las palabras al costado derecho de la sopa de letras?

Comentado [aa124]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando hiciste un matching de verbos y su traducción?

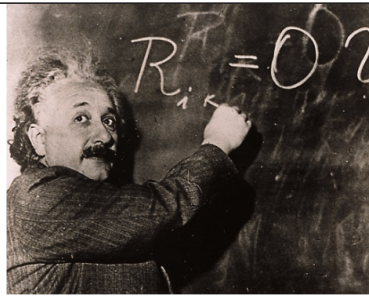
ALBERT EINSTEIN

Who is the most famous scientist of all time? Who is the greatest genius? For many people, the answer is the physicist, Albert Einstein.

Einstein wasn't a child prodigy. When he was a baby, he was slow to talk. When he was nine years old, he couldn't speak well. Einstein left school when he was only fifteen. He didn't like the classes. He preferred to study at home with books about mathematics, physics and philosophy.

When he was seventeen, Einstein wanted to study at the Institute of Technology in Zurich, Switzerland, but he didn't pass the entrance examination. Einstein wasn't a good student, but his ideas changed the way we look at the world. In 1921 he won the Nobel Prize.

When he died, a doctor removed his brain to investigate the secrets of his intelligence. Albert Einstein's brain was smaller than normal because



he was a small person. In 1999, scientists in Canada discovered that the part of Einstein's brain responsible for mathematical calculations was 15% bigger than normal. In the same year *Time* magazine named him 'person of the century'.

Answer the questions.

1. What was Einstein's first name?

His first name was Albert

2. When did he leave school?

3. Where did he want to study?

4. Why was his brain smaller than normal?

5. What did scientists in Canada discover?

6. Which magazine named him "person of the century"?

Comentado [aa125]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste un texto de Albert Einstein?

¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste dejar el texto tal como lo encontraste en la fuente original?

¿De donde tomaste el texto?

Comentado [aa126]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste realizar la comprensión de texto con preguntas cerradas?

Comentado [aa127]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste dar este ejemplo subrayando, ennegreciendo y usando cursiva?

LET'S PRACTICE

Negative <i>didn't</i> + infinitive	I didn't listen. He didn't stop.
Questions <i>did</i> + subject + infinitive	Did you go? What did she do ?
Short answers	Yes, I did . / No, I didn't .

Comentado [aa128]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste este cuadro gramatical?
¿De dónde tomaste el cuadro?

1. Transform this sentences into negative and questions forms

Comentado [aa129]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando incluiste este item de transformación gramatical?

Example: Paul Walker died in 2013

Paul Walker didn't die in 2013

Did Paul Walker die in 2013?

Comentado [aa130]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando diste un ejemplo en negrita y subrayado?

1. Albert Einstein wanted to study in Zurich

2. Doctors removed Einstein's brain to study it.

3. Students learned past simple tense

4. Scientists invented the cure for cancer

INTERVIEW YOUR CLASSMATES ABOUT HIS or HER CHILDHOOD

Names: _____

Ask your classmate about his or her school, games, favorite food and favorite TV show.

Question	Answer
Which school did you go?	
What was your favorite game?	
What was your favorite food?	
Did you watch TV?	
What was your favorite TV show?	

Comentado [aa131]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando cuando decidiste que los estudiantes se entrevistaran mutuamente?

Comentado [aa132]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando decidiste que los estudiantes pregunten acerca del colegio, comida favorita y programa de TV favoritos?

Comentado [aa133]: ¿Qué estabas pensando cuando diste las preguntas a los estudiantes?

Institute of Education



Ethics Application Form: Student Research

Anyone conducting research under the auspices of the Institute (staff, students or visitors) where the research involves human participants or the use of data collected from human participants, is required to gain ethical approval before starting. This includes preliminary and pilot studies. Please answer all relevant questions in terms that can be understood by a lay person and note that your form may be returned if incomplete.

For further support and guidance please see accompanying guidelines and the Ethics Review Procedures for Student Research <http://www.ucl.ac.uk/srs/research-ethics-committee/ioe> or contact your supervisor or IOE.researchethics@ucl.ac.uk.

Before completing this form you will need to discuss your proposal fully with your supervisor(s). Please attach all supporting documents and letters.

For all Psychology students, this form should be completed with reference to the British Psychological Society (BPS) Code of Human Research Ethics and Code of Ethics and Conduct.

Section 1 Project details

a.	Project title	Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials	
b.	Student name	Luis Carabantes Leal	
c.	Supervisor/Personal Tutor	Amos Paran	
d.	Department	Culture, Communication and Media	
e.	Course category (Tick one)	PhD/MPhil <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	EdD <input type="checkbox"/>
		MRes <input type="checkbox"/>	DEdPsy <input type="checkbox"/>
		MTeach <input type="checkbox"/>	MA/MSc <input type="checkbox"/>
		ITE <input type="checkbox"/>	
		Diploma (state which) <input type="checkbox"/>	
		Other (state which) <input type="checkbox"/>	
f.	Course/module title	MPhil/PhD in Education	
g.	If applicable, state who the funder is and if funding has been confirmed.	CONICYT- Confirmed funding until September 2019	
h.	Intended research start date	October 2016	

i.	Intended research end date	September 2019
j.	Country fieldwork will be conducted in <i>If research to be conducted abroad please ensure travel insurance is obtained through UCL</i> http://www.ucl.ac.uk/finance/insurance/travel	Chile
k.	Has this project been considered by another (external) Research Ethics Committee?	
	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	External Committee Name:
	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ⇒ go to Section 2	Date of Approval:
<p>If yes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Submit a copy of the approval letter with this application. – Proceed to Section 10 Attachments. 		
<p>Note: Ensure that you check the guidelines carefully as research with some participants will require ethical approval from a different ethics committee such as the National Research Ethics Service (NRES) or Social Care Research Ethics Committee (SCREC). In addition, if your research is based in another institution then you may be required to apply to their research ethics committee.</p>		

Section 2 Project summary

Research methods (tick all that apply)

Please attach questionnaires, visual methods and schedules for interviews (even in draft form).

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Interviews | <input type="checkbox"/> Controlled trial/other intervention study |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Focus groups | <input type="checkbox"/> Use of personal records |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> Systematic review ⇒ <i>if only method used go to Section 5.</i> |
| Questionnaires | <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary data analysis ⇒ <i>if secondary analysis used go to Section 6.</i> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Action research | <input type="checkbox"/> Advisory/consultation/collaborative groups |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Observation | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Other, give details: analysis of language teaching materials written by preservice teachers, analysis of teacher education programme curriculum, analysis of national Chilean English language teaching policy |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Literature review | |

Please provide an overview of your research. This should include some or all of the following: purpose of the research, aims, main research questions, research design, participants, sampling, your method of data collection (e.g., observations, interviews, questionnaires, etc.) and kind of questions that will be asked, reporting and dissemination (typically 300-500 words).

The research will explore the problematics lived by a group of preservice teachers of English in Chile with regards to the design of English language materials. The research aims to understand the activity of materials design and the role it plays in learning to teach English as a foreign language. The following are the research questions:

- *How do EFL preservice teachers learn to design ELT materials?*
- *What symbolic and physical tools derived from their sociocultural settings do they use to design their materials?*
- *What levels of appropriation do preservice teachers have of the concepts used to design their language teaching materials?*
- *What curricular, ideological and language teaching principles, if any, do they articulate in their materials?*
- *What tensions from their learning settings drive their learning how to design language teaching materials?*

- *To what extent do preservice teachers learn how to teach English through the design of their own language teaching materials?*

The research will be a case study. I will use the following methods: semi-interviews, stimulated recall interviews, observations, and document analysis. I will gather the data from March to July, 2017. I will analyse the data using a sociocultural approach (Activity Theory) to understand the learning of materials design in its sociocultural context. I expect this examination to uncover the factors affecting how this process is carried out and its role in learning to teach English.

The participants of the study will be last-year preservice teachers of English who should be doing their practicum, their school mentors, and their teacher educators from different modules such as English and English Teaching Methodology, the programme leader in charge of administration and academic organisation, and preservice teachers who are in different levels of the programme. The reason for choosing this programme lies in its sociocultural approach to teacher training, thus a criterion sampling. Since I will use a sociocultural lens to gather and analyse data, this particular characteristic may enhance significantly the insights into the learning of materials development. While criterion sampling will be used to select which preservice teachers participate of the study, i.e., specific predetermined criteria such as having completed all the modules of their training and be currently doing their practicum, the teacher educators will be those teaching in the training programme and willing to participate, and the teacher mentors those working with the chosen preservice teachers in their practicum and willing to participate too. For the focus groups with preservice teachers, I will use a maximum variation sampling considering preservice teachers of all five levels, i.e., first, second, third, fourth and fifth year of the teacher training programme.

In terms of methods, I will conduct semi-structured interviews with preservice teachers, school mentors, teacher educators and the programme leader. The questions will elicit information of how the programme and the practicum contribute to the preservice teachers' learning of materials design. These interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed.

I will also conduct stimulated recall sessions with the preservice teachers using prompts from the materials they design in order to enquire about how they develop teaching materials for their practicum, and what sociocultural constructs they bring into their materials. The sessions will be audio-recorded and transcribed.

I will also conduct focus groups with students of the programme to have a collective view of learning to develop English teaching materials. The questions will relate to how the programme, the practicum and other factors influence their learning of materials design. The focus groups will be video-recorded and audio-taped.

In addition, I will observe the modules of English and language teaching methodology where units on materials development are considered. I will also observe the English lessons where the preservice teachers use their own English teaching materials as part of their practicum. I will video-record and take field notes of both types of lessons.

The study also involves the analysis of documents related to English Language Teaching policy in Chile, English teacher education in Chile, the English teaching programme curriculum, and the materials designed by the preservice teachers. While the documents that are a policy are available online, the programme curriculum and the materials will be requested from the programme leader and the preservice teachers correspondingly.

I will report the results of the study through a PhD thesis presented at the department of Culture, Communication and Media of the UCL Institute of Education, at conferences, and relevant journals.

Section 3 Participants

Please answer the following questions giving full details where necessary. Text boxes will expand for your responses.

a.	Will your research involve human participants?	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/> ⇒ go to Section 4
b.	Who are the participants (i.e. what sorts of people will be involved)? Tick all that apply.		
	<input type="checkbox"/> Early years/pre-school <input type="checkbox"/> Ages 5-11 <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Ages 12-16 <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Young people aged 17-18	<input type="checkbox"/> Unknown – specify below <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Adults <i>please specify below</i> <input type="checkbox"/> Other – specify below	<p>Preservice teachers of English, teacher educators and their programme administrator</p>
	<p>NB: Ensure that you check the guidelines (Section 1) carefully as research with some participants will require ethical approval from a different ethics committee such as the National Research Ethics Service (NRES).</p>		
c.	<p>If participants are under the responsibility of others (such as parents, teachers or medical staff) how do you intend to obtain permission to approach the participants to take part in the study?</p> <p>(Please attach approach letters or details of permission procedures – see Section 9 Attachments.)</p> <p>I will send an information sheet describing the project and asking the parents or guardians to send me an opt-out statement.</p>		
d.	<p>How will participants be recruited (identified and approached)?</p> <p>I will contact the programme leader and head of the department of the university where I will do research to ask for their permission to carry out the study at the institution. Second, I will contact the participants through the programme leader by sending emails to recruit participants. Third, I will hold meetings with the willing participants to inform them about the project and hand out information sheets and consent forms.</p> <p>I will repeat the same procedure with teacher educators from the university programme.</p> <p>I will recruit school mentors by approaching them personally at the school where they work. I will explain what the research is about and hand in information sheets and consent forms.</p>		
e.	<p>Describe the process you will use to inform participants about what you are doing.</p> <p>I will conduct an informative meeting with the preservice teachers, and give them the official information letters approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the UCL-IoE about what they will be doing and what the study entails for them.</p> <p>I will approach the teacher educators and school mentors personally to explain the project and give them information sheets and consent forms.</p> <p>In all cases, I will give the participants my email and telephone number so they can ask further questions if they have any.</p>		
f.	<p>How will you obtain the consent of participants? Will this be written? How will it be made clear to participants that they may withdraw consent to participate at any time?</p> <p>See the guidelines for information on opt-in and opt-out procedures. Please note that the method of consent should be appropriate to the research and fully explained.</p>		

	<p>I will give them an information letter with an attached consent form which they have to sign if they are willing to participate. Both information sheet and consent form will make it explicit that they can withdraw from the research at any point they think necessary and that their data will not be used if they decide to stop participating.</p>
g.	<p>Studies involving questionnaires: Will participants be given the option of omitting questions they do not wish to answer?</p> <p>Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p>
	<p>If NO please explain why below and ensure that you cover any ethical issues arising from this in section 8.</p>
h.	<p>Stud Studies involving observation: Confirm whether participants will be asked for their informed consent to be observed.</p> <p>Studies involving observation: Confirm whether participants will be asked for their informed consent to be observed.</p> <p>Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p>
	<p>If NO read the guidelines (Ethical Issues section) and explain why below and ensure that you cover any ethical issues arising from this in section 8.</p>
i.	<p>Might participants experience anxiety, discomfort or embarrassment as a result of your study?</p> <p>Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p>
	<p>If yes what steps will you take to explain and minimise this?</p> <p>First, I will guarantee anonymity of the institution, and persons participating in the study at all stages of the research. Second, I will make it clear that the study attempts to characterise the process of materials development and the training related to it, thus no quality judgements are intended either on the materials I will analyse, nor the training received by the preservice teachers at the university. Third, before conducting interviews or focus groups, I will develop rapport with the participants through small talk and showing them examples of the methods being implemented so that anxiety, discomfort or embarrassment are minimised. Lastly, I will not ask questions that touch on personal issues.</p> <p>If not, explain how you can be sure that no discomfort or embarrassment will arise?</p>
j.	<p>Will your project involve deliberately misleading participants (deception) in any way?</p> <p>Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></p>
	<p>If YES please provide further details below and ensure that you cover any ethical issues arising from this in section 8.</p>
k.	<p>Will you debrief participants at the end of their participation (i.e. give them a brief explanation of the study)?</p> <p>Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/></p>
	<p>If NO please explain why below and ensure that you cover any ethical issues arising from this in section 8.</p>
l.	<p>Will participants be given information about the findings of your study? (This could be a brief summary of your findings in general; it is not the same as an individual debriefing.)</p>

Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>
If no , why not?

Section 4 Security-sensitive material

Only complete if applicable

Security sensitive research includes: commissioned by the military; commissioned under an EU security call; involves the acquisition of security clearances; concerns terrorist or extreme groups.

a.	Will your project consider or encounter security-sensitive material?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> *	No <input type="checkbox"/>
b.	Will you be visiting websites associated with extreme or terrorist organisations?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> *	No <input type="checkbox"/>
c.	Will you be storing or transmitting any materials that could be interpreted as promoting or endorsing terrorist acts?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> *	No <input type="checkbox"/>

*
Give further details in **Section 8 Ethical Issues**

Section 5 Systematic review of research

Only complete if applicable

a.	Will you be collecting any new data from participants?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> *	No <input type="checkbox"/>
b.	Will you be analysing any secondary data?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> *	No <input type="checkbox"/>

* Give further details in **Section 8 Ethical Issues**

If your methods do not involve engagement with participants (e.g. systematic review, literature review) **and** if you have answered **No** to both questions, please go to **Section 10 Attachments**.

Section 6 Secondary data analysis Complete for all secondary analysis

a.	Name of dataset/s	
b.	Owner of dataset/s	
c.	Are the data in the public domain?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>
		If no, do you have the owner's permission/license? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No* <input type="checkbox"/>
d.	Are the data anonymised?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>
		Do you plan to anonymise the data? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No* <input type="checkbox"/>
		Do you plan to use individual level data? Yes* <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>
		Will you be linking data to individuals? Yes* <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>
e.	Are the data sensitive (DPA 1998 definition)?	Yes* <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>
f.	Will you be conducting analysis within the remit it was originally collected for?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No* <input type="checkbox"/>
g.	If no , was consent gained from participants for subsequent/future analysis?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No* <input type="checkbox"/>
h.	If no , was data collected prior to ethics approval process?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No* <input type="checkbox"/>
<p><i>* Give further details in Section 8 Ethical Issues</i></p> <p><i>If secondary analysis is only method used and no answers with asterisks are ticked, go to Section 9 Attachments.</i></p>		

Section 7 Data Storage and Security

Please ensure that you include all hard and electronic data when completing this section.

a.	Confirm that all personal data will be stored and processed in compliance with the Data Protection Act 1998 (DPA 1998). (See the Guidelines and the Institute's Data Protection & Records Management Policy for more detail.)	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
b.	Will personal data be processed or be sent outside the European Economic Area?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> * No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
<p>* If yes, please confirm that there are adequate levels of protections in compliance with the DPA 1998 and state what these arrangements are below.</p>		
c.	Who will have access to the data and personal information, including advisory/consultation groups and during transcription? Only my supervisor	
<p>During the research</p>		
d.	Where will the data be stored? In my personal computer and my UCL online account.	
	Will mobile devices such as USB storage and laptops be used?	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> * No <input type="checkbox"/>
e.	* If yes , state what mobile devices: Personal laptop	
	* If yes , will they be encrypted?: Yes	

After the research	
f.	Where will the data be stored? <i>It will be kept in my personal laptop and UCL online account.</i>
g.	How long will the data and records be kept for and in what format? <i>I will store the audio and video recordings until I finish the doctoral thesis, and other dissemination activities like articles and conferences. After that, audio and videotapes will be destroyed. The transcriptions will be kept in anonymity in my personal computer for other research activities I may engage in, for example, for further analysis. In these cases, access to these transcriptions will be only possible through the use of the passwords which only I have to access in my personal computer.</i>
h.	Will data be archived for use by other researchers? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> * No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> * If yes , please provide details.

Section 8 Ethical issues

Are there particular features of the proposed work which may raise ethical concerns or add to the complexity of ethical decision making? If so, please outline how you will deal with these. It is important that you demonstrate your awareness of potential risks or harm that may arise as a result of your research. You should then demonstrate that you have considered ways to minimise the likelihood and impact of each potential harm that you have identified. Please be as specific as possible in describing the ethical issues you will have to address. Please consider / address ALL issues that may apply.

Ethical concerns may include, but not be limited to, the following areas:

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Methods - Sampling - Recruitment - Gatekeepers - Informed consent - Potentially vulnerable participants - Safeguarding/child protection - Sensitive topics | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - International research - Risks to participants and/or researchers - Confidentiality/Anonymity - Disclosures/limits to confidentiality - Data storage and security both during and after the research (including transfer, sharing, encryption, protection) - Reporting - Dissemination and use of findings |
|---|--|

One of the ethical concerns of this project relates to the dissemination and use of findings. Since I will be working on issues touching on standards required by the Ministry of Education on materials design, the results may reveal that the programme is not actively engaged in the attainment of this standard, and consequently, the preservice teachers are not trained to face this aspect at the onset of their teaching careers. This could affect the university and programme's reputation with regards to the quality of their training. Teacher educators, programme leader and ultimately preservice teachers may be affected by this. In order to minimise this issue, anonymity of the institution as well as all the participants will be maintained at all times through the thesis writing process and in dissemination activities. CONYCIT, which funds this project, will not know which institution or people I will be working with.

Another ethical concern relates to the preservice teachers whose materials I will be analysing. Since analysing them may suggest the idea of being assessed, this may lead to the preservice teachers' loss of face. In order to avoid having them going through this, I will not make comments on the quality of their work but only on the characteristics their materials have. Anonymity should also help to diminish these feelings. If they ask me for my opinion, I will comment on their materials, however I will not suggest ways in which they could modify them or impact their next design of materials. Similarly, the teacher educators and programme leader may lose face if they feel that their work is being assessed. In this sense, I will prevent them from developing these feelings by not judging their responses in their interviews, but only ask them to expand their own ideas from the questions listed on the semi-structured interviews. I will guarantee anonymity.

Even though the focus of analysis is preservice teachers and how they design materials, some observations where they implement those materials will inevitably have the presence of children in schools. In order to observe and film these school lessons, the parents or guardians will be given an information sheet explaining the research and an opt-out statement which they would have to sign and send back to me if they do not want their children to be observed and filmed. Also, the pupils themselves will be given an information sheet and consent form which they would have to sign for me to be able to observe and film. If one or more do not want to participate, they will be sent to another classroom to work.

Section 9 Further information

Outline any other information you feel relevant to this submission, using a separate sheet or attachments if necessary.

Section 10 Attachments Please attach the following items to this form, or explain if not attached

Information sheets and other materials to be used to inform potential participants about the research, including approach letters	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
Consent form	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
<i>If applicable:</i>		
The proposal for the project	Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
Approval letter from external Research Ethics Committee	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Full risk assessment	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Section 11 Declaration

Yes	No
I have read, understood and will abide by the following set of guidelines.	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
BPS <input type="checkbox"/>	BERA <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
BSA <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please state) <input type="checkbox"/>	
I have discussed the ethical issues relating to my research with my supervisor.	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
I have attended the appropriate ethics training provided by my course.	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

I confirm that to the best of my knowledge:

The above information is correct and that this is a full description of the ethics issues that may arise in the course of this project.

Name	Luis Carabantes Leal
Date	September 14 th , 2016

Please submit your completed ethics forms to your supervisor.

Notes and references

Professional code of ethics

You should read and understand relevant ethics guidelines, for example:

[British Psychological Society](#) (2009) *Code of Ethics and Conduct*, and (2014) *Code of Human Research Ethics*

or

[British Educational Research Association](#) (2011) *Ethical Guidelines*

or

[British Sociological Association](#) (2002) *Statement of Ethical Practice*

Disclosure and Barring Service checks

If you are planning to carry out research in regulated Education environments such as Schools, or if your research will bring you into contact with children and young people (under the age of 18), you will need to have a Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS) CHECK, before you start. The DBS was previously known as the Criminal Records Bureau (CRB)). If you do not already hold a current DBS check, and have not registered with the DBS update service, you will need to obtain one through UCL.

Ensure that you apply for the DBS check in plenty of time as will take around 4 weeks, though can take longer depending on the circumstances.

Further references

The www.ethicsguidebook.ac.uk website is very useful for assisting you to think through the ethical issues arising from your project.

Robson, Colin (2011). *Real world research: a resource for social scientists and practitioner researchers* (3rd edition). Oxford: Blackwell.

This text has a helpful section on ethical considerations.

Alderson, P. and Morrow, V. (2011) *The Ethics of Research with Children and Young People: A Practical Handbook*. London: Sage.

This text has useful suggestions if you are conducting research with children and young people.

Wiles, R. (2013) *What are Qualitative Research Ethics?* Bloomsbury.

A useful and short text covering areas including informed consent, approaches to research ethics including examples of ethical dilemmas.

Departmental use	
<p>If a project raises particularly challenging ethics issues, or a more detailed review would be appropriate, you may refer the application to the Research Ethics and Governance Administrator (via IOE.researchethics@ucl.ac.uk) so that it can be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee for consideration. A Research Ethics Committee Chair, ethics representatives in your department and the research ethics coordinator can advise you, either to support your review process, or help decide whether an application should be referred to the Research Ethics Committee.</p>	
Reviewer 1	
Supervisor name	
Supervisor comments	
Supervisor signature	
Reviewer 2	
Advisory committee/course team member name	
Advisory committee/course team member comments	
Advisory committee/course team member signature	
Decision	
Date decision was made	
Decision	Approved <input type="checkbox"/>
	Referred back to applicant and supervisor <input type="checkbox"/>
	Referred to REC for review <input type="checkbox"/>
Recording	Recorded in the student information system <input type="checkbox"/>

Once completed and approved, please send this form and associated documents to the relevant programme administrator to record on the student information system and to securely store.

Further guidance on ethical issues can be found on the IOE website at <http://www.ucl.ac.uk/srs/research-ethics-committee/ioe> and www.ethicsguidebook.ac.uk

9.1 Preservice Teachers' Information sheet, consent form, and interview protocol

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials
September 2016 – September 2019
Information Sheet for Preservice teachers

Who is conducting the research?

My name is Luis Carabantes. I am a PhD student at the University College London Institute of Education and I am inviting you to take part in my research project, 'Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials'. The UCL Institute of Education is one of the leading institutions in education worldwide. It is the leading teacher training institution in the UK and it has contributed extensively to the development of the scholarship related to English language teaching. This project is sponsored by the Chilean government through its Doctoral Scholarship programme run by CONICYT.

I am hoping to find out how preservice teachers develop language teaching materials, the role that this activity has in learning to teach English as a Foreign Language.

I very much hope that you would like to take part. This information sheet will try and answer any questions you might have about the project, but please don't hesitate to contact me if there is anything else you would like to know.

Why are we doing this research?

This research aims at exploring the process of English language teaching materials development carried out by preservice teachers of English in Chile, and what role this activity plays in learning to teach English as a foreign language. The research highlights the importance of learning to design language teaching materials, and how teachers go about designing their own without having received substantial training to do so. Several authors in fields of applied linguistics such as language teacher education and materials development acknowledge the importance of language teaching materials in the language classrooms, yet this is an area that has not seen significant research.

Why am I being invited to take part?

As a preservice teacher of English, you can provide valuable input about how learning to design materials takes place at the university context where you study. In addition, you have successfully passed all the modules of the programme, and are currently doing your practicum at a school. Therefore, you could offer important insights of the extent to which your teacher training programme has facilitated the learning of materials design, and how you go about doing this. To this end, you will be sharing your materials with me from which I will design an interview, to later describe your materials during a retrospective interview which I explain below.

What will happen if I choose to take part?

If you decide to take part, you will be participating of:

- a) One interview
- b) At least two stimulated recall sessions (read description below)
- c) At least two filmed observations

The interview will be about 45 minutes at a place and time of your convenience. I will ask you questions about your experience with language teaching materials either as a learner of English, or as a future teacher of English. This interview can be in Spanish, English or a combination of both, as you prefer. I will audiotape the interview for a later transcription and analysis.

A stimulated recall is a type of interview in which I will ask you about a past activity, in this case how you designed your own materials. To do this, you will share with me your English teaching materials, from which I will develop prompts to conduct the interview. Using those prompts I will ask you about the process of materials development that you followed. The materials you share will only be used for the purposes of this research. In short, you would be describing how you design your own language teaching materials. The stimulated recalls will also be in Spanish, English or a combination of both depending on your preference. I will audiotape the interview for a later transcription and analysis.

Finally, I will also film and observe how you use the materials you design. I will attend the school where you do your practicum, observe, film and make notes of how you use the materials.

Will anyone know I have been involved?

No. If you decide to participate of the study, your name will remain secret and the information will be used only for research purposes. I will use pseudonyms so that no individual will be identifiable. All personal information will remain confidential, and will be kept in my personal laptop and my UCL online account, which can only be accessed using a password.

Could there be problems for me if I take part?

Taking part of this research will not involve any problems, as you do not have to provide any personal information affecting your studies. If you decide to participate, your name will remain secret and the information will be used for research purposes only. If you feel uncomfortable during the research, you are entitled to withdraw at any point.

What will happen to the results of the research?

The results of this study will be presented as a doctoral thesis at the UCL Institute of Education. As part of my doctoral studies, I will be sharing results at conferences and relevant journals. Your participation in the study will remain anonymous, as I will change your name for a pseudonym once I begin transcribing. If you are interested in seeing the results of the study, you can email me at luis.carabantes@ucl.ac.uk, and I will send you a summary of the results of this research. I will keep the data for as long as the study lasts in my personal laptop and the online account provided by University College London. I will encrypt the information so that only I have access to it. My supervisor, Dr Amos Paran from the UCL-Institute of Education, will also see part of the data as he will assist me in the thesis writing process as part of my doctoral studies.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether or not you choose to take part. We hope that if you do choose to be involved then you will find it a valuable experience. Please, feel free not to participate if it is not within your interests, or if you believe this research could jeopardise your studies or your practicum. No negative repercussions will emerge from not choosing to participate. Deciding not to participate will not have any effect on the development of your studies.

Thank you very much for taking the time to read this information sheet.

If you would like to be involved, please complete the following consent form and return to luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk by March 15th, 2017.

If you have any further questions before you decide whether to take part, you can reach me at luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials
September 2016 – September 2019
Consent Form

If you are happy to participate, please complete this consent form and return to [Luis Carabantes \(luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk\)](mailto:luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk) by **March 15th, 2017**.

	Yes	No
I have read and understood the information leaflet about the research.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I agree to be interviewed, and participate in the stimulated recall sessions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am happy for my interview and stimulated recall sessions to be audio recorded. I am also happy to be observed and filmed while I use my own English teaching materials.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that if any of my words are used in reports or presentations they will not be attributed to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I can withdraw from the project at any time, and that if I choose to do this, any data I have contributed will not be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I can contact Luis Carabantes at any time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that the results will be shared in a doctoral thesis, at conferences and in journal articles.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(If applicable) I have discussed the information sheet with my child	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Name _____

Signed _____

Date

Researcher's name [Luis Carabantes L.](#)

Signed _____

Preservice Teacher Interview Protocol

- **Salutation:** Ask for personal information to set the tone and create initial rapport
E.g. Where are you doing your practicum? How has your experience teaching in that school been thus far? Etc.
- **Begin interview explaining that the purpose of the research is *to explore how preservice teachers of English learn to design language teaching materials.***
- **Ask the following questions:**
 - Considering that you need to plan your own lessons and design the materials to accompany those lessons, how do you go about designing your own materials?
 - What type of materials do you use to teach your lessons?
 - In your opinion, has your ELT programme contributed to the learning of materials design? How?
 - What module of the ELT programme, if any, has contributed to your learning of materials development and in what way?
 - Do you get ideas of materials design from the materials you have used to learn English? Can you give examples?
 - Can you recall a situation where you and your teachers have addressed explicitly a materials design issue?
 - In what ways, if any, you think designing materials can contribute to your learning to teach English?
 - What curricular and/or language teaching principles do you bring into the design of materials?
 - What content do you include in your materials? Why?
 - Is there anything else you would like to add?
- **Closing**

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials

September 2015 - September 2019

Information sheet for Schoolteachers

Who is conducting the research?

My name is Luis Carabantes. I am a PhD student at the University College London Institute of Education and I am inviting you to take in part in my research project, 'Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials'. The UCL Institute of Education is one of the leading institutions in education worldwide. It is the leading teacher training institution in the UK and it has contributed extensively to the development of the scholarship related to English language teaching. This project is sponsored by the Chilean government through its Doctoral Scholarship programme run by CONICYT.

I am hoping to find out how preservice teachers develop language teaching materials, the role that this activity has in learning to teach English as a Foreign Language.

I very much hope that you would like to take part. This information sheet will try and answer any questions you might have about the project, but please don't hesitate to contact me if there is anything else you would like to know.

Why are we doing this research?

This research aims at exploring the process of English language teaching materials development carried out by preservice teachers of English in Chile, and what role this activity plays in learning to teach English as a foreign language. The research highlights the importance of learning to design language teaching materials, and how teachers go about designing their own without having received substantial training to do so. Several authors in fields of applied linguistics such as language teacher education and materials development acknowledge the importance of language teaching materials in the language classrooms, yet this is an area that has not seen significant research.

Why am I being invited to take part?

As a school mentor, you can provide valuable input about how preservice teachers of English learn to design language teaching materials. You can provide valuable information on what school factors shape the design of materials, what requirements you pose on the design of materials, and how you contribute to the preservice teachers' learning of materials design.

What will happen if I choose to take part?

If you decide to take part, you will be participating of an interview that will last about one hour. You will be answering about ten questions. You can answer the questions either in English or Spanish or a combination of both. The interviews will be audio-recorded only if you sign a consent letter.

You will be asked questions like: What's your personal experience of the use of materials? How do you go about designing your own teaching materials? What requirements does the school have for designing materials?

Will anyone know I have been involved?

No. If you decide to participate of the study, your name will remain secret and the information will be used only for research purposes. I will use pseudonyms so that no individual will be identifiable. All personal information will remain confidential, and will be kept in my personal laptop and my UCL online account, which can only be accessed using a password.

Could there be problems for me if I take part?

Taking part of this research will not involve any problems, as you do not have to provide any personal information affecting your work. If you decide to participate, your name will remain secret and the information will be used for research purposes only. If you feel uncomfortable during the research, you are entitled to withdraw at any point.

What will happen to the results of the research?

The results of this study will be presented as a doctoral thesis at the UCL Institute of Education. As part of my doctoral studies, I will be sharing results at conferences and relevant journals. Your participation in the study will remain anonymous, as I will change your name for a pseudonym once I begin transcribing. If you are interested in seeing the results of the study, you can email me at luis.carabantes@ucl.ac.uk, and I will send you a summary of the results of this research. I will keep the data for as long as the study lasts in my personal laptop and the online account provided by University College London. I will encrypt the information so that only I have access to it. My supervisor, Dr Amos Paran from the UCL-Institute of Education, will also see part of the data as he will assist me in the thesis writing process as part of my doctoral studies.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether or not you choose to take part. We hope that if you do choose to be involved then you will find it a valuable experience. Please, feel free not to participate if it is not within your interests, or if you believe this study could jeopardise your work at the school. No negative repercussions will emerge from not choosing to participate. Deciding not to participate will not have any effect on the development of your work.

Thank you very much for taking the time to read this information sheet.

If you would like to be involved, please complete the following consent form and return to luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk by March 15th, 2017.

If you have any further questions before you decide whether to take part, you can reach me at

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials

September 2016 – September 2019

Consent Form

If you are happy to participate, please complete this consent form and return to [Luis Carabantes \(luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk\)](mailto:luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk) by **March 15th, 2017**.

	Yes	No
I have read and understood the information leaflet about the research.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I agree to be interviewed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am happy for my interview to be audio recorded.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that if any of my words are used in reports or presentations they will not be attributed to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I can withdraw from the project at any time, and that if I choose to do this, any data I have contributed will not be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I can contact Luis Carabantes at any time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that the results will be shared with in a doctoral thesis, at conferences, and in journal articles.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(If applicable) I have discussed the information sheet with my child	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Name _____

Signed _____

Date _____

Researcher's name [Luis Carabantes L.](#)

Signed _____

Schoolteachers Interview Protocol

➤ Salutation

Ask for personal information to set the tone and create initial rapport:

E.g. How long have you worked at the school? What levels? How many hours a week?

➤ Begin interview explaining that the purpose of the research is *to explore how preservice teachers in the programme learn to design language teaching materials.*

➤ Ask the following questions:

- How did you learn to design language teaching materials? Did you receive explicit training when you studied?
- If yes, what do you remember of your experience learning to design materials?
- If not, how did you learn to design them?
- What does the school offer and require when you design materials?
- How do the preservice teachers go about designing materials for the classes they teach?
- Do you teach them? If yes, what do you teach them? How?
- Is there anything else you would like to add?

➤ Closing

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials

September 2015 - September 2019

Information sheet for Teacher Educators

Who is conducting the research?

My name is Luis Carabantes. I am a PhD student at the University College London Institute of Education and I am inviting you to take in part in my research project, 'Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials'. The UCL Institute of Education is one of the leading institutions in education worldwide. It is the leading teacher training institution in the UK and it has contributed extensively to the development of the scholarship related to English language teaching. This project is sponsored by the Chilean government through its Doctoral Scholarship programme run by CONICYT.

I am hoping to find out how preservice teachers develop language teaching materials, the role that this activity has in learning to teach English as a Foreign Language.

I very much hope that you would like to take part. This information sheet will try and answer any questions you might have about the project, but please don't hesitate to contact me if there is anything else you would like to know.

Why are we doing this research?

This research aims at exploring the process of English language teaching materials development carried out by preservice teachers of English in Chile, and what role this activity plays in learning to teach English as a foreign language. The research highlights the importance of learning to design language teaching materials, and how teachers go about designing their own without having received substantial training to do so. Several authors in fields of applied linguistics such as language teacher education and materials development acknowledge the importance of language teaching materials in the language classrooms, yet this is an area that has not seen significant research.

Why am I being invited to take part?

As a teacher educator, you can provide valuable input about how preservice teachers of English learn to design language teaching materials. You too have valuable experience not only teaching, but also seeing how your students go about doing this activity, and what the teacher training programme offers them in this respect. Also, you could contribute with your own experience teaching them to develop materials if you have done so.

What will happen if I choose to take part?

If you decide to take part, you will be participating of an interview that will last about one hour. You will be answering about ten questions. You can answer the questions either in English or Spanish or a combination of both. The interviews will be audio-recorded only if you sign a consent letter.

You will be asked questions like: How does the teacher training programme contribute to the preservice teachers' learning of materials development; how do you go about teaching materials development; or what role do you give to materials development in learning to teach English?

Will anyone know I have been involved?

No. If you decide to participate of the study, your name will remain secret and the information will be used only for research purposes. I will use pseudonyms so that no individual will be identifiable. All personal information will remain confidential, and will be kept in my personal laptop and my UCL online account, which can only be accessed using a password.

Could there be problems for me if I take part?

Taking part of this research will not involve any problems, as you do not have to provide any personal information affecting your work. If you decide to participate, your name will remain secret and the information will be used for research purposes only. If you feel uncomfortable during the research, you are entitled to withdraw at any point.

What will happen to the results of the research?

The results of this study will be presented as a doctoral thesis at the UCL Institute of Education. As part of my doctoral studies, I will be sharing results at conferences and relevant journals. Your participation in the study will remain anonymous, as I will change your name for a pseudonym once I begin transcribing. If you are interested in seeing the results of the study, you can email me at luis.carabantes@ucl.ac.uk, and I will send you a summary of the results of this research. I will keep the data for as long as the study lasts in my personal laptop and the online account provided by University College London. I will encrypt the information so that only I have access to it. My supervisor, Dr Amos Paran from the UCL-Institute of Education, will also see part of the data as he will assist me in the thesis writing process as part of my doctoral studies.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether or not you choose to take part. We hope that if you do choose to be involved then you will find it a valuable experience. Please, feel free not to participate if it is not within your interests, or if you believe this study could jeopardise your work at the university. No negative repercussions will emerge from not choosing to participate. Deciding not to participate will not have any effect on the development of your work.

Thank you very much for taking the time to read this information sheet.

If you would like to be involved, please complete the following consent form and return to luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk by March 15th, 2017.

If you have any further questions before you decide whether to take part, you can reach me at luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials

September 2016 – September 2019

Consent Form

If you are happy to participate, please complete this consent form and return to [Luis Carabantes \(luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk\)](mailto:luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk) by **March 15th, 2017**.

- | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| I have read and understood the information leaflet about the research. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I agree to be interviewed. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I am happy for the interview to be audio recorded. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand that if any of my words are used in reports or presentations, they will not be attributed to me. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand that I can withdraw from the project at any time, and that if I choose to do this, any data I have contributed will not be used. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand I can contact Luis Carabantes at any time. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand that the results will be shared in a doctoral thesis, at conferences and in journal articles . | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| (If applicable) I have discussed the information sheet with my child. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Name _____

Signed _____

Date

Researcher's name [Luis Carabantes L.](#)

Signed _____

Teacher Educator Interview Protocol

➤ Salutation

Ask for personal information to set the tone and create initial rapport:

E.g. What modules do you teach in the programme? Since when? What is your area of expertise?

➤ Begin interview explaining that the purpose of the research is *to explore how preservice teachers in the programme learn to design language teaching materials.*

➤ Ask the following questions:

- Considering that the students need to design their own materials to teach their lessons in their practicum, how do you think they design their own materials?
- In your opinion, how does the programme contribute to the learning of materials design?
- Generally speaking, how does the subject you teach (English or English teaching methodology) contribute to the learning of materials design?
- How do you, from your expertise, contribute to materials design?
- What type of materials, if any, do you use to teach your lessons? How do you use them?
- Can you recall a situation where you have addressed explicitly a materials design issue?
- If you have taught materials design, how have you done it? Have you used any materials to do it?
- Is there anything else you would like to add?

➤ Closing

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials

September 2016 – September 2019

Information sheet for Programme Leader

Who is conducting the research?

My name is Luis Carabantes. I am a PhD student at the University College London Institute of Education and I am inviting you to take in part in my research project, 'Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials'. The UCL Institute of Education is one of the leading institutions in education worldwide. It is the leading teacher training institution in the UK and it has contributed extensively to the development of the scholarship related to English language teaching. This project is sponsored by the Chilean government through its Doctoral Scholarship programme run by CONICYT.

I am hoping to find out how preservice teachers develop language teaching materials, the role that this activity has in learning to teach English as a Foreign Language.

I very much hope that you would like to take part. This information sheet will try and answer any questions you might have about the project, but please don't hesitate to contact me if there is anything else you would like to know.

Why are we doing this research?

This research aims at exploring the process of English language teaching materials development carried out by preservice teachers of English in Chile, and what role this activity plays in learning to teach English as a foreign language. The research highlights the importance of learning to design language teaching materials, and how teachers go about designing their own without having received substantial training to do so. Several authors in fields of applied linguistics such as language teacher education and materials development acknowledge the importance of language teaching materials in the language classrooms, yet this is an area that has not seen significant research.

Why am I being invited to take part?

As the programme leader, you can provide valuable information about how the process of materials development is tackled in the programme, how it is conceptualised in the programme curriculum, how other teacher educators tackle it, and how you try to relate the programme curriculum to the current Second Language Teacher Education guidelines provided by the ministry of education.

What will happen if I choose to take part?

If you decide to take part, you will be participating of an audiotaped interview that will last about one hour. You will be answering about ten questions. You can answer the questions either in English or Spanish or a combination of both. A consent form will be given to you which you will sign. You can withdraw from the interview at any point you consider necessary.

You will be asked questions like: How does the teacher training programme contribute to the preservice teachers' learning of materials development; how do you go about teaching materials development; or what role do you think materials development has in learning to teach English?

Will anyone know I have been involved?

No. If you decide to participate of the study, your name will remain secret and the information will be used only for research purposes. I will use pseudonyms so that no individual will be

identifiable. All personal information will remain confidential, and will be kept in my personal laptop and my UCL online account, which can only be accessed using a password.

Could there be problems for me if I take part?

Taking part of this research will not involve any problems, as you do not have to provide any personal information affecting your work. If you decide to participate, your name will remain secret and the information will be used for research purposes only. If you feel uncomfortable during the research, you are entitled to withdraw at any point.

What will happen to the results of the research?

The results of this study will be presented as a doctoral thesis at the UCL Institute of Education. As part of my doctoral studies, I will be sharing results at conferences and relevant journals. Your participation in the study will remain anonymous, as I will change your name for a pseudonym once I begin transcribing. If you are interested in seeing the results of the study, you can email me at luis.carabantes@ucl.ac.uk, and I will send you a summary of the results of this research. I will keep the data for as long as the study lasts in my personal laptop and the online account provided by University College London. I will encrypt the information so that only I have access to it. My supervisor, Dr Amos Paran from the UCL-Institute of Education, will also see part of the data as he will assist me in the thesis writing process as part of my doctoral studies.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether or not you choose to take part. We hope that if you do choose to be involved then you will find it a valuable experience. Please, feel free not to participate if it is not within your interests, or if you believe this study could jeopardise your work at the university. No negative repercussions will emerge from not choosing to participate. Deciding not to participate will not have any effect on the development of your work.

Thank you very much for taking the time to read this information sheet.

If you would like to be involved, please complete the following consent form and return to luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk by March 15th, 2017.

If you have any further questions before you decide whether to take part, you can reach me at luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials

September 2016 – September 2019

Consent Form

If you are happy to participate, please complete this consent form and return to [Luis Carabantes \(luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk\)](mailto:luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk) by **March 15th, 2017**.

- | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| I have read and understood the information leaflet about the research. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I have read and understood the information leaflet about the research. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I agree to be interviewed. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I am happy for my interview to be audio recorded. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand that if any of my words are used in reports or presentations they will not be attributed to me. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand that I can withdraw from the project at any time, and that if I choose to do this, any data I have contributed will not be used. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand that I can contact Luis Carabantes at any time. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I understand that the results will be shared in a doctoral thesis , at conferences , and in journal articles . | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| (If applicable) I have discussed the information sheet with my child. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Name _____

Signed _____

Date

Researcher's name [Luis Carabantes L.](#)

Signed _____

Programme Leader Interview Protocol

➤ Salutation

Ask for personal information to set the tone and create initial rapport:

E.g. Since when have you been the programme leader? Do you teach any modules? Did you participate in the development of the module? Etc.

➤ Begin interview explaining that the purpose of the research is *to explore how preservice teachers in the programme learn to design language teaching materials.*

➤ Ask the following questions:

- Considering that the preservice teachers need to design materials to teach their lessons in their practicum, how do you think they design their own materials?
- In your opinion, how does the programme contribute to the learning of materials design?
- How does the programme contribute to the attainment of the standard outlined by the ministry of education on materials development?
- What modules, do you think are likely to contribute to the learning of materials design?
- Do you observe any constraints to include a materials design module in the programme?
- Is there anything else you would like to add?

➤ Closing

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials
September 2016 – September 2019

Information sheet for pupils' caretakers*

Who is conducting the research?

My name is Luis Carabantes. I am a PhD student at the University College London Institute of Education and I am inviting you to take in part in my research project, 'Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials'. The UCL Institute of Education is one of the leading institutions in education worldwide. It is the leading teacher training institution in the UK and it has contributed extensively to the development of the scholarship related to English language teaching. This project is supported by the Chilean government through its Doctoral Scholarship programme run by CONICYT.

I am hoping to find out how preservice teachers develop language teaching materials, the role that this activity has in learning to teach English as a Foreign Language.

I very much hope that you would like to take part. This information sheet will try and answer any questions you might have about the project, but please don't hesitate to contact me if there is anything else you would like to know.

Why are we doing this research?

This research aims at exploring the process of English language teaching materials development carried out by preservice teachers of English in Chile, and what role this activity plays in learning to teach English as a foreign language. The research highlights the importance of learning to design language teaching materials, and how teachers go about designing their own without having received substantial training to do so. Several authors in fields of applied linguistics such as language teacher education and materials development acknowledge the importance of language teaching materials in the language classrooms, yet this is an area that has not seen significant research.

Why is my pupil being invited to take part?

Your child will be participating in the lessons where language teaching materials are used. While I will not be studying your pupil but the preservice teachers using their materials, they will still be filmed in during the lesson. Therefore, it is important that you allow your child to attend the lessons that will be filmed.

What will happen if I allow my pupil to take part?

If you allow your pupil, they will participate of a normal English lesson. She or he will not have to do anything different from a normal class, as this observation method requires no changes to the normal circumstances under which they are taught English. The lesson will be video-recorded, and later transcribed. I will use pseudonyms in the transcription to ensure the anonymity of your pupil. The video will be kept in my personal computer, which will be encrypted so that nobody can access it.

Will anyone know my child has been involved?

No. if you allow your child to participate, their name will remain secret and the information will be used only for research purposes. I will use pseudonyms so that no pupil will be identifiable. All personal information will remain confidential, and will be kept in my personal laptop and my UCL online account, which can only be accessed using a password.

Could there be problems for me if my child takes part?

Taking part of this research will not involve any problems, as your pupil does not have to provide any personal information. If you allow your pupil to be filmed, their name will remain secret and the information will be used for research purposes only.

What will happen to the results of the research?

The results of this study will be presented as a doctoral thesis at the UCL Institute of Education. As part of my doctoral studies, I will be sharing results at conferences and relevant journals. Your pupil's participation in the study will remain anonymous, as I will change their name for a pseudonym once I begin transcribing. If you are interested in seeing the results of the study, you can email me at luis.carabantes@ucl.ac.uk, and I will send you a summary of the results of this research. I will keep the data for as long as the study lasts in my personal laptop and the online account provided by University College London. I will encrypt the information so that only I have access to it. My supervisor, Dr Amos Paran from the UCL-Institute of Education, will also see part of the data as he will assist me in the thesis writing process as part of my doctoral studies.

Does my pupil have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether or not your pupil participates. Please, feel free not to allow your pupil if it is not within your interests, or if you believe this study could jeopardise his or her studies at the school. No negative repercussions will emerge from not allowing them to participate.

By not sending an explicit statement, you are agreeing that your pupil is filmed for my study. If you do not want your pupil to participate, please return this information sheet signing the statement below.

I _____ (name) do not allow my pupil to be filmed for the study described in this information sheet.

Signature _____ Date _____

Thank you very much for taking the time to read this information sheet.

If you would like to be involved, please complete the following consent form and return to luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk by March 15th, 2017.

If you have any further questions before you decide whether to take part, you can reach me at luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk

Opt-out form for pupils

- My name is Luis Carabantes. I am a student at the Institute of Education of University College London. I would like to film two lessons to study how your teacher uses their teaching materials.
- This observation is part of a broader study where I will be interviewing university teachers, preservice teachers, analysing documents, among others.
- I will be studying how your teacher uses their materials; therefore, you do not have to do anything different from what you normally do in classes.
- I will film the lessons with the permission of the school, the teacher, and your parents or guardian. However, it is entirely up to you whether you want to be filmed or not. This is your own decision.
- There is no problem if you decide not to be filmed. If you do not wish to be filmed, you will be taken to another room to do a similar activity.
- Anonymity is guaranteed at all stages of the research. I will use pseudonyms to do this research.

If you DO NOT want to participate, please write your name (or sign) here

If you have any questions about the research, please write to my email
luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk

Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials

September 2016 – September 2019

Information sheet for Focus Group Participants

Who is conducting the research?

My name is Luis Carabantes. I am a PhD student at the University College London Institute of Education and I am inviting you to take part in my research project, 'Second Language Teacher Education in Chile: A sociocultural study of preservice teachers' learning to design language teaching materials'. The UCL Institute of Education is one of the leading institutions in education worldwide. It is the leading teacher training institution in the UK and it has contributed extensively to the development of the scholarship related to English language teaching. This project is supported by the Chilean government through its Doctoral Scholarship programme run by CONICYT.

I am hoping to find out how preservice teachers develop language teaching materials, the role that this activity has in learning to teach English as a Foreign Language.

I very much hope that you would like to take part. This information sheet will try and answer any questions you might have about the project, but please don't hesitate to contact me if there is anything else you would like to know.

Why are we doing this research?

This research aims at exploring the process of English language teaching materials development carried out by preservice teachers of English in Chile, and what role this activity plays in learning to teach English as a foreign language. The research highlights the importance of learning to design language teaching materials, and how teachers go about designing their own without having received substantial training to do so. Several authors in fields of applied linguistics such as language teacher education and materials development acknowledge the importance of language teaching materials in the language classrooms, yet this is an area that has not seen significant research.

Why am I being invited to take part?

As preservice teachers of English, you can provide valuable information about how learning to design materials takes place at a university context by discussing how the programme has contributed to this process, what difficulties designing materials faces when you need to plan lessons for your practice, what social and cultural tools you use to design them, etc.

What will happen if I choose to take part?

If you decide to take part, you will be participating of a focus group where you will interact with other students from the programme. This activity will consist of engaging in a natural conversation related to the problematics of learning to design language teaching materials. Your participation as a group is really important as it will give a collective approach to the study I am carrying out. This activity will last about one hour. You will be discussing 10 questions. You can answer in English or Spanish or a combination of both. The focus group will be video-recorded.

You will be discussing questions like: How does the teacher training programme contribute to the preservice teachers' learning of materials development; how do you go about teaching materials development; or what role do you give to materials development in learning to teach English?

Will anyone know I have been involved?

No. If you decide to participate of the study, your name will remain secret and the information will be used only for research purposes. I will use pseudonyms so that no individual will be identifiable. All personal information will remain confidential, and will be kept in my personal laptop and my UCL online account, which can only be accessed using a password.

Could there be problems for me if I take part?

Taking part of this research will not involve any problems, as you do not have to provide any personal information affecting your studies. If you decide to participate, your name will remain secret and the information will be used for research purposes only. If you feel uncomfortable during the research, you are entitled to withdraw at any point.

What will happen to the results of the research?

The results of this study will be presented as a doctoral thesis at the UCL Institute of Education. As part of my doctoral studies, I will be sharing results at conferences and relevant journals. Your participation in the study will remain anonymous, as I will change your name for a pseudonym once I begin transcribing. If you are interested in seeing the results of the study, you can email me at luis.carabantes@ucl.ac.uk, and I will send you a summary of the results of this research. I will keep the data for as long as the study lasts in my personal laptop and the online account provided by University College London. I will encrypt the information so that only I have access to it. My supervisor, Dr Amos Paran from the UCL-Institute of Education, will also see part of the data as he will assist me in the thesis writing process as part of my doctoral studies.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether or not you choose to take part. We hope that if you do choose to be involved then you will find it a valuable experience. Please, feel free not to participate if it is not within your interests, or if you believe this study could jeopardise your studies at the university. No negative repercussions will emerge from not choosing to participate. Deciding not to participate will not have any effect on the development of your work.

Thank you very much for taking the time to read this information sheet.

If you would like to be involved, please complete the following consent form and return to luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk by March 15th, 2017.

If you have any further questions before you decide whether to take part, you can reach me at luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk

Materials Development in English Language Teacher Education in Chile

September 2016 - September 2019
Consent Form

If you are happy to participate, please complete this consent form and return to [Luis Carabantes \(luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk\)](mailto:luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk) by **March 15th, 2017**.

I have read and understood the information leaflet about the research.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I agree to be interviewed and participate in the focus group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am happy for the focus group to be video recorded.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that if any of my words are used in reports or presentations they will not be attributed to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I can withdraw from the project at any time, and that if I choose to do this, any data I have contributed will not be used.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I can contact Luis Carabantes at any time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that the results will be shared in a doctoral thesis, at conferences and in journal articles .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(If applicable) I have discussed the information sheet with my child.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Name _____

Signed _____

Date

Researcher's name [Luis Carabantes L.](#)

Signed _____

Focus Group Schedule

- Salutation

- Begin focus group explaining that the purpose of the research is *to explore how preservice teachers of English learn to design language teaching materials.*

- Ask the following questions:
 - Considering that you need to design your own materials when you teach English in the practicum, how do you design those materials? What resources do you use? Do you rely on your peers, professors, mentors?
 - In what ways, if any, has the programme contributed to your learning of materials development?
 - What problems, if any, have you observed in the design of materials to accompany your lessons?
 - Do you consider curricular or cultural elements to design your materials? Can you give examples?
 - Is there anything you would like to add?

- Closing

Dear Participant,

Thank you for reading the information sheet and consent form, and agreeing to participate in the piloting phase of this research project.

Please read the following instructions. If you have any questions, feel free to ask me.

Instructions:

- Think of a group of English language learners that you are familiar with.
- Write the materials you would use in a 90-minute lesson you would teach them, including any communicative or linguistic content you believe they would benefit from in their language learning experience.
- Once you have finished writing the materials, please send them to me at luis.carabantes.15@ucl.ac.uk.
- Please, meet me in no more than 48 hours after you have finished writing the materials to conduct an interview on the processes involved in your materials writing.
- If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to write to me at the above mentioned email address.

Thank you for agreeing to participate.

Luis Carabantes
PhD Student
Department of Culture, Communication, and Media
UCL Institute of Education, University College London

FACULTAD DE EDUCACIÓN		PEDAGOGÍA EN INGLÉS										CÓDIGO SIES		
SEMESTRE 1	SEMESTRE 2	SEMESTRE 3	SEMESTRE 4	SEMESTRE 5	SEMESTRE 6	SEMESTRE 7	SEMESTRE 8	SEMESTRE 9	SEMESTRE 10					
APRENDIZAJE HUMANO	FACTORES COGNITIVOS Y SOCIOEFFECTIVOS DEL APRENDIZAJE	DISEÑO Y ADAPTACIÓN CURRICULAR	EVALUACIÓN Y RETROALIMENTACIÓN PARA EL APRENDIZAJE	SEMINARIO DE ENSEÑANZA EN AULAS DIVERSAS	CONVERGENCIA ESCOLAR	INVESTIGACIÓN EDUCATIVA	SEMINARIO		TALLER CONEXIONES DIDÁCTICAS DISCIPLINARIAS					
PENSAMIENTO PEDAGÓGICO, PERSONA Y SOCIEDAD	POLEMITAS PÚBLICAS Y ESCENARIOS EDUCATIVOS	TIC PARA EL APRENDIZAJE	PROCESOS CURRICULARES EN INGLÉS	LINGÜÍSTICA APLICADA	PRÁCTICA I	DIDÁCTICA I	PRÁCTICA II	DIDÁCTICA II	PRÁCTICA III	DIDÁCTICA III	PRÁCTICA IV	DIDÁCTICA IV	EXÁMENES INTERNACIONALES	INTERMEDIO
COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INICIAL I	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INICIAL II	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INTERMEDIA I	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INTERMEDIA II	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INTERMEDIA AVANZADA I	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA INTERMEDIA AVANZADA II	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA I	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA II	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA III	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA III	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA III	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA III	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA III	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA III	COMPETENCIA LINGÜÍSTICA AVANZADA III
FONÉTICA I	FONÉTICA II	GRAMÁTICA EN CONTEXTO I	GRAMÁTICA EN CONTEXTO II	ANÁLISIS DEL DISCURSO	ANÁLISIS DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA I	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II	ENSEÑANZA Y APRENDIZAJE DE LA LITERATURA Y CULTURA II
ELECTIVO ANTROPOLÓGICO CRISTIANO				ELECTIVO TEOLÓGICO		ELECTIVO PARA LA DIVERSIDAD			ELECTIVO PARA LA DIVERSIDAD			ELECTIVO PARA LA DIVERSIDAD		ÉTICA PROFESIONAL

Appendix 11 Lesson plan assessment criteria

PAUTA DE EVALUACION DE PLAN DE CLASE DE INGLES						
Nombre Interno/a:						
Nota: Para ser revisada, la planificación no debe presentar errores ortográficos y/o estructurales en el idioma, y debe ser original.						
DISEÑO DE PLAN DE CLASE		1	2	3	4	5
1.- Las necesidades e intereses de los estudiantes fueron consideradas en la planificación.	2					
2.- Los conocimientos previos considerados son los adecuados para la planificación.	2					
3.- El objetivo de aprendizaje está correctamente redactado incluyendo conceptos, procedimientos y actitudes.	2					
4.- Los contenidos están correctamente enfocados al "saber", "saber hacer" y "saber ser" (OFT)	2					
5.- Los objetivos, contenidos, evaluación presentan congruencia entre sí.	4					
6.- La actividad de motivación es adecuada y coherente con el resto de la planificación.	2					
7.- Las actividades de inicio, pre, while, post y sistematización se explicitan y delimitan claramente.	4					
8.- La actividad de activación de conocimientos previos es adecuada coherente con el resto de la planificación.	2					
9.- Las actividades de "while" aportan como input efectivo al logro del objetivo de aprendizaje.	2					
10.- Se contempla trabajo cooperativo, y es adecuado y coherente con la planificación.	2					
11.- Se establece reforzamiento lingüístico y es coherente con la planificación.	2					
12.- La producción está de acuerdo al objetivo de aprendizaje y es coherente con la planificación.	3					
13.- Los materiales, pedagógicos, audiovisuales, tecnológicos a utilizar son adecuados en calidad y variedad.	2					
14.- Se explicitan las instancias de práctica de listening, reading, speaking y writing en la planificación.	4					
15.- Se explicitan las instancias de monitoreo, mediación y retroalimentación en la planificación.	3					
16.- Se adjunta el instrumento de evaluación y éste es adecuado y coherente con la planificación.	3					

17.- Se establece claramente la actividad de sustentación o sistematización y es coherente con la planificación.	2					
PUNTAJE TOTAL	43					
CALIFICACION						
Puntaje máximo total: 43 pts = 100% = 7,0 / 30 pts = 70% = 4,0						