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**ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF THE OFFICIAL CHILEAN CURRICULA FOR 1ST  
GRADE ENGLISH AND MAPUDUNGUN: VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LANGUAGE  
IDEOLOGY**

**INFORME FINAL DE SEMINARIO DE GRADO PARA OPTAR AL GRADO DE  
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**ABSTRACT**

Until very recently in the history of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies kept vocabulary acquisition in a lower status compared to other aspects of language as a system of communication. Current research has demonstrated the importance of vocabulary acquisition within the SLA field. This study tries to bring together two fundamental components of language teaching - the vocabulary component and the way it is presented and taught, and the cultural models and ideologies that influence the creation of a language course through the analysis and comparison of the two official Chilean 1st grade curricula for teaching English and Mapudungun. Results suggest there are problems both in terms of SLA theoretical support and in terms of vocabulary acquisition theories. Each program upholds clear, but quite different cultural models that define the status of these two languages in our country.

Key words: second language acquisition - vocabulary - bilingualism- cultural models- linguistic ideology



## INTRODUCTION

The area of second language vocabulary acquisition has only been the focus of research studies for the last thirty years displacing the prominence that grammar had since the innatist perspective in the 1960's. Its importance is granted because it is an open system, which gives learner the complexity of reaching high levels of proficiency as well as accuracy, considering the many different layers that this has according to Nation (2001). Vocabulary learning, teaching, curriculum designing will be dealt with in the present study.

We decided to analyze one section of the Chilean school curriculum of two languages bearing a completely different status, as it is, on the one hand, the English language with a high status, and, on the other, the Mapudungun language with a lower one. The focus of our research considered factors such as their foreign language teaching environment, the public policies that motivated their application, the main topic of children bilingualism -that is not dealt with very often-, and of course, how second language vocabulary acquisition was viewed and implemented in these first grade programs.

We made our general goal to find the theoretical basis of both curricula, as well as to compare them on those terms and analyze the influences that each of them had received from specific

public policies motivated by two opposing cultural models. We set our mind into finding the agreement between each of these factors and the curricula design and how it reflected on the activities suggested for teachers in both cases.

The fact that we established such an ambitious project led us to develop a theoretical support that gathered information from different areas of applied linguistics, because this research, from our perspective, required a multidisciplinary analysis in order to fully understand what had been put forward by the Ministry of Education. In the last analysis, it is our attempt to make a small and honest contribution into the field of second language teaching in our country.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Theories on first and second language acquisition**

Research on first and second language acquisition has been influenced by linguistic and psychological theories. Those theories have had a fundamental role in the hypothesizing of the internal and external factors of the learning process. Some linguists have put forward the idea that language acquisition is developed in a specialized module on the human brain in the same way that other biological functions (Chomsky, 1975). While psychologists have stated that general cognitive mechanisms that are responsible for a variety of processes, human learning and information processing, are, at the same time, in charge of language development with no specialized module involved (Piaget (1951/1946) and Vygostky (1978) in Lightbown and Spada, 2006). The differences among these theories will be discussed below.

According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), there are three main schools of thought related to language acquisition. The behaviouristic perspective of learning proposed by Skinner that conceives language learning as being explained by imitation, practice, reinforcement (in terms of feedback on success), and habit formation. The innatist theory proposed by Chomsky puts forward a Universal Grammar (UG) which plays a pivotal role since, according to this theory, children are biologically programmed for language, so language is not developed but intrinsic; there is a specific module that allows first language acquisition in the same way other

biological functions are developed through life. He argued that children regardless of the quality of the input available would be able to deduce the grammatical rules of a language using this UG, which would prevent children from hypothesizing impossible combinations about how language might work. Chomsky's theory is commonly linked to the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). CPH points out that all animals, including human beings, are biologically programmed to acquire certain kinds of knowledge and skills during specific periods in life. When applied to language, the hypothesis states that if children are not exposed to language in a specific time of their lives, they may never develop it.

Finally, the interactionist/developmental perspectives consider interaction and social relations as the fundamental need for developing and acquiring language. Those perspectives differ from the innatist theory in the emphasis put to the learning process itself, not to the final stage or result of it; more importance is attributed to the environments as well. For this perspective, language development is similar to the acquisition of other kinds of skills and knowledge and it is influenced by them, rather than independent from the child's experiences and cognitive development.

Within interactionist/developmental perspectives there are two main researchers, Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky. They have several points in common but they differ in the way they see the role society plays in the process of language learning. "Piaget saw language as a symbol system that could be used to express knowledge through interaction with the physical world. For Vygotsky, thought was essentially internalized speech, and speech emerged from social interaction" (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 20), so society is far more important in Vygotsky's ideas because for him language and, therefore thought, emerges from social

interaction and is not only a connection between the physical world and the individuals' knowledge, as in Piaget's. Consequently cognitive development (and therefore the development of language) in Piaget's is more independent because children are seen as individuals with an independent learning process while Vygotsky sees children as social creatures whose cognitive development comes from their interaction with society. In this study we have decided to follow Vygotsky's Sociocultural theory because of its direct contact among society, interaction, and cognitive development; a relationship we consider fundamental when it comes to teaching and learning a language. To review the foundations of this work we will be explaining Sociocultural theory in a brief summary of Vygotsky's postulates below.

## **2.2 Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory**

Vygotsky's theory is composed by five-concepts:

(1) Mental functions that are divided into higher and lower ones. Higher mental functions are developed through social interaction while lower mental functions (i.e. memory) are the ones we are born with as a response to our physical environment.

(2) Psychological abilities that have to do with higher mental functions, because the latter are firstly developed in a social environment and then are internalized through psychological abilities.

(3) Zone of proximal development or ZPD that is the distance between the level of development obtained independently by an individual and the potential developmental level

under assistance of adults or peers (Vygotsky, 1978). Higher mental functions are acquired through social interactions within the zone of proximal development.

(4) Psychological tools that are the nexus between higher and lower mental functions. One of the most important psychological tools (if not the most) is language, because it arises from social interaction being afterwards internalized.

(5) Mediation, whose importance lies in the fact that all functions in children's cultural development appears twice: First, interpsychologically or on the social level, and then, intrapsychologically or on the individual level. This two-step process applies to voluntary attention, to logical memory and to concept formation equally. Consequently, all the higher functions are originated as actual relationships between individuals (Vygotsky, 1978) and are mediated by society and culture.

To conduct this study, we have chosen Vygotsky's Sociocultural theory of language acquisition and development, because, on the one hand explains second language learning and, on the other hand sees the phenomenon of SLA as a social phenomenon as well as a cognitive one. These characteristics make pertinent a qualitative analysis like ours that is based upon three different techniques tied to epistemological differences: content analysis, discourse analysis, and policy and evaluation.

We would like to add that both of the contexts in which we are analyzing Second Language Learning fall within the concept of Foreign Language contexts because they share at least two of the characteristics of Foreign language contexts presented by Ellis (1994). Firstly, both – Mapudungun and English- do not tend to result in native-like use of the language (Schinke-

Llano, 1990 in Ellis, 1994) and secondly, the major difficulties for learners are related to complex learning targets due to the insufficient exposure to the language (Ellis, 1994). We will review the connections between Vygotsky's Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition in the following section.

### **2.2.1 Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition**

When learning a language there is a distance between what the learner can do on his/her own and what s/he could do through the mediation of a teacher/facilitator or peers. A more experienced peer would provide scaffolding to support the learner's effective acquisition and help him/her not to be overwhelmed by information and communicate. The relationship between the concept of ZPD and mediation is straightforward. Through interaction with society members (in the classroom context, with classmates and teachers, in this case), students can gain knowledge of a new language, in our specific investigation we are focusing on the acquisition of new words or lexical items to perform a certain communicative task. All these gains are reached through mediation.

Another factor that could be related to education and SLA is the fact that all knowledge is constructed through significant experience and "according to Vygotsky (1987), for instruction to be effective [...] it must be sensitive to what learners are able to imitate under other-mediation" (in Lantolf, 2012, p.59). Therefore, experience should be intimately related to activities and teaching methods used within a foreign language classroom, because it is necessary to create activities framed into real communicative situations as a way of establishing knowledge in learners' memory and of making language emerge from social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978).

From a different but related perspective, Halliday states a functional approach to language which gives emphasis both to system and behavior. He states that children develop their resources for meaning by simultaneously engaging in 'learning language' and 'learning through language' because language "is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experience becomes knowledge" (Halliday, 1993, in Wells, 1994). In other words, knowledge springs up from experience and its relation to language.

The concept that underlies both perspectives -Vygotsky's and Halliday's- and that is essential to understand language acquisition, is culture. Halliday's book *Language as Social Semiotic. The Interpretation of Language and Meaning* (1978) states his vision about culture. For him it is central how reality is represented and shaped, hence reality (culture) must be conceived as heterogeneous and heteroglossic as language itself (Kramersch, 1996). Based on this, Kramersch (1996) suggests language teachers to focus less on seemingly stable cultural entities, identities and fixed structures (such as grammar rules) and more on "the shifting third place of language learners themselves" (Kramersch, 1996, p. 7), that is addressing learners as potentially heteroglossic narrators and not as monoglossic announciators (Kramersch, 1996). In this way, society's conception of language learning and the way in which language itself is seen define the manner reality is going to be conceptualized and applied to the development of the individual.

Consequently, even though Halliday and Vygotsky's theories come from different areas of knowledge, they both agree on four central points:

(1) They both adopt a genetic approach when it comes to understanding any form of human behaviour (of certain tools including language and communication).



(2) For Vygotsky and Halliday, the development of language, both phylogenetically and ontogenetically, depends on the availability of certain tools, especially semiotic tools (heteroglossic and heterogenous like language itself). Therefore, high availability of tools (through interaction) would facilitate first language development.

(3) The semantic structure of language becomes a powerful semiotic tool through the encoding of culture's theory of experience and allowing the users to interact with each other.

(4) Ontogenetically, new levels of development are reached. Consequently, we can see that Halliday and Vygotsky's theories share the importance of the appropriation of the tools created by previous generations, particularly when learning a mother tongue through "situational based conversation, [in which] children also appropriate the knowledge and practice of their culture" (Wells, 1994, p. 72). Hence the importance of society for both authors lies primarily in its resources or tools that influence language directly.

### **2.3 Vocabulary Acquisition**

Until very recently Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies kept vocabulary acquisition in a lower status compared to other aspects of language (e.g. grammar, phonology/phonetics, etc.) as a system of communication. The precedence of other language components might be explained by three different phenomena: (1) "linguists' preference for closed systems describable by rules" (Chacón-Beltrán et al., 2010, p. 1), (2) psycholinguists' reaction against the stimulus-response and associative theories of learning, and finally (3) the methodologists' interest in the first stages of language learning. During the last twenty years, the status of vocabulary and its studies has changed giving birth to different sub-sectors and also creating

the necessity of a model capable of explaining the importance and stages of lexical acquisition. Even though the necessity is evident and also urgent among linguists, in Nation's words "there isn't an overall theory of how vocabulary is acquired" (Chacón-Beltrán et al., 2010, p.2).

### **2.3.1 Definitions of vocabulary.**

Vocabulary is defined by the Oxford dictionary as "the body of words used in a particular language". But, within the field of Second Language studies, we can find several attempts to define vocabulary or lexical knowledge (Laufer and Nation, 2012; Nation, 2001; Paribakht and Wesche, 1996; Read, 2004; Schmitt, 2000; among others).

One well-known perspective on the matter is Nation's (2001). He centres his notion of lexical knowledge on the discussion of receptive/productive abilities in his book *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Palmer (1921) developed the notions of 'receptive' abilities being listening and reading, and the 'productive' abilities being speaking and writing. These notions applied to vocabulary can be described as follows: 'receptive vocabulary use' refers to perceiving the form of a word while listening or reading, and retrieving its meaning; 'productive vocabulary use' refers to the need to express a meaning by speaking and writing, and remembering and producing the right written or spoken form (Nation, 2001). In relation to this and its application to vocabulary, Nation (2001, p. 27) developed a table in which it is shown what is involved in knowing a word where each component of the major groups (form, meaning and use) has a receptive and a productive manifestation of knowledge:

Form	Spoken	R. What does the word sound like?
		P. How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R. What does the word look like?
		P. What word parts are needed to express this meaning?
	Word Parts	R. What parts are recognisable in this word?
		P. What word parts are needed to express meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	R. What meaning does this word form signal?
		P. What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concepts and referents	R. What is included in the concept?
		P. What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R. What other words does this make us think of?
		P. What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical Functions	R. In what patterns does the word occur?
		P. In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R. What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P. What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (Frequency, register...)	R. Where, when and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P. Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Table 1 (Nation, 2001 p. 27)

As we can see in the table above, awareness of form is constituted by a spoken realization, a written one, and word parts. To know the spoken form of a word means to be able to recognize it when it is heard, as part of the receptive knowledge of the learner; and to be able to produce the spoken form in order to convey meaning is part of the productive knowledge of the learner. The pronounceability of the spoken form of an English word is composed of being able to pronounce the sounds in it, as much as to produce the appropriate degrees of stress in the word. This factor depends on the similarities in stress and tone between the first and second language, the way in which the sounds are combined in each language, and different degrees of correspondence between the spelling and the sound systems. By way of illustration, it may be more difficult to learn sounds that are not present in the L1 of the learner compared to those that might be only slightly different.

To know the written form of a word means to be able to recognize the word from its spelling. The learners' ability to spell is influenced by the way in which they represent the phonological structure of the language; and the learning burden –i.e. the amount of effort that is required to learn a word (Nation, 2001). The ability to learn the written form of a word is strongly influenced by L1 and L2 similarities, by the regularity of the written system, and by the knowledge of the spoken form in the second language (Nation, 2010).

Morphological awareness is also important in the process of knowing a word because identifying the affixes and stem of a word can lighten its learning burden and can help learn new lexical items by the sole action of recognizing the word parts. Morphological awareness can also be used as an important vocabulary learning strategy, if the affixes are used to help

remember the words' meaning –this requires that the learner be familiar with the most frequent and regular affixes to be able to use them in the building of words (Nation, 2001).

Meaning, in turn, is fulfilled by three independent relations: (1) Between form and meaning, (2) between the concept and its referent and (3) the possible relations among a lexical item and others. To know a word is not only to be familiar with these previous relations, but to be able to make the connection between them. Baddeley (1990) has suggested that each time there is a successful retrieval of the word form or the word meaning there is a reinforcement of the connection of the two. What can make the learning process of a lexical item easier are the existence of cognates or loan words shared by the first and the second language; to connect the L2 word form and the meaning with an L1 link, among others.

Finally, use is a category that groups the grammatical functions of the word, the collocations in which this can be correctly used and the constraints associated to its use. To know the grammatical functions of the word means to know to which grammatical category it corresponds and what grammatical patterns it follows. Many linguists consider now vocabulary to have an important part on grammar; one of them is Sinclair (1987) whose research suggests that lexical choice, particularly of verbs, determines the grammatical construction of the rest of the sentence.

The use of a word involves knowing with which words a lexical item typically occurs as well. This type of relationship is one of many that are related to the appropriate interpretation and productive use of vocabulary. Miller (1999) says that a major portion of knowing a word is having a cognitive representation of the set of contexts in which a specific lexical item can be used. It also involves being familiar with the contexts in which the lexical item can be found,

when it would appear and how often it is expected to appear or to be used. In some languages there are very specific terms to be used to refer to people, especially in showing the relationship of the speaker to the person that it is being referred to.

On the other hand and contrary to Nation's claims, Paribakht and Wesche (1996) among others (Henriksen, 1999; Schmitt, 2000), claim that lexical knowledge is a continuum that starts with a superficial knowledge of the lexical item and finishes with the correct use of it during free production, being the correct use in context the peak in the process of knowing a word. Consequently, it cannot be divided into parallel sub-knowledges.

In addition to those two previously mentioned definitions of lexical knowledge, there are two characteristics of lexical knowledge worth mentioning. The first one relates lexical knowledge to the vocabulary breadth of each subject and the ability the learner has to associate every form to its correct meaning (Paribakht and Wesche, 1996 in Nation, 2001). Vocabulary breadth or size is the number of lexical items a learner knows regardless of his/her depth of knowledge of each of them, so the pivotal factor here is quantity. The second definition, proposed by Read (2004, in Laufer and Nation, 2012) parcels knowledge into three dissimilar layers of knowledge: (1) precision of meaning, that is related to how well one aspect of knowledge of vocabulary is known; (2) comprehensive word knowledge, that refers to being familiar with aspects of the form, the meaning and the use of a word; and (3) comprehensive word knowledge and network knowledge, which involve incorporating the word into a certain lexical set of connections and also has associations to straightforwardness of access.

Therefore, the main emphasis on Read's definition is quality of knowledge, because its focus

is on how thoroughly the lexical items are known by a learner (collocations, different types of definitions, etc.) and not only on how many lexical items a subject knows.

In this respect, there are different ways in which new lexical items can be learned, for example it can be done through language exposure, communicative activities, decontextualized word practice, among others (Nation, 2001). However, they all are crossed by the role of explicit versus implicit learning and the number of encounters a learner must have of a word for the learning process to be effective. There are many language classes that are based on contact with the language; this means that the learning of new vocabulary is thought to occur only through language contact. This position assumes that the learner notices an unfamiliar word in a first encounter, and then infers its meaning from the context through the use of a variety of linguistic and non-linguistic pieces of evidence, and then s/he may retain partial or an accurate meaning of the word. If after the first encounter only partial information is remembered, subsequent exposures to the same word will increase the probabilities of retaining and expanding its meaning. Cumulative gains can be seen over time if the learner reads regularly. Some authors (Koda, 2004, 2012; Nagy, 2007; Nation, 2001, 2010) have been active promoters of the importance of reading for learning vocabulary. Taking into account that the most frequent 2,000 words will not even be encountered in a year or two with a large amount of free reading, a complementary source of vocabulary learning may be needed: word focused instruction. This combines attention to specific word in authentic and communicative contexts with decontextualized vocabulary.

As we mentioned before, vocabulary acquisition studies have positioned themselves as a key component in L2 learning/teaching only in the last thirty years (Chacón-Beltrán, 2010; Laufer,

1998; Nation, 2001, 2006; Read, 2004; Schmitt, 2010). Even though Sweet already in 1899 acknowledged that “the real intrinsic difficulty of learning a foreign language lies in that of having to master its vocabulary”. This real intrinsic obstacle is somehow taken into consideration by Laufer and Nation (2012) when they state that there are three main stumbling blocks behind vocabulary learning: Firstly, the difficulty that lies in quantity because vocabulary is an open set conformed by thousands of items -constantly expanding their number. Secondly, the fact that knowing a word involves the knowledge of many features of the word in question and the patterns it can form with other items - this is related to quality of knowledge. And thirdly, frequency because the less frequent an item is, the more exposure is needed by learners to acquire it. The characteristics previously mentioned are fundamental when attempting to effectively teach/learn vocabulary in another language (Nation, 2001).

To teach and learn vocabulary is not an easy task, mainly because vocabulary is an unlimited and open subsystem (Chacón-Beltrán et al., 2010 that, according to Laufer (1998), marks precisely the main difference between native speakers of the target language and learners of it in terms of lexical competence. For instance, high school Israeli graduates were expected to have learned 3,500-4,000 word families in EFL classes. At the same time, 18-year-old native speakers of English were estimated to master 18,000-20,000 word families when they graduated from school (Nation, 1990). Laufer (1998) concludes that progressing while learning vocabulary is not only a quantitative issue but an advancement that can go from a superficial to a deeper level at diverse stages of learning.

There are several factors that prove vocabulary’s central role in second language learning; a case in point is represented by the studies that highlight the crucial part vocabulary plays in



effective communication (Braidí, 2002; Burt, 1975; Khalil, 1985; Tomiyana, 1980 in Chacón-Beltrán et al., 2010). Additionally, Vermeer (1992), Laufer (1998) and Chacón-Beltrán et al. (2010) emphasize the importance of the lexical component to master or acquire full competence in different registers and contexts. In fact, even though a learner may master perfectly the grammar rules of the target language if s/he has not mastered the vocabulary in a certain context and register, the communicative objective of a situation will not be fulfilled (Chacón-Beltrán et al., 2010). More specifically, Nation (2006, in Chacón-Beltrán et al., 2010) makes explicit the number of words and word families that a learner must know in order to perform individual tasks to communicate. Incidentally, word family is understood as “a stem plus all closely related affixed forms”, as defined by Bauer and Nation’s (1993) scale where affix is defined as “all inflections and most frequent, productive and regular prefixes and suffixes” (Bauer and Nation, 1996, p. 255 in Coxhead, 2000, p.218). An example of word family is: *family, familiar, unfamiliar, familiarize, familiarity* in which the free stem is *family* and the affixes are : *-ar, un-, -ize, -arity*; Furthermore, the importance of morphological awareness will be discussed in depth later on.

### **2.3.2 Acquisition in children v/s adults**

It is commonly heard that children are better at learning languages or that they learn faster than adults. The typical explanation to this phenomenon is based on Lennenberg’s (1967) assumption that increasing lateralization was the responsible for the decrease on learning capacities or even the complete lack of them in adults. This explanation presupposes that children’s brains are not completely lateralized so they can learn more while adults’ lateralized brains are responsible for a presumed impossibility of becoming highly skilled in a second

language. Nonetheless, recent research shows that lateralization is complete, if not at birth, by early infancy (DeKeyser, 2012), hence Lennenberg's (1967) explanation is now less favoured by some of the linguistic community. Additionally, it is important to clarify that Krashen et al. (1979) have already stated a generally accepted distinction in which they elucidate that children are good at reaching native-like levels in terms of pronunciation but that they do not learn faster than adults or adolescents (Muñoz, 2008 in DeKeyser, 2012).

There is a central concept when talking about differences between children and adults acquisition of a second language called 'Critical Period' and its recent reformulation known as 'age effects'. The Critical Period concept "implies a declining learning capacity within a specific age range and a maturational, ultimately biological reason for this decline" (DeKeyser, 2012, p. 443). Recent research on Second Language Learning rejects both the declining of learning capacities with age and the biological reasons present within the Critical Period Hypothesis, mainly because there is not a causal mechanism of a biological nature nor clear agreement on onset and offset points for the Critical Period (Hakuta et al., 2003). In this context of reaction against the Critical Period, the term of 'age effects' sprung up as a more neutral expression to make reference to certain undeniable facts related to second language learning but with fewer implications than the previous "Critical Period" (DeKeyser, 2012).

According to Lennenberg (1967) and DeKeyser (2012), adults tend to be better at learning grammar rules and vocabulary when there is explicit instruction involved than through mere exposure and communicative interaction, whereas children show a better reaction to exposure and communicative situations, using it as implicit instruction. These findings suggest children and adults' second language acquisition paths involve different types of processing for

language learning. Therefore, and summing up what was mentioned before, adults tend to get better results through formal and explicit instruction while children can do well enough through naturalistic and implicit learning.

Another important influence of age effects can be observed in phonology. It has been noticed that “age effects are stronger in pronunciation than in grammar and barely noticeable in vocabulary” (DeKeyser, 2012, p. 444). This would explain why people who begin second language learning at an early age are not likely to be distinguishable from native speakers (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Additionally, within the area of grammar some researchers (e.g. Birdsong, 1996; DeKeyser, 2000; McDonald, 2006) have found that there are certain morphosyntactic structures that show different degrees of decline as the age of acquisition increases. Within vocabulary, it has been found that the age of arrival in the country where the L2 will be learned affects the susceptibility to priming and knowledge of idiom, while vocabulary as a whole shows little or no effect of age of arrival (Silverberg and Samuel, 2004, in DeKeyser, 2012).

Lightbown and Spada (2006) stated that success on language learning depends on the objective of second language instruction within the school context. If the objective is, on the one hand, to reach a native-like performance, the earlier the language starts to be taught, the better. However, there are possible drawbacks of an early start for second language learning. For example, when there is an early start that implies the child would have little opportunity to continue developing his/her first language it might result in subtractive bilingualism with lasting negative consequences, because of both the lack of interaction with parents and the absence of literacy in the heritage language (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). On the other hand,

when the goal of a second language teaching program is to reach basic communicative skills without hindering children's first language development, it can be more efficient to begin the instruction later (Ellis, 1994; Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

Furthermore, the importance of vocabulary acquisition studies lies mainly on discovering methods for helping students to reach the highest possible level of vocabulary or lexical knowledge in order to sustain effective communication. There are several attempts to create methods for vocabulary teaching/learning and understanding of both processes. For example, we have Keiko Koda's (2004) word recognition's theory and its applicability to reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition.

#### **2.4 Word recognition and reading comprehension.**

According to Koda (2004), word recognition refers to the processes of obtaining word's meanings and sounds from graphic displays of them; therefore it involves two major operations: (1) phonological and (2) semantic processing. To fully understand these two separate processes we need to clearly comprehend orthographic processing, mainly because the two word recognition constituent processes are activated through visual input while reading.

Orthographic processing has two main steps. Firstly, children must become aware that written symbols correspond to speech units and secondly, they must learn the specific ways in which symbols are combined in order to represent spoken words. When both stages have been surpassed, orthographic knowledge becomes a mnemonic device that bonds the written forms

to the pronunciation of specific words in the memory. To follow with this explanation we are going to complement the definitions of the two main processes involved in word recognition:

(1) Phonological processing, on the one hand, has to do with “accessing, storing and manipulating phonological information” (Koda, 2004, p.33) and its two main functions are (a) to enhance the storage of information in working memory and (b) to afford quick and easy access to oral vocabulary in lexical memory because it is stored phonologically.

(2) Semantic processing, on the other hand, has to do with obtaining a “context-appropriate word meaning” (Koda, 2004, p. 34) and depends on two factors: (a) efficient access to stored word information and contextually appropriate selections of meaning.

All the previously mentioned processes can be more complex when it comes to word recognition process in an L2. According to Muljani, Koda and Moates (1998) there are three main factors contributing in the process of obtaining word's sound and meanings from graphic displays of them in a second language: (1) There is a central role of frequency, because “high-frequency words are processed faster than low-frequency words” (Muljani, Koda and Moates, 1998, p.109), no matter what L1 orthographic background a learner may have. (2) This study proved also that L2 word recognition is affected by the orthographic system of the L1, thus when L1 and L2 have similar orthographic systems, the L2 recognition would be facilitated by an interletter associative network. Additionally, there is facilitation: congruence in spelling patterns make words easily and rapidly recognisable. (3) This research (Muljani, Koda and Moates, 1998) suggests that the L2 associative network is developed only from processing experience in the L2 system, thus the amount of L2 processing experience plays a significant role.

In sum, we might say that there is a number of word recognition roles associated to reading comprehension. Primarily, there has been a change in the way the function of word recognition in comprehension is conceptualized, because newer findings have shown that the majority of words in a text are thoroughly processed while reading (Koda, 2004) so the previous top-down conceptualization is no longer correct. Actually, it has been demonstrated that “poor readers have difficulty in deriving information from print, and deficient word recognition is directly linked to poor comprehension” (Koda, 2004, p. 30). Consequently, when readers have limited text understanding their conceptual growth is seriously constrained.

Several studies have demonstrated that the knowledge of letter patterns and their direct relation to sounds act like facilitators in word recognition and that word recognition efficiency promotes comprehension because reading comprehension necessitates the textual meaning’s construction. So, being all these factors linked we can clearly establish a causative relationship between word recognition, reading competence and vocabulary acquisition (Koda, 2004, 2012; Laufer and Nation, 2012; Nation, 2001, 2010; Schmitt, 2010). The better word recognition process is, the better reading competence is reached and the better reading competence is reached, the more vocabulary can be acquired and fixed in learner’s memory.

To sum up, it is important to highlight that the fact that adults need more explicit/declarative instruction in order to acquire a second language suggests that “instead of a mere quantitative change in the sense of declining learning capacity with increasing age of arrival, what really takes place is a qualitative shift from implicit to explicit learning” (DeKeyser, 2012, p. 456).

Therefore it would be interesting to consider a continuum in learning capacities while designing more than two course programs interrelated. Also, and based upon Koda (2004), we

can recognize the importance of literacy because children with little literacy cannot be asked to perform highly complex linguistic tasks that require knowledge they do not have yet. Hence, teaching methods should consider that little children are not fully literate so their process differs from adults.

## **2.5 Bilingualism**

Bilingualism, according to Hakuta (2008) is the co-existence of more than one language in an individual. Nevertheless, Suzanne Romaine (1999) asserts six different types of childhood bilingualism that differ in three aspects: The relationship of parents with languages and also the relationship of them (parents) with their children, the community in which they all live and the strategy parents use concerning their own languages and their child's language.

### **2.5.1 Types of childhood bilingualism**

1) *One-person-one-language*, in which the parents have different mother tongues but both have a certain level of competence in the other's language. Besides, the language of one of them is the dominant one within the community and they each speak their own tongue to the child from birth.

2) *Non-dominant home language/ one language- one- environment*, in which both parents have different native languages but the language of one of them is the dominant one in the community so they speak to the child in the non-dominant tongue and the child is exposed to the dominant language only outside the home and at (the nursery) school.

3) *Non-dominant home language without community support*, in this type of bilingualism the parents share the same native language but it is not the dominant one within the society so they decide to speak their native language to the child.

4) *Double non-dominant home language without community support*, here the parents have different native languages, they both speak their own language to the child from birth but none of those languages is the dominant one within their society.

5) *Non-native parents*, here, the parents share the same mother tongue and also the society does, but one of the parents speaks a foreign language and always addresses the child in it.

6) *Mixed languages*, in this last type of childhood bilingualism both parents are bilingual and sectors of the community may also be bilingual so the parents code-switch and mix languages while addressing the child.

Romaine (1999) also points out certain theoretical issues concerning childhood bilingualism, among them she states the question of whether there are parallel stages between bilingual and monolingual acquisition and she also brings up four different scenarios for it:

- “1. Each language develops independently as it would in a monolingual child.
2. The acquisition of both languages is delayed by comparison to monolingual acquisition.
3. The child prefers or is dominant in one of the languages, and the acquisition of the dominant language determines the development of constructions and categories which are matched in both systems.
4. The two languages develop differently with respect to different types of constructions and categories” (Romaine, 2000, p. 291)



### 2.5.1.2 Minority languages and bilingualism

There is a concept that is necessary to specify to fully comprehend the following paragraphs; that concept is “minority language”. According to Bhatt and Mahboob (2008) a language is denominated a minority language when: (1) it has a reduced number of speakers that speak the language; (2) it has a restriction on its functionality to home/ family domains, (3) it is related to issues of political power as dominating/dominated relationship with the official language, autonomy as language rights/movements, and space as ‘linguistic’ states; and (4) it is the official language of a large indigenous group.

When talking about bilingualism there are two sets of concepts worth mentioning, especially when referring to linguistic minorities: First, the pivotal distinction made by Lambert (1987) and afterwards analyzed by Lightbown and Spada (2006): The difference between *additive* and *subtractive* bilingualism. Subtractive bilingualism is the “loss of a language on the way to learning another” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p.26) while additive bilingualism is defined as “the maintenance of the home language while the second language is being learned” (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 26). And second, the concepts of *prescriptivism* and *semilingualism*. The former, according to Jeff MacSwan (2000), is the assumption that certain varieties of language are inherently highly valued than others, and the latter postulates that there are populations of learners that know no language at all because they speak all of them with limited ability. Although some educational researchers have relied upon the pejorative term of semilingualism to explain the differences in the achievement of students that are part of a minority language community, MacSwan (2000), through a revision of some studies about this phenomenon, claims that there is no real difference between classical prescriptivism

and semilingualism; consequently, he claims that the Threshold Hypothesis proposed by Cummins (2000) -in which a tied relationship between bilingualism and cognition exists- should be completely abandoned.

Moreover, this hypothesis explains the relationship between bilingualism and cognition in terms that an individual with high levels of proficiency experiences cognitive advantages, while an individual with low levels of proficiency in both languages is cognitively deficient. This hypothesis and semilingualism have the detrimental belief that linguistic minorities are cognitively deficient because, considering semilingualism and prescriptivism equally, their language has a lower value and they do not have high levels of proficiency in the dominant language either.

On the contrary, Suzanne Romaine (1999) accounts for one of the central questions towards bilingualism, that is assessment and the way learners should be considered. And she concludes that a bilingual should never be assessed nor considered as two monolinguals in one, because, for example, the amount of vocabulary of a bilingual in one of the languages is smaller than the amount of vocabulary of a monolingual person in the same stage of development of the language. This statement was also embraced by Ortega (2012) when talking about bilinguals' assessment and their condition. This contention contradicts Bloomfield's assertion that bilingualism is "the native-like control of two languages a bilingual is the sum of two monolinguals" (1935, p.56 in Hamers and Blanc, 2000). However, when the two languages are combined, bilinguals compare favorably with monolinguals. This point is central in the next section because it must be taken into consideration while teaching.

## **2.6 Teaching and explaining vocabulary**

First of all, to develop any teaching or learning activity the psychological conditions of the environment need to be taken into account for vocabulary learning to take place. Nation (2001) puts forward four questions that should help organize any teaching or learning activity:

- “1. What is the learning goal of the activity?
2. What psychological conditions does the activity use to help reach the learning goal?
3. What are the observable signs that learning might occur?
4. What are the design features of the activity which set up the conditions for learning?”

(Nation, 2001, p. 60)

### **2.6.1 Types of words**

To teach vocabulary, it is important to keep in mind that teachable words must fulfill certain characteristics, mainly because non-native speakers must communicate with a much more limited repertoire than native speakers. Laufer and Nation (2012) classify important words according to three criteria: Frequency, usefulness and learnability. This distinction results into four different types of words.

Regarding frequency and usefulness, we have: (1) Frequent words in the target language that is being learnt and therefore can be useful for all purposes, and (2) infrequent words in the language but that are important for learner's particular purposes (for example ESP). Regarding learnability we have: (3) Easy and (4) difficult words.

A problem with frequent words is the specialized lists that have been composed by them in recent years. Contrary to what was expected, lists of words have shown some methodological deficiencies as distinguishing between various multiple meanings of homonyms and in deciding whether to include multiword units or not – considering there is no agreement for deciding which multiword units should be placed in the same status than single words.

Concerning learnability, Nation (2001) refers to the concept of ‘learning burden’ as the effort needed to learn a word; this would depend on the differences in learners’ background and each of the aspects involved in knowing a word. When the patterns being taught are familiar to learners the effort needed to learn them is lesser than when those patterns are unknown. The patterns and knowledge familiar to the learners can be the understanding of other languages, previous knowledge of the second language or even knowledge from the first language. For learners whose first language is similar to the second language, the learning burden of the majority of words will be light. For learners whose first language is not similar to their mother tongue, the learning burden is higher.

### **2.6.2 Remembering words**

There are three general processes that can contribute to the process of a word being remembered: noticing (through formal instruction, negotiation); retrieval, and creative or generative use. Noticing is giving attention to an item and can be affected by various factors as the predominance of a word in textual input, previous encounters that the learner has had with the word, among others (Ellis, 1990). Noticing involves decontextualisation, and this means that a word is taken out from its context and it is focused on as a language item. The problem is deciding how much attention to pay to it, what to give attention to, and when to give it. This

can be done in different ways two of them are negotiation and defining. Regarding negotiation it is said that vocabulary items that are negotiated are more likely to be learned than words that do not go through that process (Newton, 1995). This type of activity takes much more time than regular classroom activities and it only represents 20 % of vocabulary learning (Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki, 1994); that means that it depends on the teacher to decide on which lexical items to give that amount of time in a class. What is important about this kind of activity is that learners who do not take part of the actual negotiation learn vocabulary just as well as the ones doing the negotiation. This shows that the major role is not played by the negotiation itself but the conditions that this activity provides to notice and gain information, for the learning of vocabulary. In the case of definition, Brett, Rothlein and Hurley (1996) showed in their study that by giving a brief explanation of some of the unknown words that are being listened, vocabulary learning can be increased considerably.

Retrieval is another of the major processes that contributes to a word being remembered. After a word has been noticed and its meaning comprehended, retrieval happens when the learner encounters a word and s/he remembers the meaning during a specific task; this whole process will help to strengthen the memory of that word. The process of retrieval can be receptive – when the form is being perceived through reading or listening and the meaning is being remembered – or productive –when the learner needs to communicate the meaning of the word and remembers the written or spoken form for writing or speaking. It is important to take into account that retrieval does not occur if the form and the meaning of the word are being presented simultaneously (Nation, 2001).

Generative use is another of the processes that contributes to remember a word. It occurs when a word that has previously been encountered is met in another situation in which the context is different from the context where the word was originally encountered. Generative processing can also be receptive or productive. The productive form means to produce the word in new contexts different from the textual input; and in the receptive form involves meeting the word in new contexts while listening or reading. This indicates that having to use the word differently from written exercises results in superior learning. An important concept in creative or generative use is 'instantiation' this is remembering or experiencing a particular instance where the meaning of the word appears.

### **2.6.3 The role of repetition**

For the repetition factor of learning vocabulary it should be taken into account how repetition should be approached, how learners can be helped to comprehend and how much time should be spend on what words. Repetition is fundamental for vocabulary learning because just one encounter is not enough to gain all the information of a word, thus repetition contributes to the quality of knowledge, to know a word well and to have an easy access to it. Three relevant aspects of repetition are the spacing between them, the types of repetition, and the number of repetitions (Nation, 2001). Spaced repetition –spread the number of repetitions across a long period of time– has more secure learning results than massed repetition –to spend a continuous period of time on giving repeated attention to a word. Research developed by Baddeley (1990), Schmitt (1998), Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) has shown that spaced repetition provides time to the generation of neurochemical substances needed in the physical changes in the brain which long-term learning depends on. On the other hand, massed learning does not provide

enough time for these substances to be generated and cannot continue making the physical changes needed for learning– this theory is still under investigation. In relation to this, the issue of how many encounters a learner has to have with one specific lexical item to learn it is not determined yet. However, there has been several studies that have range the number of encounters between one to three (Brown & Sagers, 1999; Rott, 1999; Webb, 2008), but others say that there needs to be no less than 20 encounters with the word (Waring & Takaki, 2003)

Considering all the previous theoretical background on vocabulary knowledge and its relationship to reading and actual comprehension, there is a multiplicity of factors that cannot be left aside when assessing learners or when designing a course program.

## **2.7 Assessing vocabulary**

### **2.7.1 Defining learners knowledge as a construct**

From a formalist perspective, what is acquired by learners is grammar as a mental representation of morphosyntactic rules. They view this specific construct being researched as a highly abstract knowledge being available previous to any linguistic experience, and being locked in an independent module unaffected by any other type of knowledge. Therefore, they view implicit knowledge as the construct to be studied, and, on the other hand, explicit knowledge as having no place in SLA research.

From a usage-based perspective, what should be research is both grammar and lexis because they are interwoven in a wide range of layered inventories of form-meaning mapping known as constructions. Implicit knowledge is defined as an “intuitive but general-cognitive knowledge of constructions” (Norris and Ortega, 2012)

From a cognitive-interactionist SLA perspective, grammar has a broader definition than the other two perspective presented above, it covers the foundations of L2 communicative ability –as lexis, phonology, pragmatics, morphosyntax– and areas of interactional and discourse competence. They are assessed in isolation as well as in interaction with each other. This perspective sees both implicit and explicit knowledge as important for any SLA explanation.

For a social SLA perspective, knowledge of sociolinguistic variation along with semiotic resources are also included in what is acquired. There is no agreement on the interpretation of implicit-explicit knowledge among social theories of SLA. For example, Vygotskian sociocultural researchers centered their research on explicit knowledge because they find most interesting to investigate higher-order cognition and human consciousness –they value conceptual knowledge of grammar i.e. metalinguistic and explicit knowledge. Conversely, researchers that work with conversation analysis give more importance to implicit knowledge understood as performed knowledge; this allows the participants of a communicative situation to maintain or to repair social order during communication. Legitimate evidence for them are linguistic details as discourse contributions and sequences, paralinguistic details as silence, stress, speech rate, etc.; and para-linguistic details as gaze, gestures, etc. always performed in natural interactions. There is also another approach to L2 learning among sociocultural theory that is language socialization which emphasizes the importance of implicit or performative knowledge as well as explicit or metacognitive knowledge, and uses a variety of indicators from the ethnographic tradition in linguistic anthropology (Lantolf, 2012).

Nowadays, researchers increasingly conceive L2 targets from a multidimensional perspective, i.e. they do not consider a single morphological rule but a whole system of interrelated rules or



constructions. To assess this multi-dimensional and dynamic interpretation concerning L2 knowledge, relevant benchmarks need to be chosen for it. There are several approaches to benchmarking –to provide a specified frame of reference to interpret L2 development– one of them can be from a formal linguistic perspective which assess learners comparing their grammatical judgments to those from a baseline group of L1 native speakers; under the assumption that native speakers' competence provides a theoretical benchmark of what is or is not plausible to do with the grammar. Conversely, there are other researchers who work on the base that L2 learners are emerging bilinguals –based on their two grammars interacting with each other– which should be compared to a bilingual baseline group; or that the learners' performance both in their L1 and L2 should be fully understood to explain their L2 behavior. Other researchers work within a processability framework from where they look for emerging evidence of the ability to use a given target form and to position learners along a L2 developmental sequence –all this process is done with broad spectrums of L2 production.

In relation to assessing vocabulary, researchers can choose to focus on several areas as global vocabulary and depth of knowledge, and what measures should be used to assess them. Global vocabulary refers to the relationship between the lexical knowledge and the ability to function in the L2. Research has shown that 2,000 word families are sufficient to conduct a simple conversation, but not for listening and reading comprehension, on the other hand, a lower level of comprehension can be achieved with a vocabulary size of 5,000 word families (Laufer and Nation, 2012). Researcher can also focus on depth of vocabulary knowledge using different measuring techniques such as tests that measure grammatical functions, paradigmatic associations, and syntagmatic association among others – one of the most employed techniques for assessment in SLA are generally called grammaticality judgment task (GJT).

What it is also important in assessing vocabulary is to take into account who is being assessed. In this respect, validity of the interpretations of theoretical constructs has been questioned as such constructs have been used crosswise in diverse and dissimilar learners. Hence SLA researchers should be critical when assuming the validity of a specific assessment when it is going to be applied to a new group of learners –even if it is one that has already been validated in a different study. For instance, in a written production or comprehension assessment of some specific feature may serve for measuring knowledge of L2 forms with adults or adolescents who have received large amount of schooling, however, the same instrument may reveal little information about young, bi- or multilingual learners who have been exposed to oral literacy, education based on narrative traditions, and/or multilingual code switching. On this respect, it is significant as well that researchers do not interpret data only on the basis that there is no observable variable in the learners' proficiency (Laufer and Nation, 2012).

### **2.7.2 Designing a language course program**

To have an idea of how to put together all the components previously mentioned Nation (2001) puts forward the following model for designing the vocabulary element of a language course:

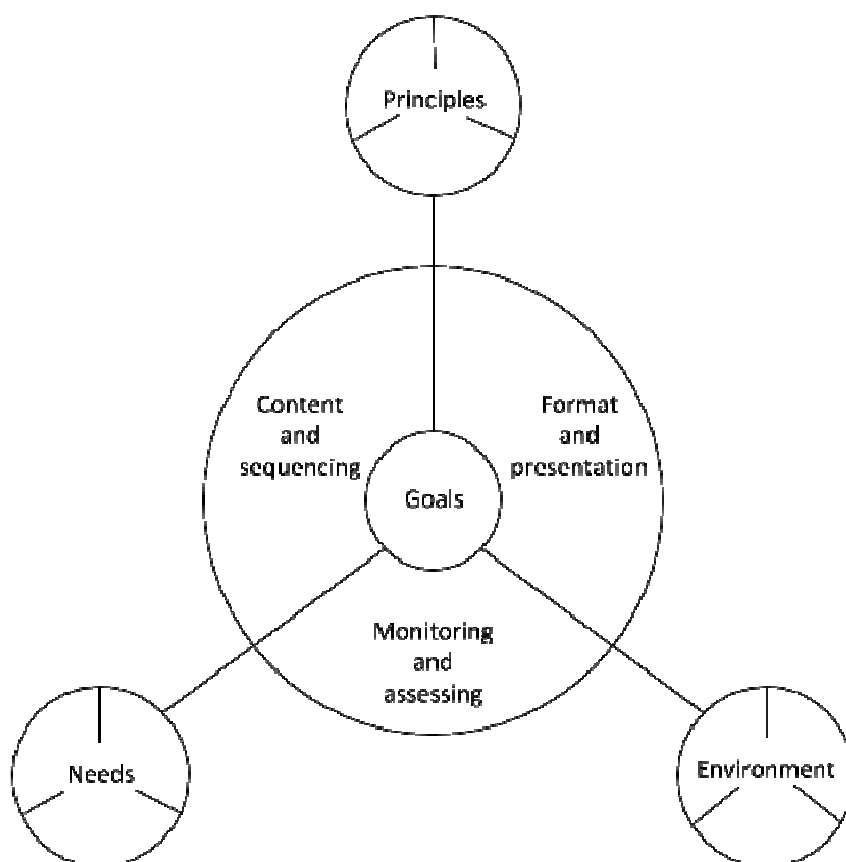


Figure 1: A model of the parts of the course design process (Nation 2001, p. 381)

To design a successful vocabulary component within a language program we must, first of all, carry out an analysis to establish its goals, the needs of the learners to whom our program is designed and the environment in which it is going to be applied.

### 2.7.2.1 Goals

The majority of the vocabulary component of courses will have as a purpose to increase the learners' active vocabulary size (it implies not only increasing the number of words they know but to develop fluency and ability to use vocabulary in productive and receptive language

skills as well), and to be able to use effectively a variety of learning and coping strategies. For this purpose, it is fundamental to know what the learners' needs are: low-frequency, high-frequency, academic or technical words –knowing this is essential for the designing of a course.

### 2.7.2.2 Needs

To determine where the learners' are in their developmental process, the easiest and quickest method is to test their vocabulary directly through a test like the *Vocabulary Levels Test* or the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test*, for example. To analyze the learners' needs Nation (2001, p. 382) presents a table which may help to establish the various types of needs and how they can be researched:

#### *Vocabulary needs analysis*

Type of need	Needs analysis tool
Lacks ·What vocabulary do they know? ·What strategies can they use?	·Vocabulary knowledge: a vocabulary size test ·Vocabulary use: Lexical Frequency Profile, levels dictation ·Strategy knowledge: knowledge test ·Strategy use: observation of performance
Necessities ·What vocabulary do they need? ·What strategies do they need?	·Interview or questionnaire to determine language use goals  ·Refer to studies of vocabulary size and coverage
Wants ·What vocabulary do they want to learn?	·Use class discussion, an interview or questionnaire to determine areas of interest.

Table 2 (Nation, 2001, p. 382)

The needs analysis that should result from the application of the previous table is: indicators of type of vocabulary need focusing on high-frequency, academic, technical, low-frequency; indicators of how much of this type of vocabulary should be learned; indicators of which strategies need to be focus on; indicators of any area of specialized vocabulary needs attention; and the present learners' strength areas of vocabulary knowledge and use, and their control of strategies.

### **2.7.2.3 Environment**

This section of Nation's model refers to the different features that may help or hinder learning; these involve teachers, learners and teaching/ learning situation. Usually a crucial factor in language courses is time, if it is limited, emphasis should be put to direct teaching and learning of vocabulary, and if it is very short the emphasis should be placed on the teaching of strategies rather than in individual words. The result of the environment analysis should be a list of factors that will have a great effect on the course design. Nation (2001, p. 384) also proposes some factors that can affect the environment:

	<i>Some environment factors and their effects on vocabulary course design</i>
The effect on the course	Environmental factor
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Use translation to define words and to test vocabulary knowledge</li> <li>· Set graded reading and direct vocabulary learning tasks</li> </ul>	Learners <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· The learners share the same L1</li> <li>· The learners will do homework</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Use vocabulary exercises with answer keys</li> </ul>	Teachers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· The teachers do not have much time for marking</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Introduce cognate forms early in the course to get quick vocabulary growth</li> <li>· Use CALL activities</li> </ul>	Situation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· L1 and L2 share cognate vocabulary</li> <li>· Computers are available</li> </ul>

Table 3 (Nation, 2001, p.384)

#### **2.7.2.4 Content and Sequencing**

According to Nation (2001) there must be a set of well justified principles with major influence upon content and sequencing, format and presentation, and monitoring and assessment of the model of course design. The main purpose to decide these principles is to make sure that they are going to be put in action within the course. These principles should guide what vocabulary would be the centre of the course at any given stage, if it is focused on words or strategies, and how it should be ordered.

What it is highly important concerning content and sequencing is to decide what is going to be the “unit of analysis” (Long and Crookes, 1992) or the “unit of progression” (Nation, 2000).

The unit of progression is the unit which marks the advancement of a course; thus, the course

designer needs to decide if s/he is going to parcel and sequence each unit or lesson by language units (words, grammar, discourse types, items functions), ideas (themes or topics), or language use (situations, tasks, etc.). If the unit of progression of a course is vocabulary, then on each stage, new vocabulary is introduced systematically corresponding to principles as frequency and range of occurrence. Such courses usually combine a “series” approach and a “field” approach to do the selection and sequencing. In a series approach the lexical items are ordered by principles as frequency of occurrence, complexity or communicative need; in a field approach a group of items is chosen and they are covered in any order, until all the items in the group are covered. Sinclair and Renouf (1988) believe that if vocabulary is the unit of progression of a course, grammar would be encountered in an appropriate proportion. Long and Crookes (1992) propose something similar but using tasks as the unit of progression; they suggest that if the tasks are correctly chosen this will have a direct result in a appropriate representation of vocabulary, grammatical features and functions. The result of the content and sequencing part of course design will be a list of items that will be a part of the learning goal of a course.

#### **2.7.2.5 Format and presentation**

This aspect is the most visible one of course design and it includes a general approach to vocabulary teaching, a selection of learning and teaching techniques, and their display in a lesson plan. The quality of teaching and learning techniques that are used to ensure conditions such as repetition, retrieval, should be evaluated by teachers.

### **2.7.2.6 Monitoring and assessment**

Monitoring and assessment is related to the progress of learners and the quality of their knowledge. In fact, not only quantity should be measured within a vocabulary component of a language course. To begin with, it is important that the learners and the teacher know what level of vocabulary they should be focusing on. Related to assessment, it is important to know whether learners have fluent control over strategies for learning vocabulary or not. Thus, it is important to test the vocabulary learning strategy control of learners that can be assessed in two complementary ways: one, is to know how well learners understand the strategies, the steps involved in applying them and the knowledge necessary at each stage; another, is how well learners are able to apply the strategies in normal use.

### **2.7.2.7 Evaluation**

Finally, evaluation makes an attempt to determine how good a course is and *good* can be defined from various viewpoints (teacher's, students', designer's, etc.). Evaluation is a broad topic and could (and probably would) involve looking at all parts of a program. According to Nation (2001) some of the questions that might arise from evaluation are: if the goals were reached, if the course took into account the environmental factors and if learners' needs were met, among others.



### **2.7.2.8 Goals of Vocabulary Learning**

Nation (2001) proposes eight principles on which vocabulary learning should centre. Principle one: learners should know what vocabulary they need to learn, what they can learn about it, how to learn it, how to use it and how to measure if they have learned it and used it well.

Principle two: they should know how to increase their vocabulary breadth and depth. Principle three: for learners to determine what vocabulary they need to learn they should be based on word frequency and personal need. Principle four: learners should be informed about what is involved in knowing a word and where to find this information. Principle five: learners should be familiarized with the language patterns that are behind vocabulary use. Principle six: they should also know how to use effectively direct, decontextualized vocabulary –this kind of vocabulary is insufficient by itself, but when used with message- focused incidental learning it can be very effective. Principle seven: learning vocabulary requires to be driven by the four strands of meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency development. Principle eight: learners need to be conscious about their progress in vocabulary learning.

## **2.8 Public policy**

Public policies are ubiquitous in organized human societies, because they are courses of action proposed by specific groups of people related to politics and governments with the objective of solving a problem detected within the society as a whole. Every dimension of community life is regulated by public policies, from law to education and health. Applied linguistics, our other area of interest, on the other hand, can be defined as “using what we know about language, how it is learned, and how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve

some problem in the real world” (Celce-Murcia & Schmitt, 2010, p. 1). The interconnection between these two disciplines is called Language Planning and Policy, the branch of applied linguistics responsible for creating and regulating public policies related to languages and societies as for example the programs of any language taught as a second language and the reasons for doing that. In the following paragraphs we are going to briefly explain the relationship mentioned above and connecting it more precisely to education itself.

Language Planning and Policy (LPP) is defined by Cooper as “deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes” (1989, p. 45). So, public policies directly influence people’s daily lives because it affects their language codes and, therefore their communications and communicative codes. According to Lo Bianco (2005), LPP research goes far beyond applied linguistics, even though it has been present in the call for papers for the AAAL (American Association of Applied Linguistics) from 2010 conference on, because the fact that language problems always arise from societies and within specific historical contexts creates the need for an interdisciplinary research based on real-world data. Concrete historical contexts involve rival interests that inevitably reflect the relations among different groups - ethnic, political, social, class grouping, etc. (Lo Bianco, 2005). Consequently, this scholarly practice must be intertwined with history, sociology, politics, economic and ethnic relations.

The term ‘Language planning’ acquired importance mainly through Haugen’s systematization (1966). He distinguishes between four stages of language planning: Selection of form, codification of the previously selected form, implementation of the new norms that arose from the previous codification and finally, their implementation into a variety of public domains

which include institutional and cultural cultivation of the language. Another division of the term language planning that must be taken into consideration is Kloss's (1969), because his taxonomy gave birth to the major activities discussed in LPP literature. He divided it into two separate activities: Corpus planning, which consisted in selection and codification of norms and resulted in prescriptive books such as dictionaries, grammars and manuals of writing intended to overcome communicative inefficiencies product of ideological imperatives. And Status planning, which consisted in the creation of policies to prescribe the official status of languages and their usage regulations in public administrations.

Besides the divisions between corpus and status planning mentioned before, there are four other activities studied by LPP:

- 1) Acquisition planning, strongly related to education because it describes the teaching policies of governments that can be influenced by different interests (linguistic minorities' rights, economic interests calculations, humanistic rationales, etc.)
- 2) Usage planning, related to the extension of the communicative domains of a certain language.
- 3) Prestige planning which consists of elevating the esteem of a certain linguistic code.
- 4) Discourse Planning, according to Lo Bianco (2005), should be considered as part of LPP because it influences and affects people's mental state, beliefs and behaviors "through the linguistically mediated ideological working on institutions, disciplines and diverse social formations" (Lo Bianco, 2005, p. 743)

Those activities could be framed into one of the factors that, according to the analysis on LPP literature made by Ricento (2000), shape the field influencing the questions, the methodologies and the goals within the field. The factors are grouped into three headings: (1) The macro sociopolitical factor that refers to the “events and processes that obtain at the national or supranational level” (Ricento, 2000, p.196), such as decolonization, wars, migrations, state formation, etc.; (2) the epistemological factor, related to “paradigms of knowledge and research” (Ricento, 2000, p.196), such as postmodernism; and (3) the strategic factor that can be either explicit or implicit and that have to do with the ends for which a research is conducted.

Taking all these factors into consideration, it is important to highlight the fact that LPP is closely related to the area of politics, and therefore to the development of policies; that is why it is inevitable to consider ideologies as a central element influencing the creation of public policies in relation to languages. Language planning can serve multiple interests and very contradictory ones depending on the ideology behind it and its creator. We will be referring to this influence, done through language ideologies, and its characteristics in the following paragraphs.

## **2.9 Language ideologies and cultural models**

Ideologies share four central features. First, they are conceived as concepts or ideas that have to do with beliefs, notions, or consciousness itself. Second, these ideological notions are viewed as deriving from the interests and beliefs of a particular group, although they are commonly presented as universal truths. Third, a central notion in ideologies is showing that other’s ideas are distorted or false in relation to the one being considered the universal truth.

Fourth, the intimate relationship that exists between ideologies and social power is what legitimizes it. According to the latter characteristic of ideologies, they are always a tool of socially dominant groups, and their cultural conceptions are by definition non-ideological (Woolard, 1992), which means they do not have any influence on any policy, including language planning.

In addition to these four characteristics, there are two other dimensions in the understanding of ideologies: one is the degree to which an ideology is conscious and explicit and the other is the degree in which it is a coherent system. The characteristics mentioned above are important because even though ideologies can look coherent they are always influenced by personal interests, and also because to the Whorfian notion of 'linguacultural ideology' in Friederich eyes is considered "more unconscious than other forms that have been called ideological, while nonetheless conceptual" (Woolard, 1992, p.238), so language ideologies are always, up to a certain degree, unconscious.

In relation to this, there are two distinguishable approaches to linguistic ideology. On the one hand we have a purely linguistic view based on Boas' (1911) proposal that "language is a cultural system whose primarily structure is little influenced by secondary rationalizations, and so is an exemplary target of analysis" (Woolard, 1992, p.239). And on the other hand, there is the Herderian position in which language has been acknowledged as central when talking about nationalism and ethnic relations, because it is seen as the definition or expression of identity (Woolard, 1992).

As it has been stated before, ideologies are culturally shaped and therefore there are cultural models behind them. Actually, Geeraerts (2003) sets out that there are not real differences

between ideologies and cultural models, because of the general idea within Cognitive Linguistics that “the cultural models underlying reasoning and argumentation are to some extent idealized entities” (Geeraerts, 2003, p. 3). The importance of cultural models in language standardization is what leads him to describe the two principal models that may be identified: the *rationalist* and the *romantic* model.

There are three basic areas in which both models present completely different perspectives. First of all, their linguistic-philosophical bases are different: while the rationalist model considers language as a medium of communication, the romantic model considers it a medium of expression. Second, their conceptions of standardization are opposing each other: the rationalist model is based upon a democratic ideal in which standard language is seen as a neutral medium of social participation whereas the romantic model is based on an anti-ideological criticism whose central claim is that standard language is as a medium of social exclusion. Finally, their conceptions of language variation carry different significations: while the rationalist model claims that language variation is an impediment to emancipation (from colonies, for example), the romantic model sees it as positive because it enables to express different identities. The next table summarizes the concepts explained above:

	The Rationalist Model	The Romantic Model
Linguistic-philosophical basis	Language as a medium of communication	Language as a medium of expression
Concept of standardization	A democratic ideal: standard language as a neutral medium of social participation	Anti-ideological criticism: standard language as a medium of social exclusion
Conception of language variation	Language variation as an impediment to emancipation	Language variation as expressing different identities

Table 4. The rationalist and the romantic model of standardization (Geeraerts, 2003, p.16)

The models presented before can be applied to the worldwide spread of English, because the rationalist position asserts that global English is an opportunity and that multilingualism is a specialization with functional outcomes. Whereas, for the romantic model the worldwide spread of English is a threat and multilingualism is conceived as the expression of, somehow postmodern, fragmented identities (Geeraerts, 2003).

After the introduction of the concepts of Public Policy, Language Planning and Policy, Linguistic Ideology and Cultural Models, it is pertinent to develop the relationship there is between these notions and their effects in bilingual education.

## **2.10 Bilingualism and education**

The structure of society is greatly influenced by schools and the education people receive in them. This influence is mainly based on the socializing character of those institutions considering that “the school plays a powerful role in exerting social control over its pupils. It

endorses mainstream and largely middle-class values. Children who do not come to school with the kind of cultural background supported in schools are likely to experience conflict” (Romaine, 1995, p.242). This is the reason why public policies arise in the educational field, they are intended to solve the possible conflicts that may appear inside it, especially the multiplicity of languages and/or the coexistence of them within a single nation.

In the case of educational policies related to languages, Skutnabb-Kangas and McCarthy (2008) explain that the assimilation of minority groups is a process in which minority people, often through coercive practices, are forced to accept dominant language and culture in detriment of heritage languages and cultures. Assimilation has been the traditional educational policy, either explicitly stated or implicitly assumed by governments and colonisers. The multiplicity and coexistence of languages within a nation-state is an important issue and varies from nation to nation depending on several factors such as immigration rates and ethnic diversity. The plurality of realities and circumstances has caused the springing up of many typologies of bilingual education, even though the eradication of native languages has been supported by a great deal of early literature in which bilingualism is seen as a negative influence in the intellectual development of children –especially measured in terms of IQ – (Romaine, 1995); e.g. McNamara’s (1966) concept of *balance effect* in which “the development of second language skills necessarily involved a parallel decrease in first language skills” (Romaine, 1995, p.264). Indeed, this effect could be related to prescriptivism and may be another aspect of the issue posed by the detrimental concept of semilingualism (McSwan, 2005), because, according to McNamara, to learn a second language at an early age is balanced by a slower progress in the learners’ L1 due to the high learning burden present during the acquisition of that Second language. Each typology about bilingual education has



its own terminology and this, according to Hornberger (1991) leads to the misuse of the same terms in different types of educational programs and conversely, different terms for the same type.

According to Skutnabb-Kangas there are three general types of bilingual education policies whose implementation leads to a specific outcome in each case: (1) *Immersion*, both for minority language speakers or dominant language speakers, results in the extension of the linguistic repertoire of the children through the learning of a new language in addition to the mother tongue that continues being used, that is additive bilingualism; (2) *submersion*, in which the minority children are placed in language classes with majority children -with or without additional lesson of the second language- and that results into subtractive bilingualism because the “second language gradually undermines proficiency in the first”, (Romaine, 1995, p.246). The same subtractive result is reached by (3) *maintenance or language shelter* programs in which children are taught in their first language with an objective of maintenance and further development of their language and culture in interaction with the majority (Romaine, 1995). The pejorative terms *semilingualism* and *double semilingualism* are commonly associated to subtractive bilingualism because of the diminution in the proficiency and accuracy in the first language and the partial knowledge of the second, leading the subject to a position of no ‘complete’ knowledge of any language. As mentioned before, semilingualism and double semilingualism are commonly defined based upon an idealized notion of full competence in one language or another. Skutnabb-Kangas (1984) has observed that the detrimental concept of semilingualism is neither to be considered a linguistic nor a scientific concept; she thinks it is a political concept that is part of “an argument about power

and oppression” (in Romaine, 1995) that eventually influences the development of public policies regarding education.

When definitions are based on function they are connected with a diglossic relationship (one language is more prestigious than the other so they are ascribed to different contexts). The Swedish linguist Hansegård (1975) defined semilingualism as a deficit or lack of competence in the two or more languages an individual knows. He based his definition on six specific areas of language:

- “1. size of repertoire of words, phrases understood or actively available in speech [(vocabulary size)],
2. linguistic correctness [...];
3. degree of automatism [...];
4. ability to create or neologize;
5. mastery of cognitive, emotive and volitional function of language;
6. richness or poorness in individual meanings [(meaning and imaginary)]” (Romaine, 1995, p. 262)

Hansegård concept of semilingualism has been refuted mainly because in most of the studies that support his view (principally the three later areas of deficit) bilingual children are assessed in the same way that monolingual children are and, as we have stated before, a bilingual is not the sum of two monolinguals.

This misguided assessment has had several consequences on linguistic minorities. Many educators have a poor understanding of constructs as intelligence, language proficiency, learning disability and bilingualism. And, consequently some correlations have arisen. For example, there has been a strong relationship between special education and bilingual students

mainly because, as Cummins (1984) said, psychological assessment has been imprecisely used for the “over-representation of ethnic minority students in classes for the mentally retarded” (Romaine, 1995, p. 274).

To assess a child in a language that is not his/her mother tongue may interfere in his/her results because the performance expected is based on a “school-context [system] oriented towards middle-class children of monolingual background” (Romaine, 1995, p. 275) and its main objective is to establish benchmarks that derive children from one course to another or, within the same course, from one stage of it to the next one (McNamara, 2010). Besides, some studies have shown that when tests are assessing kinds of knowledge majority children lack but minority children have, minority children do well (Romaine, 1995). This phenomenon could have an explanation on the public policies field; because once labels such as ‘learning disabled’ are given to minority children it is assumed that this is the explanation for their alleged learning problems. Then this diverts the attention that should be given to other possible factors involved in the learning process of the children as to school’s contribution and social environment at a large scale (Romaine, 1995) and, as Cummings has stated (1984), bilingualism is often used to legitimize and carry on discriminatory educational practices.

To assess bilingual children Romaine (1995) recommends the development of a realistic assessment instrument for them based on the developmental stages of the two languages, the characteristic interference patterns as well as the socialization patterns of the two languages. According to Romaine (1995) there needs to be an identification of the cultural differences of the two communities coming together, the one the child comes from and the one s/he is

entering to, because it can beneficiate the learning process of the children through a contrastive teaching of the languages (Romaine, 1995).

We have already stated that political ideologies have a great bearing on bilingual education, and depending on the political position research can support opposite views. This is done through what is called 'discourse policy' (LoBianco, 2005) where politicians propose great policies concerning multiculturalism and bilingualism, but these policies are often only expressed to keep minority groups pleased and maintain their status quo regarding their language right –or their ethnic rights for that matter. We have to highlight the fact that school is not the only social institution responsible for language acquisition and maintenance, but it is the foundation of society which makes it an ideal place where to implement a re-conceptualization of bilingual education (Romaine, 1995). This re-conceptualization can be based on the beneficial cognitive and experiential aspects of bilingualism, which have been widely recognized through research (García, 1999, 2001; Romaine, 1995), and surprisingly only has been applied to specific ethnic minorities and not to the society as a whole.

As we have seen in the discussion displayed above there are several aspects to be taken into consideration when analyzing the complex phenomenon that second language acquisition, especially vocabulary acquisition in a second or foreign language, in children is. How they acquire a second language, how it should be taught considering all the factors involved - their mother tongue, community, school, environment, etc. - what ideologies impel the public policies behind the teaching of a second language, how to assess children acquiring it, etc. The complexity of this process is what has driven the present research.

### **3. METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Motivations**

Firstly, this study was motivated by the determination of the Ministry of Education to put forward a new curricular proposal that establishes a voluntary program for schools to teach English as well as Mapudungun from the first year of primary school. Program authors state that this voluntary curriculum was designed to provide schools that already teach English to children from the first year in primary school with the necessary orientations to continue doing it; this measure also applies to schools that have been teaching English from the fifth grade on. This policy to include English from fifth grade began to be enforced in 1996 in our country. This governmental decision can have great impact on the educational system at schools, and especially on its students.

Secondly, we considered the differences and similarities between these two languages in terms of second language versus foreign language teaching. This made us to analyze the contexts in which both languages are taught in our country. Thus, we concluded that both English and Mapudungun shared the teaching/learning environment as foreign languages being learnt. Some characteristics of foreign language learning are: (1) it does not tend to result in native-like use of the language as second language learning tends to do (Schinke-Llano, 1990 in Ellis, 1994) and (2) the deficiencies shown by foreign language learners, compared to second language learning contexts, involve complex learning targets. The explanation provided by Ellis (1994) for the difficulty to reach grammatically complex targets in foreign contexts is the

insufficient exposure that classrooms offer for those tasks to be learnt naturally (and not acquired, according to Ellis, 1994).

All the previously mentioned information provided about the context of learning English and Mapudungun in our Chilean reality led us to pose questions about the public policies behind the implementation of the new curricular proposal from the Ministry of Education and look for the reasons that motivated them: the fact that English has been taught since 1813 in our country, and that its worldwide use has been increasing in the last twenty years because of globalization and its involvement in economic, political, and cultural facets is what gives it its high status in comparison to other languages - especially indigenous languages such as Mapudungun - and the significance of its implementation via public policies as the foreign language to be taught in schools. In the case of Mapudungun, it has been taught compulsorily in schools with more than 20% of indigenous students since 2010 and it does not enjoy the same status of English. On the contrary, it has a lower status that makes it a minority language. According to Bhatt and Mahboob (2008) the reasons of its minority language condition are: (1) the reduced number of speakers that speak the language, compared to the total Chilean population, (2) the restriction of its functionality to home/ family domains, (3) its relations to issues of political power as dominating/dominated relationship with the official language, autonomy as language rights/movements, and space as 'linguistic' states. Lastly, (4) the fact that it is the official language of a large indigenous group (an estimated 84% of the total indigenous population of Chile is Mapuche, CENSUS 2012).

It is important to keep in mind that, even though, Mapudungun is an indigenous language in our country and Mapudungun native speakers live here, the sociolinguistic profile made by

Gundermann et al. (2008) shows that, more than a half of the Mapuche population (in VIII, IX and X region) are Spanish monolinguals, while there are practically no Mapudungun monolinguals. In the case of English, we can say that it is not a widely spoken language in our country and that the number of native speakers is negligible. What we do have are monolinguals of Spanish learning English, as a prestigious foreign language, in educational contexts. Hence, the only substantial difference between Mapudungun and English is their prestige. Consequently, when taking into consideration the actual situation in which both languages are in our country, we can clearly state they are not second but foreign languages based upon Littlewood's (1984) distinction in which a Foreign Language is learnt in order to communicate outside the community one belongs to, whereas a Second Language conveys social functions within the community in which it is learnt. Therefore, their programs and activities proposed for classes should be similarly developed.

Subsequently, we considered the different factors involved in teaching these two languages in a foreign language context as the fact that Mapudungun is a minority language that lacks the prestige that English has, this makes it difficult for children to develop an active command of the Mapudungun language when it does not have community support (Romaine, 1999). On the other hand, we have noticed there is an increasing interest for teaching and learning English, principally from the Ministry of Education. As a matter of fact, in 2003 they launched the "English Opens Doors" program as a means to enhance the teaching of English towards the aim of making Chile a bilingual country. According to Sergio Bitar this program has improved the capacity of the Chilean schools to manage English in order to help Chilean citizens to be able to communicate with other people. Chile, according to Bitar, is a small country that needs

to create international relations, therefore, the reasons he states are merely economic (Sergio Bitar's interview in the Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura, 2011).

Additionally, we have seen the necessity to identify which theory of Second Language Acquisition underlies each of those programs. It is important to know the building blocks upon which ministerial programs and policies are based, because they may greatly influence the status of a language and the way it is going to be taught, and consequently, the outcomes the instruction may have. Finally, this study will also try to discover if there is any relationship between them, that is to say, if they are related to each other in terms of theoretical support and teaching strategies that may spring up from the analysis of class activities present in both.

We believe that this study can make a small contribution towards a change of attitude in the Chilean community towards this indigenous language and its position in comparison to English. Moreover, we believe this study may contribute to present a different view of the way the foreign language learning process is conceived by teachers and policy makers. In order to do that, it is important to keep in mind the reasons the Ministry gives to teach those two languages at this early stage in children development.

### **3.2 Reasons for the early instruction proposed in both programs**

In the case of Mapudungun the reasons for starting the instruction so early are merely cultural. The program clearly states that the main objective is to promote intercultural awareness and respect. The basis for this bilingual education proposal is on the process of globalization and its opportunities of interacting with a multiplicity of peoples and cultures promoting the



harmonic relationship among them. However, we have been wondering what the linguistic reasons behind this program are, as it is a language instruction program.

On the other hand, for the English language curriculum, the program states that this language should be taught from primary school because the environment in which it is taught is an EFL one. The fact that it is going to be taught from primary school allows the students to have an early exposure to the language, and thus, face it in a more natural, ludic, and fluent manner, which will enrich their pronunciation and motivation towards the challenges that are required in its learning process (Ministerial English Curricula for first year primary school). The program also states that the reason for teaching English is its application in the globalization process, in the many different fields it can be used - in the scientific, economic, technological, and academic field, among others- which will allow them to get involved in the Globalization dynamics as well as to be prepared to face the challenges typical of such a process - a similar view on the matter can be found in the 1996 decree No 40 of the Chilean law. In this respect, the ex-Ministry of Education Sergio Bitar explained the origins of his program “English Open Doors” (Inglés Abre Puertas) in a 2011 interview given to the ‘Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura’ (American Institute) where he reinforced his original statements from 2003 that English should be taught at all levels of education. He supports his view with the argument that low-income families would feel happier knowing their children would have more opportunities for better jobs. He, additionally, indicates that since half of the information on the Internet is in English and due to the globalization process that the country is going through plus the fact that Chile is a small country and needs to communicate with others English is the correct language to learn.

### **3.3 Objectives**

The present study has as its main objectives:

- To determine the way vocabulary acquisition and learning are viewed and represented by the curricula provided by the Ministry of Education for 1st grade English and Mapudungun as a foreign language by recognising the SLA theory behind them, for this
- We will also try to determine the theory of SLA behind those curricula that provides the basis for them. Subsequently,
- We will make an attempt to identify relationships between the theory presented in these curricula and the vocabulary activities and teaching strategies proposed in these documents within and across languages. And finally,
- We will try to identify the ideologies present in each of them and the way those ideologies influence the development of those ministerial programs.

#### **3.3.1 Main research questions**

a. Do ministerial programs follow a specific theory of second language vocabulary acquisition? If so,

What are the theories or assumptions on which the curricula are based? Are they similar?

- b. In case there is a theory of second language vocabulary acquisition is there a direct relationship between this theory and the activities suggested in the curricula? Where do we find (or not) coherence within their specific theoretical support and their suggested activities?
- c. Which cultural model is behind each curriculum?
- d. What is the definition of childhood bilingualism these curricula are based on?

### **3.3.2 Secondary research questions**

- a. Are the activities similar in both curricula? Is the amount of them similar?
- b. Is the relationship between theory and practice presented and suggested in the programs direct?
- c. How are the cultural models behind these curricula influencing the teaching strategies and activities within them?

### **3.4 Corpus selection and corpus selection criteria**

A total of eight ministerial programs for foreign languages were examined preliminarily, four for English and four for Mapudungun. Those programs correspond to a non-compulsory ministerial program of foreign languages during the first four years of primary school. From those eight programs, two were selected as data, one for Mapudungun and one for English. Both programs correspond to first year of primary school and therefore to elementary levels of proficiency for either languages. Besides we used, as secondary sources to contextualize this study, a number of legal documents directly related to curricula and foreign language education themselves. In the case of Mapudungun, we also revised the laws No 19.253 and

No 20.370, the United Nations declaration on the rights of indigenous people (March, 2008), and the International Labour Organization's convention No 169. For English, we used the decree No 40 of Chilean law (February, 1996) and the Chilean National Report "The Chilean Education in the turn of the century: policies, results and challenges (La Educación Chilena en el cambio de siglo: políticas, resultados y desafíos) (August, 2004) from the UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization).

### **3.5 Addition of language instruction to the programs**

The addition of Mapudungun to school curricula in Chile is the result of a great number of legislative changes. Nowadays, the law 19.253, promulgated in 1993 and also known as 'Ley indígena', in its 28th article highlights the importance of acknowledging, respecting and protecting indigenous cultures and languages ("reconocimiento, respeto y protección de las culturas e idioma indígena"). Actually, in letter d) of the same article it emphasizes the promotion and establishment of indigenous history, language and culture classes.

Additionally, the law 20.370 (2009), in their 23th, 28th, 29th and 30th articles, stipulates the obligatory nature of EIB (bilingual intercultural education in Spanish: Educación Intercultural Bilingüe) for indigenous children and adolescents in pre-school, primary and secondary school in institutions with high indigenous population (without saying how much is high). All previously mentioned changes in Chilean law are based upon the articles 13th and 14th from the United Nations declaration on the rights of indigenous peoples adopted and published on September the 13th of 2007 (U.N, 2008); and on the International Labour Organization's convention N° 169, article 28th. Another important contributor to the addition of Mapudungun to school curricula is the decree N°280 (2009) through the assertion that the indigenous

language sector (SLI: Sector de Lengua Indígena) can be implemented in every Chilean school that desires to contribute to interculturality, but it is obligatory when the number of indigenous children is more than 50% from 2010 and more than 20%, from 2012 on, out of the total number of children in that school, in accordance with the previously mentioned law N°19.253. Finally, the decree number 2960 that approved the plans and programs from first to fourth year of primary school, including the one we are analyzing here.

In the case of English, its addition to the school curricula in Chile was a natural step after having been teaching it since 1813 in the renowned public school Instituto Nacional – whose creation was established by the National Congress in the minutes dated July 27<sup>th</sup> 1813. English was also taught in private schools of the country along with other languages such as French, German, and Italian – that came to replace the teaching of Latin as an obligatory lecture. By 1893, secondary schools imparted those languages giving the option to their students of choosing one Romance language and one Germanic Language as an obligatory class; an exception to this was for example the French School because its primary language was obviously French, and thus, the secondary language could be either English or German – the same happened to the German School, and so on. The schools were provided with teacher from the Instituto Pedagógico since its creation in 1889 in accordance with the decree dictated by Domingo Gana (Labarca, 1939). The teaching of English continued to be the same for secondary schools until 1965 when the division between primary and secondary school teaching changed from having six years each, to having eight years the former and four years the latter – according to the decree No 27. 953 dated December 7<sup>th</sup> 1965. Everything continued to be the same as well until 1996, when it was decided to implement English from the fifth year primary of school by means of the decree No 40 of Chilean law passed on

February 3<sup>rd</sup> 1996 – its last modification until the present day was done 2009 when the Ministry decided to update these curricula.

Consequently, the addition of Mapudungun has resulted from a series of political and social movements related to vindications of indigenous rights while English implementation to the curricula was the sole result of a succession of decisions taken by the Government and/or the Congress, i.e. the case of Mapudungun has been a bottom up struggle related to vindications of indigenous rights and the teaching of English has been a top down imposition as the language is seen as fundamental for the country's globalization process.

### **3.6 Instruments**

In order to fulfill our objectives we decided to conduct a type of qualitative analysis based upon the study of texts following three different approaches informed by epistemological differences: content analysis, discourse analysis, and finally policy and evaluation analysis.

Those approaches towards qualitative analysis were chosen and taken into account when designing the three instruments developed and applied to answer our questions and accomplish our objectives.

We used three instruments to answer our questions and also to fulfill our objectives. The first instrument was created based on Nation (2001) with the objective of helping us in the process of identifying the eight points that, according to him, should be taken into account when designing the vocabulary component of a language course and to clarify their presence or absence within each of the programs involved in this study. This instrument asked for presence/absence of each of the eight points and, in the case of presence, quotations to support

this assumption were needed. When the analysis of the programs did not show any exact coincidence we tried to go further and correlate the development of activities and descriptions with the description of the pertinent component in Nation's model of a course design. An example of the table we developed based on Nation's model is shown below.

Component of Language Course	MAPUDUNGUN		ENGLISH	
	Present	Absent	Present	Absent
GOALS				
NEEDS				
ENVIRONMENTS				
PRINCIPLES				
CONTENT AND SEQUENCING				
FORMAT AND PRESENTATION				
MONITORING AND ASSESSING				
EVALUATION				

Table 5 (Based in Nation, 2001)

The table is constituted by a total of five columns. The first one on the left displays the eight components of a language course proposed by Nation (2001). The first of them is *Goals* which refers to what specific vocabulary the learners want to learn –if they want to learn high

frequency, low-frequency, academic or technical words – and it is directly related to their vocabulary size, as well as, gaining control over strategies regarding vocabulary learning and coping. The second component is ‘Needs’ which refers to what the learners require to move forward in their developmental process. The third component in the column is ‘Environment’. This component of Nation’s model refers to the different features that may help or hinder learning; These involve teachers, learners and the teaching/ learning situation. The following component in the table is ‘Principles’, they should guide not only the vocabulary component of a course but every other component. The following component is ‘Content and Sequencing’ which refers to what vocabulary would be the centre of the course at any given stage, if it is focused on words or strategies, and how it should be ordered. The next component of the table is ‘Format and Presentation’ that includes a general approach to vocabulary teaching, a selection of learning and teaching techniques, and their display in a lesson plan. The following is ‘Monitoring and Assessing’ that is related to the progress of learners and the quality of their knowledge. And the last component in the left column of the table is ‘Evaluation’ which tries to determine how good a course is, and this can be defined from different viewpoints (teacher’s, students’, designer’s, etc.). The next two columns, one for Mapudungun and another one for English, are divided into two columns each, one for marking if the component is present and another one to signal its absence with an ‘X’.

The second instrument was based on Romaine’s (1999) explanation of childhood bilingualism that consists of six types. The objective of this instrument was to identify the existence of a definition of childhood bilingualism on which each program is based – comparing it with each of the six types of bilingualism proposed by Romaine (1999) –, whether they share it or not and the context in which the potential bilingual learners are meant to develop the second



language. The format of this instrument was mainly open ended questions to be answered after an exhaustive reading of both programs separately; the answers are supported via quotes from our primary source. An example of the questions present in this instrument is displayed below:

1- What of the following types of childhood bilingualism is present (if there is one) in the programs?<sup>1</sup>

a. One-person-one-language: the parents have different mother tongues but both have a certain level of competence in the other's language. Besides, the language of one of them is the dominant one within the community and they each speak their own tongue to the child from birth.

b. Non-dominant home language/One-language-one-environment: both parents have different native languages but the language of one of them is the dominant one in the community so they speak to the child in the non-dominant tongue and the child is exposed to the dominant language only outside the home and at (the nursery) school.

c. Non-dominant home language without community support: the parents share the same native language but it is not the dominant one within the society so they decide to speak their native language to the child.

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<sup>1</sup> \*The specifications of each type of childhood bilingualism are the same we presented in our literature review section and the choice of any of the six types of bilingualism is supported via quotes

- d. Double non-dominant home language without community support: the parents have different native languages, they both speak their own language to the child from birth but none of those languages is the dominant one within their society.
- e. Non-native parents: the parents share the same mother tongue and also the society does, but one of the parents speaks a foreign language and always addresses the child in it.
- f. Mixed language: both parents are bilingual and sectors of the community may also be bilingual so the parents code-switch and mix languages while addressing the child.

Finally, the third instrument was based on Geeraerts (2003) and its main objective was to help us identify ideologies or cultural models behind each program. Principally, this instrument was created to discover the cultural models that could be behind the conception of language itself, the conception of standard language in a interlinguistic context and how it works in terms of ideologies. That is to say, if the program considered the standard language either as a democratic tool that allows the access to a higher social status and global knowledge or as an oppressive means to the end of suppressing individual differences and identities. A table found in Geeraerts's (2003, p. 16) was used as an instrument whose objective was to help us to place each program in one of the two cultural models by means of the comparison and analysis of the each of the statements in the table to the programs. All the similarities found in the curricula corresponding to either of the two cultural models were supported via quotations of the same curricula placed below the description that table provides. Only a portion of those

quotations were selected to answer the questions in the results section. In order to illustrate, the model of the table taken from Geeraerts (2003) is displayed below:

	The rationalist model	Present in the text	Absent in the text	The romantic model	Present in the text	Absent in the text
Linguistic-philosophical basis	Language as a medium of communication			Language as a medium of expression		
Conception of standardization	A democratic ideal: standard language as a neutral medium of social participation			Anti-ideological criticism: standard language as a medium of social exclusion		
Conception of language variation	Language variation as an impediment to emancipation			Language variation as expressing different identities		

Table 6 (Based Geeraerts, 2003, p.16)

For each program a linguistic philosophical basis for understanding language, conception of standardization and a conception of language variation are required and, as it was mentioned before, every option selected is supported via quotations.

## **4. RESULTS**

The results of this research are going to be presented according to the objectives stated above. These results intend to answer the research questions. They will make a parallelism between both English and Mapudungun programs to answer each research questions separately. After these results, conclusions will follow.

### **4.1 PRIMARY QUESTIONS**

a. Do ministerial programs follow a specific theory of second language vocabulary acquisition? If so, What are the theories or assumptions on which the curricula are based? Are they similar?

On the one hand, we have noticed that neither Mapudungun nor English first grade programs have explicit specifications of which Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition theory they are based on. Even though the English program makes a significant revision of theories of acquisition and teaching methods paying special attention to the interactionist/developmental perspectives discussed in our literature review section, it does not adopt a clear thematic line. For example, the English program has self-contained thematic units that are not connected among themselves. Two units representative of the characteristic mentioned before are units one and three, because the subunits of the former are: 'The School' and 'Wild Animals' and the ones of the latter are 'Occupations' and 'Parts of the city'. None of the units has a segue from one subunit into the following one, so it is possible to observe an abrupt change from one topic to another.

On this same issue of SLA theories, the Mapudungun program is divided into modules and subdivided into units. Those units are self-contained and are organized according to a *semantic approach* ('enfoque semántico'). This approach should not be confused with Lewis's (1993) 'lexical approach' even though lexical elements are involved, the evidence does not point to this approach to language teaching. We could not find literature about the *semantic approach* but we can deduce it is based upon the technique of semantic mapping. In the same program the first three units are related, but missing important elements of the semantic family they proposed. For example, on page 45, there is a semantic map whose central element is the mapuche greeting *Mari mari* and the elements surrounding it, and related semantically, are chunks used for a simple dialogue as *chumleymi?* (how are you?) and members of the family group as *lamngen* (sister), *ñuke* (mother) and *peñi* (brother, but only used between men) while *chaw* (father) is absent. If the focus was to teach the nouns typically used for greeting, then 'ñuke' is not needed because the two nouns that are used the most while greeting are *peñi* and *lamngen* (depending on the gender of the addresser and the addressee; when the addresser is a woman, she must use only the noun *lamngen* to refer either to a man or a woman, while when the addresser is a man, he must use *lamngen* when referring to a woman and *peñi* when addressing another man) and if the focus was to teach member of the family, then there is no reason for the absence of *chaw* (father).

As mentioned above, although there is no explicit mention of theories supporting any of both programs, we can distinguish a number of particular characteristics that may correspond to different theories of second language acquisition. For example, they both mention the communicative approach but within the Mapudungun program the terms 'approach' and 'method' are used indistinctly, even though the literature indicates that a method is the

realization of an approach and that an approach is a bigger theory about how the language is taught and learned (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Therefore, the teaching of Mapudungun as a foreign language does not present a theory behind that supports the claim to use a 'communicative method'.

Furthermore, neither of the programs specifies which of the methods that the communicative approach is related to they are going to follow. The four main methods associated with this approach are: the notional-functional, teaching for proficiency, proficiency-based, and communicative language teaching (Galloway, 1993). We could deduce from the programs that the ability or competence they want to accentuate is the communicative competence; the one method that does this is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in which the teachers arrange real life situations that the learners are more likely to confront in their lives, because they conceive language as an interaction, an interpersonal activity that has a distinct relationship with society at a theoretical level (Berns, 1984). An example of activity can be the following: "Listen to a conversation somewhere in a public place and be prepared to answer, in the target language, some general questions about what was said: Who was talking?/ About how old were they?/ Where were they when you eavesdropped? /What were they talking about? / What did they say? /Did they become aware that you were listening to them? The exercise puts students in a real-world listening situation where they must report information overheard". (Galloway, 1993) The objective of this activity is to listen to a passage and gather general information about it.

b. In case there is a theory of second language vocabulary acquisition, Is there a direct relationship between this theory and the activities suggested in the curricula? Where do we find (or not) coherence within their specific theoretical support and their suggested activities?

According to our analysis, there are no theories explicitly supporting any of those programs. However, as we mentioned in the previous answer, the programs state that they will be following the communicative approach (Communicative Language Teaching, CLT) but neither in the English nor in the Mapudungun program there is evidence of the corresponding terminology associated with this approach. The theory of second language acquisition that is behind CLT is the Sociocultural Theory (explained in length in the literature review section). While some people might consider that the Communicative Approach to second language teaching is a mere striking up a conversation, it is a mistaken view of this approach, because it is a perspective on second language acquisition that emphasizes not only the interaction, but the social relations as well as the learning environment where the learning happens. These aspects have a great influence on the learning process itself and in the sense of belonging to a community of practice (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). The creation of a sense of belonging is important because this perspective focuses its emphasis on the need a learner has to become part of such a community of practice.

Regarding vocabulary acquisition and teaching and its relationship with the Communicative Approach as a proxy for a second language acquisition theory, it is relevant to highlight that this approach does not consider vocabulary as a main but as a secondary factor supporting functional language use (Decaricco, 2001, in Ketabi and Hashemi Shahraki, 2011). However,

this approach has been applied to teach vocabulary under the premise of “learning to use” within a real communicative situation where the enhancement of vocabulary knowledge will certainly help develop the abilities of listening, reading, speaking, writing as well as the communicative capability of the learners (Wu, 2009). In relation to vocabulary acquisition, and upon the application of the first of our instruments we can say that the curricula contain some of the aspects introduced by Nation (2001) into the vocabulary component of curricula design. These aspects will be dealt with in the following paragraphs along with their association to CLT found in the curricula activities.

According to Savignon (1997) the central concept within CLT is ‘communicative competence’ where ‘competence’ is understood as the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning. For English, these concepts can be drawn from the following quotation: “It is advisable to do activities in pairs, role plays, problem-solution, and development of collaborative group projects; in which the students need to use the language to communicate, interact, negotiate meaning, and exchange information in situations of their interest and close to reality” (Besa, 2012, p.9)<sup>2</sup>. For Mapudungun, besides the statement that “they pursue to develop linguistic competence through the interaction given by the communicative approach” (Loncon, 2011, p.5)<sup>3</sup> there is one additional passage that may support their alleged implementation of CLT but not any introduction of their construct of ‘competence’: “The girl

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<sup>2</sup> “Por el contrario, se enfatiza que conviene realizar actividades de trabajo en parejas, juegos de roles, solución de problemas y desarrollo colaborativo de proyectos grupales, en los que los estudiantes necesiten usar el idioma para comunicarse, interactuar, negociar significados e intercambiar información en situaciones de su interés y cercanas a la realidad.”

<sup>3</sup> “Este Sector ha sido elaborado a partir de dos enfoques que se complementan. Por un lado se busca desarrollar competencias lingüísticas a través de la interacción gracias al enfoque comunicacional, al mismo tiempo que haciendo uso del enfoque semántico, se promueve la comprensión de significaciones culturales asociadas a los Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios.”



and the boy are the centre of the teaching and learning process, for this reason the *expected learnings*, the indicators as well as the activities are developed based on them (italics are ours)” (Loncon, 2011, p. 11)<sup>4</sup>. Hence, we can draw the conclusion that the English curriculum introduces stronger theoretical support for CLT than the Mapudungun program, although we consider weak the theoretical support for this method as the basis for each of the programs.

We analyzed each and every one of the activities in both curricula, and we could find that neither of the two had activities based on negotiation of meaning; what we could find were activities related to expression and interpretation of meaning, but with no real communicative purpose. For English an example of the latter is the activity on page 45, in which the teacher shows flashcards with images of classroom objects and, while showing them, s/he describes them one by one; after showing them and repeating their description several times the teacher “shows one of the flashcards and asks: What’s this? the students should answer orally ‘a book’, ‘a door’, ‘a bag’, etc. The teacher asks the same about every card. Afterwards, s/he shows again one card and asks: What color is it? They should answer orally (...)” (Besa, 2012, p.45)<sup>5</sup>. As an example of the former is the activity on page 46 in which the learners “listen to the song Little Indians and observe the teacher who shows with his/her fingers the quantity that the song is pointing out. Learners imitate the gestures of the teacher while listening to the

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<sup>4</sup> “La niña y el niño son el centro del proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje, por esta razón tanto los aprendizajes esperados, los indicadores y actividades están redactados en función de ellos”

<sup>5</sup> “El docente muestra tarjetas tipo flashcards<sup>8</sup> con la imagen de un objeto de la sala de clases coloreado. Mientras las muestra, describe: A blue book, a yellow door, a black bag, etc. Si es necesario, muestra varias veces las tarjetas y repite su descripción oral. Luego muestra una de las flashcards y pregunta: What’s this? Los estudiantes deben contestar en forma oral: a book, a door, a bag, etc. El profesor pregunta lo mismo respecto de cada tarjeta. Luego vuelve a mostrar una y pregunta: What color is it? Ellos deben contestar en forma oral: blue; yellow; black; etc”

number, and finally sing along with him/her” (Besa, 2012, p.46)<sup>6</sup>. Regarding the ‘Goal’ component of a language course of instrument one, there is a theoretical support for the teaching of vocabulary and is seen as positive to include it in the activities regarding high frequency lexical items; what is not specified is if teachers may find or not the vocabulary frequency lists in the suggested bibliography and these lists are not present in the program either. Examples of this can be the following passages: “It is important to teach the students to recognize [the high frequency words] quickly while reading and to write them correctly; this will benefit their reading comprehension and fluency as well as their expression of ideas with relative accuracy” (Besa, 2012, p. 17)<sup>7</sup>; “When learning new words, [students] make connections with others that they already know likewise with past experiences. The amount of vocabulary influences their reading ability and expression of ideas: the more words they learn, the more opportunities they will have of establishing new connections and, consequently, of learning new words.” (Besa, 2012, p.18)<sup>8</sup>.

In the case of Mapudungun, an example of expression of meaning is an exercise on page 33 where the learners “become familiar with songs characteristic from the social and family

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<sup>6</sup> “Escuchan la canción Little Indians y observan al profesor, quien muestra las cantidades que señala la canción con los dedos. Imitan los gestos del docente a medida que escuchan el número y finalmente cantan junto al profesor”

<sup>7</sup> “Es importante enseñar a los alumnos a reconocerlas rápidamente al leer y a escribirlas correctamente; esto beneficiará su comprensión y fluidez lectora y también su expresión de ideas con relativa precisión.”

<sup>8</sup> “Al aprender nuevas palabras, hacen conexiones con otras que ya conocen y con experiencias pasadas. La cantidad de vocabulario influye en sus capacidades de comprensión y de expresar ideas: mientras más palabras aprendan, tendrán más posibilidades de establecer nuevas conexiones y, como consecuencia, de aprender nuevas palabras.”

context” and “chant the presented songs and memorized them” (Loncon, 2011, p. 33)<sup>9</sup>. An example of interpretation of meaning is an exercise on page 42 where the learners are asked to “identify from the dialogue the known words and expressions, and deduced their meaning from the sentences” (Loncon, 2011, p. 42)<sup>10</sup>. Concerning the ‘Goals’ component that were found in the Mapudungun program, is the fact that “to recover lost linguistic knowledge is also relevant [...]. This loss manifests itself mainly at a lexical level. Moreover, to attend to the new terminology means to give way to an expansion of lexical resources from ways of naming the notebook or the pencil, till more complex concepts as coordinate, biodiversity, and so many other abstract subjects characteristic of the academic language” (Loncon, 2011, p. 11)<sup>11</sup>. It is apparent that there is a concern to teach vocabulary, however, in the program we could find a lack of consistency in the way it is taught. We can say that they refer to the importance of vocabulary but the did not incorporated to the curriculum design accordingly, and the effect that this statement could have had on the activities as it would have been, if they had really designed the curricula considering the relevance of the vocabulary component in the language course and especially for this language.

We could find in the English curriculum a division based on the four language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) which were displayed in a table of progression with their dimensions. The dimensions in the table, considered for the listening and reading skills, are

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<sup>9</sup> “Conocen y cantan canciones propias del ámbito familiar y social. Corean las canciones presentadas y las memorizan”

<sup>10</sup> “Identifican en el diálogo palabras y expresiones conocidas y deducen el significado de las oraciones”

<sup>11</sup> “Recuperar conocimientos lingüísticos perdidos también es relevante. [...] Esta pérdida se manifiesta principalmente a nivel léxico. Por otra parte, atender a la terminología nueva, significa dar paso a la ampliación de recursos léxicos desde la manera de nombrar el cuaderno o el lápiz, hasta conceptos más complejos como decir coordenadas, biodiversidad, y tantos otros temas más abstractos propios del lenguaje académico”

the characteristics of the texts the learners are going to be reading, seemingly minding the learners construction of meaning. While, for the speaking and writing skills, the types of texts in relation to their interaction among peers are apparently in concordance with the communicative functions they use, the topics and purposes of the texts and the number of words they will be writing, among others. The division into the four language skills is also applied in the global objectives table shown in pages 29-33 in the program, where for the oral expression they propose “to participate in dialogues, classroom interactions, and in brief and simple presentations in relation to the known topics or from other classes” (Besa, 2012, p. 30)<sup>12</sup>. As for written expression, the author proposes “to write simple words and sentences (eg. to copy or fill out the blanks) according to a model, regarding the known topics or other classes.” (Besa, 2012, p. 30)<sup>13</sup>. This appears as well in the display of learning objectives and assessment indicators table of each unit (Unit 1 in the pages 37-41; Unit 2 in 63-67; Unit 3 in 91- 96; Unit 4 in 118-122 that can be found in the appendix section). This division into the four language skills can hardly correspond to the division made within CTL with the four types of competence: communicative, grammatical, strategic, and sociolinguistic (Canale and Swain, 1980). This layout proposed in the program can correspond to a certain extent to the one proposed in the program through the division based on the four language skills.

In relation to vocabulary, the ‘Content and Sequencing’ component of a language course of instrument one can be found as the display of the lexical items that are going to be taught in

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<sup>12</sup> “Participar en diálogos, interacciones de la clase y exposiciones muy breves y simples, acerca de temas conocidos o de otras asignaturas.”

<sup>13</sup> “Escribir (por ejemplo: copiar o completar) palabras y oraciones simples de acuerdo a un modelo, acerca de temas conocidos o de otras asignaturas”

each of the four units (Unit 1: in my classroom; Unit 2: My family and me; Unit 3: What's the weather like today?; Unit 4: Happy birthday!) The display in unit one is constituted mostly by nouns, greeting chunks, chunks to answer personal information, chunks to give and to follow commands, and the numbers up to 10.

As regards the 'Format and Presentation' component, "it is suggested to the teacher to exhibit in the classroom lists of words, sentence models, instructions, and images with their respective words to help the students familiarize themselves with the most common written lexical forms. It is recommended to the teacher to regularly change the words and examples [...] [it is] suggested [as well] to start with copying and writing words that can be considered important and close to them, then write combination of words (a toy, blue bike, two boys), brief phrases (a big boy, the black cats, you run) and finally sentences (I can read, winter is cold, they cook dinner, I feel sick) and brief paragraphs" (Besa, 2012, p. 17)<sup>14</sup>. In activities like the one we have shown previously, the focus is on students' world and what can be meaningful to them, so those can constitute meaningful activities that might be better remembered and would help the learning process (Ellis, 1994).

In the case of the Mapudungun curriculum structure, it barely corresponds to the one proposed by CLT; the program considers oral and written communication as well as oral tradition, a

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<sup>14</sup> "Se sugiere al docente tener expuestas en la sala de clases listas de palabras, modelos de oraciones, instrucciones e imágenes con sus respectivas palabras para ayudar a los estudiantes a familiarizarse con las formas escritas del léxico de uso más común. Es necesario cambiar las palabras y ejemplos periódicamente o a medida que los alumnos las aprendan. (...) Se sugiere comenzar con copia y escritura de palabras que sean importantes y cercanas para ellos, luego combinaciones de palabras (a toy, blue bike, two boys), frases breves (a big boy, the black cats, you run) y finalmente oraciones (I can read, winter is cold, they cook dinner, I feel sick) y párrafos breves."

characteristic aspect of an indigenous language, but the only notion that corresponds to CLT's theory can be communicative competence. The program specifies what is considered "within this axis, discursive practices and traditional expressions are emphasized. That is related to the oral communication which encourages the interaction and the practice of the language" (Loncon, 2011, p. 5)<sup>15</sup>. Those three sections are seen in both semesters, and each of them has a table displaying the expected goals to be achieved along with their indicators; additionally, each of those sections is subdivided into four Minimal Obligatory Contents, "Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios (CMO)", except for the written communication section that is subdivided into one in the first semester, and into two in the second one. In relation to this presentation of the curriculum and regarding the "Format and Presentation" component of a language course propose by Nation (2001) we can say that the curriculum has no similarities with the description provided by him. The elements proposed by Nation (2001) are a selection of the learning and teaching techniques, a display of them in the lesson plan, and their quality that should be used to ensure conditions such as repetition, retrieval, that should be measure by the teachers.

Regarding vocabulary, the 'Content and Sequencing' and 'Format and Presentation' components of a language course are not addressed as such. They only appear in general terms as they are illustrated in the following quotation respectively:

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<sup>15</sup> "Dentro del eje Tradición Oral se enfatizan las prácticas discursivas y expresiones tradicionales, lo que se relaciona con Comunicación Oral que fomenta la interacción y práctica del idioma"

“Methodologically, they organize the teaching and learning of the language from its semantic characteristics [...] For that purpose they require not only to learn to speak the indigenous language and to know the linguistic elements, but to, fundamentally, approach the cultural meanings which are spoken about” (Loncon, 2011, p. 7)<sup>16</sup>; “Generally, the lesson plans are organised in three phases: initial phase, where the previous knowledge is verified [...]. Developmental phase, that it is characterised by the active participation from the students in the development of the activities designed [...]. Closing phase, where the traditional educator plays a fundamental role in the systematisation of the learnings seen in the class [...]” (Loncon, 2011, p. 9)<sup>17</sup>.

In other words, there is no specification of how the different lexical elements that should be learned by the students are to be presented or practiced. Besides we should consider that since the ‘educadores tradicionales’ (i.e. the people that are supposed to implement these programs) are not linguistic experts, the curriculum could provide more hints and guidance on how to effectively develop a class, a unit and an entire course.

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<sup>16</sup> “Metodológicamente, organizan la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de la lengua desde sus características semánticas (...) Para ello se requiere no solo aprender a hablar la lengua indígena y conocer los elementos de la lingüística sino que, fundamentalmente, aproximarse a los significados culturales de lo que se habla.”

<sup>17</sup> “Generalmente, los planes de clases están organizados en tres momentos:  
Momento inicial, donde se verifica el logro de los aprendizajes previos [...]  
Momento de desarrollo, se caracteriza por la participación activa de los alumnos y alumnas en el desarrollo de las actividades diseñadas. [...]  
Momento de cierre, donde el educador tradicional juega un rol fundamental en la sistematización de los aprendizajes trabajados en la clase.”

One specific characteristic from CLT that called our attention was “more than one variety of a language is recognized as a viable model for learning and teaching” (Savignon, 1997, p. 6).

This principle is not mentioned in the English program. They neither specify what variety of English will be taught nor which variety will be accepted inside the classroom or if it is relevant to question that kind of issue. In the case of the Mapudungun curricula, they do specify the writing system that they will be using: “As for the writing system used, the Mapudungun language curriculum uses the azümcheffe, considering the agreement 47 dated June 18th 2003 from the National Council of CONADI ([Corporación Nacional de Desarrollo Indígena](#)) [...] that promotes the spreading and writing of this writing system in public documents and with educational purposes” (Loncon, 2011, p. 13)<sup>18</sup>. They specify as well their position on the matter of linguistic varieties: “In this curriculum the development of linguistic intelligibility among language varieties is promoted; boys and girls are acquainted with the varieties to appreciate the internal diversity of the language as a richness as well as a manifestation of the quintessential multiplicity of it, and not as an obstacle to be fought against.” (Loncon, 2011, p. 12)<sup>19</sup> Likewise, we could find an apparent agreement between this and the activities proposed in the program; as can be seen in the exercise on page 100 where

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<sup>18</sup> “En cuanto al grafemario utilizado, los programas de la lengua mapuzugun, utilizan el azümcheffe, considerando el acuerdo 47, del 18 de junio de 2003, del Consejo Nacional de CONADI, de la Corporación Nacional de Desarrollo Indígena [...] que promueve la difusión y escritura de dicho grafemario en los documentos públicos y con fines educativos.”

<sup>19</sup> “En el programa se promueve el desarrollo de la inteligibilidad lingüística entre variantes de la lengua; se contacta a las niñas y niños con las variantes para valorar la diversidad interna de la lengua, como una riqueza y como manifestación de la diversidad propia de la cultura, y no como un obstáculo a combatir.”



learners are asked to “recognise sounds from dialectal varieties as /b/ and /f/; /d/ and /z/; /m/ and /g/” (Loncon, 2011, p. 100)<sup>20</sup>

Along the same lines, the issue of varieties of Mapudungun is mentioned again in relation to vocabulary. According to David Crystal (2008) dialect is “a variety defined in terms of regional or social groups of users” (p. 141); and according to the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary a dialect is “the form of a language that is spoken in one area with grammar, words and pronunciation that may be different from other forms of the same language” (p. 420).

If we take these two definitions and compare them to the one that can be drawn from the curriculum, they are the same. Nevertheless, we can interpret from the activity on page 100 that among the dialectal varieties they are presenting there can be a misinterpretation of the meanings of certain verbal conjugations: In this exercise they contrast the varieties lhafkenche and pewenhche by saying that the former uses the word ‘femen’ instead of ‘femgen’ with the sole difference of spelling; this is not so, because ‘femen’ means ‘[you] do [something] to me’ (‘hazme’), and ‘femgen’ means ‘[it] was done to me’ (‘me hicieron’) (Héctor Mariano, personal communication) . Based on his point of view, we can say that the differences among these varieties are not crucial in terms of intelligibility between speakers, and that the introduction of a contrast like this to the young learners would only confuse them more than help them to “appreciate the internal diversity of the language as a richness [...]” (Loncon, 2011, p. 12). We can interpret as well that the total time spent on teaching will be low - only three hours a week- in comparison to the results that they are expecting from the learners, that

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<sup>20</sup> “Reconocen sonidos de variantes dialectales /b/ y /f/; /d/ y /z/; /m/ y /g/”

they become bilinguals (according to their definition of bilingualism that will be developed in length further down), i.e. the amount of exposure to the language might not be enough to reach the goals set in both foreign languages.

c. Which cultural model is behind each curriculum?

To begin with, and according to our analysis, each program was created according to an opposing ideology or cultural model. It is important to mention that in interlinguistic contexts, as the Chilean one, English replaces the standard language of intralinguistic contexts while indigenous languages, such as Mapudungun, occupy the place of non-standard varieties and that our analysis will begin from this premise.

On the one hand, the Mapudungun program can be framed into the romantic model, because, for example, in the page N°4 the author mentions that “the boys and the girls being bilinguals have access to two *code systems* or *ways for representing reality* that do not fuse with each other” (italics are ours) (Loncon, 2011, p.4)<sup>21</sup>; through this statement they present their conception of language as a system for representing reality and expressing it, rather than a system with a communicative function merely as a rationalist model framed curriculum would have considered language. Additionally, in the third page, it is stated that the relevance of the program lies on giving “infinite opportunities of interaction with different peoples and cultures

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<sup>21</sup> “los niños y niñas, al ser bilingües poseen acceso a dos sistemas de códigos o formas de representación de la realidad que no se confunden entre sí.”

which entail the necessity of having [in the future] a worldwide political project that allows a harmonic dialogue of those differences” (Loncon, 2011, p.3)<sup>22</sup>. By means of talking about future political projects to create a dialogue between dissimilar peoples they may imply the deprived status in which Mapudungun is, compared to Spanish or even to English. Therefore, the mapuche culture is deprived too, since for the romantic model language and culture are undeniably intertwined. For example, linguistic genocide, in this model, involves the disappearance of an entire people and, along with it, the extinction of a culture. Moreover, we can say that according to Geeraerts (2003) here Spanish is shown as a medium of social exclusion that should be avoided by teaching an indigenous language and also, by lifting up innovative political projects within the area of interculturality.

On the other hand, upon analysing the English program we could notice it followed the maxims of the rationalist model since English is presented as a democratic tool for participation and communication around the globe. As a starting point for the reasons given in the curriculum for teaching English in Chile the author states that “the learning of the English language constitutes a fundamental area within the curriculum because of its relevance as a means of access to various areas of knowledge and its place as a global communication language” (Besa, 2012, p.5)<sup>23</sup>. Here the author supports the first and second assumptions of the rationalist model: (1) Standard language as a means of communication solely and (2) language

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<sup>22</sup> “De allí que esta propuesta adquiera relevancia, sobre todo en tiempos de globalización ya que abre oportunidades infinitas de interacción con diversos pueblos y culturas, lo que supone reconocer el requerimiento de contar con un proyecto político global que permita el diálogo armónico de esas diferencias.”

<sup>23</sup> “El aprendizaje del idioma inglés constituye un área fundamental en el currículo debido a su relevancia como medio de acceso a diversos ámbitos del conocimiento y a su carácter de idioma global de comunicación.”

as a neutral medium for democratic social participation. In this interlinguistic context English replaces the standard language of interlinguistic variation contexts and thus the access to global information through English is an emancipatory practice according to the rationalist model because it functions as a “key to the world of learning and higher culture” (Geeraerts, 2003, p. 5) and also, as a factor that enables the participation in beneficial processes because “the ability of communicating in English facilitates the possibility of being involved in globalization dynamics, facing its challenges and benefiting from its contributions” (Besa, 2012, p. 5)<sup>24</sup>. The involvement in globalization mentioned before can lead to obtain economic benefits from the language, presenting a rationalist linguistic-philosophical conception of language as a communicative tool working as a means to the end of democratic access to global benefits (Geeraerts, 2003).

d. What is the definition of childhood bilingualism these curricula are based on?

In spite of the fact that there is no explicit mention of childhood bilingualism in any of both programs we could notice that the definition of childhood bilingualism present in both programs is the same: Additive with non-native parents childhood bilingualism.

On the one hand, in the Mapudungun program there are two implicit assumptions regarding bilingualism. The first one is the differentiation of possible scenarios in which children learn

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<sup>24</sup> “la habilidad de comunicarse en este idioma facilita la posibilidad de involucrarse en las dinámicas propias de la globalización, enfrentar sus desafíos y beneficiarse de sus aportes.”

the second language (Mapudungun) as discussed by Romaine (1995), in which the possibilities presented here are:

“The boys and girls that have one of these four languages[(Mapudungun, Aymara, Rapa Nui and Quechua)] as their mother tongue; Others that listen to the language in the social environment only, especially in those zones where these languages share linguistic space with Spanish. Similarly, it is a reality that some boys and girls only have the opportunity to listen to the indigenous language taught in schools.”(Loncon, 2011, p. 4)<sup>25</sup>.

Therefore, there are three possible contexts from this quotation: (1) At least one parent is a native speaker of Mapudungun and the parent (s) whose native language is Mapudungun uses it at home as everyday language. Therefore a non-dominant home language without community support type is present in this kind of context; and (2) both parents are native speakers of Spanish and the only place where Mapudungun is heard by children is the school or (3) Both parents are native speakers of Spanish and the only place where Mapudungun is heard (besides school) are cultural manifestations. Non-native parent type of bilingualism is present in contexts (2) and (3). It is central to keep in mind that in all possible environments or scenarios considered within the program, Mapudungun is seen not as second but as foreign language mainly used for ceremonies and highly cultural/folkloric activities and not as an everyday use language.

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<sup>25</sup> “Los programas de estudio de lengua indígena elaborados por el Ministerio de Educación, han sido diseñados considerando que es posible observar al menos tres realidades diferentes de acceso a la lengua indígena: los niños y niñas que tienen como lengua materna o familiar uno de estos cuatro idiomas; otros, que escuchan la lengua indígena solamente en el entorno social, sobre todo en aquellas zonas donde estos idiomas comparten espacio lingüístico con el castellano. Así mismo, es una realidad que algunos niños y niñas solamente tienen la oportunidad de escuchar el idioma indígena impartido en la escuela.”

Additionally, the program of Mapudungun puts forward the notion of additive bilingualism without clarifying if it is for Spanish as a dominant language. The following statement exemplifies this contention: “the educative proposals developed by the Ministry of Education put forward the necessity to foster additive bilingualism. This educative model promotes the teaching of a second language not as an aspiration to replace the mother tongue but, on the contrary, to develop children’s communicative and linguistic competencies in both languages” (Loncon, 2011, p. 4)<sup>26</sup>. Furthermore, they state that both languages -Spanish and Mapudungun- are developed independently, principally because of their different grammar structure. Through the following statement: “we propose to avoid the translation and comparison between the indigenous language and Spanish, mostly if the language being taught has a different grammar structure, because the confusion between the two codes may affect linguistic comprehension and expression of one of the two languages [...]. This can be prevented by means of creating a class plan that separates indigenous language instruction from Spanish use.” (Loncon, 2011, p. 5). The author of the curriculum supports one of Romaine’s (1999) parallelisms regarding bilingual and monolingual acquisition in which she states that one of the three scenarios that may be present while establishing a parallel relationship between monolingual acquisition and the discernible stages in bilingual acquisition is the one in which due to different types of categories and constructions, the two

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<sup>26</sup> “las propuestas educativas desarrolladas por el Ministerio de Educación plantean la necesidad de fomentar el bilingüismo aditivo. En este modelo educativo, se promueve el enfoque de enseñanza de segunda lengua, no como aspiración a reemplazar a la lengua materna, sino que, por el contrario, a desarrollar en los alumnos y alumnas competencias lingüísticas y comunicativas en ambos idiomas”

languages develop differently (Romaine, 1999, p.291), even though they do not mention any author related to childhood bilingualism.

If we consider the explicit mention of additive bilingualism and the author's explanation of the reasons why it is adopted in the program, we assume Mapudungun is in the place of a non-dominant/lower status language highly associated to folkloric activities. This quote supports this decision: "the educative proposals developed by the Ministry of Education put forward the necessity to foster additive bilingualism. This educative model promotes the teaching of a second language not as an aspiration to replace the mother tongue but, on the contrary, to develop children's communicative and linguistic competencies in both languages" (Loncon, 2011, p. 4)<sup>27</sup>. The former quote explains that Spanish is the mother tongue that is not going to be replaced and that Mapudungun is the second language; while the following contexts of learning raised by the Ministry of education show the high cultural content associated to the Mapudungun language: "[1] the boys and girls that have as a mother tongue or home language [...] [the Mapudungun]; [2] others, that listen to the indigenous language solely in a social environment, particularly in those areas where [...] [this language] shares the linguistic space with Spanish. Likewise, it is a reality that [3] some boys and girls only have the opportunity of listening to indigenous language imparted at school." (Loncon, 2011, p. 4).<sup>28</sup> This diversity of contexts can lead to differences in the learners' level of knowledge of the target language, this

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<sup>27</sup> "las propuestas educativas desarrolladas por el Ministerio de Educación plantean la necesidad de fomentar el bilingüismo aditivo. En este modelo educativo, se promueve el enfoque de enseñanza de segunda lengua, no como aspiración a reemplazar a la lengua materna, sino que, por el contrario, a desarrollar en los alumnos y alumnas competencias lingüísticas y comunicativas en ambos idiomas"

<sup>28</sup> "los niños y niñas que tienen como lengua materna o familiar uno de estos cuatro idiomas; otros, que escuchan la lengua indígena solamente en el entorno social, sobre todo en aquellas zonas donde estos idiomas comparten espacio lingüístico con el castellano. Así mismo, es una realidad que algunos niños y niñas solamente tienen la oportunidad de escuchar el idioma indígena impartido en la escuela."

can be seen in the classroom, and consequently, will be reflected in their involvement in the activities developed there.

In the case of English, on the other hand, the type of bilingualism presented by Romaine that can best describe the situation regarding English in Chile is the same present in the cases (2) and (3) of Mapudungun options: non-native parents in which both parents and the community speak the same language (Spanish). They mention that the “EFL environment implies that the most of students have no opportunity to neither talking nor practising the English language in everyday life, out of the classroom” (Besa, 2012, p. 5)<sup>29</sup>, this assumption implies that parents do not speak English, and so, their children lack the opportunity of speaking the language, so non-native parent type of bilingualism applies here. There is one characteristic of this type of bilingualism that does not apply to any of both languages being taught in the Chilean school system. In our context there is no parent addressing the child in the foreign language (taken Mapudungun as a foreign language as it was specified in the previous paragraph) because most of them are not acquainted with either language their children are learning at school, considering that 9,5 % of the Chilean population is able to have a conversation in English (CENSUS 2012) although according to CORFO only the 2% of the population can achieve such objective.

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<sup>29</sup> EFL, lo que implica que la mayoría de los estudiantes no tiene oportunidades de hablar o practicar el idioma en la vida diaria, fuera de la sala de clases



## 4.2 SECONDARY QUESTIONS

a. Are the activities similar in both curricula? Is the amount of these activities similar?

One aspect that the exercises presented in the curricula have in common is the repetition of patterns after the teacher has provided the model for them - this subject will be dealt with in depth in the following answer. And, as we have said in previous answers, they contradict themselves when they say they will be applying the communicative approach to their curriculum design.

In the case of English, they claimed they will be following one main principle of the Communicative approach, and more specifically to CLT: “Language teaching is based on a view of language as communication. That is, language is seen as a social tool that speakers use to make meaning; speakers communicate about something to someone for some purpose, either orally or in writing” (Savignon, 1997, p. 6) but this is only seen at a theoretical level and is not really applied to the development of the activities as we describe and exemplified in answer ‘b’.

To exemplify more in depth what has been stated in the previous paragraph, we found the notion of having real communicative activities as part of the class -that would be the support for the alleged use of CLT- and this appears on page 8 where they specify that “this approach sets out the objective of teaching a language as developing the communicative competence in the students, i.e. the ability of using English to communicate in a contextualized and

meaningful manner.” (Besa, 2012, p. 8)<sup>30</sup> But this notion of ‘contextualized and meaningful’ manner of presenting language is contradicted in one specific example of assessment proposed in the program: “In pairs prepare a dialogue to be presented in front of the class: they should greet, give personal information and give instructions. For example: “A: Good morning!/ B: Hello!/A: What’s your name?/ B: My name’s Pedro./A: Pedro, close the door, please./ B: Ok, good bye.” (Besa, 2012, p. 61)<sup>31</sup> In this example we can see how the learners are asked to interact with a partner, but the fact that they set an example where the exchange of personal information is followed by a decontextualized command is what makes this example contradictory with the stated theory, as well as, with the overall structure of the curriculum where everything is well described and detailed.

There is another example of contradiction within the program, this one is between the content being taught according to the Learning Objective Table on page 30 and the assessment proposed for unit three called “What’s the weather like?”. In that table it is specified that the content that learners are going to review in the first unit is ‘Wild Animals’, that the content of unit three is “Occupations” and “City locations”, however one of the assessment activities suggested for this unit is based on ‘domestic animals’ as can be seen in the following quote:

“The teacher sticks on the whiteboard flashcards with images of domestic animal: cat, pig,

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<sup>30</sup> “Este enfoque plantea que enseñar un idioma tiene por objetivo desarrollar la competencia comunicativa en los estudiantes; es decir, la capacidad de usar el inglés para comunicarse en forma contextualizada y significativa”

<sup>31</sup> “En parejas, preparan un diálogo que presentarán frente al curso: deben saludarse, dar información personal y dar instrucciones. Por ejemplo:

A: Good morning!

B: Hello!

A: What’s your name?

B: My name’s Pedro.

A: Pedro, close the door, please.

B: Ok, good bye.”

dog, horse, rabbit, hen, chicken, hamster, fish, frog, etc. S/he names them one by one using the expression ‘This is a ...’ The learners associated the listen words to the pictures. Then the teacher sticks two images, separated one from the other, and when the teacher says ‘This is a cat’, the learners should point out the corresponding image” (Besa, 2012, p. 99)<sup>32</sup>

In the case of the Mapudungun curriculum, there is one specific activity that shows genuine oral expression: “Afterwards, the teacher shows the same instructions in cards through drawing and the students orally express the action shown in the card” (Loncon, 2011. p. 54)<sup>33</sup>. But other activities that can be interpreted as having expression of meaning are based mostly on repetition of patterns from the board, cards, songs, and the teacher, as the following quotation exemplifies it: “The teacher writes on the board the following expression: Fachiant’ü epewtuaiñ, that it is translated as ‘today we [all] will tell [an] epew’. The boys and girls understand and repeat the sentence until they can achieve a correct pronunciation” (Loncon, 2011, p. 28)<sup>34</sup>. So, the focus of the activities of repetition, like the later example, might be pronunciation. Therefore, when repeating patterns the L2 acquisition theory behind is behavioural and real communication is absent.

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<sup>32</sup> “El docente pega en el pizarrón flashcards con imágenes de animales domésticos: cat, pig, dog, horse, rabbit, hen, chicken, hamster, fish, frog, etc. Los nombra uno a uno, utilizando la expresión This is a.... Los estudiantes asocian las palabras escuchadas con las imágenes. Luego el profesor pega dos imágenes, separadas una de otra, y cuando diga This is a cat, los alumnos deben señalar la imagen correspondiente”

<sup>33</sup> “Luego el docente o educador(a) muestra las mismas instrucciones en fichas con dibujos y los estudiantes expresan oralmente la acción contenida en la ficha”

<sup>34</sup> “El docente o educador(a) escribe en la pizarra la siguiente expresión: Fachiant’ü epewtuaiñ, que se traduce como: ‘hoy contaremos epew’. Los niños y niñas comprenden y repiten la oración, hasta lograr su correcta pronunciación”

Regarding the number of activities suggested in both curricula, we can say that the ones in the English program are highly superior in number than the ones that appeared in the Mapudungun curriculum. We can also say that the tasks that are expected to be done by the learners have a higher level of complexity, in the Mapudungun program than in the English curriculum; this is manifested through the amount of vocabulary the Mapudungun program introduces at the beginning of each unit through the semantic maps and within each unit there are as well not well stipulated “linguistic repertoire” and “syntactic repertoire”. These repertoires are supposed to complement the Minimal Obligatory Contents, and it is specified that the linguistic repertoire is a list of words related to the Cultural Contents, and “can be considered as suggested vocabulary appropriate for the level [of teaching]” (Loncon, 2011, p. 8)<sup>35</sup>. For this purpose, there is an explanation as the following: “Use of the linguistic repertoire, semantic map and syntactic repertoire: these constitute a support for enriching and/or updating of the knowledge and the vocabulary of the teachers about the Mapudungun language. It is important to make the connection between these elements and the learnings that want to be achieved with the learners and the activities to be done” (Loncon, 2011, p. 26)<sup>36</sup>. From these quotes we can interpret that the teachers are not necessarily well prepared for teaching, as they are just certified by a test as native speakers and do not have any proper training to teach; likewise, the confusion that can be produced in not only the future teachers

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<sup>35</sup> “Los repertorios lingüísticos complementan los Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios del Eje Oralidad. Se componen de un listado de palabras que se desprende del Contenido Cultural y pueden ser considerados como sugerencias de vocabulario pertinente al nivel”

<sup>36</sup> “Uso del repertorio lingüístico, mapa semántico y REPERTORIO SINTÁCTICO: Estos constituyen una ayuda para enriquecer y/o actualizar los saberes, los conocimientos y el vocabulario de los docentes o educadores(as) tradicionales sobre la lengua Mapuzugun. Es importante hacer la vinculación de estos elementos con los aprendizajes que se quieren lograr en los estudiantes y las actividades a realizar”

that will be following this program but the learners as well. This confusion will take place because: first, the semantic maps that they are proposing are not only in some cases incomplete (as it was illustrated in answer ‘a’) but too complex to explain without disconcerting the learners with them because, for example, some of the connections made within these semantic maps are in most cases not clear enough.

Second, the syntactic repertoires are not set according to the learners’ level of literacy because in spite the fact that the program contemplates the lesson plan for a whole year they do not consider that there is a huge gap between the what is presented in the first repertoire are single lexical items along with some traditional expressions, and what appears in the second deals with large sentences and afterwards with more complex structures only with a small interval of time; additionally the author does not take into account the amount of learning burden that will mean for the learners to actually learn the lexical items, considering all that it is involved in the process of knowing a word as it is presented in the literature review section.

Third, within the linguistic repertoires there is only partial consistency in their content. The first one is constituted by a set of seven lexical items related to the corresponding semantic map of the one located in the consecutive page. The second one introduces pronunciation, intonation, rhythm, and is composed of six dialogues constituted by two to four words each, besides a standard question and four possibly replies to it: “¿Chem zugu müley?/ ‘¿Qué cosas, problemas, acontecimientos existen?’/ Kutxantun zugu. ‘Cosas, problemas, acontecimientos dolorosos’/ Awkantun zugu. ‘Acontecimientos deportivos’/ Mafün zugu. ‘Evento matrimonial, casamiento mapuche’/ Gapitun zugu. ‘Es el evento ceremonial que se realiza cuando la novia

llega a su nueva familia' (la familia del esposo)" (Loncon, 2011, p. 30)<sup>37</sup>. In the case of the third linguistic repertoire, has the same heading of pronunciation, intonation, rhythm, but this one introduces a word family in a subsection called "Léxico Nuevo" (New Lexis), besides the use of "partícula de adorno" (that we identify as interjections). The incoherences within this 'linguistic repertoire' that could lead the future teachers and learners to be confused about their content is that they do not follow any established structure neither for the introduction of them nor for the continuation of their revision throughout the curriculum as it is suggested by Nation (2001) for the 'Content and Sequencing' component of a language course. Consequently, these items are not recycled in future units and the principle of encountering lexical items several times to ensure their learning, as mentioned above, is not present.

We can conclude that their statement of the level of complexity of the lexical repertoires presented as being appropriate for the level of the learners is not accurate -considering the learners are students from first year primary school and that they are illiterate at least until the second semester of first year.

It is crucial to highlight that the curriculum itself characterises the profiles of the students that might take Mapudungun. Indeed, it was designed for all students that want to learn Mapudungun and not exclusively for heritage children; but after analysing the curricula we could conclude that the level of complexity of the activities was developed only considering

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<sup>37</sup> "¿Chem zugu müley? ¿Qué cosas, problemas, acontecimientos existen?"

Kutxantun zugu. 'Cosas, problemas, acontecimientos dolorosos'.

Awkantun zugu. 'Acontecimientos deportivos'.

Mafün zugu. 'Evento matrimonial, casamiento mapuche'.

Gapitun zugu. 'Es el evento ceremonial que se realiza cuando la novia llega a su nueva familia' (la familia del esposo)."

the heritage children that have a certain degree of literacy (at least they should know how to read and write short sentences) and not other students that may want to learn the language nor heritage children who might be completely illiterate. This disconnection between intended audiences for these courses and the content is made clearer through the following statement issued by the Ministry of Education: “The indigenous language curricula developed by the Ministry of Education have been designed considering that it is possible to observe at least three different realities that access the indigenous language: the boys and girls that have as a mother tongue or home language [...] [the Mapudungun]; others, that listen to the indigenous language solely in a social environment, particularly in those areas where [...] [this language] share the linguistic space with Spanish. Likewise, it is a reality that some boys and girls only have the opportunity of listening to indigenous language imparted at school.” (Loncon, 2011, p. 4)<sup>38</sup>. Hence, we can say that there is an incompatibility between who they state are going to be the students of the program and the actual ones. Additionally, we can conclude as well that the author’s expectations regarding the learners’ breadth of vocabulary knowledge is too high considering the actual level of proficiency that the learners are going to have - this is reflected on the complexity of the activities.

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<sup>38</sup> “Los programas de estudio de lengua indígena elaborados por el Ministerio de Educación, han sido diseñados considerando que es posible observar al menos tres realidades diferentes de acceso a la lengua indígena: los niños y niñas que tienen como lengua materna o familiar [...] [the Mapudungun]; otros, que escuchan la lengua indígena solamente en el entorno social, sobretodo en aquellas zonas donde [...] [this language] comparten espacio lingüístico con el castellano. Así mismo, es una realidad que algunos niños y niñas solamente tienen la oportunidad de escuchar el idioma indígena impartido en la escuela.”

In the case of English, they begin with the notion that the learners have a beginners' level and they will be progressing from that onwards, this is expressed in the Learning Objectives throughout the four units of the curriculum and the division into the four language skills as can be seen in the following quote: "Identify from the words that are being listening to the words that belong to the same family: red, green, blue (colors), two, four, six, ten (numbers), book, bag, desk (classroom objects)." (Besa, 2012, p. 38).<sup>39</sup>

We can say that most of the activities presented as examples for the teacher in both curricula remain far from being communicative. In fact, most of the exercises appeal to constant repetition of single lexical items and chunks, in the case of English; and few lexical items and full sentences, in the case of Mapudungun.

For English, first there is the introduction of single lexical items in different formats as can be the , then the combination of them forming small phrases (a toy, blue bike, two boys) and later on small sentences (I can read, winter is cold, they cook dinner, I feel sick) (Besa, 2012, p. 17)<sup>40</sup>; additionally, they introduced the notion of chunks as part of the listening comprehension and oral expression at a theoretical level when they say that "in the first stages of the learning of a second language, it is advisable to teach prefabricated structures as phrases or chunks of language that the students learn as a whole for later on combined them with new elements"

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<sup>39</sup> "Identifican palabras escuchadas que pertenecen a una misma familia: red, green, blue (colors), two, four, six, ten (numbers), book, bag, desk (classroom objects)."

<sup>40</sup> "cercanas para ellos, luego combinaciones de palabras (a toy, blue bike, two boys), frases breves (a big boy, the black cats, you run) y finalmente oraciones (I can read, winter is cold, they cook dinner, I feel sick) y párrafos breves."



(Besa, 2012, p. 20)<sup>41</sup>. This is in concordance with the expected achievement for the assessment suggested as “They identify and understand questions as What’s your name? How are you? What’s this? How old are you? How many? (Besa, 2012, p. 37)<sup>42</sup>, this is reflected on exercises as “The students have to do a brief personal presentation in front of the class. The teacher models the presentation by saying: Hello! My name is \_\_\_\_\_. I’m \_\_\_\_\_ years old. Goodbye! They practice their presentation and then do it. They must use the same expression that the teacher did changing only the name and the age.” (Besa, 2012, p. 52).<sup>43</sup> We are not going to refer to the lack of pertinence to real communication that this example bears, since it was already discussed above.

For Mapudungun, there is hardly any introduction of single lexical items that can be used to make a transition to phrases. In fact, some of the initial activities are based on the practice of brief expressions constituted by three to four words each: “The teacher points out the norms of ‘yamüwün zugu’ (‘respect’) when listening, with simple words and expressions in mapuzungun and guides the boys and girls for them to practising them. Example: ‘Wipul anükey pichikeche’/ ‘Los/as niños/as se sientan alrededor’ [‘The boys and girls sit around’], ‘Küme lhelhikefi zugulenchi che’/ ‘Miran con atención al que está hablando’ [‘They look attentively to one who talks’], ‘Katxükonkelay zugu mu’/ ‘No interrumpen la conversación’

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<sup>41</sup> “En las primeras etapas del aprendizaje de un idioma, conviene enseñar las estructuras como frases prefabricadas o chunks de lenguaje que los alumnos aprenden como un todo para luego combinarlas con nuevos elementos.”

<sup>42</sup> “Identifican y comprenden preguntas como what’s your name? How are you? What’s this? How old are you?, how many...?”

<sup>43</sup> “Los estudiantes deben hacer una breve presentación personal frente al curso. El docente modela la presentación, diciendo: Hello! My name is \_\_\_\_\_. I’m \_\_\_\_ years old. Goodbye! Ellos practican su presentación y luego la realizan. Deben utilizar las mismas expresiones que empleó el profesor, cambiando solo el nombre y la edad.”

[‘They do not interrupt the conversation’].” (Loncon, 2011, p. 24)<sup>44</sup> This reinforces our conclusion that the program has activities that considered a high learning burden for lower level of proficiency on children from first year primary school.

The activities in the curricula mostly include the teacher modeling structures so that the learners imitate them. This teaching technique is repeated until it is almost learned by heart and then it is told by the learners. The concept of expression that can be drawn from the curricula is one where the learner only repeats the patterns given by the teacher, but there is no actual ‘expression’ -as it is understood in the communicative approach described by Savignon (1997) which is understood as self-expression, corresponding to the concept of ‘creative or generative use’ of Nation (2001). For example, exercise on page 93 “They memorize the texts, minding the pronunciation, rhythm and intonation of them.” (Loncon, 2011, p. 93).<sup>45</sup> This exercise is not only based on memorization, but it does not provide a real communicative situation. Additionally, it introduces the high learning burden that learning the pronunciation, the rhythm and the intonation of a sentence implies for a six year old child.

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<sup>44</sup> “El docente o educador(a) tradicional les señala algunas normas de yamüwün zugu (respeto) al escuchar, con palabras y expresiones sencillas en mapuzugun y orienta a los niños y niñas para que las vayan practicando.

Ejemplo:

Wipul anükey pichikeche.

Küme lhelhikefi zugulenchi che.

Katxükonkelay zugu mu.

‘Los/as niños/as se sientan alrededor’. ‘Miran con atención al que está hablando’.

‘No interrumpen la conversación’.”

<sup>45</sup> “Memorizan los textos, respetando la pronunciación, ritmo y entonación de los mismos.”

We can conclude that the Mapudungun program has a high level of learning burden in its exercises, on the contrary, the English curriculum does not present such characteristic because the activities that are suggested to the teachers consider the proficiency level of the children and developed them accordingly, however, they lack the communication component.

b. Is the relationship between theory (on second language acquisition) and practice presented and suggested in the programs direct?

As we have stated in preceding answers the relationship between theory and practice seen in the suggested activities in both programs is not direct at all - taking into account that there is no SLA theory behind them but allegedly only an approach.

In relation to the 'Format and Presentation' component of a language course from instrument one, what we can interpret from the exercises in both curricula is that there is a shared view of 'repetition' of patterns to acquire the languages. We can say that the technique of 'repetition' is closer to the one proposed by Behaviourism where the repetition of patterns was seen as an acceptable teaching technique and leaves aside any social aspect of language learning, among other things.

Nation (2001) points out that repetition is fundamental for vocabulary learning because only one encounter with a specific lexical item is not enough to learn all its information, i.e. repetition provides the opportunity to know a word well and to have an easy access to it. From Nation's (2001) point of view on repetition there are three key aspects of it: spacing between them, the types of repetition, and the number of repetitions. In respect to this we can say that

the one being approached differently in the curricula activities is the spacing between them; they present massed repetition where they spend a continuous period of time giving repeated attention to a word -as the one proposed by Behaviourism. On the other hand, Nation (2001) proposes to spread the number of repetitions across a long period of time to contribute to the retrieval of the meanings of the word strengthening their connection with the word form.

Example of these can be found in both curricula. Additionally, this type of repetition should not be done in isolation, as presented in this program, but done in different communicative contexts.

For the English program there is an exercise on page 68 where the learners “listen to traditional rhymes recited by the teacher. The teacher invites them to repeat some of the words that they know, until little by little they learn the rhyme by heart and are able to recite it with less assistance” (Besa, 2012, p. 68)<sup>46</sup> In this activity, what called our attention is the fact that the amount of vocabulary that is expected to be understood from the song is far more superior to the one considered as goals of the unit; besides, the song’s vocabulary goes beyond the thematic scope of the unit “In my classroom” - to which this activity corresponds to. In this case, inference due to contextual clues or vocabulary knowledge would be impossible since there is no core vocabulary to support inferencing and the context is too new to provide more clues (Nation, 2006).

For the Mapudungun curriculum there is an exercise on page 32 where they “chant the songs presented and they memorize them [...] They sing the songs considering their rhythm and

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<sup>46</sup> “Escuchan rimas tradicionales que el docente recita. El profesor los invita a repetir algunas palabras que conocen hasta que poco a poco aprenden la rima de memoria y pueden decirla con menos ayuda.”

melody individually and in groups. (Loncon, 2011, p. 32)<sup>47</sup> In this activity, we noticed that the learners are not only asked to memorize the lyrics but to learn the rhythm of the language as well; we have to consider that the learners are six or seven years old which means the level of complexity of this activity is too high for a beginners' level. In other words, the learning burden exceeds what a child with a very basic knowledge of Mapudungun could be able to do. Let alone the fact that there is no actual interaction or need to understand what is being sung.

In relation to the "Content and Sequencing" component, as we mentioned in a previous answer, the English program has self-contained thematic units where there is no connection among them. We analysed the transition from one unit to the next and noticed that there was not any thematic connection in it which is contradictory with the related theory they present: "It is necessary to always review the previous learning to build the new knowledge based on them. The teacher will constantly reinforce the learning achieved and will promote the advancement to new ones." (Besa, 2012, p. 14).<sup>48</sup> This can be seen only at a superficial level in the Objective Content Table on page 30 where they show the division of the content by thematic units and language functions; as well as in the Content Planning Table of unit two on page 62 where the content previously learned in unit one is presented as 'prior knowledge' which would mean that the students would be acquiring new knowledge based on prior one. However, what they are really presenting is a linear conception of second language learning; this is not so, since there are several factors influencing it as we seen in our literature review.

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<sup>47</sup> "Corean las canciones presentadas y las memorizan. [...] Entonan las canciones considerando su ritmo y melodía, en forma grupal e individual."

<sup>48</sup> "Es necesario repasar siempre los aprendizajes previos para construir los conocimientos nuevos sobre ellos. El docente reforzará continuamente los aprendizajes logrados y promoverá el avance hacia nuevos aprendizajes."

What is important is the idea of recycling information, i.e. to revisit earlier content in different ways in order to build up knowledge (Shrum and Glisan, 2010).

In the case of the Mapudungun program, we found that the semantic maps that are suggested as an “axis” of the units are not fully developed (as it was described in answer to question ‘a’) and the link between them is not clearly stated. At first they appear to be related as if they were derived from the previous one because the first three are related to language and conversation in their many realizations, but from page 48 onwards, they are randomly placed. Each of them has seven concepts derived from a central one, and most of them have a great semantic scope either too complex or too broad to explain to six year old children - which supports as well the fact that the activities have a great learning burden requiring too much prior knowledge from the learners. In the same way as in the English program there is not recycling of information on which to build up the learners’ knowledge.

We can conclude that there is no direct relationship between the theory and the activities that both curricula presented; that there is a considerable amount of inconsistencies within each program regarding this matter, as well as, with the “Content and Sequencing” and “Format and Presentation” components regarding the transition from one unit to the next, and their approach to repetition considering their statement about following the communicative approach which is in total opposition to their view on repetition.

c. How are the cultural models behind these curricula influencing the teaching strategies and activities within them?

Based on the cultural models that influenced the development of both curricula -the romantic cultural model followed by the Mapudungun curriculum and the rationalist by the English program- we can say that the suggested activities display a notorious connection with each of the cultural models respectively.

In the case of Mapudungun, this can be illustrated by means of a specific activity found on page 104 in which students are asked to “observe different mapuche knitting designs (‘ñimin’) [...] to draw and color the designs in their notebooks, and write their names [...]” (Loncon, 2011, p. 104).<sup>49</sup> In this exercise the teachers are redirected to an Internet web page for them to see those designs<sup>50</sup>. For English, there is no specific activity that supports the cultural model

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<sup>49</sup> “Observan diferentes diseños de ñimin en tejidos mapuche (ANÜMKA, KÜLPWE ÑIMIN, LUKUTUWE, MAUÑIMIN, NGE-NGE, PICHIKEMENKÚE con ANÜMKA, PIWKE, WANGÜLEN, WILLODMAWE ÑIMIN, WIRIWEL) [www.cholchol.org/es\\_artesaniasignificado.php](http://www.cholchol.org/es_artesaniasignificado.php)  
 Dibujan los diseños en sus cuadernos y los colorean y escriben sus nombres.  
 Escuchan al docente o educador(a) tradicional quien les habla sobre los significados de los diseños, la forma como se construyen en los tejidos, el proceso que siguen las tejedoras para lograr el producto.  
 De ser posible se invita a una tejedora a la sala de clases, quien se refiere a su oficio. Si eso no es posible, el docente o educador(a) invita a escuchar la canción ‘Angelita Huenuman’ en la que se cuenta la vida y arte de una tejedora.  
 Comentan el aporte de las tejedoras a la cultura mapuche.  
 Identifican semejanzas y diferencias entre la representación e ideas en los ñimin (dibujos) y la representación de los sonidos con letras (escritura).  
 Responden por qué al ñimin se le reconoce como un tipo de escritura primaria.  
 El docente o educador(a) complementa las opiniones de los niños y niñas, destacando que la escritura en todos los pueblos del mundo fue un proceso que se inició con el registro gráfico, así como el ñimin. Y que ahora el pueblo mapuche también ha adoptado la escritura para registrar su cultura pasada, presente y futura, y que serán las niñas y los niños quienes escriban sobre su pueblo en el futuro, por cuanto es muy valioso que ellos aprendan la escritura del mapuzugun.  
 Opinan sobre lo que aprendieron en la clase sobre el mapuche wirin. “

<sup>50</sup> The web page to which they redirect the teachers and students is available in Spanish and English, but not in Mapudungun. Hence, even though the Mapudungun program follows a romantic cultural model, it itself shows evidence of the impact English has in a interlinguistic context occupying the place of the standard language

behind it, but they do provide the teachers as well as the learners with a list of web pages where they can download everything they might need to carry out the activities (for the teacher: the stories and texts for reading, the listenings, images, posters, flashcards, songs, rhymes, chants, games, work sheets; for the learners: games, readings) (Besa, 2012). For example, in the activity number 7 on the page 45, the students are asked to “listen and watch a video with a song that the teacher projects about numbers and planes. After listening to it repeatedly they can sing it along with the video” (Besa, 2012, p.45)<sup>51</sup> and in the observations for teachers section, the program redirects the teacher to a website in which the song can be found and downloaded, saying: “this song is found on <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/songs/ten-littleaeroplanes>” (Besa, 2012, p. 45)<sup>52</sup>.

The fact that they are all redirected to international web pages proves the central role of English in global communication and its status of democratic tool that allows the access to different kinds of information to all, in concordance with the cultural model, we could notice it is influencing the English program itself.

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within an intralinguistic context, following the romantic model here English is an oppressive instrument that threatens diversity and therefore identities.

<sup>51</sup> “Los estudiantes escuchan y ven un video con una canción que el docente proyecta sobre números y aviones. Después de escucharla varias veces, pueden cantarla junto al video”

<sup>52</sup> “Esta canción se encuentra en <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/songs/ten-littleaeroplanes>”



## 5. CONCLUSIONS

This research study focused primarily on the acquisition of vocabulary and the strategies and theories displayed by each of the programs analyzed –Mapudungun and English first year of primary school curricula-. However, to completely understand this phenomenon it was indispensable to study public policy, cultural models, childhood bilingualism, etc. The findings on each of those areas are going to be summarized in the following paragraphs.

On the one hand, and regarding the three first objectives of this research study: (1) to determine the way vocabulary acquisition and learning are viewed and represented by the curricula provided by the Ministry of Education for 1st grade English and Mapudungun as a foreign language by recognising the SLA theory behind them, (2) to determine the theory of SLA behind those curricula that provides the basis for them and (3) to identify relationships between the theory presented in these curricula and the vocabulary activities and teaching strategies proposed in these documents within and across languages, we could find that:

a. There are no explicit insights into theories. Even though both programs mention the ‘communicative approach’ as the basis for their development, proposals for activities and teaching suggestions, they do not show neither theoretical support for that nor terminology associated to the approach. Although, The English program shows a stronger theoretical support for CLT, as an realization derived from the communicative approach, than the Mapudungun program. We consider both curricula weak in terms of theoretical support as the basis for them. It is crucial to mention that the appearance of ‘communicative approach’ does

not guarantee the existence of a SLA theory supporting the programs, even though the approach functions as a proxy to infer there is a theory behind, it is highly probable the complete absence of theory. Actually, if the communicative approach lacks, its necessary cultural component can be considered purely cognitivist and if we consider that several of the activities relied on repetition, the program can be assumed to be behaviouristic.

We have thought that the absence of theory is, perhaps to provide a degree of freedom to teachers and their own teaching methods and previous training on SLA theories. Additionally, the English program makes a detailed revision of SLA theories and approaches but they do not say which one they are going to be based on. While, in the program of Mapudungun a *semantic approach* is mentioned, but even though we could not find literature about it, we can deduce it is based on the semantic mapping technique. We think there are negative consequences due to this lack of a leading theory, mainly because there are no specially trained teachers (in the linguistics field) neither for teaching Mapudungun -1st grade, illiterate children- nor for teaching English at this level. We would recommend to be more explicit in the theoretical foundations of these curricula in order to provide the teachers with the theoretical tools -along with pedagogical tools- they might need to improve their SLA teaching labor.

b. Regarding vocabulary acquisition, we can state that both programs present some of the characteristics needed when designing the vocabulary component of a language course according to Nation (2001)-Goals, Format and presentation, Content and sequencing, -, Although, some are more accurate than others. For example, the goal component of the

English program presents a theoretical support for the teaching of vocabulary and states as positive to include the vocabulary component according the frequency of lexical items. However, it does not specify whether the lists of frequency are going to be presented in the bibliography or not. Whereas, the Mapudungun program refers to the importance of the vocabulary component but it does not include it as a crucial element, even though it works with semantic maps. Additionally, we found that neither of the two curricula have activities regarding negotiation of meaning, what they do have are activities leading to expression and interpretation of meaning. This lack of activities about meaning negotiation goes against real communication which is the ultimate goal claimed at the beginning of both programs. A communicative approach without actual communication cannot be communicative at all.

On the other hand, and regarding to the third objective of this research project: To identify the ideologies present in each of them and the way those ideologies influence the development of those ministerial programs, we have found that:

a. Both programs have clear insights into opposing cultural models. In this respect, the Mapudungun curriculum shows a clear relationship with the romantic model, because it conceives language as a system for expressing and representing reality and also visualizes Spanish -and English- as a medium of social exclusion that must be avoided by lifting up innovative political projects and teaching an indigenous language such as Mapudungun itself. In turn, the English program is framed into the rationalist cultural model, as far as the teaching of English is presented as the provision of a democratic tool for communication and participation around the globe. Furthermore, in the English program it is possible to observe

supportive statements for the two first assumption of the rationalist model: First of all, this program sees language -in a linguistic-philosophical basis- only as a medium of communication and a tool for obtaining global benefits; in this respect, learning English stands for an emancipatory practice. Secondly, language is contemplated as a means for democratic social participation, considering English as the standard language in an interlinguistic context.

b. Regarding the activities suggested in both curricula, we can say that those activities are notoriously connected to each of the corresponding cultural models depending on the curriculum. For the Mapudungun program, the activities show a strong relationship to culture as intrinsically related to language and language as expression of culture and not only as medium of communication. While, the English program activities are constantly redirecting teachers to international websites, proving that English is a democratic tool that allows international communication as well as access to different areas of knowledge all over the globe.

In sum, we strongly value the initiatives that are presented in terms of teaching languages to children due to the cognitive and cultural benefits that they entail. However, we consider essential to review the contents and the implementation of these programs, in order to take advantage of the research that has been carried out in the last twenty years and all the theory behind second language acquisition. There should be a coherence between what is claimed in each program and how it will be implemented. Such coherence would facilitate the task of teachers and would show a strong background able to support challenges as big as this one.

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## APPENDIX

YES/ NO BASED ON NATION (2001):

Goals: using the definition provided by Nation: “they will be to increase learner’s usable vocabulary size and to help them to gain effective control of a range of vocabulary learning and coping strategies” (pay attention to whether frequency is mentioned or not within English program)

Needs analysis: I think it is not necessary to look for where learners are in their vocabulary development and knowledge ‘cause it’s first year, so both knowledge and development of vocabulary are near zero.

Environments: features of teachers, learners and teaching/learning situation that may help or hinder learning

Principles: set of well justified principles that guide the course. Those principles must be put into practice during the course (not just in paper)

Content and sequencing: it guides “the choice of what vocabulary is focused on at any particular stage of a course, how it is focused on and how it is ordered”(p. 625) UNIT OF ANALYSIS

Format and presentation: General approach to language/ vocabulary teaching and teaching techniques with their arrangement within the lesson plan.

Monitoring and assessing: Monitoring of learners progress and quality of their learning (it is important to mention the level both teachers and learners should be focusing on right at the beginning of the course)

Evaluation: How good the course is. (from several points of view (curriculum designer, teacher, student, etc)

	<b>MAPUDUNGUN</b>		<b>INGLÉS</b>	
<b>Component of Language Course</b>	<b>Present</b>	<b>Not present</b>	<b>Present</b>	<b>Not present</b>
GOALS (vocabulary size/ control strategies use)	<p>: p.3 “Más allá de asumir y reconocer la coexistencia de culturas distintas en un mismo estado nación, lo que se busca es “perfeccionar el concepto de ciudadanía con el fin de añadir a los derechos ya consagrados de libertad e igualdad ante la ley, el del reconocimiento de los derechos culturales de los pueblos, culturas y grupos étnicos que conviven dentro de las fronteras de las naciones-Estado”. (Fuller Norma, 2002).”</p> <p>p.3 “En este sentido, la educación intercultural es el enfoque educativo que tiene como finalidad rescatar y valorar las diferencias existentes entre los</p>		<p>p.5 “El aprendizaje del idioma inglés constituye un área fundamental en el currículo debido a su relevancia como medio de acceso a diversos ámbitos del conocimiento y a su carácter de idioma global de comunicación. Por medio del inglés, es posible acceder a una amplia gama de información a través de los medios de comunicación y de las tecnologías y conocer otras culturas y realidades. En nuestro país, el aprendizaje del inglés ha adquirido una relevancia creciente debido a nuestra inserción en el proceso de globalización. Dicho proceso está asociado a un amplio uso mundial de ese idioma en los ámbitos científico, económico, tecnológico y académico, entre otros. En consecuencia, la habilidad de comunicarse en este idioma facilita la</p>	

	<p>grupos culturalmente diversos, y en donde las lenguas y culturas específicas adquieren gran relevancia ya que busca el reconocimiento mutuo entre ellas.” (AND PRINCIPLES)</p> <p>p.4 “De allí, que el año 2006, el Consejo Superior de Educación aprobó los objetivos fundamentales y Contenidos mínimos obligatorios del sector de lengua indígena, que fueron propuestos por el MINEDUC y la CONADI. Lo que permite iniciar la elaboración de programas de estudio para los idiomas Aymara, Quechua, Mapuzungun y Rapa Nui.”</p> <p>p.5 “Reconocimiento y valoración del acto de escuchar como práctica fundamental de la</p>	<p>posibilidad de involucrarse en las dinámicas propias de la globalización, enfrentar sus desafíos y beneficiarse de sus aportes. Al desarrollar las habilidades de comunicación del idioma inglés, nuestros estudiantes tendrán la posibilidad de adquirir las herramientas necesarias para acceder a la información y participar en situaciones comunicativas de esta lengua, tanto por medio de conversaciones como de la lectura y la escritura.</p> <p>El aprendizaje de este sector promueve asimismo el desarrollo personal de los alumnos. Las habilidades comunicativas que se busca lograr les permiten crecer en el campo intelectual, formativo y personal, pues abren la posibilidad de conocer distintas formas culturales, tradiciones y maneras de pensar.”</p> <hr/> <p>p. 17 “<b>Palabras de alta frecuencia:</b> En inglés, un número limitado de palabras compone</p>	
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	<p>Tradición Oral” ha sido considerado en los Objetivos Fundamentales y como Contenido Mínimo Obligatorio”</p> <p>p.5 “la comunicación escrita, tiene por finalidad fomentar, a través de sus Objetivos Fundamentales y Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios, la práctica interaccional del idioma.”</p> <p>p.6 “Las dos secuencias de Objetivos Fundamentales y Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios que componen este eje (escrito) buscan potenciar por un lado, el conocimiento del código escrito en Lengua Indígena, considerando sus características propias; y, por otro, fomentar la comprensión y producción escrita de distintos tipos de textos en Lengua Indígena.”</p> <p>p.7 “Los programas de</p>	<p>alrededor de la mitad de lo que se lee y escribe. Se las denomina “palabras de alta frecuencia”. Es importante enseñar a los alumnos a reconocerlas rápidamente al leer y a escribirlas correctamente; esto beneficiará su comprensión y fluidez lectora y también su expresión de ideas con relativa precisión.”</p> <p>p.18 <b>Vocabulario:</b> Las palabras que los alumnos aprenden durante los primeros años están estrechamente relacionadas con su contexto inmediato, con la frecuencia a la que se exponen a dichas palabras y la experiencia asociada a ellos, y con sus necesidades de comunicación. Al aprender nuevas palabras, hacen conexiones con otras que ya conocen y con experiencias pasadas. La cantidad de vocabulario influye en sus capacidades de comprensión y de expresar ideas: mientras más palabras aprendan, tendrán</p> <p>más posibilidades de establecer nuevas conexiones y, como</p>	
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	<p>estudio para el sector de lengua indígena (...) constituyen una propuesta didáctica y una secuencia pedagógica, que incluye metodologías y actividades específicas para abordar los CMO del sector, conducentes al logro de objetivos fundamentales”</p> <p>p. 11 “Recuperar conocimientos lingüísticos perdidos también es relevante. Hay conceptos y conocimientos propios de cada una de las culturas en proceso de desaparición. Esta pérdida se manifiesta principalmente a nivel léxico. Por otra parte, atender a la terminología nueva, significa dar paso a la ampliación de recursos léxicos desde la manera de nombrar el cuaderno o el lápiz, hasta conceptos más complejos como decir coordenadas, biodiversidad, y tantos</p>	<p>consecuencia, de aprender nuevas palabras.”</p> <p>p. 29 “Objetivos que se desarrollan durante todo el año. <i>Comprensión oral:</i> Comprender textos leídos por un adulto o en formato audiovisual, breves y simples (...); Escuchar textos orales y aplicar estrategias para apoyar la comprensión (...); Reaccionar a lo escuchado, estableciendo relaciones con experiencias personales y/o expresando preferencias, sentimientos u opiniones (...); <i>Comprensión de lectura:</i> Leer y demostrar comprensión de textos como cuentos, rimas, chants, tarjetas de saludo, instrucciones y textos informativos, identificando:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>&gt;&gt; ideas generales del texto</li> <li>&gt;&gt; personajes y acciones</li> <li>&gt;&gt; vocabulario aprendido, palabras conocidas y expresiones de uso muy frecuente; Leer y aplicar estrategias para apoyar la comprensión; Reaccionar a lo leído, estableciendo</li> </ul>	
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	<p>otros temas más abstractos propios del lenguaje académico. En este caso es labor de los hablantes, los educadores tradicionales y profesores analizar el uso de las palabras nuevas en terreno y evaluar su aceptación o rechazo y su difusión.”</p> <p>p.13 “Los programas de estudio se visualizan como una puerta abierta para atender aquellas diferencias lingüísticas y culturales existentes en el país. En el caso de la lengua mapuzugun, los programas de estudios fomentarán el desarrollo de competencias lingüísticas en los niños/as como también posibilitarán tener una visión del mundo desde diversas perspectivas culturales, generando así actitudes y vivencias positivas en las relaciones interculturales, como también contribuirá a</p>	<p>relaciones con experiencias personales y/o expresando preferencias, sentimientos u opiniones; <i>Expresión oral</i>: Participar en diálogos, interacciones de la clase y exposiciones muy breves y simples, acerca de temas conocidos o de otras asignaturas; <i>Expresión escrita</i>: Escribir (por ejemplo: copiar o completar) palabras y oraciones simples de acuerdo a un modelo, acerca de temas conocidos o de otras asignaturas.”</p> <p>p. 30 “Objetivos con variaciones en tema y en énfasis por unidad. <i>Comprensión oral</i>: Comprender textos orales relacionados con temas conocidos o de otras asignaturas, que contengan las siguientes funciones: (seguir y dar órdenes...); Demostrar comprensión de textos orales:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>&gt;&gt; identificando personajes, objetos y animales</li> <li>&gt;&gt; siguiendo instrucciones simples</li> </ul>	
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	<p>fortalecer la identidad y autoestima de los hablantes y usuarios de la lengua.”</p>	<p>&gt;&gt; identificando palabras, expresiones de uso muy frecuente y vocabulario aprendido (temas conocidos y sonidos /s/-/z/, /w/-/th/ ). <i>Comprensión de lectura:</i> Leer y demostrar comprensión de textos relacionados con temas conocidos o de otras asignaturas y con las siguientes funciones (seguir y dar instrucciones...).</p> <p><i>Expresión oral:</i> Reproducir chants, rimas y diálogos muy breves y simples para familiarizarse con los sonidos propios del inglés (sonidos /w/, /th/...); Expresarse oralmente con el apoyo del docente (funciones: compartir información...).</p> <p><i>Expresión escrita:</i> Escribir, sobre la base de imágenes (identificar animales...)”</p> <p>p. 34 “Actitudes: Demostrar valoración e interés por conocer su propio contexto y realidad, ampliando el conocimiento de su entorno; Manifestar una actitud positiva frente a sí mismo y sus capacidades para aprender un nuevo</p>	
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			<p>idioma; Demostrar curiosidad, interés y respeto ante otras realidades y culturas, reconociendo sus aportes y valorando la diversidad de modos de vida; Manifiestar un estilo de trabajo cooperativo entre compañeros para alcanzar los propósitos de la asignatura.”</p>	
NEEDS (sufficient control - lacks/necessities/wants)		x		x
ENVIRONMENTS (factors: learners/ teachers/ situation)	<p>p.4 “Los programas de estudio de lengua indígena elaborados por el MINEDUC, han sido diseñados considerando que es posible observar al menos tres realidades diferentes de acceso a la lengua indígena: los niños y niñas que tienen como lengua materna o familiar uno de estos cuatro idiomas; otros, que escuchan la lengua indígena solamente en el entorno</p>		<p>p.5 “Debido a las características del entorno, el inglés se enseña en nuestro país como lengua extranjera (English as a Foreign Language, EFL), lo que implica que la mayoría de los estudiantes no tiene oportunidades de hablar o practicar el idioma en la vida diaria, fuera de la sala de clases. En consecuencia, comenzar el aprendizaje del inglés a partir de primer año de educación básica significa</p>	

	<p>social, sobretodo en aquellas zonas donde estos idiomas comparten espacio lingüístico con el castellano. Así mismo, es una realidad que algunos niños y niñas solamente tienen la oportunidad de escuchar el idioma indígena impartido en la escuela”</p> <p>p.7 “Estos programas están diseñados para que sean implementados por educadores o educadoras tradicionales que se han habilitado en el ejercicio de la docencia, o que trabajan con el apoyo en didáctica y evaluación del profesor o profesora del curso. También pueden ser implementados por los docentes de educación básica acreditados para enseñar la lengua y la cultura indígena.”</p>		<p>un aporte, pues permite que los estudiantes estén expuestos al inglés desde una edad temprana y, por ende, se enfrentan al idioma de forma más natural, lúdica y fluida, enriquecen su pronunciación y se motivan fácilmente frente a las tareas y desafíos que su aprendizaje implica.”</p>	
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<p>PRINCIPLES (learners can be taught/can teach themselves)</p>	<p>p.4 “las propuestas educativas desarrolladas por el Ministerio de Educación plantean la necesidad de fomentar el bilingüismo aditivo. En este modelo educativo, se promueve el enfoque de enseñanza de segunda lengua, no como aspiración a reemplazar a la lengua materna, sino que, por el contrario, a desarrollar en los alumnos y alumnas competencias lingüísticas y comunicativas en ambos idiomas” (not strictly focused on vocabulary)</p> <p>p.5 “Este Sector ha sido elaborado a partir de dos enfoques que se complementan. Por un lado se busca desarrollar competencias lingüísticas a través de la interacción gracias al enfoque comunicacional, al mismo tiempo que</p>	<p>p. 8 “Estas propuestas se basan principalmente en el enfoque comunicativo y se complementan con elementos de otros enfoques, cuyo objetivo más importante es asimismo la comunicación. Por esta razón, se han elaborado de acuerdo a las orientaciones metodológicas del enfoque comunicativo. Su propósito principal es que los alumnos se comuniquen en inglés en forma significativa y contextualizada; para ello, se propone que desarrollen de manera integrada las cuatro habilidades del idioma (comprensión oral, comprensión de lectura, expresión oral y expresión escrita).” (not strictly focused on vocabulary)</p> <p>p. 9 “Énfasis en la comprensión, destacando la importancia del vocabulario y del uso de material para apoyarla. Según el Enfoque Natural (Natural Approach), es importante que el alumno se enfrente a una gran</p>	
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	<p>haciendo uso del enfoque semántico, se promueve la comprensión de significaciones culturales asociadas a los Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios. (not strictly focused on vocabulary)</p> <p>P.17: “Los OFT están organizados en 5 ámbitos distintos:</p> <p>Crecimiento y autoafirmación personal</p> <p>Desarrollo del pensamiento</p> <p>Formación ética</p> <p>La persona y su entorno</p> <p>Tecnologías de Información y Comunicación”</p>	<p>cantidad de información comprensible (comprehensible input) y significativa sobre temas y situaciones interesantes y de la vida diaria, que contribuya a desarrollar una atmósfera motivadora y relajada para el aprendizaje (Krashen y Terrell en Richards y Rodgers, 2001).</p> <p>- Importancia de la naturaleza interactiva del idioma. De acuerdo con el Aprendizaje Cooperativo del Lenguaje (Cooperative Language Learning), los estudiantes de un idioma desarrollan la competencia comunicativa al participar en diversas situaciones interactivas en las que la comunicación es el objetivo principal. Al interactuar, cooperan entre ellos para lograr las tareas de comunicación; esto ayuda a crear una atmósfera adecuada para que aprender un idioma promueva la motivación intrínseca, fortalezca la autoestima y disminuya la ansiedad y los prejuicios</p>	
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		<p>(Oxford en Brown, 2007).”(not strictly focused on vocabulary)</p> <p>p. 10 “Visión del idioma principalmente como un medio para comunicar significados y adquirir información, en lugar de ser un objeto de estudio en sí mismo. El Enfoque Basado en Contenidos (Content-Based Instruction) enfatiza que el idioma será aprendido exitosamente si constituye un medio para estudiar contenidos y/o temas motivadores para los alumnos, que estén conectados con su propia experiencia</p> <p>y con temas de otras asignaturas (Richards y Rodgers, 2001).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tareas significativas para los alumnos como unidad básica para la enseñanza de la lengua. Según el enfoque de la Enseñanza del Idioma Basado en la Tarea (Task-Based Language Teaching), la tarea comunicativa corresponde</li> </ul>	
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		<p>al trabajo que se realiza en la clase y que involucra a los estudiantes mediante situaciones que priorizan la comunicación de significados por sobre el estudio explícito de estructuras, de modo que comprendan el idioma, interactúen usándolo o lo produzcan. En este contexto, la enseñanza no solo enfatizará las habilidades de comprensión para incorporar la lengua, sino que también brindará a los alumnos oportunidades de usarla para comunicar ideas y negociar significados (Nunan 2004). (not strictly focused on vocabulary)</p> <p>En la actualidad, muchas clases comunicativas e interactivas que enseñan lenguas extranjeras en los primeros niveles escolares toman elementos del método de Respuesta Física Total</p> <p>(Total Physical Response, TPR), especialmente en las actividades desarrolladas en la clase (Brown, 2007).</p>	
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		<p>De acuerdo a este método, los alumnos aprenden el idioma cuando se los expone al lenguaje oral por medio de abundante input oral acompañado de actividad física. Los niños escuchan el idioma principalmente en forma de órdenes (commands) frente a las cuales desarrollan acciones.</p> <p>Asimismo, se otorga importancia al significado y al mensaje (en vez de dársela a las formas del lenguaje) y la corrección de errores es mínima, para facilitar la fluidez y no inhibir a los estudiantes (Asher en Richards y Rodgers, 2001).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Visión global del lenguaje y de su aprendizaje en forma integrada. Como la gran mayoría de las palabras en inglés carece de correspondencia entre fonema y grafía, es importante plantear su enseñanza desde una visión global de la lengua, que favorezca la construcción de significados en lugar del análisis de sus partes (Hearn y Garcés, 2003). El Enfoque Global (Whole</li> </ul>	
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			<p>Language) postula la visión del lenguaje como un todo que integra las habilidades del idioma. Asimismo, enfatiza la importancia del significado, la visión centrada en el alumno, las experiencias y actividades que son relevantes y significativas</p> <p>para los estudiantes y el uso de material auténtico en la clase, en especial de textos como cuentos e historias (Richards y Rodgers, 2001).” (not strictly focused on vocabulary)</p>	
<p>CONTENT AND SEQUENCING (v. focused on/ divided into stages)</p>	<p>UNITS: tradición oral/tradición escrita; comunicación oral/comunicación escrita</p> <p>p.9: “Generalmente, los planes de clases están</p>		<p>Contenidos y orden de enseñanza:</p> <p>p. 11 “Los objetivos de la asignatura Inglés se formularon sobre la base de las cuatro habilidades del idioma, y los elementos</p>	

	<p>organizados en tres momentos:</p> <p>Momento inicial, donde se verifica el logro de los aprendizajes previos y se propone una tarea nueva para alumnos y alumnas, permitiéndoles explorar y ensayar las técnicas existentes en su repertorio.</p> <p>Momento de desarrollo, se caracteriza por la participación activa de los alumnos y alumnas en el desarrollo de las actividades diseñadas. Es en esta fase donde se trabajan los aprendizajes esperados e indicadores propuestos y se enfatiza en la ejercitación de las tareas.</p> <p>Momento de cierre, donde el educador tradicional juega un rol fundamental en la sistematización de los aprendizajes trabajados en la clase. En el cierre se verifica informalmente el logro de estos aprendizajes por parte de los alumnos y alumnas,</p>	<p>como funciones, vocabulario o estructuras gramaticales se presentan integrados en ellas. Por lo tanto, las habilidades progresan junto con los objetivos.</p> <p>p. 30-33 <i>Temas conocidos.</i>  Unidad 1: la escuela, animales salvajes, identificar los sonidos /w/, /th/ en particular;  Unidad 2: partes de la casa y muebles, figuras geométricas, identificar los sonidos /w/, /th/ en particular; Unidad 3: ocupaciones, lugares en la ciudad, identificar los sonidos /s/-/z/ en particular; Unidad 4: comida, celebraciones (Easter), identificar los sonidos /s/-/z/ en particular.”</p> <p><i>Funciones:</i></p> <p>Unidad 1: (dividido por habilidades) seguir y dar instrucciones, presentarse y</p>	
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	<p>recabando información valiosa para continuar adelante o reforzar en las clases siguientes lo que no haya sido bien aprendido. Además del plan de clases el o la docente y el educador o educadora tradicional encontrará una Propuesta de Evaluación cualitativa e integral.”</p>	<p>presentar a otros, expresar habilidad, sentimientos, posesión y cantidades en números hasta el veinte, describir animales y objetos en un lugar, describir acciones que suceden al momento de hablar, solicitar y dar información sobre ocupaciones, comida y ubicación de personas y objetos, compartir información personal, identificar y describir animales, acciones, objetos y partes de la casa, ocupaciones, lugares, comida, expresar prohibición, describir ubicación de objetos y acciones que ocurren al momento de hablar; Unidad 2-3-4: lo mismo.</p> <p>p. 34 “• el tiempo pedagógico estimado para cada unidad es de 28 horas pedagógicas</p> <p>• es fundamental que, a lo largo de todo el año, los estudiantes <u>sigan trabajando lo que ya aprendieron junto con los nuevos conocimientos que adquieran</u> (concepto de</p>	
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		<p>espiralidad).</p> <p>p. 36 “<u>Semestre 1. Unidad 1: In my classroom.</u>”</p> <p><u>Contenidos:</u></p> <p>Greetings. Hello, good morning, good bye, I’m fine; Personal information: My name is...; Questions: What’s this? How many...?; Commands: Stand up, sit down, open/close the ..., clap your hands, turn around; Numbers: 1-10; Adjectives: long, short; Answers: yes, no.</p> <p>Vocabulario:</p> <p>Colors: black, white, red, pink, green, yellow, blue, orange, etc.; Classroom objects: bag, desk, chair, pencil, eraser, book, ruler, door, window;</p> <p>People: boy, girl, teacher; Expressions: Thank you, please.</p> <p><u>Unidad 2: My family and me.</u></p> <p>Conocimientos previos: Colors, Numbers 1-10, School objects</p>	
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		<p>Contenidos: He/she is (He/she's), My/your, Who is...?; Commands: Touch your head, legs, etc.; I sing, dance, walk, jump, climb, run; I wash my face/hands; Adjectives: tall, short</p> <p>Vocabulario:</p> <p>Family members: mom (mother), dad (father), brother, sister, me, baby, grandfather, grandmother;</p> <p>Parts of the body: face, hands, mouth, nose, eyes, ears, hair, teeth, feet, fingers, tummy, toes.</p> <p><u>Semestre 2. Unidad 3:</u> <u>What's the weather like today?</u></p> <p>Conocimientos previos: Colors, Numbers 1-10, My/your.</p> <p>Contenidos: Today is ...; It's (a)...; White socks, black shoes, pink dress, etc.; Big dog, small cat, etc.; Where is the...?; ...and...; Adjectives: big, small.</p> <p>Vocabulario: Days of the week; Weather: windy, sunny, cloudy, rainy, snowy; Seasons of the year: summer, fall, winter,</p>
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		<p>spring; Clothes: shoes, sock, a hat, dress, pants, skirt, scarf, coat, boots, shirt; Farm animals: cow, dog, cat, puppy, chicken, horse, duck, bird, pig; Places: pond, tree, house, farm.</p> <p><u>Unidad 4: Happy Birthday!</u></p> <p>Conocimientos previos: Colors, Numbers 1-10, Seasons, Days of the week, Adjectives: big, small, My/your.</p> <p>Contenidos: I'm...; Happy birthday! Thank you; Adjectives: new, old, happy, sad; I have/don't have; A/an.</p> <p>Vocabulario: Food: bread, egg, milk, ice cream, meat, juice, water, cheese, ham, <u>tomatoe, potatoe</u>, cookies, carrot; Toys: Bike, truck, doll, ball, car, plane, robot, rope, video games, marbles, yoyo; Birthdays: candles, cake, presents, balloons, eat, sing.</p>	
<p>FORMAT AND PRESENTATION (how is taught and learned)</p>	<p>p.7 "Metodológicamente, organizan la enseñanza</p>	<p>p. 14 Orientaciones didácticas Generales: "Para apoyar el desarrollo tanto del inglés como del pensamiento en los niños en forma general, es</p>	



	<p>y el aprendizaje de la lengua desde sus características semánticas (...) Para ello se requiere no solo aprender a hablar la lengua indígena y conocer los elementos de la lingüística sino que, fundamentalmente, aproximarse a los significados culturales de lo que se habla.</p> <p>p.9: “Generalmente, los planes de clases están organizados en tres momentos:</p> <p>Momento inicial, donde se verifica el logro de los aprendizajes previos y se propone una tarea nueva para alumnos y alumnas, permitiéndoles explorar y ensayar las técnicas existentes en su repertorio.</p> <p>Momento de desarrollo, se caracteriza por la participación activa de los alumnos y alumnas en el desarrollo de las actividades diseñadas. Es en esta fase donde se</p>	<p>importante que el docente use el idioma en todo momento: al dar órdenes, instrucciones, explicar, describir acciones, etc. Se sugiere el uso de apoyo extralingüístico para facilitar la comprensión y construcción de significado en los estudiantes: usar mímica, dibujos, imágenes; por ejemplo, verbalizar sus acciones mientras explica o describe algo.”</p> <p>“Se sugiere al docente apoyar la expresión escrita en diferentes contextos y hacer que los estudiantes escriban en relación con contenidos de otras asignaturas; eso les permite reflexionar acerca de los conceptos aprendidos y conectarlos con sus palabras en inglés.”</p> <p>p. 14-15 “Es necesario repasar siempre los aprendizajes previos para construir los conocimientos nuevos sobre ellos (concepto de espiralidad). El docente reforzará</p>	
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	<p>trabajan los aprendizajes esperados e indicadores propuestos y</p> <p>se enfatiza en la ejercitación de las tareas.</p> <p>Momento de cierre, donde el educador tradicional juega un rol fundamental en la sistematización de los aprendizajes trabajados en la clase. En el cierre se verifica informalmente el logro de estos aprendizajes por parte de</p> <p>los alumnos y alumnas, recabando información valiosa para continuar adelante o reforzar en las clases siguientes lo que no haya sido bien aprendido. Además del plan de clases el o la docente y el educador o educadora tradicional encontrará una</p> <p>Propuesta de Evaluación cualitativa e integral.”</p>	<p>continuamente los aprendizajes logrados y promoverá el</p> <p>avance hacia nuevos aprendizajes. Para la contextualización de la enseñanza, se sugiere usar imágenes de personas, lugares o acciones y también de paisajes de Chile y del mundo de habla inglesa que despierten curiosidad y asombro.”</p> <hr/> <p>p. 15 Orientaciones específicas: a continuación se presentan sugerencias didácticas y metodológicas que promueven el aprendizaje del idioma en los primeros años de educación básica y, además, ayudan al desarrollo del pensamiento:</p> <p>Juegos de roles (...),  Dramatización y recontar (...),  Juegos (...),  Canciones, rimas y chants (...).</p> <p>p.16 “Lectura y escritura en los primeros años: (...) Se sugiere leerles cuentos</p>	
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		<p>simples en forma periódica y animarlos a leer a compañeros, incluso si aún no saben leer y simulan hacerlo con la ayuda de imágenes, como ocurre en 1° básico. La lectura de un mismo texto varias veces es parte de un proceso en que los estudiantes mejoran en fluidez: al leerlo por primera vez, enfocan su atención en identificar palabras en forma aislada; la segunda vez son capaces de leer frases y dar significado a estas combinaciones de palabras y la tercera vez, pueden leer más rápido y con expresión. Otras actividades que los ayudan a mejorar la lectura son: leer y escuchar grabaciones de textos o cuentos, lectura eco (el profesor lee una oración escrita en la pizarra y los estudiantes repiten, imitándolo) y lectura coral (especialmente con chants, rimas y poesía).”</p> <p>p.17 “La sala letrada ayuda a motivarlos a leer y escribir en el idioma que están aprendiendo. Se</p>	
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		<p>sugiere al docente tener expuestas en la sala de clases listas de palabras, modelos de oraciones, instrucciones e imágenes con sus respectivas palabras para ayudar a los estudiantes a familiarizarse con las formas escritas del léxico de uso más común. Es necesario cambiar las palabras y ejemplos periódicamente</p> <p>o a medida que los alumnos las aprendan. (...) El progreso en escritura será lento y necesitará del apoyo constante del profesor, pero no se debe desanimar a los alumnos corrigiendo todos los errores. Se sugiere comenzar con copia y escritura de palabras que sean importantes y cercanas para ellos, luego combinaciones de palabras (a toy, blue bike, two boys), frases breves (a big boy, the black cats, you run) y finalmente oraciones (I can read, winter is cold, they cook dinner, I feel sick) y párrafos breves.”</p> <p>p. 18 “Una de las más efectivas es una pared de</p>	
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		<p>palabras, en la cual el docente exponga tarjetas de palabras (en un comienzo, con sus respectivas imágenes) para que todos las puedan ver y las usen constantemente para hacer actividades de deletreo, mímica, rimas o construcción de oraciones. Se puede elegir algunas pocas, cambiarlas periódicamente a medida que</p> <p>los alumnos las aprenden y referirse a ellas cuando el profesor las usa o ayuda a los estudiantes a expresarse. No conviene mostrar listas largas de palabras, ya que solo podrán retener algunas pocas a la vez. El docente puede incorporar palabras que la mayoría del curso escribe incorrectamente. También puede elegir las que aparecen en cuentos, en listas de palabras de alta frecuencia, que estén relacionadas con un tema, con una familia semántica o con una función comunicativa. (ejemplos) También puede decir alguna oración con un ritmo o una melodía que</p>	
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		<p>sirva a los alumnos para recordar ciertas palabras sin un significado claro para ellos.”</p> <p>“Otra forma efectiva de enseñar vocabulario es con material concreto: mostrar objetos que los estudiantes puedan tocar y sentir probablemente sea una experiencia significativa que los ayudará</p> <p>a recordar la palabra en el futuro. También se recomienda aprovechar conocimientos de los alumnos relacionados con otras asignaturas para hacer alguna actividad y enseñar las palabras en el nuevo idioma. Otra alternativa es pedirles que busquen objetos en sus casas o en su barrio y que hablen sobre ellos. A su vez, el profesor puede relacionar dichos objetos con alguna unidad (...)”</p> <p>p.19 “Dado que escribir está estrechamente</p>	
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		<p>relacionado con la lectura, se sugiere que el profesor aproveche los textos leídos para que los alumnos propongan ideas sobre temas para escribir; también conviene mostrar formas de organizar las ideas antes de escribir, usando dibujos, diagramas, haciendo lluvia de ideas, etc.”</p> <p>p. 20</p> <p>“Algunas sugerencias metodológicas para practicar estructuras gramaticales en forma contextualizada y comunicativa son: Usar cuadros, gráficos o imágenes para fomentar la comunicación y el uso de alguna estructura determinada en forma contextualizada. (...).</p> <p>Utilizar objetos o material concreto en la clase. (...).</p> <p>Emplear planos y mapas para practicar direcciones, hacer preguntas, pedir o dar instrucciones, especificar ubicación.</p> <p>Dramatizar situaciones y</p>
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		<p>representar diálogos.</p> <p>Usar la expresión escrita en textos –como oraciones, invitaciones, tarjetas de saludo– para comunicar ideas y aplicar el uso de estructuras en forma contextualizada.”</p> <hr/> <p>p. 21 “Orientaciones específicas para las cuatro habilidades del idioma inglés.</p> <p>Actividades de prelectura/audición (...),  Actividades de lectura/audición (...),  Actividades de poslectura/audición (...)</p> <p>También se debe considerar algunas orientaciones diferenciadas para la comprensión oral y para la comprensión de lectura.  <i>Comprensión oral:</i> (...) Durante las clases, tienen que poder escuchar el idioma inglés desde distintas fuentes; por ejemplo, escuchar al docente, a sus compañeros y discos y videos. (...) En los niveles de primero a cuarto básico, es</p>	
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		<p>importante que escuchen textos lúdicos como diálogos, rimas y canciones que puedan seguir y reproducir fácilmente, para que aprendan a pronunciar correctamente, a incorporar frases o expresiones prefabricadas (prefabricated chunks) y a disfrutar del aprendizaje del idioma.</p> <p>p. 22 <i>Comprensión de lectura:</i> (...) Para esos efectos, es importante: establecer un propósito o una tarea respecto de esa lectura antes de que la lean; comentar previamente el tema del texto; hacer conexiones entre lo que ya han leído o están leyendo y las experiencias de los estudiantes; darles tareas variadas y desafiantes en relación con lo que leerán y motivarlos a leer sin preocuparse de entender cada palabra del texto. También es fundamental que lean en voz alta –de acuerdo a un modelo– para que se acostumbren a reconocer sus dificultades y a percibir su progreso a medida que van adquiriendo mayor</p>	
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		<p>fluidez.”</p> <p>“Expresión oral: (...) Los estudiantes comenzarán a desarrollar la expresión oral dando respuestas a lo escuchado con gestos o usando la lengua materna; luego participarán en interacciones controladas y limitadas y apoyadas con imágenes.</p> <p>Progresivamente, podrán intervenir en diálogos en parejas o interactuar con el docente, en grupos o con el curso, desde decir unas pocas palabras o expresiones aprendidas, hasta expresar ideas simples o hacer preguntas relacionadas con algún tema conocido, usando oraciones simples.”</p> <p>“Expresión escrita: La expresión escrita comienza con actividades controladas, como escribir palabras aisladas, completar oraciones o responder preguntas para que los alumnos se habitúen a la escritura en</p>	
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		<p>inglés. Luego podrán escribir textos, ordenando oraciones; el docente los guiará con preguntas, organizadores gráficos o entregándoles un modelo muy simple. (...) En este sentido, se pretende que los textos escritos muestren un progreso lento pero constante a lo largo de las unidades. La forma de lograrlo radica en el proceso de escritura: los alumnos comienzan completando textos y corrigiendo palabras, luego escriben textos breves de acuerdo a un modelo dado por el docente y posteriormente corrigen y recorrigien palabras, estructuras y ortografía en varios pasos.”</p> <p>p. 26 “<i>Orientaciones didácticas para estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales</i> (...) para los estudiantes con dislexia, se recomienda:</p> <p>&gt;&gt; un enfoque más estructurado que haga explícitos los patrones del lenguaje, la construcción de</p>	
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		<p>palabras y la manipulación de sonidos</p> <p>&gt;&gt; un enfoque multisensorial (que involucra múltiples sentidos)”</p> <p>p. 27 “ &gt;&gt;actividades con mínimo uso de la memoria</p> <p>&gt;&gt; técnicas mnemónicas (que permiten recordar) y kinésicas (involucran movimiento)</p> <p>&gt;&gt; estímulos orientados a la metacognición (capacidad de reflexionar sobre los propios procesos de pensamiento y la forma en que cada cual aprende) (...)</p> <p>&gt;&gt; darles espacio para el trabajo individual</p> <p>(...) En general, la enseñanza explícita y sistemática de estrategias y el uso de una combinación de ellas permite mejores resultados a los estudiantes.”</p> <p>“Talento académico: En estos casos, los docentes deben: (...)</p> <p>&gt;&gt;enfocarse en enseñarles</p>	
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			<p>estrategias para aprender en forma independiente:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>&gt;&gt; uso de material de referencia</li> <li>&gt;&gt; herramientas como tablas de verbos, listas de vocabulario y técnicas mnemónicas (de memorización) (...)</li> </ul>	
<p>MONITORING AND ASSESSING (how learning is measured)</p>	<p>p. 19 “La forma de evaluar los OFT y la decisión si ellos serán objetos de calificación o no, depende del OFT del que se trate (...) Lo anterior implica que los instrumentos utilizados para evaluar los OFT deben ser diversos y adecuados al OFT que se busca observar”</p> <p>p.19: “Si bien todos los OFT se pueden evaluar, no todos ellos pueden ser calificados en atención a sus distintas características. A modo de ejemplo, aquellos OFT relacionados con el conocimiento de sí mismo y la autoestima no son calificables, básicamente por el</p>		<p>p. 19 “Otras investigaciones demuestran que los estudiantes sienten menos temor a equivocarse y escriben más y mejor, si se les entrega mayor retroalimentación positiva respecto del contenido de un texto y se presta menos atención a corregir los errores gramaticales. (...) Aquí juega un papel importante entregarles modelos o criterios para que aprendan –al comienzo, junto con el profesor– a identificar errores y usar criterios simples para <u>autoevaluar su trabajo</u>. El docente no debe enfocarse en la corrección de todos los errores, sino sólo de algunos, de acuerdo a los conocimientos que</p>	

	<p>hecho que asignar una nota sobre estos aspectos es cuestionable en sí mismo. Se puede “esperar” que los estudiantes logren determinado nivel de autoconocimiento y autoestima, pero no se puede “exigir” determinado nivel de desarrollo en estas dimensiones. En tanto, los OFT referidos a las habilidades de pensamiento, o bien el referido a “comprender y valorar la perseverancia, el rigor y el cumplimiento (...)” aluden a aspectos que caben dentro de lo que se les puede exigir a los estudiantes al momento de asignar una calificación.”</p>	<p>tenga el estudiante en ese momento. (...) Con la ayuda del docente, además, pueden aprender técnicas para identificar errores (como subrayar, usar signos y abreviaciones) para gradualmente trabajar en forma cada vez más independiente.”</p> <p>p. 23 “en el aprendizaje de un idioma extranjero, es importante que la evaluación sea una experiencia positiva y de aprendizaje para los estudiantes, que dé cuenta de sus logros y habilidades, les permita aprender de sus errores, fomente la interacción con sus pares y la comunicación con el docente y contribuya a fortalecer su autoestima.”</p> <p>“en el contexto comunicativo, la evaluación debe ser válida, contextualizada y significativa para los estudiantes; es decir, tiene que informar sobre de la habilidad de los alumnos de usar el lenguaje para comunicarse en el idioma,</p>	
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		<p>por medio de tareas que se asemejen al uso de la lengua en la vida diaria, y <b>medir lo que realmente se pretende medir de acuerdo a los objetivos de aprendizaje.”</b></p> <p><i>“aunque es práctico aplicar pruebas escritas (en especial las que miden vocabulario o gramática, y particularmente en cursos numerosos), no reflejan del todo la capacidad de los estudiantes de usar el idioma para comunicarse. En consecuencia, es importante que la evaluación se haga por medio de tareas e instrumentos variados (pruebas, presentaciones orales, dramatizaciones, juegos de roles, textos escritos, folletos, maquetas, dibujos, organizadores gráficos, entre otros), que aporten información acerca de los desempeños de los alumnos en diversas situaciones y consideren distintos estilos de aprendizaje. La evaluación debe tener objetivos claros y los estudiantes</i></p>	
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		<p><b>deben saber cuáles son.</b>  Las tareas de evaluación tienen que incluir instrucciones claras y contextualizadas. (...) Asimismo, el docente debe haber definido previamente –mediante rúbricas o pautas de evaluación– las posibles respuestas que espera de los estudiantes.”</p> <p>p. 24 “Las pruebas escritas, si bien no reflejan el uso real del idioma, pueden ser comunicativas y contextualizadas si contemplan los siguientes factores:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>&gt;&gt; incluir textos para la comprensión oral o lectora acerca de temas significativos e interesantes para los estudiantes</li> <li>&gt;&gt; combinar preguntas de respuesta cerrada (alternativas, completar palabras, frases u oraciones) y abierta (responder sin restricciones, describir una imagen)</li> <li>&gt;&gt; integrar diferentes habilidades; por ejemplo:</li> </ul>	
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		<p>incluir comprensión oral y de lectura y luego escribir acerca de lo escuchado o leído</p> <p>&gt;&gt; incluir tareas auténticas y contextualizadas mediante preguntas aplicadas a la vida diaria de los estudiantes</p> <p>&gt;&gt; ofrecer la posibilidad de elegir entre dos tareas; por ejemplo: dar dos alternativas de expresión escrita</p> <p>&gt;&gt; dar retroalimentación acerca de los resultados para que los alumnos aprendan de sus errores y sugerir estrategias para mejorar.”</p> <p>“Algunas alternativas para evaluar son: Rúbricas (...), Portafolio (...), Entrevistas (...), Observaciones (...), Autoevaluación y coevaluación (... ejemplos)”</p> <p>p. 25 “En cuanto a la evaluación de las cuatro habilidades del idioma, a</p>	
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		<p>continuación se ofrecen algunas orientaciones específicas para cada una de ellas: <i>comprensión oral</i>, se recomienda que los estudiantes tengan la posibilidad de escuchar el texto tres veces si es necesario. (...) Al evaluar la comprensión oral, no debe corregirse ortografía ni gramática; el docente puede aceptar errores si no interfieren en la comprensión del mensaje o de la palabra. Sin embargo, es importante que el profesor indique estos errores a los estudiantes.</p> <p><i>comprensión de lectura:</i>          (...) Al evaluar comprensión de lectura, el docente podrá adjuntar un glosario si cree que el texto contiene algún vocabulario que desconocen y que es clave para entender el mensaje. Al igual</p> <p>que en la evaluación de la comprensión oral, el profesor puede aceptar errores de ortografía y gramática al evaluar la comprensión de lectura, siempre que no interfieran con la comprensión del mensaje o la palabra.”</p>	
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			<p>p. 26 “<i>expresión oral</i>: en una presentación, exposición de algún tema o dramatización, <b>es importante que el docente especifique con anterioridad a los estudiantes cuáles son los objetivos de la evaluación y qué es exactamente lo que se espera de ellos.</b> Asimismo, se les debe dar a conocer en forma anticipada la rúbrica con la que serán evaluados, para que tengan la posibilidad de prepararse considerando los criterios a evaluar. El profesor no debe corregir la pronunciación del alumno hasta que termine la presentación o el diálogo, ya que esto lo distrae del objetivo de comunicar un mensaje. <i>expresión escrita</i>: puede evaluarse al principio mediante tareas simples y controladas como el trazado de palabras, la copia, el dictado, completar oraciones, el deletreo, el uso del vocabulario en oraciones, la descripción de imágenes por medio de oraciones, para luego pasar a tareas menos controladas</p>	
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		<p>como responder preguntas o escribir párrafos breves de acuerdo a un patrón. Es importante ir avanzando en las evaluaciones para que los alumnos logren usar el idioma de modo más independiente y creativo; además, hay que guiarlos y apoyarlos en su producción escrita.”</p> <p>p. 28 “Orientaciones didácticas para estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales. (...) En cuanto a la evaluación, se recomienda hacerlo en forma personalizada, en temas limitados y focalizándose más bien en los estándares de desempeño que puedan alcanzar en un momento dado antes que en su habilidad para recordar y retener estructuras. (...) Se recomienda evaluarlos en algunas habilidades y no en todas, según las dificultades que presenten. Asimismo, se debe aprovechar los temas culturales para que los comparen y contrasten con su propia cultura; ir de lo</p>	
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			conocido a lo desconocido; usar experiencias cercanas, utilizar material concreto relacionado con otras culturas y clasificarlo. El énfasis debe estar en lo que los estudiantes sean capaces de hacer y no en lo que no son capaces de lograr.”	
EVALUATION (goals reached/ e. factors/ learners’ needs)		x		x

#### INSTRUMENT BASED ON ROMAINE (1999)

1- What of the following types of childhood bilingualism is present (if there is one) in the programs ?

- a. One-person-one-language
- b. Non-dominant home language/ One-language-one-environment
- c. Non-dominant home language without community support
- d. Double non-dominant home language without community support
- e. Non-native parents
- f. Mixed language

MAPUDUNGUN: There are two implicit assumptions:

“Los programas de estudio de lengua indígena elaborados por el Ministerio de Educación, han sido diseñados considerando que es posible observar al menos tres realidades diferentes de acceso a la lengua indígena: los niños y niñas que tienen como lengua materna o familiar uno de estos cuatro idiomas; otros, que escuchan la lengua indígena solamente en el entorno social, sobretodo en aquellas zonas donde estos idiomas comparten espacio lingüístico con el castellano.

Así mismo, es una realidad que algunos niños y niñas solamente tienen la oportunidad de escuchar el idioma indígena impartido en la escuela.” (Loncon, 2011, p. 4)

1. At least one parent is native speaker of Mapudungun (and they use it at home as everyday language) therefore non-dominant home language without community support type is present here.
2. Both parents are native speakers of Spanish and the only place where Mapudungun is heard is school, so non-native parent type is applied here.
3. Both parents are native speakers of Spanish and the only place where Mapudungun is heard (besides school) are cultural manifestations. So, non-native parents' type is applied here too.

It is important to mention that in all possible environments considered within the program, Mapudungun is seen not as a second language but as a foreign language mainly used for ceremonies and highly cultural/folkloric activities and not as an everyday use language.

Additionally, they talk about additive bilingualism, but it is not clear whether it is for Spanish as a dominant language of Mapudungun as a non-dominant/lower status language highly associated to folkloric activities.

ENGLISH:

The type of bilingualism presented by Romaine that can best describe the situation regarding English in Chile is type 5, non-native parents in which both parents and the community speak the same language. There is another characteristic of this type of bilingualism, one of the parents addresses the child in the foreign language; in this case does not apply.

2- Which scenario (if there is a clear one), regarding discernible stages in bilingual acquisition, is present in the program?

The scenario number 4: The two languages develop differently with respect to different types of constructions and categories ( ...Then again, why the evaluate something supposed to be that different in the same ways Spanish is being assessed , considering children already know Spanish as a mother tongue.

Key terms: Independent development, comparison delaying acquisition, preference and dependence, difference at all.

3- Is assessment developed as if children were two monolinguals in one? <sup>53</sup>

There are no discernible patterns for evaluations

INSTRUMENT BASED ON GEERAERTS (2003):

	The rationalist model	The romantic model
linguistic-philosophical	language as a medium of	language as a medium of

<sup>53</sup> Arnberg and Arnberg (1992) attribute differences in awareness primarily to social factors, such as patterns of exposure

basis	communication	expression
conception of standardization	a democratic ideal: standard language as a neutral medium of social participation	anti-ideological criticism: standard language as a medium of social exclusion
conception of language variation	language variation as an impediment to emancipation	language variation as expressing different identities

(Geeraerts, 2003, p.16)

1) linguistic-philosophical basis:

a) Rationalist: medium of communication

b) Romantic: medium of expression

MAPUDUNGUN: Within the Mapudungun program, language is seen as a medium of expression and this is supported by the following quotations:

“Chile es un país multicultural y plurilingüe, en el cual convergen una diversidad de culturas y sistemas lingüísticos, lo que impone el desafío de convertir la escuela en un espacio educativo en el cual se asegure a los niños y niñas de idiomas y culturas diferentes, el acceso a oportunidades de aprendizaje de las lenguas indígenas, de modo sistemático y pertinente a su realidad.” (Loncon, 2011, p.1)

“En este sentido, la educación intercultural es el enfoque educativo que tiene como finalidad rescatar y valorar las diferencias existentes entre los grupos culturalmente diversos, y en donde las lenguas y culturas específicas adquieren gran relevancia ya que busca el reconocimiento mutuo entre ellas.” (Loncon, 2011, p.3)

“Esta misma ley, a través de los artículos 28 y 32, propicia la importancia del respeto y promoción de las culturas indígenas para lo cual establece: “el uso y conservación de los idiomas indígenas, junto al español en las áreas de alta densidad indígena”” (Loncon, 2011, p.4)

“los niños y niñas, al ser bilingües poseen acceso a dos sistemas de códigos o formas de representación de la realidad que no se confunden entre sí. La cohabitación de ambos códigos



les aporta herramientas para entender creativamente el mundo en que viven” (Loncon, 2011, p.4)

“Por lo que hay una relación constante entre lengua y cultura. Lo que se manifiesta en la forma de expresión del tiempo, espacio, parentesco, armonía entre pares, y muchos otros aspectos de un idioma.” (Loncon, 2011, p.4)

“la aproximación a la cultura, ya que desde el aprendizaje del idioma se pueden aprender aspectos fundamentales de una cultura” (Loncon, 2011, p.7)

ENGLISH: In the case of English, we can observe the rationalist conception of language in which it is seen as a tool for democratic communication an access to different kinds of knowledge. They say, for example:

“El aprendizaje del idioma inglés constituye un área fundamental en el currículo debido a su relevancia como medio de acceso a diversos ámbitos del conocimiento y a su carácter de idioma global de comunicación” (Besa, 2012, p.5)

“En nuestro país, el aprendizaje del inglés ha adquirido una relevancia creciente debido a nuestra inserción en el proceso de globalización. Dicho proceso está asociado a un amplio uso mundial de ese idioma en los ámbitos científico, económico, tecnológico y académico, entre otros. En consecuencia, la habilidad de comunicarse en este idioma facilita la posibilidad de involucrarse en las dinámicas propias de la globalización, enfrentar sus desafíos y beneficiarse de sus aportes.” (Besa, 2012, p.5)

“Al desarrollar las habilidades de comunicación del idioma inglés, nuestros estudiantes tendrán la posibilidad de adquirir las herramientas necesarias para acceder a la información y participar en situaciones comunicativas de esta lengua” (Besa, 2012, p.5)

2. What posture about standard languages in an interlinguistic context shows each program?

a) Standard language a neutral medium for democratic participation and access to a large number of areas of knowledge

b) Standard language as a medium for social exclusion and oppression that threatens diversity of language and therefore of cultures.

R: As it was shown before in the previous answer's quotes, the English curriculum shows the rationalist position in which standard language is conceived as a democratic tool that permits the access to a great number of areas of knowledge and democratic participation in different processes. Whereas, the Mapudungun program considers it a medium of exclusion that threatens diversity. This is shown in the quotes below:

“De allí que esta propuesta adquiera relevancia, sobre todo en tiempos de globalización ya que abre oportunidades infinitas de interacción con diversos pueblos y culturas, lo que supone reconocer el requerimiento de contar con un proyecto político global que permita el diálogo armónico de esas diferencias” (Loncon, 2011, p.3). Here, Spanish is seen as an oppressive language and it is asserted that it is necessary to recognize Mapuche culture -that has been in a lower status- and its language.

“Los programas proponen el uso de nuevas tecnologías en la revitalización de las lenguas indígenas y este aspecto tiene muchas ventajas, ya que otorga mayor estatus social a la lengua y la incluye en los medios tecnológicos modernos.” (Loncon, 2011, p.12)

“Más allá de asumir y reconocer la coexistencia de culturas distintas en un mismo estado nación, lo que se busca es “perfeccionar el concepto de ciudadanía con el fin de añadir a los derechos ya consagrados de libertad e igualdad ante la ley, el del reconocimiento de los derechos culturales de los pueblos, culturas y grupos étnicos que conviven dentro de las fronteras de las naciones-Estado”. (Fuller Norma, 2002)” (Loncón, 2011, p.3)