



UNIVERSIDAD METROPOLITANA DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN
FACULTAD DE HISTORIA, GEOGRAFÍA Y LETRAS
DEPARTAMENTO DE INGLÉS

REFLECTIVE THINKING THROUGH EFL TEACHING IN CHILE: A VIEW ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF
SOCALLY AWARE CITIZENS BY MEANS OF ENGLISH LEARNING AND TEACHING

SEMINARIO PARA OPTAR AL TÍTULO DE PROFESOR DE INGLÉS

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SANTIAGO DE CHILE, NOVIEMBRE 2017



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Yessenia Alejandra Cáceres Gutiérrez

*To my parents, for encouraging my strengths.
To my sister, my eternal partner, who despite my weaknesses trusted me.
To my beloved ones, who daily helped me become who I am.*

Felipe Antonio Maulén Céspedes

Ta'ni reñma, ta'ni pu wenüy, ka Romina: mañumeyu tami piwkeyenefiel mew, tūfachi kūzaw.

Leyla Viviana de Jesús Oliveros Concha

*Dedico esta tesis a mi esposo, mi madre y mis amigos por brindarme su apoyo incondicional durante todo mi proceso universitario y de tesis. Son lo más importante en mi vida y gracias por no dejarme bajar los brazos en los momentos más críticos durante estos años.
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*Para mi familia y amigos,
además para quienes nos acompañaron en este proceso desde su principio hasta su final.*

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*A mi familia, en especial a mi abuelo,
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David Alejandro Rubio Blanco

*A mis padres, por avivar este fuego cuando pudieron y como pudieron.
A mí mismo, por mantener este fuego ardiendo.*

Marcelo Ignacio Salvatierra Codocedo

*A mis padres por creer, y a toda la gente que he querido en este antes y después.
Finalmente, a Claudia por ser la compañía de este "final step".*

Romina Angélica Silva Rodríguez

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quienes me han acompañado y guiado desde los primeros pasos y han hecho de mí la persona que hoy soy.
A los mismos y a las inquietudes y ambiciones que han aportado día a día
a formar la profesional que nace hoy.*

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	vii
Introduction	1
I. Reflective Thinking-Oriented Teaching: a qualitative paradigm	3
II. Research Objectives & Justification	6
III. Research Questions	11
IV. English for the Masses: A theoretical framework	12
1. ENGLISH FOR ALL	13
1.1 English in the past and present (Politics, Economy, and Culture)	13
1.2 From second language to lingua franca	16
1.3 The spread of EIL	19
2. ENGLISH TEACHING	22
2.1 Global tendencies: Globalisation, Internationalisation and Pedagogy	23
2.2 English as a Second, as a Foreign, and as International Language	25
2.3 From Grammar to Communication	28
3. ENGLISH FOR ALL? SOME CONSIDERATIONS	30
3.1 English for English speakers	31
3.2 English for non-English speakers	33
3.3 Beyond English	36
4. CRITICAL ENGLISH	39
4.1 The Sociolinguistics of English	39
4.2 Critical thinking and Conscious-oriented teaching	42
4.3 English as agent of change: a view on teachers and students	46
5. THE CHILEAN REALITY	49
5.1 Research in Chile	50
5.2 About the FGT & the OSEPP	52
5.3 English in Chile: Why?	58
V. Methodology	61
Methodological justification.....	61
Sampling Procedure and Instrument	63
Candidates	65
Instrument	66
Data collection and analysis	68
Coding for data analysis	69

VI. Results and Discussion.....	71
Research results	71
English in general	71
Reflective Thinking	72
FGT and OSEPP	73
English teaching	73
Categories	74
Category analysis	75
Category n°1: Interest in English	75
Category n°2: Difference between English/other languages teaching..	78
Category n°3: Reflective thinking	81
Category n°4: English teaching/learning for social awareness.....	85
Category n°5: OSEPP & FGT.....	90
Category n°6: English language.....	96
Discussion	99
VII. Conclusions & Projection.....	105
Projection	109
Main Conclusion	112
References	118
Bibliography	135
Appendix	138

ABSTRACT

The following study aims to explore English teachers' perceptions regarding the development of reflective and socially-conscious citizens by means of EFL teaching in Chile. Considering the complexity of delving into English teachers' experiences, researchers have based this research on a constructivist point of view, in order to attain in-depth data and thoroughly analyse their contribution.

Data was collected by using a semi-structured interview which comprised five EFL teachers' testimonies. The teachers who took part in the study were chosen from different workplaces and contexts within Santiago de Chile, including secondary and university education. The interview was designed in order to question the teachers' role when encouraging socially conscious individuals, English teachers' contribution to achieving this goal, and the way the national educational standards and teaching programmes foster this process.

The obtained results were categorised and analysed according to the most relevant topics mentioned by the participants. Findings have evinced that EFL teachers play a key role when forming future citizens, showing that English teaching does impact on the development of social consciousness and reflective thinking in EFL students.

Keywords: Reflective thinking, EFL, education, teaching experiences.

Resumen

El siguiente estudio busca explorar la percepción de los profesores de inglés respecto a sus experiencias y visiones en la formación de ciudadanos socialmente conscientes y reflexivos a través de la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera en Chile. Considerando

la complejidad de describir la experiencia de los profesores de inglés, los autores hemos orientado este trabajo desde un paradigma constructivista, con el fin de analizar profundamente sus contribuciones a la investigación.

La información fue recogida a través de una entrevista semi-estructurada que reunió los testimonios de cinco profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera (EFL), provenientes de diferentes contextos y lugares de trabajo dentro de Santiago, incluyendo el sistema escolar y la educación superior. Hemos utilizado dicho instrumento con el fin de cuestionar el papel que los docentes emplean al momento de formar individuos socialmente conscientes y reflexivos, su contribución para con el logro de este objetivo, y la forma en que los estándares y programas nacionales de educación fomentan dicho proceso.

Los resultados obtenidos fueron categorizados y analizados en base a los temas mencionados más relevantes. Los hallazgos han demostrado que los profesores de inglés juegan un rol clave a la hora de formar a los ciudadanos del mañana, evidenciando que la enseñanza del inglés tiene un gran impacto en el desarrollo de la conciencia social y el pensamiento reflexivo en los estudiantes de inglés como lengua extranjera.

Palabras clave: Pensamiento reflexivo, EFL, Educación, Experiencia docente.

INTRODUCTION

The teaching of English in Chile has been a subject of academic study over at least twenty years, but has only been researched with special attention during the last decade. This has probably been motivated by the relatively recent focus that public policies have set on the teaching of the language at schools, including the intention to lead Chile towards bilingualism (Spanish and English) by the year 2030, according to the National English Strategy 2014-2030 posed during the government of Sebastian Piñera (MINEDUC et al., 2014). Notable among these recent studies are examples such as Barahona (2014), who explores English teaching in Chile from the point of view of the perceptions of newly qualified teachers before and after their placement experiences, and Abrahams and Farías (2010), whose work resulted in a proposal aimed at refocusing English teaching programmes from their current approach (a grammar-centred curriculum) to being imparted as a means for social transformation. However, none of these studies touches on the direct opinions and views of (experienced) English teachers regarding the teaching of the language as a means for the development of reflective and critical thinking in schools. It seems that there has not been much emphasis on the research of the development of these important thinking skills in the English classroom in Chile. This topic is precisely the void that the authors of this study intend to fill, as there is still room for exploration in the national context regarding this issue.

Reflective thinking is a vital skill for the development of critical reasoning, necessary in the process of educating the citizens of tomorrow to be actively involved in society's current issues. That is to say, to form individuals with an opinion and attitudes which help contribute towards changing the culture of Chilean society for the better. While both reflective and critical thinking skills should be a central part of our schools' programmes, EFL teaching ought to include the development of these skills in its curriculum and play its role as a contributor to this formative process, instead of dealing purely with grammatical contents and communicational purposes.

The intention of this study is to explore and characterise English teachers' perceptions regarding their contribution to the development of socially conscious and reflective citizens through EFL teaching in Chile. For this, it has been regarded as necessary to collect and explore EFL teachers' experiences and understanding about the matter, considering the framework in which English is currently being taught in this country, and to identify how these teachers perceive their role in the development of reflective and socially aware citizens.

The chosen instrument for the gathering of these perceptions and experiences is interviews conducted by the research team with a selected range of EFL teachers currently working at secondary and university education centres.

The following document displays the investigation carried out, the information obtained from the conducted interviews, and the subsequent results and conclusions developed by the researchers.

It is our hope that both pre-service teachers as well as teachers in activity find this study relevant and useful as it addresses the very nature of the teaching experience, that is, the encouragement of the students' own capacities to reflect about the world and the reality laid before them. As this is core to our understanding of what teaching –and Education- is, accounting for up to what level our field of study – that is to say English – plays a role in that setting, turns out to be not only necessary but fundamental.

I

REFLECTIVE THINKING-ORIENTED TEACHING: A QUALITATIVE PARADIGM

Education is a matter of discussion, not a static concept that can be quantified. This is due to its ability to move in several directions, deriving into different theories and movements that have tried to enclose it into a specific field, as behaviouristic, constructivist, and humanistic theories have attempted since they were developed (Doolittle & Camp, 1999). However, as plenty of interpretations have been carried out throughout history, it is hard to talk about one type of education or one way of teaching only, in the same way that it is hard to talk about just one function for it. Perhaps, this is due to its experience-based nature, as teaching is basically a subjective activity carried out in an organised way (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 5). As stated by Freeman (1998, p. 10), experience is the only real reference point teachers share: experiences as students that influence their views of teaching, experiences in professional preparation, experiences as members of society. We can approach education as a representation of life itself as well, one in which there might be vested intentions to develop it into an ideology, even when education is meant to engender reflective thinking in students (Kaplun, as quoted by Tornero et al., 2000). In line with this, specifically at UMCE, one of the oldest Universities focused on teacher training in Chile, one of the most pronounced discourses is related to the improvement of the educational system, so that the national reality might be transformed for future generations for the sake of creating a better world, an ideal one (*Visión y Misión UMCE*, 2017, own translation).

Given this complexity, and aiming at delving into the field of English teaching in Chile, we as a group have decided to develop our research based on a constructivist point of view (also known as interpretative paradigm) (Schwandt, 1994), in the understanding that it implies a way of observing and interpreting reality that allows going beyond in terms of results and further conclusions. Mackenzie and Kipe (2006) describe Constructivism as dealing with how humanity socially builds reality, a key starting point as we are advocating ourselves to watch what is happening regarding Education outside our university walls and

abroad, a field of knowledge, as previously said, not easy to be framed or quantified. This is particularly highlighted by the constructivist premise that participants are fundamental in the construction of knowledge, as they carry the information or the truth, according to who may interpret it (Creswell, as quoted by Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). As language has been a tool used by humans to express and share ideas and knowledge since the beginning of human history, any attempt to quantify language or the ideas it conveys may lead to enclosing the information and/or to misinterpreting it. By means of the constructivist framework, we may interpret these ideas, this information, to show and teach what is happening outside, in the actual educational process, in the development of socially conscious individuals. In order to do this, the main objective of the present research has been defined around two key actions that serve as axes: to explore and to characterise. According to the Cambridge Dictionary Online (2017), to explore means “to search and discover about something”, while to characterise means “to describe something by stating its main qualities”. The first concept mentioned is considered a primary directive in this research due to our intention of seeing reality as it unfolds naturally, from a more inductive rationale. The second concept outlined implies our aim of categorising the obtained results, in the pursuit of attaining, by means of the participants' contribution, answers to our research questions and fulfilling, in the process, this work's main and secondary objectives.

In the understanding that this requires further analysis on our behalf, and accounting for English as an important element in the development of reflective thinking and integral people given its current place as *the* global language (Crystal, 2012), we have chosen the interpretative paradigm as it appears to be the more suitable option for shedding light on the matter. Moreover, being English teachers in a system in which this global language has been mainly used for increasing employability and, as a result, people's quality of life (Barrientos & Conejeros, 2012), this study stands out as a highly relevant topic of discussion, as it highlights the contradiction between what education is really about and what it is actually meant to be. The latter, in Vadeboncoeur's words (1997, p. 15), regards education as a vehicle for the transformation of individuals into reflective thinkers whose will is to act democratically, an aspect not being necessarily put into practice nowadays in regard to English teaching. This is

stressed when we consider that, according to Logan (quoted by Barrientos & Conejeros, 2012); one common way to carry it out is through the use of booklets, textbooks, and similar, leaving aside the opportunity to empower students through the actual use of the language.

As stated above, interpretative research means entering into a world of discussion. It also means to look for different instances, using methodologies such as interviews and conversations, among others, to achieve knowledge related to the goals of this study. As Mackey and M. Gass (2005) point out, the qualitative method tends to be used by second language researchers for its elements and techniques. Therefore, qualitative methods and an interpretative paradigm are good complements to study a complex situation related to English teaching regarding its influence on the development of reflective thinking. As it is difficult to analyse language effects, because they cannot be quantified directly and there are several processes involved, we consider more valuable to interpret the results than merely listing and numbering them.

As mentioned by Macedo et al. (2005), language is used by different minds. Consequently, we as researchers cannot trust only one reference or voice. This aspect encourages us to consider all the relevant information available for our research, even what might usually be left aside by other researchers given its more subjective-oriented nature. This is an option we can take given the more constructivist approach we have already outlined, as it allows us to fulfil both our research intentions as well as the present work's main objectives.

II

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES & JUSTIFICATION

Main objective:

- To explore and characterise English teachers' perceptions regarding their contribution in the development of socially conscious and reflective citizens through EFL teaching in Chile.

Specific objectives:

- To explore the experiences of national EFL teachers in order to interpret their understanding of the current situation of English teaching in Chile.
- To document the level of understanding of Chilean EFL teachers regarding the Framework for Good Teaching and the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes.
- To identify how these teachers perceive their role in the development of socially conscious and reflective individuals.

As if to demonstrate the complexity of the concept, there are many definitions for *quality education*. Still, an aspect that is mandatory for any quality education to be regarded as such is that it must aim to develop skills and attitudes in people for a positive participation in society (UNICEF, 2002, p. 4). Through education, the community is able to transmit its culture and people can develop their capacities to participate actively in society; thanks to education people are capable of transformation (Comité Asesor del Diálogo Nacional sobre la Modernización de la Educación Chilena, 1994, p. 21). In other words, we need quality

education to develop socially conscious individuals for the progress of our society. Social consciousness implies understanding the importance of our own and other people's roles in society. Schlitz et al. (2010) define it as,

“Social consciousness refers to the level of explicit awareness a person has of being part of a larger whole. It includes the level at which one is aware of how he or she is influenced by others, as well as how his or her actions may affect others.” (p. 21)

Through interaction, people create their worldviews, how they see themselves and their role in the community that surrounds them and beyond. Throughout our lives, we interact with people whose ideas and worldviews influence us at such level that they are capable of transforming our perception of ourselves and our role in the world around us. Among the most important people that we interact with are our teachers. They play a major role influencing the worldviews of their students; with their teaching, they help to develop the social consciousness on their students.

As we have been discussing, education is a complex concept. It is a social process with multiple layers whose final purpose is to educate socially conscious individuals, who at every stage of their lives will contribute towards making a better society. As mentioned before, teachers play an important role in achieving this goal; they are the ones in charge of providing students with the necessary tools for developing their reflective thinking. To accomplish these matters, millions of people have been trained through history with the same goal, to form reflective citizens who may change or improve what exists. In our country, a study carried out by the Ministry of Education together with the University of Chile, concluded that the most frequent motives provided as justification by teachers to get enrolled in a pedagogy programme were that they liked teaching children and youngsters (57%), and that education played the most important function in society (56%) (Bravo et al., 2006, p. 64). For instance, according to González (2011, p. 48), 39% of first year Pedagogy students at University of Concepción chose this kind of programme because they *liked teaching*. We can try to extrapolate the results of both investigations and extend them to a national reality; people enrol in Pedagogy programmes with the intention to participate in

the development of a socially-aware society. Narrowing the scope, this research may help reveal if this is the actual reality or intention when it comes to English teaching in Chile.

Contrary to González's results, the reality of pre-service teachers who enrolled into TEFL programmes is more related to learning the language than to teaching it. "Pre-service teachers' reasons for enrolling into the TEFL programme reflected that learning English was their most important motive. They were interested in learning the language above all. Few who enrolled in the programme were interested in being educators" (Barahona, 2014, p. 117).

Undoubtedly, there is a clash between the main reasons for enrolling on Pedagogy programmes; while most of the students chose this degree because they liked teaching (Bravo et al., 2006; González, 2011), it seems that EFL students study English mainly to learn the actual language (Barahona, 2014). This aspect leads us to question if EFL teachers, the subjects of interest in our study, consider themselves to have an important role as educators. Despite teaching not being their prime motivation to enrol into a TEFL programme among Chilean students, we know that teachers, and ourselves as pre-service teachers, are part of the development of socially conscious individuals. We want to know if these ideas of contributing to the development of reflective individuals are present in Chilean EFL teachers, we want to know if they feel that their work makes an impact in the progress of our society.

In our country, the preparation of English teachers started in the year 1890 in the Instituto Pedagógico of the University of Chile (nowadays known as Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación). This institution was the first one to offer a programme aimed at training English teachers for the national system (Departamento de Inglés – Antecedentes Históricos available in the official site, n,d). Later on, in 1919, the University of Concepción was founded, consequently another important institution for the preparation of English teachers was present (British Council, 2012, p. 10). As time went by, several universities created their Faculty of Education offering different TEFL programmes (2012, p. 11). Nowadays, there are 36 universities that provide varied TEFL programmes: teaching English for pre-schoolers, primary and secondary students (one programme); EFL

teachers for primary and secondary education (eight programmes); TEFL for primary education (two programmes); TEFL for secondary education (nine programmes); and 18 programmes that are unspecific (2012, p. 12). Although every institution has the free choice to create their vision, mission and curricula, there are basic and general aspects that every English teacher should learn during their teaching training process at the university, and should be able to put them into practice during their professional lives.

To regulate these aspects, the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes (OSEPP) were designed by the MINEDUC in 2013. The main objective of these standards is to regulate what every English teacher should know and be able to do to be considered competent (MINEDUC, 2014, p. 7). The document presents two main categories, disciplinary and pedagogical standards, which are sub-categorised into ten standards each one. Among the disciplinary standards we can find that a future English teacher must “understand the importance of the students' comprehension skills of oral, written and multimodal texts” or “understand the importance of cultural diversity” (2014, pp. 15-16). Regarding the pedagogical standards, some of the criteria that a future English teacher must achieve are “to be prepared to promote personal and social development among students” and “to be prepared to acknowledge and integrate diversity in the classroom” (2014, p. 18).

Another document that regulates the performance of teachers is The Framework for Good Teaching (FGT) (*Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*). This instrument was elaborated by the Ministry of Education, and its main goal is “...represent all the responsibilities of a teacher in the development of their daily work, both in the classroom and in the school and community, which contribute significantly to the success of a teacher with their students” (MINEDUC, 2008, p. 7). The FGT attempts to answer some questions related to essential aspects of the teaching exercise: What does a teacher need to know? What does a teacher need to know how to do? How well must the teacher's pedagogical labour be done? How well is it being done? The FGT is gathered into four domains that follow the cycle of teaching-learning process: teaching preparation (domain A), creation of an appropriate environment for learning (domain B), teaching for the learning of all the students (domain C), and professional responsibilities (domain D). Each domain has its own set of criteria that

describes the performative characteristics every teacher should be proficient in (2008, p. 11).

The Framework for Good Teaching and the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes provide guidelines for what a teacher should know and how to implement it during his or her lessons. Having said this, it is our aim to find out if EFL teachers feel that these documents may interfere, hinder or foster in any way the process of forming socially conscious citizens.

Our study is focused on teachers' beliefs because, as abovementioned, they are the ones in charge of education, the ones who prepare people to face the world as human beings aware of their role in society. In addition to this, we want to research different generations of teachers that may show us if there is a difference or similarity between paradigms; how the subject was taught before and how it is being taught nowadays, if possible. As Barr and Tagg (1995) put it, the old paradigm was related to consider universities and educational institutions as merely centres to provide instruction; nonetheless, nowadays these educational institutions are seen as centres in which students go for learning and turning themselves into socially conscious individuals. As this is very important in the development of this research, by entering the system itself, we would interpret if the current educational paradigm is helping teachers, if they received enough tools to know if they think reflectively for themselves in the first place, and then, if they are faithful to the main goal of education.

III

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on all the given information, we have come up with the following research questions that will lead our project:

- What is the role Chilean EFL teachers give to their performance regarding the development of socially conscious individuals?
- How do Chilean EFL teachers consider they contribute to the development of socially conscious individuals?
- In which ways may the Framework for Good Teaching and the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes foster the process of forming socially conscious citizens by Chilean EFL teachers?

IV
ENGLISH FOR THE MASSES:
A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1. ENGLISH FOR ALL

- 1.1 English in the past and present (Politics, Economy, and Culture)
- 1.2 From second language to lingua franca
- 1.3 The spread of EIL

2. ENGLISH TEACHING

- 2.1 Global tendencies: Globalisation, Internationalisation and Pedagogy
- 2.2 English as a Second, as a Foreign, and as International Language
- 2.3 From Grammar to Communication

3. ENGLISH FOR ALL? SOME CONSIDERATIONS

- 3.1 English for English speakers
- 3.2 English for non-English speakers
- 3.3 Beyond English

4. CRITICAL ENGLISH

- 4.1 The Sociolinguistics of English
- 4.2 Critical thinking and Conscious-oriented teaching
- 4.3 English as agent of change: a view on teachers and students

5. THE CHILEAN REALITY

- 5.1 Research in Chile
- 5.2 About the FGT & the OSEPP
- 5.3 English in Chile: Why?

1. ENGLISH FOR ALL

According to the British Council, English is the dominant international language of the 21st century. It is spoken at a useful level by about 1.75 billion people – a quarter of the world's population (Robson, 2013). Nevertheless, this situation only appeared into focus of study in the second half of the 20th century. Before that, a genuinely global vision of English was full of uncertainties. Even though this language has a complex structure in terms of phonetics, grammar and syntax (Crystal, 1999); one must be aware that the reason why the English language is spreading more and more around the world is not only one. Throughout the years, a series of events have helped English to become one of the most spoken languages in the world, followed closely by Mandarin with 1 billion speakers globally (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2010).

1.1 ENGLISH IN THE PAST AND PRESENT (POLITICS, ECONOMY, AND CULTURE)

To begin with, it is necessary to clearly clarify what gives a language a worldwide status. According to David Crystal, a language achieves the global aspect when it has an important role which is recognised in every country (Crystal, 1999). We already know that in the case of USA, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, Trinidad and Tobago and some other Caribbean countries, English is spoken as First Language due to the fact that they were at some point British colonies, and some of them are still part of the Commonwealth (Crystal, 1999, p. 1). However, having a mother-tongue majority does not give the global aspect to a language, because if that were the case, Chinese - which is the most spoken first language in the world (Joshua Project, 2014) - would have already become an international language. Consequently, the importance of a language may be traced according to two conditions: first, the language is official (or semi-official) in a country in order to be used as a communicational bridge in matters of government, education, laws, etc. That is the case of Ghana, Nigeria, Singapore, among other countries that have English as an official language in their language policies. Second, the language is part of the Foreign Language teaching

policies of a given country, meaning that students are most likely to be taught that language at school, as it is the case in Argentina, Costa Rica, and Chile, among other 100 countries in the world (Crystal, 1999).

As mentioned before, throughout history English has gained an enormous amount of power around the world. Economics, politics, and culture itself are some of the different study fields and human activities that, being closely intertwined with language, have witnessed this power. Even though it is quite difficult to separate language from the above mentioned aspects, we may attempt to provide some facts in order to analyse them more clearly in terms of their impact. The British civilisation was mainly spread from the 17th to the 19th century; colonisation at the time meant power for countries, as the United Kingdom, Spain, and France had been competing to demonstrate which was, economically and territorially speaking, the strongest country for approximately two centuries. Later on, and with the Independence of the United States of America in 1776, it was not only the British culture the one which started to spread but also the North-American. In the same line, throughout the years, English-speaking culture has been gaining its place thanks to the press and media. According to Crystal (1999), the English language has been essential in press media for nearly 400 years, particularly from the 19th century onward, since the arrival of new printing, mass production and transportation technologies, as well as the invention of the telegraph. All this increased the production from 400 daily newspapers in 1850, to 2000 by the turn of the century. Media censorship in the non-English-speaking European countries during the World Wars (1914-18 and 1939-45) also played an important role by giving advantage to English Speaking countries. In the USA, Pennsylvania started its first radio broadcasting in 1920, two years after the British Broadcasting Company (BBC) was established in the UK. Having the state of the art technology, which led to a fast expansion of the media, broadcasting in English began to spread rapidly to other countries. Further on, television would almost completely take over the place radio once had. Finally, after WWI, the American film industry had its climax when Hollywood became a reality in 1915, resulting in English becoming the default language in cinema as well (Crystal, 1997, as quoted in Back, 2014, p. 27).

Around the beginning of the twentieth century, advertising was also having its peak. According to Crystal (1999), a combination of social and economic factors led to a dramatic increase of advertising in the most industrialised countries, which meant that in order to work with mass production technology, knowing English was crucial. In the case of the US, almost two-thirds of the newspapers were made up by adverts, the use of slogan was the trend in the 19th century, and brands such as Coca-Cola, Kodak and Kellogg's started to gain recognition. In addition, posters, electronic displays, billboards, shop signs and other means of communication began to be used to address people, and thanks to the prosperity of international markets, all the techniques mentioned above began to be exported, making them even more noticeable (Crystal, 1999). Nowadays, thanks to the Internet, the English language has expanded its influence, and 80% of the search engines on the World Wide Web are in English (1999, p. 3). In addition, it is important to highlight that the first Internet attempt began with the APARNET (The Advanced Research Projects Network) in the late 1960s, which began as a national decentralised network, of course, in English.

Regarding Economic Power, Great Britain was the world's leading industrial and trading nation for at least two centuries (Crystal, 1999). Most of the Technology in the Industrial Revolution was from Britain, increasing its national production mainly because of the revolutionary steam technology. Due to the wars, the mining and textile industry grew in the UK, and the economic collapse produced by the Oil Depression in the USA helped to sustain Britain's stability (Crystal, 1999). At the beginning of the 19th century, the USA and the UK saw the growth of international banking. Both countries together were investing around US\$10 billion abroad – three times as much as France and four times as much as Germany - making New York and London the investment capitals of the world (Back, 2014, p. 27).

Politics had been obviously affected by the aforementioned facts. Given the relevant position reached by the US and Britain, English started to play a vital role in internal and external relationships with other countries. The legacy carried over the 20th century from the times of colonisation could be perceived in present day international organisations. The first one was The League of Nations, which had two official languages functioning: English and French. Even though all documents were printed in both, the former was more used than the

latter. The other organisation was the United Nations (UN) which also has English (as well as French, Spanish, Chinese and Russian) as its official language. On this topic, it is worthwhile noticing that currently all documents, webpages and conferences are also translated into Arabic, which was later added to the category of official language. According to Crystal (1999), international politics operate at several levels and in different ways, but English is usually right there in the middle. He claims that protests can emerge in the form of an official question to a government minister, a peaceful lobby outside an embassy, or even a bomb attack. However, when media comes to show those acts to the rest of the world, it is often the case that a message in English can be heard in place of the mother tongue that the people involved in the protest speak (Crystal, 1999). Apparently, English has a bigger communicational impact than other languages at an international level.

English has gained a stable place. As previously seen, there is not just one main reason for this but a series of historical coincidences and consequences that have helped this language to become what it is today. Unfortunately, so far, it seems that there is not enough research focused on answering what happened to the languages that had gained, at some point in history, a place as relevant as English today (Crystal, 1999). However, nowadays the main discussion between experts is if English is actually replacing other' mother tongues or evolving into new *Pidgin* - simpler form of - English as a result of the growth of the Expanding Circle proposed by Kachru in *World Englishes* (Kachru, 1997, as quoted in Kilickaya, 2009, p. 35). Given the current evidence, it looks like the future of English will continue walking both tracks.

1.2 FROM SECOND LANGUAGE TO LINGUA FRANCA

By definition, a second language is “a language widely used, especially in educational and governmental functions in a region where all or most of its speakers are non-native, as English in India or Nigeria” (Dictionary.com, 2017). On the other hand, in the same source, the concept of Lingua Franca (which literally means “Frankish Tongue”) is defined as “any language that is widely used as a means of communication among speakers of other

languages". The thin line between these two terms is the fact that Lingua Franca implies speakers who do not share the same mother tongue; a good explanatory example is the case of Nigeria, a country which has over 400 spoken languages throughout its territory, Hausa, Fulani, Yoruba and Kanubi being the most widely spoken (Sunday, 2013, pp. 4-5). This country has English as its official language, but only as a result of the British colonisation. For political reasons, the British Empire established its own language as a tool for a better understanding among people through the whole country,

"The multiplicity of languages in Nigeria is so obvious and egregious that languages of people living within a 25-kilometre radius are massively different and incomprehensible to one another. The implication of this complex language situation is the absence of established effective communication between the ethnic groups, which becomes the basis not only for bigotry and hatred but for resorting to the use of English as a predominantly official language" (p. 6).

Later on, the country established English as its official language and started to have ESL policies as a result of being part of the Commonwealth, even though they do not share the same mother tongue.

For a better understanding of how English went from Second Language to Lingua Franca worldwide, it is important to clarify the Concentric Circle Model explained by Kachru (1997), which, according to the author, is more than a mere heuristic metaphor for schematising the spread of English (Kachru, 1985), and is intended to capture such historical, educational, and functional distinctiveness (Kachru, 1982). It consists in areas that are affected by the English Language, based on political, historical, socio-linguistic and literary context used as criteria (i.e. nations that are close to English-speaking countries or have been colonised by the British Empire will belong to a certain circle). On the other hand, countries that had to incorporate the language for economic reasons, or just as a tool for external relationships, will belong to a different area.

The circles, which are three, are explained in the following way: The *Inner Circle* represents the countries in which English was first shaped (i.e. where English is the mother

tongue and where it began to spread). Countries that belong to the Inner Circle are the UK, the USA, the Anglophone Canada, New Zealand and Australia. The *Outer Circle* represents the English language spreading through Britain's imperial expansion in Africa and Asia. In these countries, English is not the mother tongue but is considered one of the official languages, as it happens in Singapore, Bangladesh, Nigeria, and Anglophone South Africa, among others. In terms of language, English in the Outer Circle may contain some *errors* or can be simpler than the one in the Inner Circle. Also, in terms of variety (or “another” English) within the Outer Circle, the point of reference will always be the Inner Circle. In the case of the *Expanding Circle*, it represents the countries where English does not play any crucial role in terms of history or governmental power. However, it is widely used as medium of international communication. In those terms, these countries decide if they include English in their curricula, which is the case of Russia, China, Egypt, Mexico (Kachru, 1997), and some Latin-American countries such as Colombia and Chile. According to Kachru (1997, p. 67), the demographic profile of the Outer and Expanding Circles is overwhelming and constantly changing. Based on this, one can foresee the growth of the Expanding Circle in the near future.

Kilickaya (2009) adapted the explanation of Kachru's categorisation to create a diagram in order to understand of the concepts visual. The importance of knowing this model lies on the fact that one can relate it to the definitions mentioned before, thus facilitating the answer to the question ‘How did English change from Second Language to Lingua Franca?’ Strictly speaking, one has to consider the international place English has gained due to the aforementioned events and the Expanding Circle's increased population as the two fundamental causes. These have been key factors in changing the context in which the English language has developed as result; giving origin, at the same time, to an increasing concern regarding the Linguistic Imperialism this expansion may promote (Phillipson, 1992; Chew, 1997).

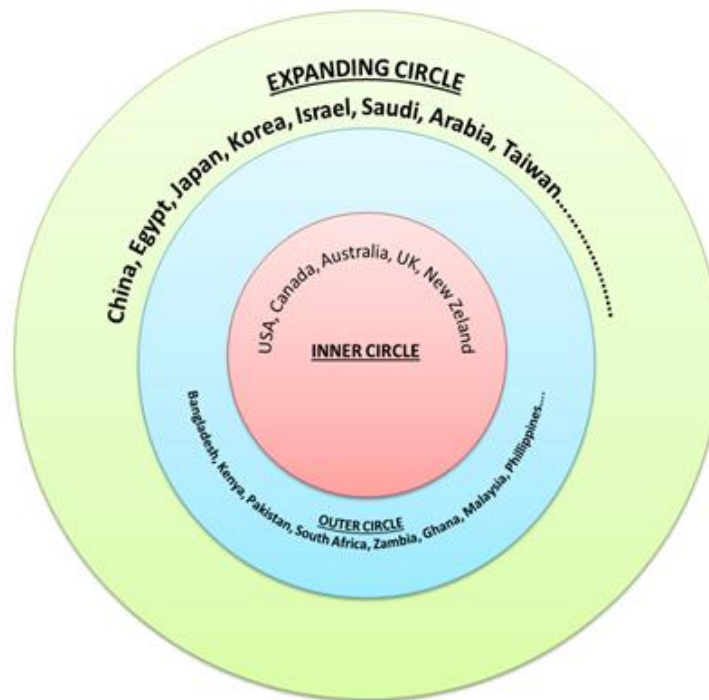


Fig. 1: Concentric Circle Model (Adapted from Kachru 1997)

Source: Kilickaya, 2009, p. 39

1.3 THE SPREAD OF EIL

The Global Status English has already achieved can be explained by the need of countries to have international means of communication. This need sometimes can be fulfilled by the presence of interpreters when two or three languages are involved in the exchange. Also, *bilingualism* or *trilingualism* can take place (Crystal, 2003). However, there are limits to what can be done in this way: the more linguistically mixed a community is, the less it can rely on individuals to ensure communication (2003, p. 11). Due to the mixed nature of the current world, English luckily found itself in the right place at the right time. However, *Lingua Franca* seems to be less accurate to use than *International or Global Language*; the former has more to do with a smaller area: such is the case of the Russian language, for example, which held privileged status for many years among the countries of

the former Soviet Union, or Mandarin Chinese, which continues to play an important role in Southeast Asia as a Lingua Franca (Crystal, 2003).

Since 1944, many international organizations have been created: The World Bank (1944), UNESCO and UNICEF (both 1946), the World Health Organization (1948), and the International Atomic Energy Agency (1957), to name a few. In a more restricted level, multinational, regional or political groups have come into being, such as the Commonwealth and the European Union (Crystal, 2003). Given this, a social pressure came into the world to have a communication code that works in all terms. Usually, a small number of languages are used in world organisations, such as the UN, which has six official languages (UN, 2017). However, even with a small number of languages, many times not all the information is “swallowed” when translated (Crystal, 2003, p. 12), implying again the necessity of a common language. This decision is always sensitive due to the fact that no country likes to be left out of such important instances as international relations are. Solving this, due to its current usage, English has the impact of transcending all platforms. For instance, Crystal (2003) states,

“Over the Internet, a conversation between academic physicists in Sweden, Italy, and India is at present practicable only if a common language is available. In another situation where a Japanese company director arranges to meet German and Saudi Arabian contacts in a Singapore hotel to plan a multi-national deal would not be impossible with a translation device, but it would be far more complicated than the alternative, which is for each to make use of the same language” (p. 13).

Such situations as shown by Crystal demonstrate the holistic influence English has. According to the author, people have become more mobile, both physically and electronically. Technology, transport and media in general have more impact in those people who are constantly moving, creating and absorbing trends.

The final answer to what will happen to English in the future is still an open question. Due to the increasing population of the Outer and Expanding Circles, the amount of *Englishes* being spoken (Kachru, 1997) is increasing accordingly (Crystal, 2003, p. 176). English is

suffering from phonological, grammatical and syntactical changes in the countries where it is not the mother tongue; somehow, it is becoming simpler: words are used less self-consciously and errors start to fossilise (Brown, 2000, p. 231). On the same note, errors made by native speakers who have a huge influence globally may become infinitely perpetual. Still, it is hard to explain what would happen if these *new Englishes* become accepted as markers of educated regional identity. Although there is little descriptive research shedding light on the subject, establishment attitudes towards these varieties are still generally negative. An example of the latter is a case explained by Crystal (2003) in which Singapore Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong devoted several minutes of his National Day Rally speech to a plea for Singaporeans to cut down on their use of Singlish (a hybrid of English, Chinese and Malay), and to maintain the use of Standard English. We can also notice the negative reaction towards many cases of South American actors who are frowned upon for not improving their *latino* accent. Seemingly, the dichotomy between Standard English, instanced by the spread of ESL, vs Communicative English, carried out by EIL supporters, will be a matter of debate in the years to come.

As stated by Crystal,

“The contemporary view, as represented in the UK National Curriculum, is to maintain the importance of Standard English while at the same time maintaining the value of local accents and dialects. The intellectual basis for this policy is the recognition of the fact that language has many functions, among them Standard English has also a role to play” (2003, p. 175).

Taking that into account, there should not be any intrinsic conflict between Standard English and any other dialect. A situation than can be seen in countries where English does not count with a strong position on the daily routines of their people. In these places, teachers of ESL and EFL are facing daily students with performances markedly different from the Standard English expectancy. The question that arises is just how much local phonology, grammar, vocabulary and pragmatics should be allowed in the classroom (Crystal, 2003).

However, a scenario in which English is the language influenced by other languages is not far from reality. There are over 350 living languages given as vocabulary sources in the files of the Oxford English dictionary, and around 250 words have Malay as part of their etymology (Crystal, 2003). Apparently, the influence the English culture has worldwide is turning less unidirectional precisely as English becomes more spread and interconnected. Of course, the notion of a lexical mosaic as such is not new. Language and culture are inextricably intertwined, and there is where the power of this symbiotic human product especially relies on and unfolds as both tool and threat.

2. ENGLISH TEACHING

The main framework serving as referent for Second and Foreign Language teaching has been mainly driven by the theoretical developments of two main disciplines. What linguistics and psychology have had to say regarding language acquisition has outlined, for better or worse, what we know regarding the matter and ultimately what has been used within classrooms when teaching a language (Lin, 2008, p. 12). Consequently, any change of paradigm or perspective will lead us to at least question the design of the language programmes at hand, in terms of their utility and ulterior validity. Equally important, the distinction between the different uses of the language we are aiming at should lead us to rethink about the irrefutability of the strategies and methods in use, as any English teaching put into practice must be deployed, keeping in mind its ultimate purpose. In the global reality that we currently face, one in which English has proven to be both means and finality, the position English teaching has, including its impact in the spread of recent notions such as globalisation and internationalisation, stands out as a matter of the uppermost relevance. This is so as it has been precisely by means of English teaching that these ideas have been spread making English, purposely or not, the major code for communicating worldwide, thus fostering its communicative strengths and deploying through education, its sounds and rhythm.

2.1 GLOBAL TENDENCIES: GLOBALISATION, INTERNATIONALISATION AND PEDAGOGY

Being globalised, international, or globally competent nowadays implies a large degree of multicultural understanding. It requires, at the same time, a conscious effort to come up with clearer and more precise definitions for each concept, usually mixed together and mistaken. The local realities and the cultural boundaries that once defined them are no longer as clear as they were fifty years ago, as we have entered into a “borderless world”, an invisible continent in which the primary linkages are now less between nations than between regions (Ohmae, 2005, 2007). Out of economical, socio-political and technological reasons, the world we are currently experiencing seems to be much broader and complexly intertwined than in the recent past, where communications and transportation means took weeks and even months to reach one destiny or the other. These economic and technologically-based aspects of interconnection are the ones that give fundament to what we call globalisation, a notion that implies being aware of (but not necessarily involved in) the global context and how this is a product of interconnected and interdependent local realities being comprised into one “global consciousness” (Robertson, 1992). But does being global imply being international and vice versa? Not necessarily.

If we narrow down the scope to the educational field, we will find out that international interchange at a university and instructional level, or as Welch expresses it, *academic mobility* (2008), has taken place for over a millennium. Still, even when these early linkages may be seen as the foundations of what is now labelled as internationalisation, we cannot assert that those connections were made at a global scale. Being international conveys not only an economic and technologically-based *globalised self-image*, but also multicultural understanding and awareness of the world as a system (Mancilla et al., 2011). Of course, for the latter to take place, it has been necessary to develop the global market and worldwide networks such as the internet and the social platforms functioning within; elements that have been crucial to our understanding of the world as a global entity.

Shedding some light on the third concept outlined, and notwithstanding all the above mentioned upgraded levels of communication, we are far from considering ourselves globally competent. This concept implies not only awareness of the surrounding realities and how they have an impact on our own, but also involvement in social contexts different from those we come from, aiming at changing or positively affecting other people's life conditions, thus going further into their effective participation and understanding of the world we live in (Mancilla et al., 2011).

The most present and utterly developed of these concepts, that is to say globalisation, has proven to affect how the educative process is being carried out both negatively and positively. Not less important downsides such as war, deprivation, lack of employment, health issues and others, have been spread more easily throughout the world (Hinchcliff, 2000; Peow, 2011; Dunning, 2004), as economic and governmental decisions have gained more influence beyond their once restrictive scope of influence. These now global issues have impacted negatively on the educational field, as when for economic reasons originated far from a specific educational institution, the latter get affected or hindered. This becomes clear when, for instance, needed loans from global economic entities (the World Bank, the IMF) are made conditional on structural adjustments and privatisation of once public educational facilities (Ray, 2007). On the same note, thousands (if no millions) of children and youngsters have been forced to move far from their places of origin pursuing better life conditions, and have been put (some more successfully than others), in the respective schooling system of their landing nation. This has heightened the difficulties and the professional outcomes for the teachers involved in the challenging task of dealing with multicultural classrooms. Many of them, facing this reality without previous proper training or enough resources to cope with it, have had to adapt their lessons following their intuition instead of an actual multicultural curriculum. This last aspect underlines the low level of knowledge about ethnic cultures most educators have (Banks, 2001). Conversely, globalisation may affect positively when it allows a local educational process to be enriched by other educational realities from abroad. Along the same line, governments, aiming at being considered more global or internationally-oriented, are becoming keen on changing

the curricula and the conditions in an ongoing upgrading effort to make their local schools more international or multicultural flavoured, aiming as well at gaining more reputation worldwide and profit from it (Matthews, 2002).

Last, following the urgency of the migration issue, several countries have been updating their educational programmes with the aim of making them more inclusive, but only a few have actually worked on developing a long-term educational design that could account for the notion of multiculturalism as the starting point for a more global citizenship. Instancing this, Spain, following the Northern Africa migration crisis (IMES, 2010), and the USA, still trying to cope with their interracial underlying conflict (Gay, 1994); have developed multicultural axes aiming at including the intercultural mix they are part of. Other countries such as Chile have been developing more local, commune-level adaptations to their curricula (Infante, 2010; Hevia et al., 2005). This has been done by attempting to adapt those schools which are subject to receive more migrant students, to the newly reality of dealing with a foreign culture at a school level. Nevertheless, these efforts keep neglecting Chilean inner cultural differences, as it is the case between its Spanish heritage and the original inhabitants' (Mapuche, Selk'nam, Aymara, Rapa Nui, among others) (Hevia & Irmas, 2005). Apparently, a notion of education for the globalised world that may account for multicultural richness outlined only from the point of view of its economic utility seems an unsolvable paradox. Curiously, the spread of English teaching as well as the development of the different *World Englishes* (Brown, 2000, p. 192) stands out here as a double-edged solution to it, as it would allow English learners become either more globalised, internationally oriented and globally competent, or utterly acculturated and linguistically impoverished, depending on the source and the use.

2.2 ENGLISH AS A SECOND, AS A FOREIGN, AND AS INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

When thinking of English teaching, one must take into account that the very nature or “quality” of the language we are teaching is not a matter of undisputable truth. As previously mentioned, whether we are teaching the language or learning it, we are becoming part of a

globalised world whose main code of interaction is precisely the English language. Due to reasons already outlined in the previous chapter, English has become *the* means for engaging in international trading, cultural and scientific diffusion, as well as for handling diplomatic and political affairs. The question that follows, then, should focus on shedding some light on what English we speak about when we do it, what language is the one we are aiming at when we decide to learn it; in sum, which English is the English educational institutions and governments foster so eagerly nowadays.

When referring to the English we teach as a Second language (ESL), that is, the English we learn within a culture where English is spoken natively (Brown, 2000, p. 193), the boundaries appear to be quite clear. A Spanish speaker learning English while living in the UK, and who is therefore embedded in the culture of the target language and using it as a second language, would fall in the ESL category perfectly. Hence, the main focus of any ESL teaching endeavour resides in fostering productive skills such as speaking rather than merely being devoted to reading and listening. As given here, the boundaries for ESL become less easily identifiable where English is already an accepted and widely used language for education, government or business within the country, or where English has no official status but occupies such a high profile that virtually every educated person is able to communicate competently with native English speakers (Brown, 2000).

A more widely spread situation is the one English as a Foreign Language (EFL) implies. As Brown (2000) points out, learning English in one's own culture, with few immediate opportunities to use the language within the environment of that culture feasibly, will encourage more receptive skills such as reading and listening, reducing the degree of interest in actually speaking the language. Aiming at attaining a better position at a global scale, and assuming English is fundamental to the task; many non-English speaking countries have made an effort to foster EFL programmes, including English in their national educational curricula, and providing grants and scholarships for those who learn it. Whichever this definition, the multiplicity of contexts for the use of English worldwide demands a careful look at the variables of each situation before assuming ESL or EFL as the one to be put into

practice, as the boundaries between them are becoming increasingly less clear as migration waves, mass media impact, as well as other sociocultural settings and products develop.

Beyond ESL and EFL, the notion of English as an International Language (EIL) presents itself as a way out to the complexities the globalised world imposes. Its rapid growth as a major communication tool between non-native speakers who do not share the same first language has turned English into the perfect medium for trading, politics, academia, and science. At the same time, it has allowed overcoming the native and non-native traditional dichotomy (Kachru, 1992, p. 3), as EIL seems less concerned with looking and sounding “properly” English, and instead focuses more on the actual use of the language according to the eventual necessities of the speaker. This has led to a process of “nativization” [sic] or “indigenisation” (Richards, 1979) of English in those so-called *outer circle* countries (namely Singapore, Philippines, India, Nigeria, Ghana and others) (Kachru, 1995), places in which English is commonly learned by children at school age and is the medium for most of their primary, secondary and tertiary education, and in which the process of acculturation usually attached to ESL and EFL is less present.

Accounting for the different uses of English, and adapting to the current globalised reality, any English teaching endeavour is expected to be carried out according to its outlined outcomes. Clearly, even considering the sometimes-vague boundaries between ESL, EFL & EIL, there are notorious differences between a learner whose aim is to learn the language to do business, to move abroad, or just to speak it as a common code between pairs in a given context. In the latter case, this version of the language becomes part of those “World Englishes” Brown (2000, p. 192) highlights, instancing how English teaching has progressively moved from a more Grammar-oriented approach, which aims at speaking native-like and achieving certain *Englishness*, to a more Communicative-oriented focus, concerned with how the language is used in real life and for the purposes of each individual speaker. This said, globalisation imposes a view on English teaching which is more flexible than it used to be, a view that gathers English as a process in which communication becomes the core and ultimate purpose, considering the seemingly unstoppable spread of EIL worldwide.

2.3 FROM GRAMMAR TO COMMUNICATION

When Krashen's Second Language Acquisition Model (SLA) appeared in the seventies, several models were being used for EFL teaching (Richards, 2001). Situational Methods (1950-1970) were serving as a conceptual umbrella for a number of EFL teaching methods that had received notoriety given their novelty, innovativeness and theoretical support. Included in these was the *Community Language Learning* or CLL (Curran, 1976) in which, patterned upon counselling techniques and adapted to the personal and language problems a person encounters in the learning of foreign languages (Wa'Njogu, 2010), the focus was set on strengthening the counsellor-teacher/client-learner relationship, aiming at increasing the latter's independent language adequacy within a context of empathy and warm reciprocal understanding (Wa'Njogu, 2010). Similarly, there were other situational methods such as *Total Physical Response* (TPR) (Asher, 1977), which advocates for the combination of information and skills through the use of the kinaesthetic sensory system; *Suggestopedia* (Lozanov, 1978), focused on stimulating and developing the multi-task nature of the human brain; and *The Silent Way* (Gattegno, 1978), which concentrates on what the students say and draws attention to pronunciation differences and the flow of words. Additionally, *The Natural Approach* (Terrill, 1983), emphasises the development of basic personal communication skills strengthening comprehensible input for attaining acquisition. All these methods served as theoretical continuum during the seventies, when the hegemony of the traditional Structural Linguistics was challenged by the development of its functional counterpart, influencing a change of emphasis when designing language and pedagogy programmes, and paving the way to start moving from dealing with structural elements and grammatical units, to focusing on notional, semantic and functional aspects (Wilkins, 1976; Johnson, 1982).

Decades before the seventies' methodological tide-shift, and as early as the 1800's, the main approach for EFL teaching, and any other foreign language teaching for the matter, was the Grammar-Translation method. In it, classes were taught in the students' mother tongue, with little active use of the target language (Wa'Njogu, 2010). Consequently,

vocabulary was taught in the form of isolated word lists, providing elaborate grammar explanations and rules, and focusing on the form and inflection of words. Similarly, little or no attention was paid to the content or the context of texts, as the main drills were translation exercises of disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue, and vice versa (Wa'Njogu, 2010). As a reaction to this method, and to the little or no attention given to pronunciation, between 1890 and 1930 the Direct Approach is developed, attempting for the first time to integrate more use of the target language in instruction. For this, lessons began with a dialogue using a modern conversational style in the target language; material was first presented orally with actions or pictures, never translating and teaching grammar only inductively by generalising rules from the practice and experience with the target language (Wa'Njogu, 2010). Almost simultaneously, other methods such as the Structural (1930-1960) and the Reading approach (1920-1950) are developed, and these teaching efforts were followed and synthesised by the Audiolingual method (1950-1970) and its four skills-oriented proposal. The focus of this method, counterpartying its predecessors, was set on habit formation as key for language learning, giving special attention to the development of precise native-like pronunciation by the means of an abundant use of language laboratories, tapes and visual aids, and using repetitive drills for teaching structural patterns in which linguistic skills are sequenced and organised starting from listening to speaking, reading and ultimately writing (Wa'Njogu, 2010).

Accounting for all the previous contributions to the field of English teaching and, ultimately, to the study of linguistics, Stephen Krashen's SLA model (1981) as well as the apparition or resurgence of other interactionist models (Vygotsky's ZPD, Bruner's Discovery learning theory) (Henschel, 2012), have led to the pedagogical principle of offering comprehensible information in the classrooms, so learners may develop their own inter-lingua while moving forward towards the acquisition of the target language (Lin, 2008, p. 14). By stressing the development of autonomous learners, or *meaning negotiators*, these models emphasise breaking down the global concept of language as a collection of units which are subject to analysis, to start conceiving language learning in inextricable relation with the communicative situations in which language is being used (Wa'Njogu, 2010). Due to this, and

overcoming the more repetition-oriented structuralist-based approaches that preceded it, the *Communicative Language Teaching* method fosters risk-taking, contextual learning, self-monitoring and correction, as well as the development of both fluency and accuracy as two different competencies subject to be acquired in the midst. By doing this the method looks for paying special attention to registers and styles in terms of situation and participants, and involving a variety of language skills in the process (Wa'Njogu 2010; Lin, 2008).

Looking for an authentic and meaningful self-expressive interaction, these recent theories, converging with the development of Functional Linguistics, have changed the way in which English teaching is deployed by educational institutions nowadays, regardless of their public or private nature, their scope of action, and their affiliation. Henceforth, a number of activities, teaching drills and strategies have been developed by educators enriching their teaching repertoires, pursuing the promotion of a more communicative-oriented use of English, and of any target language for the matter, within classrooms (Lin, 2008). Similarly, activity and project-based language learning approaches have been proposed (Nunan, 1989), aiming at promoting a more real usage of the foreign language in contexts of meaningful communication and, albeit assuming the importance of repetition and grammatical guidelines at a pre-production learning stage (Lin, 2008), moving further away from the language learning paradigm that ruled for over a century.

3. ENGLISH FOR ALL? - SOME CONSIDERATIONS

Due to political, historical and economic reasons, during the twentieth century English has become the international language *par excellence* (Phillipson, 1992, p. 6). It accounts for having a dominant position in the realms of science, technology, medicine, diplomatic and international relationships, mass media entertainment, technology, research, and transnational business, just to name a few. This predominance has turned English into the most widely learnt foreign language in the world (1992, p. 6). In European countries, language pedagogy has propelled English forward. Although establishing a more or less

balanced relationship with other second languages spoken in the region, English stands out its relevance not only in terms of academic prestige and importance for stock market transactions, but also in terms of cultural development and personal leisure. Outside the European spectrum, the discussion regarding the relevance and impact of the English-teaching process seems to explore broader dimensions. Acknowledging its *de factum* value in international and more economy-oriented transactions, several authors like Phillipson (1992), Mei Yi Lin (2008), Bourdieu (2012), González (2015), and Segade (2015), have highlighted several features of the current English-teaching trends that have been seemingly downgraded or at least not fostered enough. These dimensions go beyond the market arena and challenge the reliability of the global widespread of English as an unbiased tool for development.

3.1 ENGLISH FOR ENGLISH SPEAKERS

In those countries in which, English has become the core spoken-language, the discussion behind the relevance of imposing English as the sole official language has encouraged the debate between those who promote monolingualism as key for development and national cohesion, and those who see bilingualism and multiculturalism as an individual right that the community should support and benefit from (Phillipson, 1992). These nations, namely Britain, USA, Canada, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand, have faced the ideological tension that the spread of English teaching, and hence the English language, represents within their societies, following different paths and consequently obtaining different results. For instance, and as a reaction to an inherited language policy, postcolonial nations such as Australia and New Zealand have carried out strong efforts to make indigenous languages such as Maori get the same level of relevance English has in their territories. Additionally, they have stressed the importance of the minority languages of immigrants and refugees (Phillipson, 1992, p. 22), thus fostering bilingualism as key for both development and cultural integration. On the same note, Phillipson highlights how Welsh in Western Britain has become the living remnant of a culture once believed extinct. Purposed

only recently, and not without political struggle in the midst, Welsh and its culturally-embedded Celtic heritage has gained not only relevance in terms of its linguistic value, but also regarding the socio-political impact its recognition implies, by decreasing the scope of action and exclusivity English teaching is entitled to in the rest of the country. However, other regional ancient languages have not been as privileged as Welsh. Given the sole-official language policy so strongly and persistently fostered and imposed in the British Isles from the crown downwards (1992, p. 22), Scottish Gaelic and other dialects spoken both in Ireland and southern Britain have not resisted the encroachment of English (Williams, 1990), placing Welsh in a not only unique but also fragile position.

A different case can be found in North American countries. Fostering official bilingualism but not necessarily focusing on more local, indigenous languages, during the past decades Canada has established an aggressive educational programme aiming at checking the trend towards monolingualism. By fostering a French-English bilingual policy throughout the country (Bourhis, 1984), Canadian authorities have challenged the might of English at a political, commercial and educational level. Conversely, and even closer to the monolingual approach, the USA has not only imposed an English-based educational system, but also encouraged a detrimental campaign towards original inhabitants' languages such as Navajo and Sioux, as can be seen in the devastating effects USA's English-based monolingual policy has had on its indigenous cultures and languages (Pfeiffer, 1975). With schooling, for instance, Navajo children have not only been taught foreign values and lifestyles, but also modelled to become members of the predominant Anglo-Saxon mainstream culture (Pfeiffer, 1975). This standing point, an institutionalised yet not legalised English-only policy, has not only acculturated the original peoples that lived throughout North America, but also promoted a monolingual trend both in The New World as well as in the former British Empire for over two centuries. This tradition has emphasised English as a mark of reason, ethics and aesthetics (Phillipson, 1992). Taking for granted that monolingualism, particularly an English-oriented one, is key for modernity and prosperity, and that multiple languages and multiculturalism are nothing but nuisances (Phillipson, 1992), the Anglo-American establishment has been successful in portraying English teaching both inwards as well as

abroad as something not only important in the global world, but also as a natural linguistic evolution. A point of view which the representatives of the English-speaking dominant group enforce unable to appreciate linguistic and cultural diversity even in their homeland, as it is, for instance, the case of all those British people whose mother tongues are not English and who are discriminated against because of this even in their own country (1992, p. 20).

3.2 ENGLISH FOR NON-ENGLISH SPEAKERS

Focusing on Latin American countries and non-English-speaking European countries such as Spain, Segade (2015) refers to the level up to which English as a foreign language (EFL) has become instrumental in expanding national economies by producing, or pretending to produce, a bilingual workforce out of their population. Additionally, the author highlights how learning English has become fundamental when aiming at reaching higher positions in the global job market, under the promise of better jobs and opportunities (Segade, 2015). Interestingly, Segade acknowledges Paulo Freire's (2009) "intransitivity of consciousness" proposal to show how governments have encouraged this English learning in such a way that everywhere we find people studying the language because of the hypothetical employability mass media and institutional authorities invoke (Segade, 2015, p. 153). Freire's concept entails the idea that individuals circumscribe to a very narrow scope of their existence, not wishing to see all the richness and complexity a new knowledge accounts for. Instancing this, several quite culturally different nations such as Peru, Egypt, Turkey and Nigeria among others, have considered the deployment of English as a Second Language (ESL) as a vital key to development (Fox, 1975), while a number of national governmental programmes such as *Colombia Bilingüe*, *Costa Rica Bilingüe* and *Chile Bilingüe* among others (González, 2015), as well as private sector investments, have strengthened the competitively high value attached to training bilingual individuals (English being the second language) for the globalised job market (Wedell, 2009). Due to this, in the Chilean as well as other Latin American educational curricula, learning English has been established as the main tool to put forward global job opportunities and hence, increase the economic national output by encouraging productivity

and competitiveness (MINEDUC, 2014). This more Instrumental/pragmatic rationale towards English teaching (Hayden, 2013) has been made acceptable and taken for granted under the assumption that English-speaking workers would earn a higher income or be more able to get a job when compared to applicants who do not speak English, just because of the fact of speaking the language, not necessarily because of their communicative proficiency or their globally-oriented cultural needs (Segade, 2015, Gutiérrez et al., 1997).

Secondly, Segade (2015) points out to the imperialistic nature or, in Bourdieu's words, "symbolic dominance" (2012, pp. 50-51) the English language has currently achieved regarding second-language teaching. A trend that non-English-speaking countries educational systems have embarked upon in their effort to become bilingual nations in the short term. Under the communicative approach, initially outlined by Dell Hymes' communicative competence concept (1972) and then refined by Krashen's *Second Language Acquisition* (1981), English language teaching has boomed over the past decades, fostering a proliferation of university departments, language schools, publications, conferences and all the paraphernalia of an established profession (Phillipson, 1992, p. 4). This has become a billion-pound business that has turned English teaching into a *world commodity*, justifying the spread of a number of authors and publishing houses devoted to the production and use of tons of supporting material in the form of booklets, books, audio tracks, and more. Consequently, a specific method of English teaching has been widely promoted, designed following the precepts of neutrality and communicatively-real situations in the understanding that their target is a stateless individual with no specific moral code and/or religion, a XXI century citizen whose aim is learning how to talk when going to the mall, being at the airport or going abroad on vacation. Angel Mei Yi Lin (2008) in his article *Cambio de Paradigma en la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera* (Change of paradigm in EFL teaching) highlights this aspect, and quotes other authors such as Ouyang (2000), Shin (2006), and Ramanathan (2006), when referring to the ways in which the English-teaching efforts under the current communicative approach have been used. Supported by the given material, the authors identify how English teaching is actually promoting western values such as individualism, capitalism and laicism, accounting for an undercover way of cultural

imperialism not necessarily driven by a unique nation or political power, but by means of its role in the global market (Segade, 2015). The so-called *ethnically and ideologically unencumbered* nature of English (Fishman et al., 1977, p. 118), a purportedly neutral, tool-like image of English is then challenged by the facts at hand. Cultural aspects derived from English-mother-tongue countries such as modernisation, consumerism, the spread of international youth culture, and popular technology, are all ideologically encumbered and have ideological as well as behavioural and econo-technical consequences (Fishman, 1987, p. 8). By extension, this makes those who teach English, willing or unwilling participants in the spread of a language and culture gathered both as an enhancing tool and as a modern cancer.

Under the same precept, Bourdieu (2012) highlights the way in which this ideological supremacy would be undermining more locally-oriented second language teachings, given the rate English has achieved in terms of its symbolic value. By being assumed as a commodity, teaching and learning English is now fostered not necessarily because of its intrinsic communicative or cultural capacity, but in terms of its relevance concerning economy. This aspect leaves aside the teaching and learning of other languages equally or more challenging. Following this, in a number of countries such as Spain (Segade, 2015), Colombia (González, 2015) and Korea (Shin, 2006) the prevalence of the English-teaching programmes has jeopardised second local-language efforts as, given the scarcity of governmental resources, these governments have put their funding in making of English the most predilected choice when learning a second language. This has had an impact when trying to foster original inhabitants' languages or local dialects such as Catalan and Creole, as people's concerns in general are set in getting better opportunities regarding financial incomes or targeting at specific purposes usually of an extrinsic nature (Lin, 2008), and not necessarily in developing a cultural or multicultural enhancement. Interestingly, what was once thought as a linguistic imposition, an enforced act of colonialism, is now gathered as an incontrovertible boon (Phillipson, 1992). The discourse accompanying and legitimating the export of English to the rest of the world has been so persuasive that English has been equated with progress and prosperity (1992, p. 8), while local second-languages have been

downgraded to a lesser place. The impact of this rationale in terms of politics and military power has not been analysed thoroughly, considering that if once English-mother-tongue countries sent diplomats and gunboats to mark their presence worldwide, now they only need to send English teachers whose *nativeness* is eagerly welcome even in detriment of local educators.

3.3 BEYOND ENGLISH

In the pursuit of going beyond all the aforementioned, we are led to a fourth main scope of concern authors have shed light on. That is, the degree to which English-teaching programmes foster learners to become both aware citizens, in the sense of participants of the *global village* envisioned by McLuhan (1966) fifty years ago; as well as active members of the communities they are part of. If the focus is set on making English learners more globally-oriented or aware and actively involved in preventing future international conflicts as specified by UNICEF (2002), at least at a practical level this seems far from becoming a reality. Although theoretical and local efforts have been made (Bakhtin, 1981; Osborn, 2006), executive and legislative authorities have not been able to update their national educational systems to make them more internationally involved and globally competent (Mesías & Chandía, 2016). This is a relevant aspect when thinking of forming aware citizens for the current and aiming-at-the-future world. The abovementioned authors, instancing the topic in the reality of the Chilean educational system, highlight how narrowly oriented the English-teaching programmes and the system itself are regarding the subject. As an example, the majority of those so-called Chilean *colegios emblemáticos* (emblematic schools), which are thought to be the best in the country, put their efforts in making their students attain entrance to University education and not necessarily in making global citizens out of their students. Similarly, Chilean Universities are not, in general terms, aiming at becoming more international. Apart from being interested in research and education itself, aspects that inherently force them to think at a global scale, their limited scope of action is set into enterprising, that is transferring knowledge as a consistent and global good (Maringe &

Foskett, 2010). In addition, having established investments, projects, recruiting processes and provider-consumer relationships mainly within the local context; these institutions ultimately fall into the Domestic Universities category outlined by Maringe & Foskett (2010), a range in which Universities may be internationally related only in a peripheral way; i.e., their efforts are placed inwards mainly.

On the same note, but this time focusing on the personal aspect of being a critical, aware citizen and human being, authors like Segade (2015), Gutiérrez (1997), McLaren & Madrid (1996) and González (2015), among others, have put their efforts into shedding light on the scope of action and impact English teachers have when “passing” the language. Acknowledging that a language cannot be taught but shared, current Pedagogy not only deals with the transfer of knowledge in terms of data, but also in terms of values, and for that it proposes different models or approaches to deal with the multicultural reality we currently face (Osuna, 2012, p. 45). These values, far from being as universal and well-defined as expected, should be problematised in life in general but particularly in the classroom if the aim is positioning schools as the perfect scenario for rehearsing the practices of the broader social context, albeit in a more “secure” setting where these debates may be deployed. Conversely, as similarly stated by González (2015), Mei Yi Lin (2008) and Bourdieu (2012), teachers in general, and English teachers in particular, are being taught neither to think critically on their own nor to teach their students about the importance of critical thinking. Being aware of the knowledge they receive, its uses and risks, and the sources of that knowledge, their untold intentions, interests and consequences; is a matter students are not being encouraged to embark on. This is fundamental when thinking of any educational effort, whether it is related to English or if its aim is the actual development of the subject learners and not only their indoctrination. As Pennycook (1990) put it, a language teaching that refuses to explore the cultural aspects of language learning has more to do with assimilating learners than empowering them. This lack of depth apparently embedded when teaching English, might be tracked back to the seemingly market-oriented nature of the EFL teaching programmes, which appears to be considered as part of an industry rather than a

profession (Phillipson, 1992, p. 4). This leads English teachers to think of their participation in the educational system more in terms of having a job than forging a career (1992, p. 5).

Last but not least, in terms of the upgrading of the learner's personal aptitudes and skills both linguistically and socially speaking, the importance of learning English is another aspect that has been put aside when listing the priorities for this process to take place. According to Arkoudis et al. (2010), a notion of education designed from the perspective of economics exclusively cannot account for what internationalisation in education aims to be; i.e., a meaningful and active engagement process with other cultures which moves beyond the touristic and domestic approach. Through the means of language learning, advantages such as offshore experience, opportunities for friendship between domestic and international students, sister school linkages, among others, might be attained and actively propelled. The multicultural and globally competent interaction proposed by the author reflects an approach towards education in which English learning becomes key in making future English speakers not only vehicles of a foreign culture, but also aware builders of new meanings who reshape given codes according to their local communication needs. Scouting for a path to follow that may overcome the mentalist and behaviourist theories regarding foreign languages acquisition, Vygotsky's vision of language learning as a social activity in which language is the core regarding the social dimension of communication (Ellis, 1995) stands out as a turning point in terms of English (or any) language teaching. A viewpoint as such empowers both teachers and learners to move further from passively receiving a foreign code with its cultural prerogatives, thus perpetuating a system of cultural reproduction (Bourdieu, 2012), to finally embracing the learning of a second language as an active process of cultural emancipation and critical action. In this way, language turns into a vehicle for transforming individualistic individuals into holistic ones, attaining cohesion and social justice in the process (Segade, 2015). Thereby teaching becomes an effort aimed at developing not only academic autonomy from behalf of learners, but social autonomy as well, thus fostering more interpersonal skills related to learners' ability and willingness to function effectively as cooperative members of a classroom community (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 546).

4. CRITICAL ENGLISH

Why English? - When someone asks why learn English, the answer will probably be that knowing the language may bring many different advantages. For instance, English can open access to knowledge and information, since most papers and essays are written in English. It can also lead to career improvement in economic terms, because speaking English may enable higher salaries, as well as better job prospects, due to the fact that knowing English opens doors to new exciting jobs and different opportunities in countries all over the world. Further, the language facilitates travel opportunities, not only to English-speaking countries like the United States, Canada, England or Australia but also to other places as English is spoken in more than 100 countries (Crystal, 2003, p. 5). Thus, as pointed out in the previous chapter, English is a key element for success, and it is being learned and taught mostly because of the different aforementioned advantages. However, learning English is rarely viewed as a way to increase reflective and critical thinking. Therefore, the possibility of thinking about becoming a reflective human being through learning English or any other foreign language will much lower on a person's list of interests when deciding to learn a new language.

4.1 THE SOCIOLINGUISTICS OF ENGLISH

The nature of human beings is based on communicating with each other. Whether through words or non-verbal language, we constantly seek to communicate with others. Consequently, taking into account that language is present in our everyday life, it is important to pay attention or decode the current situation of language if our aim is precisely to attain a deeper understanding of our current globalised reality (Berger and Luckmann, 1991, p. 52), in which globalisation has greatly contributed to the spread of English, even fostering its transformation into *the* global language, as stated by Crystal (2003). This does not mean that every person around the world *must* speak English. However, English, and

especially the English culture, are present in all sorts of things, from the latest claims of the USA's president to the bottle of *Coca-Cola* we drink every day.

English has become the main language because of power. In this respect, Crystal states,

“There is the closest of links between language dominance and cultural power (...) without a strong power-base, whether it is political, military or economic; no language can make progress as an international medium of communication. Language has no independent existence, living in some sort of mystical space apart from the people who speak it. Language only exists in the brains and mouths and ears and hands and eyes of its users. When they succeed, on the international stage, their language succeeds; when they fail, their language fails” (2003, p. 7).

Accordingly, as most English countries today are successful, the English language is viewed as the language of success, as along with its language, the different cultural, economic and political elements of a country are also propelled. This is a reciprocal relationship in which these elements are intrinsically intertwined with language, as language has the power of influencing on different fields. Phillipson (1992, p. 17) refers to this as a movement from the “core” to the “periphery”; in other words, a country expands the language (core) to the countries which acquire it (periphery). Galtung (as quoted in Phillipson 1992, p. 52) makes the same distinction by referring to Western countries as “centre” and the developing nations as “periphery”. Thus, as mentioned before, this movement results in the expansion not only of the language but also the culture of the dominant countries over the rest dominated nations. That is why in so-called third world nations, most of the products consumed, ranging from music and cinema to fashion trends, come from an English-spoken culture. Considering its broad spheres of influence, the predominance of the English language can be described as an imperialistic expression. Galtung has defined imperialism as a relation between countries in which one society extends its power to dominate another, whether economically, militarily, politically, culturally, communicatively or socially. In light of the current English phenomenon, we may refer to it as a kind of cultural imperialism since it

positions one culture “above” the rest. According to Phillipson (1992, p. 52), there are different subtypes of cultural imperialism. These include linguistic, media, scientific, and educational imperialism. The most visible form of cultural imperialism is its linguistic manifestation, due to the fact that it permeates all the other types of imperialisms as it is comprised of form (language as a medium for transmitting ideas) and content (meaning). Linguistic imperialism has been defined by several authors (Canagarajah, 1999; Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988; Phillipson, 1992) whose studies describe the superiority of a language in a cultural settlement career. Moreover, while Calvet (in Phillipson, 1992) refers to the same term as linguistic racism, Ansre refers to the term as the main point when a person considers that only the language in discussion should be used in the areas of education, politics, knowledge, etc.

Later, the term “linguicism” was introduced. As in other “ism” words such as racism, classism or sexism, it underscores the notion of social groups’ inequality. In this case, the inequality is present in the concept of power since one language (English) is hierarchically superior while the rest are ignored (Phillipson, 1992). However, the real distinction between linguicism and linguistic imperialism is that the latter implies certain domination whether it is consciously or unconsciously performed by the actor. One of these actors is the language teacher. Language education professionals have also played an important role in spreading English around the world, as Phillipson put it, “English language teaching professionals are one of the forces which have propelled English forward” (1992, p. 6). The spread of English has ignited concern because of what may occur in the future of English teaching worldwide. This concern bases on the idea that English teaching could be a mechanism for Western ideologies in order to embrace and legitimise the power and resources of dominant countries, therefore reinforcing “cultural inequalities between English and other languages” (Phillipson, 1992, p. 47).

Perhaps many of us have wondered about the possibility that a global language might reduce people’s disposition for learning different languages, probably out of ignorance or laziness. Today, we are vaguely “taught” a few words in our ancient and scarcely spoken native languages. Given this scenario, these languages may eventually cease to interest us; in

turn, our current interest is set on learning English and, consequently, acquiring its culture, whether as a second language or as a foreign one. It seems we are building the tower of Babel inversely. According to the Bible, when people tried to reach a certain level of power, God intervened to halt those plans by endowing us with new and different languages in order to hinder our communication. Nowadays, power is the reason many languages or dialects have faded away and are still dying due to an imperialist intention to "facilitate" our communication. As foreseen by Crystal, "a person needs only one language to talk to someone else (...) and once a world language is in place, other languages will simply die away" (2013, p. 15).

4.2 CRITICAL THINKING AND CONSCIOUS ORIENTED TEACHING

Due to the ambiguity of the definition of critical thinking, it is challenging for researchers to give a definitive explanation about the topic. Each year, countries' needs have been influencing this abstract concept which is crucial for developing integral socially conscious members of a community. From a Cognitive Psychological Perspective, critical thinking can be explained as "the mental processes, strategies, and representations people use to solve problems, make decisions, and learn new concepts" (Sternberg, 1986). Nevertheless, this definition oversimplifies the concept into only mental processes. In the field of philosophy, critical thinking is presented as a "reasonable reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do" (Ennis, 1993). Later, the same author proposes a set of critical thinking skills in which he clarifies that a person needs to have the disposition for employing these abilities willingly in order to be a fully critical thinker (Ennis, 2011). Paul (1989) reached the conclusion that any definition of a multifaceted concept such as critical thinking might have its limitations. According to him, critical thinking can be presented as "the art of analysing and evaluating thinking with a view to improving it" (p. 213).

A reason for the difficulty in defining critical thinking resides in the fact that the concept consists of powerful cultural elements, precisely because it is not only a set of writings and thinking techniques but also a voice, a relation among different communities

(Fox, 1994). Following the same idea, probably the briefest definition but not the simplest is the one described by Atkinson (1997), who refers to critical thinking as a “social practice”. Under this view, the individual “learns through the pores”; it is an innate learning by the natural process of living.

Understanding critical thinking as a social practice enables us to analyse aspects of our contemporary society that Santos (2006) has discussed. Today's technological development enables the simultaneous circulation of thousands of data, impeding discernment between what is essential information and what is irrelevant. We are constantly exposed to models, ideologies, and lifestyles which we imitate in our everyday lives through our actions, behaviours and, most of the time, unnecessary consumerism. This has given rise to an increasing sense of competitiveness among individuals, and to the emergence of a notorious obsession to achieve effectiveness. People want to obtain optimal and visible results. We are becoming even more individualistic and concerned only about our personal interests, witnessing the spread of moral relativism while ignoring the fact that each individual must coexist in community. These social elements have vitiated our society. Santos (2006) also adds that they are consequences of the neoliberal doctrine which governs much of the economy and politics worldwide.

If we understand education as a socially impoverished process that also has come under the influence of a neoliberal focus, the school, which is a social community, may be categorised as a neoliberal company and the teacher as a member part of its workforce (Santos, 2006). Following the same idea, students or “raw material” are being refined by teachers to become goods. “Schools have worked merely as companies, as centres of social reproduction of reality, producing workers to the system, where contents are compared to a bourgeois ideology and teachers are as mechanical as Sweden watches” (Giroux, 1990, p.33).

Instead, rather than comprehending schools as a social representation of society, it is important to understand them as agents of socialisation. Thus, education is not merely instruction; a school is actually a place where people are a product of social and pedagogical interactions, and where the possession of certain knowledge should go further than mere domination of a given subject to focus on its social contribution (1990, p. 33). While Arons (as

quoted in Giroux, 1990) suggests that the school is a social place where children can learn much more than what it is stated in the curriculum, Dreeben (in Giroux, 1990) claims that schools limit students' acquisition of knowledge and skills through instruction, owing to the fact that it also offers rules and behavioural principles. To add more, based on Kumaravadivelu's (2003, p. 8) proposal, one can glean from the current literature on general education and language teaching at least three strands of thought: (a) teachers as passive technicians, (b) teachers as reflective practitioners, and (c) teachers as transformative intellectuals. The first one can be partly traced to the behavioural school of psychology that emphasises the importance of empirical verification and content-based instruction (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Conversely, teachers as reflective practitioners are seen not as passive transmitters of received knowledge but as problem-solvers who possess "the ability to look back critically and imaginatively, to do cause-effect thinking, to derive explanatory principles, to do task analysis, also to look forward, and to do anticipatory planning" (Dewey, 1933, p. 13). In this sense, reflective teaching is a holistic approach that emphasises creativity, artistry, and context sensitivity (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 10). Last, teachers as transformative intellectuals strive not only for educational advancement but also for personal transformation. In this approach, teachers organise themselves as a community of educators dedicated to construct curricula and syllabi around their own and their students' needs, wants, and situations (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 14). Such a task makes it imperative for them to maximise socio-political awareness among their learners using consciousness-raising, problem-posing activities, as schools are "cultural arenas where heterogeneous ideological, discursive, and social forms collide in an unrelenting struggle for dominance" (McLaren, 1995, p. 30). Understanding education, teaching and teachers from a more reflective-oriented and transformative-aimed perspective, would enable learners to contribute to society in general terms, starting from school, family or friends, which are in the end their closest social communities. As put by Kant, "teenagers should not be educated for the present, but looking forward a better future for our human condition; in other words, looking forward the concept of humanity" (in Giroux, 1990, p. 96).

Giroux explains that fear of change or revolution has caused the traditional school system to lay the foundations of what a public sector institution should receive, teach and how they should act to be regarded as such. The differences when learning continue along with the necessity of a discourse about critical language and its features. This discourse, when developed, should go further the ideas already outlined here regarding the nature or features of the critical approach, as being critical or fostering critical thinking must be thought as aspects, not the whole, within a reflective socially-aware and conscious-oriented teaching/learning, one that serve both as theoretical umbrella and guideline when taking part in society.

Of course, working and understanding the social world cannot be learned or taught in the classroom; it can only be acquired through life experience. It must be put into practice with children learning by living, making, touching, feeling and performing. Consequently, the development of respectful, autonomous, honest, collaborative and conscious people will depend on the role we give them in our education. Hence, as teachers serve as role-models, they should be the first agents that stimulate students to think and reflect. Taking into account that a school is a form of society, and in a micro way, so is the classroom, the teacher naturally becomes the main socialising element. Teachers represent the basic unit of education; they are essential to fostering the development of socially conscious and reflective individuals. If teachers are to educate their students to become active and reflective citizens, first they must become educative intellectuals (Giroux, 1990). Accordingly, schools must work to become public democratic entities, while teachers should aim to be transformative intellectuals.

Madrid (1998) believes that teachers' competence mainly depends on the initial preparation they receive in their tertiary studies. Therefore, the teachers' capacity to become transformative intellectuals should be explored and fostered during their university education. In words of Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 2), teachers have to become strategic thinkers as well as strategic practitioners. In the role of strategic thinkers, they need to reflect on the specific needs, contexts, and processes of learning and teaching. As strategic practitioners, they need to develop knowledge and skills necessary to self-observe, self-

analyse, and self-evaluate their own teaching acts. In line with this, according to Giroux (1990), in order to develop a conscious pedagogy linking theory with practice, thus raising students and teachers' awareness of the social and personal importance of active participation and critical thinking-oriented teaching, educators should be capable of combining reflection, action with imagination and techniques. Intellectual teachers with these attributes should not be interested in solely transmitting knowledge or results or statistics; their main focus instead should be enhancing their students' capacity to become integral human beings in society, so that they interpret the world critically and, if necessary, change it (Giroux, 1990, p. 36).

4.3 ENGLISH AS AGENT OF CHANGE: A VIEW ON TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Language significantly affects the way we think and perceive the world (Whorf, 1950). Therefore, learning a new language may improve our thinking process. The way the new language influences our minds will vary according to the different language teaching policies that exist in every country, regardless if it is taught as a second, foreign, or international language. Recent research on English as a foreign language (EFL) has highlighted the significance and necessity of developing critical thinking as an integral part of the English language curriculum (Davidson & Dunham, 1997; Shirkhani & Fahim, 2011; Sun, 2015; Tang, 2016). This fact leads us to presume that we are clearly not the only country that is concerned about the use and teaching of English as a tool to form socially conscious individuals. Even though there is no single answer to this issue, further studies can provide people a path to follow regarding their necessities.

In Africa (specifically Egypt), where English is taught as a foreign language, the authors Abdallah & Mohammad (2016), concerned about the current English teaching curricula in secondary schools of Egypt, found that the current examination system used at the secondary stage is hindering the accomplishment of the aims of secondary education represented in developing students' scientific thinking (logical reasoning) as well as acquainting them with the needed self-learning skills. According to these authors, English

Language Teaching (ELT) at the secondary level should be given priority since language teachers can act as agents of change. This is coherent with the idea of using language in one's daily lives as an aid in solving difficulties. In order to solve the issue of teaching in an exam-oriented manner, they proposed a management change model called ADKAR (Awareness of a problem proposed – *Desire* to solve it – receiving Knowledge – acquire and use the Ability – finally Reinforcement of knowledge). The model, known for its use in business settings, was adapted by the researchers to be used in the educational field. Through a qualitative study in which a number of experienced teachers answered a questionnaire regarding their opinions about teaching, similarities were found between the teachers' opinions and what the ADKAR model suggests.

In South Africa, where English is taught as a second language, Schlebusch and Thobedi (2004) discussed the more disadvantaged scenarios for ESL teaching, especially considering that English is the first language for only 9% of the population (Van der Merwe & Van Niekerk, 1994). For that reason, they employed an outcomes-based education (OBE) approach (which is the one proposed by the government in the curricula), to conduct a study, focusing primarily on the concept of body image and identity. These authors contend that in an OBE approach, teaching, and learning activities have the aim of empowering learners to succeed in the real life after leaving school, because the method helps to develop the ability of students to use English in authentic situations whether they are formal or informal. Five secondary schools, located in the black township of Thabong in the Lejweleputswa District, Free State Province in South Africa, were randomly selected for the research. Through an observation process and a semi-structured interview, the researchers concluded that the main reasons OBE fails can be traced to lack of thorough knowledge of relevant teaching strategies that can be used in the teaching of ESL, as well as the lack of practice of the language outside the classroom.

In Iran, specifically where English is taught as a foreign language, Shahri (2017), based on the definition of language as “a social practice in which experiences are organised and identities negotiated” (Norton, 2010, p. 351), studied how the learners' identity interferes with acquiring the second language. By understanding the way in which two EFL learners

adopt different voices that linguistically express their investments in English and evidence their contrasting second language (L2), Shahri's study highlights the fact that having a link between the target language and one's own identity is crucial to interact fluently (Shahri, 2017, p. 2). The research includes two case studies of voice construction by EFL learners who, accordingly to the current English teaching curriculum, were taught with a focus mainly on grammar and reading. For the study, the participants were attending a Certificate of Advanced English (CAE) course and the classes contained balanced proportions of the four skills. Communication was important. Through class observations, participant observation, informal conversations outside the class, sociolinguistic interviews and metalinguistic commentaries, the researcher came out with the following conclusions: "As the analysis amply illustrates, the two participants' voices clearly indicate that their language use and learning were propelled by vivid visions of how they saw themselves in relation to English" and that "for teachers to cultivate such an investment (the identity and playing with voices), it is crucial to recognise learners as not just 'communicators and problem solvers' but 'whole persons with hearts, bodies, and minds with memories, fantasies, loyalties, identities'" (Kramsch, 2006, as quoted in Shahri, 2017, p. 21).

In Europe, where English is considered a lingua franca all over the continent (Seidlhofer, Breiteneder & Pitzl, 2006), it is well known that people have commonly considered learning other languages besides English as relevant. This can be explained as Europeans in general (particularly those who belong to the European Union), view languages not only as mere economic, job-enhancing tools, but also as a feature of socially conscious human beings. Conversely, in the Latin American context, the role of education and language teaching has proved that foreign languages are a powerful tool in the construction of inter-subjectivities (Abrahams and Farias, 2010). Interestingly, the places where the biggest educational changes have come are not schools; it is everywhere else but schools (Prensky, 2010, p. 17). This is precisely because, even though it is known how learning a new language, in our case English, can impact and benefit us, the way in which it is being taught in schools is debatable. In most countries, particularly in Latin America, English teaching is mainly focused solely on grammar and vocabulary teaching. Moreover, most lessons are teacher-centred

where the students have no voice and participation at all; and according to Richards (2005), who differentiates Mechanical, Meaningful and Communicative activities, most lesson activities are absolutely mechanical, even though there are a large number of different methods to be used in the classroom in which students would have more participation and stimulation when learning.

Students need to express themselves in more active and creative ways. For this to occur, lesson activities should be meaningful for students. A good example of this is the one that Nunan (2004) mentions in which the activities and lessons are based on the students' language needs, providing authentic and meaningful communicative situations in which both knowledge and learners' experience allow the actual learning of the target language. Hence, it is necessary to enhance students' language learning through communicative-oriented lessons focused on their interests; otherwise, there will be no room for social interaction and all that is implied by it. As it was previously mentioned, teachers are the main agents that encourage socially conscious thinking at school level, and this is true for English teachers as well. Educators are agents of change when they are able to enhance students' capacity to wonder and change behaviours and beliefs. Given the already stated importance English has achieved, both teaching it and learning it may be fundamental to change an individual's thinking. The contribution of foreign languages may also help attain a better understanding and dominion of the mother tongue and, while also enhancing reflective capacity, thus transforming learners into active agents involved in encouraging socially conscious thinking in others as well (Madrid, 1998).

5. THE CHILEAN REALITY

After having reviewed the international context, we will review what the literature directly indicates about Chile. There has been some valuable research about the study of the English language in our country, highlighting the works of Barahona (2014, 2015), and Abrahams and Farías (2009). Now, let us complement what has been researched by

Barahona on the topic with what has been stated by the governmental institution in charge of promoting the development of education at all levels in the Chilean system, the Ministry of Education (MINEDUC). Moreover, and to further understand the reasons behind the teaching of English in Chile, it is worth exploring the work of Abrahams and Farías in order to grasp a deeper comprehension of EFL teaching in the Chilean context.

5.1 RESEARCH IN CHILE

The topic of the present study, related to the preparation of EFL teachers as agents of change and fosterers of reflective thinking, touches on the issue of socio-linguistics and the preparation of English educators as social entities in the Chilean system. One expert on this issue, Malba Barahona, has researched extensively the matter from a sociocultural perspective of learning. From this perspective, she defines the activity of *learning to teach* as,

"A continual, mutually mediating process of appropriation and *social action*, where practitioners take on the cultural practices that are valued in the social situations of their development whether these settings are schools or universities and employ them in turn to shape that social situation" (Barahona, 2014, p. 1).

The keywords in this statement, from this research's point of view, are social action and social situations. As a process, learning to teach, and learning as such, is a social action since it occurs through a dialectic relation between social entities (teacher and teacher-to-be). Thus, educators can be regarded as social actors who undertake their labour in the social situation of teaching a group or an individual in its most traditional setting, an educational institution. This dialectic relation is the base of Barahona's line of inquiry, as she approaches her research from a CHAT perspective.

The CHAT (Cultural Historical Activity Theory) approach, rooted on the works of Vygotsky (1978), and furthered by Leont'ev (1978) and Engeström (1987), is a theory that considers culture as a critical foundation for human development and learning. In the words of Ellis et.al (2010), the *Cultural Historical Activity Theory* offers an understanding that

“human development relies on the appropriation of pre-existing cultural tools and that this appropriation occurs through social interchange” (Barahona, 2015, p. 19). In other words, CHAT asserts that humanity has developed through a continuous dialectical relation between social groups that clash in terms of cultural appropriation; when a group clashes with another, a confrontation of cultural paradigms occurs that results in the adoption of the “winning” model.

The CHAT perspective can be applied to our matter of study by asserting that teaching as an activity is as dynamic and contradictory as human nature; there is a contradiction between beliefs and actions among pre-service teachers, as “their beliefs about language teaching and learning emerged in the contexts of school and university, current experiences and past experiences as learners” (Barahona, 2014, p. 2). The conflict between Chilean pre-service teachers' previous perceptions on TEFL starts from their reasons for enrolling in the TEFL programme in the first place. According to Barahona's research (Pre-service teachers' beliefs in the activity of learning to teach English in the Chilean context, The Australian National University); the most important reason EFL students study English pedagogy was to learn the language over becoming educators (Barahona, 2014). These beliefs and perceptions are a heritage from their own learning experience at school, in which most have been taught English from a grammar-oriented approach, resulting in the idea that an English teacher must be a carrier of a language, of a cultural tool, and not a carrier of values, an educator. Their personal perceptions later clashed with the reality of their placement or practicum experiences, when they contrasted their own school experience as students learning English with their experience learning to teach the language at university, and then teaching the language at school as educators. Their past and current experiences collided, defying their beliefs and constructing new ones based on their reflections. “Their own past experiences as learners of English at school, provided them with a view of an English class, which contrasted with the university English classes” (2014, p. 4).

In Barahona's research, many of the pre-service teachers she worked with communicated their perception of an English teacher as an agent of change at the beginning of the semester. For instance, one student expressed his strong commitment to make a

difference as a teacher. “The idealistic beliefs of themselves as teachers changed as they engaged in actual teaching in their school placement. Their concepts of being a teacher were (before) much more concerned about practical skills, rather than making a difference in society”. Their beliefs started to move from being a vehicle for a language to using the language as vehicle to teach “something else”, “something meaningful for the students' lives” (Barahona, 2014, p. 5).

After reviewing Barahona's work, it is clear that there may be a tendency behind the intentions of pre-service teachers of English to study English Pedagogy. Whether or not they subscribe to those intentions should not be relevant to this research. However, having only one vision regarding the preparation of EFL teachers in Chile is not enough. For this, it is worth examining what the official voice says about the teaching of English in Chile. Therefore, it is necessary to inspect and compare what has been previously mentioned in the present chapter with documents that serve as statute for the EFL teaching in the educational system in the country: The Framework for Good Teaching and The Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes, as they are defined by the Chilean Ministry of Education, MINEDUC. Both may provide a potentially unbiased insight on the topic.

5.2 ABOUT THE FGT & THE OSEPP

The “Framework for Good Teaching” (FGT) is an instrument elaborated by the Ministry of Education from the reflection of three work teams: MINEDUC, the Chilean Association of Municipalities, and the Chilean Teachers' Association (*Colegio de Profesores de Chile*). Its production considered criteria from the national and international experience on the professional labour of teachers from the educational system. The purpose of the FGT is to represent the responsibilities a teacher must carry out on a daily basis in the classroom, the school, and the community, which contribute to the success of the teacher's labour (MINEDUC, 2008).

The FGT seeks to answer the following questions about teachers' pedagogical labour:

- What must a teacher know?
- What must a teacher know how to do?
- How well must the teacher's pedagogical labour be conducted?
- How well it is being conducted?

Additionally, in order to be measurable, the FGT has been clustered in 4 domains, following the complete cycle of the educational process:

- A. Teaching preparation
- B. Creation of an appropriate environment for learning
- C. Teaching for the learning of all the students, and
- D. A teacher's professional responsibilities.

Each domain has a specific set of criteria that describes the performative characteristics every teacher should master in order to be well evaluated by MINEDUC according to four pre-established levels of performance: Unsatisfactory, Elementary, Competent, and Prominent (High Distinction).

The analysis of the Framework for Good Teaching has become a relevant part of the curriculum of different tertiary institutions, especially regarding the areas of pedagogical preparation. This responds to the current demand of the Chilean government for what it has defined as quality education. The institutions in charge of training future educators have taken notice of the framework and put special interest into the certification of teachers who comply with the necessary competencies to perform well in the four domains. If what motivates these institutions to submit to the FGT are economic interests or genuine awareness of the country's need for "better teachers", is for observers to define. What is undisputable, however, is that, unlike the Chilean English curriculum, the possibilities of finding a relationship between quality teaching, as defined by the four domains of the

framework, and the development of reflective, socially aware citizens may be patent, or at least somewhat present, in the FGT after its analysis.

A. Teaching preparation	B. Creation of an appropriate environment for learning
<p>A1. Dominates the contents of the disciplines taught and the national curriculum.</p> <p>A2. Knows the characteristics, knowledge and experiences of the students.</p> <p>A3. Dominates the didactics of the disciplines taught.</p> <p>A4. Organises the objectives and contents according to the curriculum and the particular characteristics of the students.</p> <p>A5. The evaluation strategies are coherent with the learning objectives, the discipline taught, the national curriculum, and it allows every student to demonstrate what they have learned.</p>	<p>B1. Establishes an environment of acceptance relationships, fairness, trust, solidarity and respect.</p> <p>B2. Manifests high expectations about the possibilities of learning and development of all the students.</p> <p>B3. Establishes and keeps consistent rules of coexistence within the classroom.</p> <p>B4. Establishes an organised work environment and arranges the space and resources according to the expected learning outcomes.</p>
D. Professional responsibilities	C. Teaching for the learning of all the students
<p>D1. The teacher systematically reflects upon his/her own performance.</p> <p>D2. Builds professional and team relationships with his/her peers.</p> <p>D3. Assumes responsibilities about students' guidance.</p> <p>D4. Develops relations of collaboration and respect with the students' parents.</p> <p>D5. Manages updated information about his/her profession, the educational system and the current policies.</p>	<p>C1. Communicates the learning objectives in a clear and precise way.</p> <p>C2. The teaching strategies are challenging, coherent and meaningful for the students.</p> <p>C3. The content of the class is developed with conceptual rigorousness and is understandable for all the students.</p> <p>C4. Optimises the available learning time.</p> <p>C5. Promotes the development of thinking.</p> <p>C6. Evaluates and monitors the process of comprehension and appropriation of the contents by the students.</p>

Fig. 2: Detailed criteria for each domain of the Framework for Good Teaching (FGT)
Source: MINEDUC, 2008, p. 11

After analysing this framework, we observe that most of its components are not necessarily pertinent to the development of reflective thinking. Domain A deals mostly with lesson planning and the professional preparation of every teacher; Domain B deals with the

relationship between students and learning, and the teacher's ability to create an appropriate learning environment; Domain C deals with the actual class work, from the communication of the objectives to the evaluation of each content; and Domain D deals with the analysis of the teacher's own performance and his/her relation with the respective community of practice. However, if we closely observe each criterion per domain, we note that the criterion C.5 ("Promotes the development of thinking") is the only one that refers to some extent to the matter of reflective thinking. Consulting the original MINEDUC document, the criterion C.5 is extensively described in terms of encouraging students to establish a relationship between their previous and newly acquired knowledge of objects, events and phenomena, guiding them towards topics related to the curriculum's OFTs (*Objetivos Fundamentales Transversales*) in order to foster their value-construction process.

In the official FGT document, the criterion is further supported by alleging that all good educators need to encourage the enhancement of the students' thinking through explicit strategies for a deeper, broader and autonomous thought process. These strategies include stimulating the analysis of facts and phenomena by using their own previous knowledge and experiences, seeking and selecting the necessary (contrasting) information needed to support their own judgement and evaluate that of others (MINEDUC, 2008). Furthermore, these strategies also imply enhancing creative thinking, which may be related to reflective thinking in terms of its use when confronting previously acquired and newly acquired knowledge, facts or situations, elaborating diverse solutions to newly identified problems and generating new ideas, which is pertinent to the development of thinking and conscience of the students (MINEDUC, 2008).

In short, the criterion C.5 of the Framework for Good Teaching invites students to elaborate their own answers, develop their autonomous and creative thinking through the formulation of questions with open answers, without imposing absolute truths, through the interaction with different sources and different classmates' opinions, analysing topics that go beyond mere contents, as in the case of topics related to the OFTs (MINEDUC, 2008, p. 31).

In addition to the FGT, a more recent document was commissioned by MINEDUC and written by a group of EFL teaching experts in Chile from different national schools, national

universities (UAH, Universidad de Concepción, Universidad Austral, Universidad de Chile, USACH, UMCE, UST, UCSH, Universidad Chileno-Británica), as well as international universities (Leeds, Michigan, Stanford, and The New School for Public Engagement). The Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes (OSEPP), as the document is called, were developed in order to indicate what every teacher of English in Chile must know how to do and the degree of knowledge they should have respecting their performance. The standards were created in 2013 according to what the LGE (*Ley General de Educación*, 2009) establishes, and have a double function, as they indicate the competences an English teacher should have in terms of “what” (observable aspects and dimensions) and “how much” (how far or close to a certain desirable degree of competence) they need to know and deliver regarding disciplinary and pedagogical standards (MINEDUC, 2014, p. 7).

<i>Disciplinary Standards</i>	<i>Pedagogical Standards</i>
<p>A future English teacher must:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Understand the elements of the English language and implement this knowledge into the students' communicative skills. 2. Understand the importance of the students' comprehension skills of oral, written and multimodal texts. 3. Understand the importance of the development of the students' oral and written expression skills. 4. Understand the importance of the integral development of the students' communicative skills. 5. Understand the value of evaluation. 6. Communicate fluently in English (C1 level) 7. Dominate and apply proper learning theories. 8. Design, select and adapt didactic materials. 9. Understand the importance of cultural diversity. 10. Recognise the importance of continuing education and permanent pedagogical reflection. 	<p>A future English teacher must:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Know his/her students and how they learn. 2. Be prepared to promote personal and social development among students. 3. Know the curriculum and how to apply it to analyse and formulate pedagogical applications. 4. Design and use strategies based on objectives. 5. Be prepared to manage the class and create a suitable learning environment. 6. Know and apply evaluation methods and provide feedback. 7. Know how the school culture works and changes. 8. Be prepared to acknowledge and integrate diversity in the classroom. 9. Communicate effectively in situations related to his/her pedagogical labour. 10. Keep learning and reflect about his/her pedagogical labour and the educational system.

Fig. 3: Summary of the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes
Source: MINEDUC, 2014, pp. 15-18

The Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes address the multiple institutions currently training English teachers for both primary and secondary education in Chile.

After reviewing each one of the standards contained in the document, it was possible to identify some points which integrated the development of critical and creative thinking, and to some extent reflective thinking on the expected performance of EFL teachers. For example, among the disciplinary standards, it is stated that the expected performance is manifested when an English teacher recognises the importance of written and oral comprehension as a means to develop critical and creative thinking of students (standard 2); communicates students the learning objectives and evaluation in order to promote reflection on their own learning (standard 5); designs and plans activities that develop critical and creative thinking, and stimulates critical analysis and constructive discussion (standards 7 and 9) (MINEDUC, 2014, pp. 23-34). On the other hand, among the pedagogical standards, the expected performance is manifested when an English teacher knows strategies to develop the students' decision-making skills by promoting critical reasoning (standard 2), and also knows how to promote the understanding of the objectives behind the activities done in class by communicating them. The latter in order to enable students to increasingly direct and regulate their own work (standard 5) (2014, pp. 38-71). Thus, it is possible to identify explicit references to critical and creative thinking in various standards, while reflective thinking is only recognisable as an implicit part of the thought processes involved.

In short, both the Framework for Good Teaching (2008) and the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes (2014) partially include the development of reflective thinking in students as one of the expected abilities of an English teacher. Even if the concept is not explicitly referred to, or overlaps with the more frequently used term "critical thinking", it may be extracted by close analysis and reflection as there cannot be critical or creative thinking without a respective reflective exercise.

Finally, it is important to note that these two documents (FGT and OSEPP) were selected over the analysis of the Chilean English curriculum since the former two describe the

overall labour of an educator in terms of both his/her pedagogical and disciplinary work, allowing some leeway for a definition of an English teacher beyond mere content, while the latter considers almost exclusively the contents to teach as determined by MINEDUC.

In the pursuit of a more thorough review of the literature regarding the topic of the preparation of Chilean English teachers as fosterers of reflective thinkers, it is valid to explore some of the possible reasons behind the teaching of English in our country, a matter which is explored by Mary Jane Abrahams and Miguel Farías in their research work “Struggling for Change in Chilean EFL Teacher Education” (2010).

5.3 ENGLISH IN CHILE: WHY?

Following our line of investigation, we find that the work of Abrahams and Farías differentiates from Barahona’s research in terms of its core objective. The work of the latter serves the purpose of a diagnosis of the current situation of newly qualified teachers (NQT, as Abrahams and Farías put it), while the former seeks a similar objective than the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes, which is to serve as a proposal to be considered by the different entities that prepare English teachers in Chile, specifically as a guideline for curricular innovation (Abrahams & Farías, 2010). Of course, the researchers’ work takes a step further into the matter, as they not only suggest a change in the curriculum (while the OSEPP only aims to foster the new professional responsibilities of teachers), but they also delve into the reasons for the need of a change in the paradigm of the teaching of English in Chile.

Their theoretical framework is very critical to understanding the true reasons behind EFL teachers’ training in many different Chilean programmes. This states that “the neoliberal policies Chile embarked on are leaving quality (English education) standards in the hands of the market” (Abrahams & Farías, 2010, pp. 112-113). This situation poses a series of issues that according to the authors may hinder the process of understanding that English education “plays an important role in providing our societies with teachers endowed with a clear role as social actors and intercultural agents of change” (2010, p. 111).

The preparation of these agents of change is subjected to forceful criticism when it is left in hands of private EFL teaching programmes, as it has been occurring since the 1980s in Chile. Abrahams and Farías' main concern has to do with the disregard evinced by the government regarding language's key role in the construction of communities (of interest and practice), in benefit of the market-oriented vision that sees the importance of the teaching of English mainly for its technical component. As put by Abrahams and Farías: "languages play a fundamental role for social development and aid in preventing human isolation and fostering intercultural collaborations" (2010, p. 113).

This is the origin of the "struggle" that Abrahams and Farías address in their proposal. The forces of globalisation and international standards primarily associated with those of the UK and the US regarding EIL (Pennycook, 1994, in Abrahams & Farías, 2010) rule the national educational policies, posing high demands that are not being necessarily met. In most Latin American countries, there are two major types of educational policies. The first is oriented to the expansion of the educational system, seeking to bring English language education to more and more people to satisfy the needs of the market forces. The second seeks to improve the quality of the education that is being provided. In the region, the first one is the rule for most countries. "According to a 2006 Report by the Interamerican Development Bank, the formulation of education policy in the region is disproportionately skewed towards expansion and access, rather than quality and efficiency" (PREAL, 2006, in Abrahams & Farías, 2010, p. 112).

This is the direction that the authors' proposal strives to change under the premise that the power of language is a means for social transformation, to fight against social vices such as injustice and discrimination. Concretely, the curriculum proposal contains two major "encompassing strands": a disciplinary one and a methodological one. In the disciplinary component, the strand includes the preparation of English teachers to integrate the four language skills, a proper lexicogrammar and pronunciation training, culture and literature, and finally, *reflective and critical skills* (Abrahams & Farías, 2010, p. 116). Does this mean that reflective and critical thinking skills should be integrated into the English teaching curriculum or that they, as part of the current curriculum, from now on should have a more prominent

place in the professional preparation of English teachers in Chile? This is a question that will guide part of the research presented henceforth, as the development of socially conscious individuals highly depends on the presence of these reflective skills in the Chilean curriculum.

V METHODOLOGY

In the following chapter, we present the methodology used during the development of this research. In addition, we also address different topics closely related to methodology itself, such as the used instrument, the individuals who contributed with the research and how the data collected was analysed. Also, we explain and justify the validity of the instrument and methodology selected. All the topics mentioned before are referred in detail and ordered in different sections of this chapter, as follows.

Methodological Justification

In the research field, three types of methodology to conduct research regarding its nature can be found. First, we find the quantitative approach, a methodology that involves the processes of collecting, analysing, interpreting and writing the results of a study (Creswell, 2014). This type of research is based on empirical findings obtained by experiments that are expressed in numbers and statistics mainly. In this methodological approach, researchers establish a hypothesis which must be proved or rebutted using concrete evidence. On the other hand, there is qualitative research. This approach is based on the same processes used by the quantitative approach; however, its perspective is different. Qualitative methods use purposeful sampling, collection of open-ended data, analysis of text or pictures, representation of information in figures and tables, and personal interpretation of findings (Creswell, 2014). The third and last approach to conduct a research is the mixed method, which combines the quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

Considering the previous information and the fact that the main purpose of this research is to explore and show teachers' points of view and perceptions, our investigation is carried out using the qualitative approach. The reasons behind this decision are based on some of the features that qualitative research has regarding its exploratory nature, aspects that we consider to be its strengths and the main justification for taking this path.

One of the main characteristics of qualitative research, and one which makes it suitable to the nature of our investigation, is the fact that we are starting the research process with our minds open and without any preconceived idea regarding the results and visions that the participants may contribute with in the process, even despite our personal perspectives. In this sense, it is necessary to add that there is no hypothesis to conduct this research. As Chaudron (2000) states, the qualitative researcher does not want to verify or prove theories; what he/she attempts is to observe without neither bias nor narrow perspectives. It has as starting point a main research question and some sub questions that are the base to develop the instruments to be used, and subsequently, obtain the necessary data to analyse it and finally report our findings. That is the reason why "...the study is kept open and fluid so that it can respond in a flexible way to new details or opening that may emerge" (Dörney, 2007, p. 37).

This research intends to get different points of view, the different visions submitted by the participants regarding a phenomenon; in Dörney's words, their "subjective opinions, experiences and feelings of individuals" (2007, p. 38). Thus, a second feature of the qualitative approach that explains why it is ideal for this research arises: the possibility of getting an insider's viewpoint. For this reason, the research shows an emic perspective, in the words of Mackay and Gass (2005), interpreting phenomena in terms of the meanings people attach to them, which is another feature of qualitative approach. For all the above mentioned, it is valid to affirm that this research will be rich in descriptions. All data is product of different contexts and life experiences, so it "...should capture rich and complex details" (Dörney, 2007, p. 38). All these detailed descriptions would not be possible to capture by using a different research method.

It is necessary to add that as we collected teachers' impressions and viewpoints, we obtained a wide range of data to analyse, which is also a feature related to qualitative methodology. In this regard, the collected data is special because as Dörney (2007) establishes, this wide range of data, most transformed into textual form, will make sense of a set of cultural or personal meanings in the observed phenomena. In fact, this aspect is considered as the nature of qualitative data.

Regarding the strengths of this type of methodology, it can be said that they are also connected to the contribution that participants' opinions and their further analysis are going to make to the educational field and researchers in this area. In this regard, the different points of view "...broaden the repertoire of possible interpretations of human experience. Data obtained can widen the scope of our understanding and can add data-given depth to the analysis of a phenomenon" (Dörney, 2007, p. 40). Thus, the answers provided by the participants may give the chance to do further investigations using this research as a starting point. Also in this regard, it is important to mention that due to the nature of the chosen methodology, the material obtained from it will be more meaningful, because it is extracted beyond the mere theoretical and academic world, being provided by teachers who interact with students in their classrooms every day, taking an active part in the Chilean educational system. In other words, the participants were helpful when deciding which aspects of the collected data required more and special attention since, as they were the main actors in the whole process, they helped us distinguish the real phenomena from our possible intellectual fabrications.

Sampling procedure and instrument

As in qualitative research, the main goal is to find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights to the phenomenon under investigation, so as to maximise what we can

learn about it (Dörney, 2007, p. 126), we considered that the most suitable instrument to develop the present investigation was the interview. By conducting an interview, we were able to focus on understanding and clarifying a human experience, describing the aspects that make it idiosyncratic rather than determining it (2007, p. 126), making possible to show and explore the participants' perspectives on our research questions as well. In this regard, it is necessary to specify that the type of interview that was conducted for this research was of a semi-structured nature. Although it would have been ideal for mere practical purposes to conduct a structured interview, presenting the same set of questions to participants thus making easier to analyse the results by comparing the answers of respondents, this course of action would have reduced the investigation to a simple questionnaire and diminished the chance of obtaining valuable data. On the other hand, unstructured interviews would have been also an ideal method considering that the objective was to obtain varied data to enrich the research process. Nevertheless, if the interviewer was not careful and experienced enough, the interview itself would have become overlong, hence more complex to analyse. For that reason, a semi-structured interview was more appropriate, because although the researchers had a pre-elaborated set of questions as a route to develop the interview, there was the chance to add more questions to delve into the research questions and, in that way, enrich the data collection process.

For all the reasons previously stated, the research sampling chosen to work with was the purposeful sampling. In this type of sampling, the objective is "...to select information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under study" (Patton, 2002, p. 230). In relation to this, it is also necessary to specify the type of sampling design that we decided to use, which was the homogenous sampling. In words of Patton, the purpose here is to describe some particular subgroup in depth. In this particular case, the researchers did not use descriptions during the data collection process. However, descriptions were used to punctuate the candidates and during the analysis.

Another relevant aspect to point out is the sample size of the research. As a starting point, we considered to have five respondents. However, as the research progressed we would reconsider the number of participants if the point of saturation was not reached.

Nevertheless, it was not necessary because additional data did not seem to develop any further, but to repeat previous information.

Candidates

The candidates chosen for our research were five people, who had to fulfil the following characteristics:

1. All of them had to be English teachers, that is to say, they had to have a degree in English Pedagogy.

2. Three of them had to be working in the School System (preferably, secondary education).

- 2.1 From the three respondents, one of them had to have between five and ten years of experience working as an EFL teacher, the other one had to have between ten and fifteen years working as an EFL teacher, and the last one had to have more than fifteen years working as an EFL teacher. The gap between each teacher was set according to their years working as EFL teachers in order to appreciate if they thought differently based on that criterion.

3. Due to the fact that we already had three teachers working in the school system, we thought it was necessary to add the visions of at least two teachers of Higher education, in order to have a broader spectrum of the reality in our country regarding these aspects. We chose a pedagogy teacher, because we considered vital to have the perspective of a professional training future educators, who subsequently will educate other people within the school system. In addition, we chose an EFL teacher who taught lessons in any other higher education programme, to have different points of view regarding our research question.

4. Candidates' gender was not selective.
5. Candidates' age was not selective.
6. Candidates' workplace was not selective in terms of their administration (they could have been public, semi-private or private education institutions).
7. Candidates' residence had to be in Santiago de Chile (Región Metropolitana). Regarding this characteristic, we thought that including teachers from other regions of our country would have been interesting and ideal. However, because of practical purposes (time, distance, availability, etc.), we decided to focus only on the areas which were more accessible for us.

Instrument

In order to develop the instrument, each member of the research team elaborated a set of questions responding those to the objectives and research questions. After that, one of the researchers was in charge of selecting the most suitable questions and organise them logically, omitting the ones with similar content or not relevant to our purposes. The following step taken was to discuss the questions presented in order to select only ten. The first one was exploratory and it was used as an ice-breaker in order to make the participants feel more comfortable and willing to continue with the following questions. Questions two to eight were related to the main objective, specific objectives and research questions in different degrees; it was developed in this way as it was crucial that the instrument were directly linked to our research questions and purposes. Finally, the last one was thought as an additional closing question, in order to gather more information if necessary.

The final selection of questions was as follows:

1. Why did you decide to become an English teacher?
2. Today in Chile, is it the same teaching English than any other language?
3. What do you think about reflective thinking in Chilean Classrooms?
4. How may learning English lead our students to be more socially aware citizens?
5. Do you foster critical and socially conscious thinking in your lessons? -If so, why and how do you do it? -If not, why? How would you do it?
6. Are you familiar with the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes and the Framework for Good Teaching? -If so, what do you know about them? (Mention two or three aspects) Would you include them in your lessons? Why? Why not? How? -If not, (we provided a short explanation of them) Had you known about them, would you have included them in your lessons? Why? Why not? How?
7. Regarding the instruments previously mentioned, do you think these foster or hinder the development of socially conscious and reflective citizens? How?
8. According to your experience, how does the way English is being currently taught in Chile propel the development of reflective students? What about the educational institution you are currently working at?
9. Do you encourage your students towards autonomous English learning beyond classroom walls? -If so, how and for what purpose? -If not, why not?
10. Should everyone in Chile learn English? -If so, why and how should we teach it? -If not, why?

Before the interviews were performed, the questions above were assessed by three experts, contacted before-hand by a member of the research team in order to validate the instrument. All the experts were teachers of tertiary education working on the field of English Teaching for Pedagogy Programmes in different institutions. One of the teachers worked at Universidad de Santiago de Chile, and the other two worked at Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación.

Data collection & analysis

As it was mentioned before, the chosen data collecting method was the interview. These interviews were conducted in a place previously agreed with the respondent, the same happened with respect to the date and time. Regarding the people who conducted the interviews, we decided it was crucial for them we could provide a safe and friendly atmosphere. For this reason, the researchers who were closer to the respondents were in charge of performing the interviews. However, the interviewer was accompanied by another member of the research team at the moment of the interview, in order to check technical issues and provide assistance if necessary. The data itself was recorded using a recorder and a mobile phone as a backup system, or two mobile phones.

The interview was performed either in English or Spanish according to the interviewee's personal preference. This aspect was previously informed to the participants when the consent form was delivered. Still, the research team accounted for an English version only of the instrument. However, if the interviewees had doubts regarding the questions or the language, the interviewers or the assistants were available to answer or clarify their queries. Due to the fact that the research was focused on English teachers and that the analysis was thought to be carried out entirely in English, if the participant or the

interviewer used their mother tongue during the session, their answers were later translated accordingly to English in the data analysis by the interviewers. Later on, this translation and consequent analysis was double-checked by the researchers in charge of transcribing the interviews and the rest of the research team as well.

The estimated time to develop each interview was between forty-five and sixty minutes (if more time was needed, we considered a maximum of ten extra minutes).

Regarding the form in which the interview was presented, the respondents were handed in an informed consent form beforehand (at least one week before), in which we explained how the interview would be conducted and to ask for their permission to record, transcribe, quote and analyse their reflections and ideas during the research process.

Coding for Data analysis

Concerning the data analysis process, and different from quantitative preconceived categories, in our analysis these categories were inferred inductively from the data collected. We used a content analysis crafted by Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) as it follows the much-generalised sequence of coding for themes, looking for patterns, making interpretations, and building a theory (as quoted by Dörney, 2007). To accomplish this, a process of transcribing the interviews was performed by two researchers in order to validate the instrument. Following this, another member of the research team checked those transcriptions. All researchers read the interviews at least twice, and then the most relevant aspects and any piece of information that called their attention –even if it was not directly related to our topic- were highlighted. Taking notes and adding informative labels was highly recommended. Through this first process, the main categories to analyse arose, and we moved forward to the next step: coding. Regarding the labels used, clarity was the most important feature.

For the interviews, some of the coding used can be seen here:

Concept	Coding	Concept	Coding
Interviewee 1	INT1	Question 9	Q9
Interviewee 2	INT2	Question 10	Q10
Interviewee 3	INT3	Answer 1	A1
Interviewee 4	INT4	Answer 2	A2
Interviewee 5	INT5	Answer 3	A3
Main Interviewer	MINT	Answer 4	A4
Assistant	AST	Answer 5	A5
Question 1	Q1	Answer 6	A6
Question 2	Q2	Answer 7	A7
Question 3	Q3	Answer 8	A8
Question 4	Q4	Answer 9	A9
Question 5	Q5	Answer 10	A10
Question 6	Q6	Framework for Good Teaching	FGT
Question 7	Q7	Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes	OSEPP
Question 8	Q8		

VI

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At continuation, we will present our research's results after thoroughly analysing them and having outlined the main categories or concepts arose in the process. For these categories to be developed, the authors underscored the most relevant aspects obtained from the applied instrument, focusing to the letter on these data in order to come up with reliable results and further conclusions.

Research results

We have gathered up our results around four main notions as they summarise the quality of the answers collected. These notions are *English in general*, *Reflective thinking*, *FGT & OSEPP*, and *English teaching*. These four groups come up after developing the categories presented further. The criteria to account for the results are: *All* (five respondents), *Most of* (three to four respondents), *A minority* (one to two respondents), and *None* (none of the respondents).

English in general (importance, differences, etc.)

- All participants remark that the interest in English language was not their first option.
- All participants believe that teaching English is different from teaching another language, due to, for example, cultural differences, and the source of the language, among others.

- All participants expose different advantages associated to learning English as a second language.
- Most participants relate the importance of learning English to its place in the global economy, allowing better job opportunities, and access to more information, among others.
- Most participants consider English as a global or universal language.
- Most teachers declare that English is an elitist language whose learning process is associated with social position.
- Most participants claim there is no questioning about why English is the first and most important language when learning.

Reflective Thinking (social awareness, critical thinking).

- All teachers mention that reflective thinking is fundamental but hindered by institutions, peers, students and curriculum.
- Most participants consider that reflective thinking is either insufficient or inexistent in Chilean classrooms.
- Most teachers provide methods to teach English to develop socially conscious citizens. For example, by teaching them values, discussing about other cultural realities and promoting group work.
- Most participants state to be actively involved in enhancing critical skills when teaching their students. For instance, by giving them real life situations to discuss about and creating dialogue instances.
- Most participants intertwine critical thinking with reflective thinking. There is no conceptual clarity.
- Most participants view reflective thinking as downgraded, insufficient or inexistent.

-When asked about the concept of social-awareness, most participants relate this concept whether to reflective thinking or critical thinking. However, none of the participants mentions the concept of social awareness on their own initiative.

-A minority of the participants refers to critical thinking while talking about reflective thinking.

-A minority of the participants expresses that reflective thinking is hindered by time restrictions.

FGT and OSEPP.

-All participants affirm to know the FGT.

-Most teachers assert that the FGT is just a guideline and it does not determine how to develop their lessons.

-A minority of the teachers relates the OSEPP with standardise tests or the European Common Language Framework.

-None of the teachers knows about OSEPP.

-None of the teachers figures how the FGT may help in the task of reflective thinking.

English teaching (self-motivated students, teaching methods, evolution of teaching).

-All participants point out motivation as a barrier to learn in their classrooms.

-All participants claim to be involved, in one way or another, in the development of English in their students.

- All participants provide different opinions in relation to the teacher's role. For example: someone who is an agent of change, someone who perceives their students' needs, someone who concerns about their students, etc.
- Most teachers declare that autonomous learning was related to self-motivated students.
- Most participants consider technology as a facilitator regarding learning process.
- Most participants declare to have changed their teaching style throughout the years.
- Most participants point out the use of Grammar Translation Method as part of the past of English teaching.
- Most participants agree that the educative model plays an important role in how they develop the classes.
- Most participants claim that they only help the students that show interest.
- Most participants affirm there is Curriculum and Methodological inconsistency in our Educative system.
- A minority of the participants claims a need for further training.
- A minority of the participants declares that English teaching should be done through communication.
- A minority of the participants declares that curriculum changes are needed and the ones occurring are focused only in new teachers.

Categories

After discussing the main concepts, ideas and comments obtained from the interviews, we went through a process of reducing this information in order to come up with

specific categories that could cover as thoroughly as possible the different opinions, perceptions, reflections and ideas delivered by the selected candidates. Given that some of these contributions overlapped at times or were redundant, we chose to outline them under the umbrella of the following categories: 1) Interest in English, 2) Difference between English and other languages teaching, 3) Reflective Thinking, 4) English teaching/learning for social awareness, 5) OSEPP & FGT and, 6) English language. Of course, the main criterion behind this course of action was the amount of times referred to and/or the relevance given by our respondents to these topics, accounting at the same time for what our chosen instrument stressed in terms of the information we were pursuing to explore in the present work. Other categories such as Personal Involvement, Critical Thinking, English Teaching in Chile, English Teacher's role, and Autonomous Learning, were also considered as sub categories within the above mentioned given their importance in terms of how present they were in our data. Categories as previous experience and English for specific purposes were disregarded given their scarce presence in the obtained information.

Category analysis

The analysis that follows focuses on the categories already defined and highlights, by quoting our respondents, the viewpoints regarding the specific matters our instrument intended to explore in the first place and, consequently, characterise.

Category n° 1: Interest in English.

According to the interviews carried out, there are clearly different opinions regarding the interest in English. INT1 in A1 stated that English was the first aim before Pedagogy. This can be seen as follows:

“Me di cuenta cuando estaba haciendo mi práctica. Porque la verdad que cuando yo elegí estudiar no era mi primera prioridad. Ahora, el Inglés sí” (I realised when I was doing my placement. Because if the truth should be told, it was not my first priority when I chose what to study. Now, English was it).

Conversely, the one given by INT5 in A1 followed an opposite approach when he says that English teaching was an early interest, *“Bueno yo, decidí ser profesor de inglés porque me gustaba enseñar, me gusta todavía enseñar” (Well, I decided to become an English teacher because I liked teaching, I still do).* On the other hand, INT2 and INT3 in A1 said something different, because for them English was secondary, but pedagogy was their first goal. According to INT2, English was a finding;

“I didn’t expect to become an English teacher. In fact, I started studying History, became a teacher of History and after one year I decided to make a change in my life, so I started studying to become a teacher of English.”

Also, INT3 stated that pedagogy was first and English second;

“I had always wanted to be a teacher; since I was a child (...) I started to do it in French, but didn’t finish my training in that (...) I figured, well, why not? Why not to teach English to other people”.

Different from all these answers would be the one given by INT4 in A1, where he stated that English was a last resource, after coursing programmes different from Pedagogy. He says:

“I wanted to be a medical doctor and enter (sic) the University of Chile in Medicine, but I rejected it as soon as I realised that it was not the career for me. Then I went to study Agronomy (...) my main subjects for the future were drawing or languages and then I get spirited and I started in the British Institute studying (sic)”.

Related to Interest in English, some answers also revealed information about the level of personal involvement into the matter. This is an aspect we have gathered as a sub-

category within the former as we considered that the personal approach towards upgrading the quality of English might be directly related to the level of interest teachers initially exhibit regarding the language. Concurrently, INT2, INT3, INT4, and INT5 in A5 stated that they all were actively involved from different perspectives. INT2 declared that his involvement was through pedagogical strategies, as he tries to promote *“socially conscious thinking (...) for example with topics, with the topics that you work (sic)”*. Similar to this, INT3 answered that her involvement was intended and actively critical, as she states:

“I think I do. I try to, anyways and I try to question, because I always question the way things are done in teaching and I do that to my students (sic) (...) I try to recall on their experiences and then use that as a starting point”.

Similarly, INT4 answered that his involvement was attempted indirectly, as he says:

“I’m all the time when I’m teaching the medicine students to reflect about, about, their condition in society, and no out of society. Because, the medical doctors, sometimes, they think they’re for the patient when they obtain their money, they are in society (sic)”.

Conversely, according to INT5, his involvement was solely attempted when the content required it, expressing it as follows:

“Cuando nosotros trabajamos por ejemplo un contenido donde se habla formas culturales diferentes (...) ellos tienen la oportunidad de poder expresarse (...) pero no es algo que sea constante, o sea algo, solamente cuando se ve el contenido” (When we work, for example a content where different cultural forms are spoken (...), they [the students] have the opportunity to express themselves (...), however, this is not constant, but only when the content is seen).

Finally, widening all these opinions regarding Personal Involvement, INT1 declared that hers was intended but stalled. As she declares:

“A ver, qué es lo que hace uno (...) ponerlo en situaciones frente a la que ellos tengan que dar opinión, pero a lo mejor lo que no he hecho y me gustaría hacer es poniendo

en práctica los debates” (Let us see, what does one do (...) to put [the student] in situations in which they have to give an opinion, but maybe what I have not done and I would like to do is to put debates into practice).

And she adds:

“Los problemas más graves que tenemos aquí nosotros es el nivel de inglés con que llegan los alumnos de primero medio, entonces, hay que empezar de a poco” (the gravest problems we have here is the level of English the students have by the time they get to ninth grade, then, we have to start little by little).

Category nº 2: Difference between English and other languages teaching.

After analysing the different answers that our interviews provided, it is possible to mention that in terms of teaching a new language, the differences among them should be taken into account. While some of our interviewees declared that there is a difference between languages when teaching, others stated that even though there is no difference, other aspects are involved.

To start with, among the participants who defended this dissimilarity, INT1 in A2 suggested that there is a culturally-driven difference by mentioning:

“Yo creo que son diferentes y cada idioma tiene cosas diferentes (...) porque cuando uno enseña un idioma no enseña solamente lo que tiene que ver con gramática, sino que enseña cultura” (I think languages are different and each one has different elements (...) since, when you teach a language to a child, you are not only teaching what it has to do with grammar, but also culture).

When referring to the language teaching process, she adds:

“Entonces yo pienso que frente a eso, todos los idiomas se deberían enseñar así, ¿ya? que es un todo, es cultura, es costumbres, o sea, además de lo que tiene que ver con el uso del idioma en sí mismo” (So, I think that in order to address this situation, I would

say that all languages should be taught that way, right?, that it is a whole, it is culture, it is customs, that is, besides what has to do with the use of the language itself).

In terms of methodology and language itself, the same participant claimed to believe there is a difference depending on the source of the languages, exemplifying this by stating:

“Yo que tuve que estudiar italiano en un curso obligado en la Universidad. Encontraba que era mucho más fácil porque se acercaba más a nuestro idioma, pero desde ese modo yo diría que cambian las metodologías, la forma” (I had to study Italian in a compulsory course at University and I found it was much easier because it was closer to our own language, but I would say that methodologies and teaching style are the ones that change).

INT2 in A2 also agreed with the fact that there is a difference between English and other languages when teaching. INT2 claimed that the divergence between languages is presented because English is Global Economy-driven, since speaking any language that is not English does not have the same financial impact as this one. From the economic point of view, the participant manifests,

“When you speak English, which is the business language in some way, you can go to other countries, you can travel, you have many reasons why to study English, but if you study Portuguese, if you decide to study French, is not the same (sic)”.

In addition, in terms of teaching, INT2 stated that the main reason why English is the chosen language to be taught instead of any other is because of its global nature. Our interviewee adds: *“English is a global language nowadays, so when you are teaching English it’s because the economy in some way, or the global world is needing people who speak in English (sic)”*. Another opinion is the one given by INT5 in A2, whose difference regarding language teaching lies on the fact that English is encumbered by Spanish in terms of time provision when stating,

“Yo creo que la actualidad de la enseñanza de inglés en algunos establecimientos no tiene mucha importancia cómo enseñar lenguaje, por ejemplo, por la cantidad de horas que pueden ser destinadas para esto” (I think that the topicality of English teaching in some establishments does not have the same importance as Spanish teaching, for instance, because of the number of hours that can be allocated to this).

Besides, INT5 suggested that learners' exposure to the language should be considered when teaching. The interviewee claims in A2,

“La cantidad de horas que tienen estos niños no es suficiente como para poder cumplir el currículum a cabalidad (...) La enseñanza del idioma debe ser diario” (The number of English hours children have is not enough if trying to accomplish the curriculum in full (...) The Language Teaching must be carried out on a daily basis).

Moreover, among interviewees who think there is no difference between English and other languages in terms of relevance when teaching, INT3 in A2 declared that English excels in language teaching because of politic-economical influences when stating,

“English is the most commercial language in the world, and it's widely known, that if you speak English you have access to certain types of information, alright? possibilities, especially in the working field (...) no one questions why English and no another language. So, it is understood it's in the curriculum. The curriculum doesn't include other languages”.

Another aspect pointed out by INT4 in A2 has to do with how necessary a language is when teaching it. The interviewee declared that when deciding to learn a language, the person must have the need to do so. Under this statement the interviewee claims: *“I think that all the languages are learned because the person must have a need for the language”.* Following the previous interviewees' ideas, English leads the list owing to the fact that out of a necessity it has become more important. INT4 adds: *“... but mainly, as many people are in contact with (sic), develop economic or social context, like with the United States, Canada or England or Europe, in general speaking, English is a must.”*

To sum up, even though not all of the interviewees share the same thoughts regarding the main difference among languages when teaching, either because of political, cultural or economic reasons, English leads the list in terms of predisposition when deciding what language should be taught or learnt.

Category nº 3: Reflective thinking.

Regarding one of the key elements under analysis in the present work, the notion of reflective thinking and its prerogatives, our respondents provided a rich scope of information. INT1, INT3, and INT4 coincided in gathering it as downgraded, insufficient or inexistent as we can see it based on their A3,

“Yo creo que ésa es la parte en la que estamos fallando (...) no le estamos enseñando a nuestros alumnos a pensar. Yo creo que todavía estamos con el repetir muchas cosas y lo que falta que al alumno es ponerlo en situaciones en que logremos desarrollar su pensamiento, que sea crítico, que enfrente situaciones, todavía estamos más que repitiendo cosas” (I think that that is the part we are missing (...) we are not teaching our students to think. I think we are still repeating many things and what is lacking is to put the students in situations in which we get to develop their thinking, to be critical, to face situations, we are still just repeating things) (INT1).

On the same topic, INT3 adds:

“I think we need to start with the teachers. There’s no reflective practice now going on, there’s no time to reflect. I don’t mean reflection as the process of going into a room and sitting down and say: ok, now I’m going to reflect (...) I think the process of our reflective thinking is for me twenty four seven. So that you should reflect, especially in the teaching area, but every single class that you do, every single day, every single activity, you should question yourself (...) we need to install the need to

reflect not for reflecting per se, but reflecting with the objective of doing something about it”.

INT4 goes further into the matter in A4 as,

“The education, generally speaking, in Chile at least, is according to certain ideas, certain trends, and all the time changing (...) It’s very complicated, because even we cannot evaluate if we use some methodology, as that methodology is changing all the time”.

To address the lack of commitment towards reflective thinking-oriented teaching on behalf of peers and students, INT4 in A7 stresses, *“it’s very complicated for me to teach, here in Chile, reflective thinking, because it is not practiced for (sic) the other teachers”.* And he adds:

“When we are teaching a language (...) if you want to make them reflect about the things, you have to learn, you have to have them present in the materials (sic) (...) to present them in order to reflect, in order to analyse, in order to raise certain conclusions. But you have to be very conscious about what are you making them to reflect about, because Chilean students are not accustomed to reflect by just themselves (...) in our society there is no time for thinking, there is no time for reflecting. Or the reflection is very practical, very empiric”.

In A8, the same respondent widens his reflection regarding institutions and other programmes' lack of reflective interest as,

“In the area of sciences, they are based mainly on knowledge, not in reflection. That is the problem. And it is very difficult to make them to reflect (...) because you have a certain time-table. And you have a lot of students, forty-five students in class. Is there any moment for reflecting things? Out of the class we can reflect sometimes (...) but as teachers is very difficult (sic), we have different values at the school (...) so, it’s very complicated, it’s not easy. And if you talk with the person in charge in a school, the

person in charge of all the system, they are also pushed by the need of completing the programme and that is very complicated” – he finishes.

INT2 and INT5 contributed to the concept from a different approach. While both of them considered it as something relevant, INT2 in A3 focused on the teaching practice itself more than in the teaching process when addressing reflective thinking. He declares:

“You can have the reflection in action when you are teaching so, you are deciding what changes you are going to make in the classes. You can have reflection on action, something that you can do, maybe, before the class and obviously, you can have a post-reflection of what you did, so you can have different versions about what you are doing, and you can see your practice in different stages, at different moments”.

In a way, the respondent is addressing the FGT as he focuses on the lesson itself, in terms of preparation, teaching style, and reflection on our own teaching practice. On the other hand, INT5 in A3 equals the notion of reflective thinking with Ausubel's (1963) Meaningful Learning conception;

“Bueno, se va a relacionar con el aprendizaje significativo, lo que realmente le sirve a los estudiantes, más que contenido; o sea por ejemplo los alumnos pueden aprender a leer, pueden aprender a hablar, pueden aprender a escribir, y se les enseña desde, con un proyecto de colegio, basado en los planes del ministerio quizás” (Well, it is going to relate to Meaningful Learning, what really works for students, more than content; for instance, students can learn to read, to speak, to write, and they are taught based on a school project, based on the Ministry policies perhaps).

By interpreting reflective thinking as meaningful learning, even when not being homologous concepts, INT5 highlighted the similarity embedded in the nature of the reflective process concerning its quality as signifier of what we, as teachers and students, regard as meaningful. In the same fashion, INT3 in A8 distinguished between *Reflective Thinking* and *Reflective Practice* as she gathers the teaching practice as a course of action that should go beyond the theoretical scope. In her words,

“I think there is an effort, a conscious effort, being carried out in terms of understanding what reflective thinking is, and I talk more about reflective practice. I’d been in the area of practicum coordination for the last three years and we’ve carried out a lot of work in commissions and in seminars related to reflective practice, more than reflective thinking, which are two different things. I think that is that, this process that we are in right now, becoming aware, we are on the process of redesigning the curriculum (...) this is a very enriching time for discussions, and coming together in terms of the opinions and the way things should be carried out, which contents should be taken into consideration for certain aspects”.

It is relevant to highlight here that we have included Critical Thinking as a sub-category. This concept was described by some of our respondents not precisely outlined as something independent from Reflective Thinking or as a sub product of it, as we have already characterised it early in this research, but as an intertwined concept with the latter. For instance, we have already read INT1 in A3 including Critical Thinking as part of her definition of Reflective Thinking. In addition, INT2 in A4 referred to Critical Thinking when addressing the notion of social awareness, adducing the role English teaching would have regarding the matter as follows:

“I think that one of the important things is critical thinking, here, critical thinking is very important, because you can speak English but you have to be critical with certain topics, you have to be able to have an opinion about politics, economy, or the problems in the entire world, so when you have critical thinking, you are becoming an aware citizen, because you are criticising your own reality, and you are transforming the learning, into a conscious process, thanks to this. And obviously reflective thinking is something very important in critical thinking”.

It is interesting to notice how the respondent switched the role between the concepts, putting Reflective Thinking as part of Critical Thinking and not the other way around, contravening what we have attested previously.

Category nº 4: English teaching/learning for social awareness.

One of the main objectives of our research was to show the perspectives of the participants regarding the development of social awareness through English teaching. In this aspect INT1 mentions how it should be done in A4,

“Lo que enseñamos a los alumnos es habilidades, esas habilidades tienen que ver con trabajo con pares, trabajo en grupo, mucho que compartir (...) por lo tanto eso significa, le estamos enseñando a respetar, le estamos enseñando a escuchar y eso es parte de ser un buen ciudadano (...) el respeto es importante, el saber escuchar (...) el opinar, el argumentar, y eso es parte de nuestra sociedad y es por eso yo creo que sí estamos contribuyendo en ese sentido” (What we teach to students are abilities, those abilities have to do with pair work, group work, sharing a lot (...) so that means, we are teaching them to respect, we are teaching them to listen and that is part of being a good citizen (...) respect is important, to know how to listen (...) to give an opinion, to argue, and that is part of our society and is because of that that I think the we are contributing in that sense).

And she continues the same idea in A5, *“enfrentarse a situaciones, ser críticos y situaciones reales (...) el inglés se tiene que aprender en situaciones reales”* (to face situations, to be critical and real situations (...) English should be learned in real situations). INT2 shares a similar point of view as it can be seen in A4, *“you are becoming an aware citizen, because you are criticising your own reality, and you are transforming the learning, into a conscious process”*. Nevertheless, in this regard INT4 in A4 says, *“in English we have (...) other responsibilities to teach this social aspect”*.

In relation to this category, our findings show why and how to teach and learn English. INT2 and INT3 share similar opinions as it can be seen in INT2 A2, *“When you are teaching English it’s because the economy (...) is the business language (sic)”*; and INT3 in A2, *“English is the most commercial language in the world”*. Additionally, INT3 mentions the

following reasons in A2 as well *“It gives you access to other cultures, access to enjoy music, for example”*, and in A4,

“We have so many tools available, we have the skills, we have the knowledge, we have the capacity and we have the possibility of accessing information all over the world. That’s all there. You know? That we need to bring and adapt, and contextualise”.

INT4 in A2 states: *“In general, speaking English is a must”*, and in A5, *“we are teaching for the future, that’s making really different”*. In the same line, INT5 in A4 states:

“Es más fácil usar el inglés como lengua franca y comunicarse entre ellos y así conocer sus distintas costumbres o culturas” (It is easier to use English as lingua franca and communicate between them and get to know their different customs and cultures).

In relation to how to teach English, INT1 and INT5 provided different orientations as it can be seen in INT1 A10, *“Lo primero que tiene que hacer es aprender a escuchar (...) aprender a comunicarse” (The first thing to do is to learn to listen (...) to learn to communicate)*, and INT5 in A2, *“Creo que la enseñanza del idioma debe ser diario, se debe utilizar diariamente” (I think that teaching a language should be daily, it has to be used on a daily basis)*. In A8, INT5 adds, *“Siempre tenemos que trabajar en la base que los alumnos no saben nada todos los años” (We always have to work on the basis that students don’t know anything every year)*.

Regarding the evolution and perception of English learning and teaching, from a general point of view, INT1 in A2 answers, *“Cambian las metodologías, cambia la forma” (The methodologies change, the form changes)*, and in A3 INT1 completes the previous idea by saying:

“Recién ahora se está abriendo más con estas nuevas metodologías (...) un poco más que es el (...) enseñemos habilidades (...) y dentro de esas habilidades (...) vienen funciones y que (...) la gramática es parte de eso” (Only now it is opening with these

new methodologies (...) a little more that is (...) teaching abilities and inside these abilities (...) there are functions and (...) grammar is part of that).

In the same line, INT2 in A8 declares:

“Maybe English has been taught in this grammar translation method for too long (...) So, I think that when you bring these new communication approaches (...) all the stuff is going to be different, the assessments, the evaluations, the process itself, and the students seem to value more this (...) this method (sic)”.

On the other hand, from a more personal point of view INT1 in A3 claims:

“No como antes. Yo aprendí en la época antigua en que uno era verbo to be y (...) un cambio negativo cambio afirmativo, pero ahora (...) yo creo que (...) se está cambiando” (It’s not like before. I learnt in the old period in which it was verb to be and (...) changing negative changing affirmative, but now (...) I believe (...) it is changing (sic)).

Also, in A8 she states:

“Ahora mi forma de trabajar (...) es muy diferente a como yo empecé (...) dependiendo del nivel” (My way to work now (...) is very different that when I started (...) depending on the level).

Adding in A10,

“La forma como yo enseñaba inglés cuando entré, no es la misma que la que ahora (...) porque yo de cuando estudié en la universidad era gramática, solo gramática” (The way in which I taught English when I entered, is not the same than now (...) because when I studied at University it was grammar, only grammar).

In the same topic, INT3 in A3 states:

“When I first started out I didn’t reflect at all, I worked on the: this worked? (sic) I’m going to do it again. This didn’t work? Don’t do it, erase it (...) Years later, (...) I went back so, I revisited it (...) I revisited certain things that I used to do when I first started

out, and started to look at them from another point of view, and gave them a second chance”.

Within this category, we decided to include the sub-category of English Teaching in Chile. From the point of view of the education model, we found different visions among the participants. The first one is related to the grammar-oriented teaching style, as it can be seen in INT1 A8, *“[Hay que] olvidarse de que el inglés es enseñar solamente gramática” (Forget that teaching English is only teaching grammar)*; and INT4 in A3, *“In Chile, practically all the teachers now, with the exception of the younger ones, they are all teaching in a kind of Grammar Translation method, Communication Methodology is not used”*. In relation with the time assigned to different tasks, INT1 in A8 says: *“Que los profesores estamos muy, muy marcados con que tenemos que cumplir con tiempos, cumplir con evaluaciones” (Teachers are very, very distraught with having to comply with times, comply with evaluations)*, and INT4 in A8 adds, *“You have a certain time-table. And you have a lot of students, forty-five students in class. Is there any moment for reflecting things? Out of the class we can reflect sometimes”*. Participants also referred to the ways to evaluate. In this regard, INT1 in A8 declares:

“Me están pidiendo alumnos que sean reflexivos, que sean capaces de ser buenos ciudadanos y sin embargo me miden con una prueba que es netamente contenido” (I’m being asked that students be reflective, and able to be good citizens and nevertheless they are measuring this with a test that is distinctly content).

INT5 in A9 shares a similar point of view, as follows:

“La forma de evaluación que tiene este establecimiento, bueno y quizás muchos más, que es una prueba escrita final, que es un certamen de alternativas y que la parte oral y que la parte auditiva no está tomada en cuenta. Entonces, ¿qué saco con prepararlos para eso, si finalmente no los vas a evaluar?” (The way to evaluate of this institution, well and maybe in others as well, that is a final written test, it is a test with alternatives and the oral part and auditive parts are not considered. So, what is the use of preparing them for that, if they are not going to be evaluated?).

Regarding the educative model, INT1 in A8 says, *“Estamos entregando mucho contenido”* (we are giving too much content). Regarding the same question, INT2 points out, *“It is very difficult to change, not only in the teachers, but in your students, in the parents, in the heads of the school, the principals, the other teachers, because they are all used to learning in the old way”*.

INT5 also answers in A8 in relation to the work with his colleagues as:

“Un equipo de trabajo cohesionado que no existe acá (...) eso evidentemente afecta el trabajo de los dos porque tenemos que tomar decisiones en conjunto” (A united team work does not exist here (...) that evidently affects our work because we have to make decisions as a group).

Concerning student segregation, some interviewees share similar opinions. INT1 in A9 remarks:

“Cuando ves alumnos que realmente tienen potencial (...) lo insta a que (...) por ejemplo participen en (...) el Programa Inglés Abre Puertas, (...) les da la oportunidad de (...) páginas en que ellos pueden avanzar, por ejemplo, pero son pocos, pocos” (When you see students that really have potential (...) you urge them to (...) for example participate in (...) the English Open Doors programme (...) you give them the chance to (...) web pages in which they can move forward, for instance, but they are a few, just a few).

And INT5 in A9 affirms:

“Y los que sí manifiestan interés es la gente que tiene claro lo que quiere estudiar (...) desde primero medio y tiene claro, le va bien en todos los ramos” (And the ones that show some interest are the people that already know what they want to study (...) since ninth grade and they are sure, they do fine in all the subjects).

With respect to teachers' training, INT1 in A10 says:

“Hacer muchos cursos es una de las cosas que yo creo que ayudan a esto, es que los profesores, sobre todo los profesores de idioma, porque un idioma es algo vivo, se

tiene que estar continuamente perfeccionando. Si no se perfecciona, se va a quedar ahí” (To do a lot of courses is one of the things that I believe help with this, is that teachers, specially language teachers, because a language is something alive, that has to be constantly improved. If one does not improve, you are going to stay just right there).

Regarding the same, INT5 in A7 states:

“Los profesores, todos, que necesitan capacitarse constantemente para ver toda la nueva metodología que se va a agregando y (...) aplicarla dentro de la sala de clases” (Teachers, everyone, need to be trained constantly to see all this new methodology that is been added and (...) apply it inside the classroom).

Another sub-category that arose during our analysis was English teacher’s role. In this respect participants provided different aspects to the matter. INT3 in A3 declares, *“As teachers, we can taught (sic) our students about reflecting, and then we can do reflecting all together (sic)”*. The same participant in A5 points out that *“We can concern our students, make our students become aware and become concerned”*. Also, in A10 the interviewee mentions, *“We need teachers who are concerned about their students’ learning and who feel responsible for their students’ learning and who do something for their students”*. In the same answer she claims: *“For me, an agent of change is someone who questions you all the time. I questioned my students all the time”*. In opposition to the previously mentioned, INT4 in A5 replies, *“We perceive the needs of them, but we can’t solve all their needs”*.

Category nº 5: OSEPP & FGT.

In the theoretical framework section of this work, we included the analysis of the Framework for Good Teaching (here referred to as FGT) and the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes (OSEPP), as these documents provide guidelines for the work of EFL teachers in Chile (the first one, in terms of classroom work; the second one, in terms of

EFL teaching programmes). Both the FGT and OSEPP consider the subject of reflective/critical thinking in their guidelines. The FGT, divided into 4 domains, each of them sub-divided into multiple criteria, includes the promotion of the “development of thinking” among students (domain C, criterion 5); the OSEPP, divided into pedagogical and disciplinary standards, orientate teachers towards the planning of instructional strategies that promote critical reasoning, creative thinking, decision making and reflection among EFL students (consequently, future teachers). Due to the inclusion of a thorough analysis of these documents and the influence they may have over the lesson planning and performance of EFL teachers in our country, particularly regarding the development of reflective and critical thinking, we decided to ask the interviewees about their knowledge of the OSEPP and FGT (Q6: “Are you familiar with the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes and the Framework for Good Teaching?”) and their opinion concerning their application in relation to reflective thinking (Q7: “Do you think these foster or hinder the development of socially conscious and reflective citizens? How?”).

Regarding the knowledge of the OSEPP and its positive (fostering) or negative (hindering) relationship with reflective thinking, most interviewees were not able to answer this question affirmatively. For example, INT1 in A6 said that she was not really sure about what the standards were and tried to link them to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), indicating that the standards were related to:

“Los niveles (de conocimiento de la lengua) que tendría que tener un profesor de Inglés (...) los niveles que debería tener un alumno” (the levels [of language knowledge] that an English teacher should have (...) the levels that a student should have).

She made another relation between the orienting *standards* and *standardised* tests such as TOEIC and PET before being re-oriented towards the accurate definition of the OSEPP, to which she declared: *“A ese nivel no tengo idea más de cuando yo estudié en la Universidad” (At that level I have no idea beyond [what I know] from when I studied at university).*

INT2 in A6 mistook the OSEPP with SIMCE and the curriculum only to end up confessing that he ignored the matter by stating that *“I haven’t heard a lot about that”*. INT5 also declared ignoring the matter, not before mistaking the standards with the curriculum of the different English teaching programmes (in A6). Different was the case of INT3, who declared being *“unfortunately”* familiar with the OSEPP. She, who works as teacher for future EFL teachers, in A6 states that,

“I have a very critical opinion of the standards. I see them as general, very general guidelines, but these guidelines have not been contextualised and (they) are not really defining what a standard should be (...) Why should we comply with standards that are not defining and that are not inclusive, (which) do not consider most areas that we consider important?”

INT3 adds that she has indeed used the orienting standards in her lessons by making the students analyse them. She remarks:

“One of the activities that we did was, (...) we got together in groups- and we had two or three people analyse the same standards (sic) (...) Then we said... if you had to comply with all of these standards in your classes, how would you comply with each one of them?”

INT3 continued her criticism on the OSEPP by highlighting their broad, theoretical and decontextualised nature by adding that,

“The competency is not well defined and it’s not being scaffolded (...) the standards are not scaffolded. It’s like when we say in Chile (that) we need to improve the quality of education, but no one defines what the hell quality is [sic] (...) From that point of view, I think the standards have not been scaffolded in terms of learning experiences, in terms of contents...”

A6 by INT4 regarding the OSEPP was dismissed for having being biased by the interviewer.

In the case of the knowledge of the FGT and its implication on the fostering or hindering of reflective thinking development in the classroom, the scenery is very different from the case of the OSEPP. While merely 20% of the interviewees were able to provide an informed view of the orienting standards, 80% of the interrogated subjects knew what the Framework for Good Teaching was and had an opinion about it.

In the case of INT1 in A6, the interviewee claimed to have knowledge of the FGT, stating that it mostly delivers guidelines regarding how a teacher must organise his/her work;

“(El Marco para la Buena Enseñanza) lo pongo en práctica... de hecho, es una manera de primeramente reflexionar sobre lo que uno hace. Yo creo que cuando uno organiza el tiempo, organiza su clase, se basa en lo que los programas nos dan (...) como digo, en inglés se pueden hacer muchas adaptaciones de acuerdo a la realidad que tenemos aquí, y nos permite ver si uno va avanzando.” (I put [the FGT] in practice... in fact, it is a way of firstly reflect about what we do. I think that when we organise the time, organise our class, we base it on what the programmes state (...) as I say, in English we can do multiple adaptations according to the reality that we have here, and that allows us to see if we are progressing).

Regarding the relation between the FGT and reflective thinking, INT1 in A7 asserts that it all depends on the way the teacher chooses to use the framework;

“Lo que pasa es que el marco te da los lineamientos, pero la forma como tú vas a hacer (tu clase) la hace el profesor. Entonces, el marco te dice que se tiene que cumplir con esto y con esto otro y todo lo demás, pero el cómo, el qué es lo que (se) elige (enseñar) lo hace uno” (What happens is that the framework provides you with guidelines, but the way in which you are going to teach [your class] is done by the teacher. Then, the framework tells you what you have to comply with this and that and everything else, but how [to do it], what one chooses [to teach] is done by oneself).

Finally, INT1 declared that the FGT “benefits” the development of socially conscious citizens, but she insisted on *“la gran responsabilidad que tiene el profesor” (the great responsibility that the teacher has)* on the imparting of the values involved in the process.

INT2 affirmed knowing the FGT and was able to identify the 4 domains (or “sections”, as he denominated them), relating them to the *“preparation of the teaching”*, the *“implementation of the teaching”*, the *“creation of the correct environment”*, and the *“reflection done after the class”*. Regarding the implementation of the FGT in his lessons, he states:

“Yes, I try to include this because it is important (...) to reflect, to prepare a good, positive environment, (...) to prepare your classes... I think that it is important. Obviously, (...) I do not do all this, all the stages, but I try to do it in a general way.”

However, when asked about if the FGT foster or hinder the development of socially conscious citizens, INT2 in A7 says:

“I don’t think that they promote (...) that you become a socially conscious person or individual. I think that there (is) maybe reflective thinking, Ok. I agree with that because you are conscious of what you are doing, but it is just for teachers (...) O sea (I mean), yeah, (the students) can be aware of what you are doing, or what you did, ok? But, I do not know if that is really connected with the citizens, if you are (forming) citizens or not... I do not think that.”

Both INT1 and INT2 agreed on that the FGT is useful as an organizing tool and guideline, and that they put it actively in practice, but that it is not really intended for reflective encouragement on students.

INT3 in A6 homologised the FGT to *“good practices”*. After declaring having a deep knowledge about the framework, the interviewee adds about its practicality,

“In terms of good practices, you could have millions of guidelines of a good practice and you could have (...) the theoretical aspect of the good practices, it is so obvious, who is going to argue that? When you state that it is a good practice, for example,

that a teacher should arrive early to class (...) who is going to argue that? No one is going to argue that. So just the fact that we state a good practice does not actually make it come real.”

Other comments made by INT3 regarding the FGT are intrinsically related to the OSEPP, as the interviewee teaches EFL teachers at a tertiary education level (university). Regarding the matter, INT3 asserted that she works with the framework by analysing it in her classes with her students, but just as in the case of the orienting standards, in her opinion, the FGT is not well defined. Because of this, she *“works with these instruments from a very critical point (of view)”*. Ultimately, she does not really provided a clear answer regarding if the FGT hinders or fosters the development of reflective citizens, as she mainly focused on her criticism to both the framework and the standards in terms of their lack of clarity.

INT5 in A6 homologises the domains of the FGT to “dimensions”, and delves into the matter in A7 by elaborating on how theoretical they are. In this regard, he affirms:

“Los encuentro que están como muy alejados de la realidad porque las personas que los (crearon) no han hecho nunca clases, entonces, no sé, no saben cómo pueda funcionar un curso en diferentes situaciones (a) diferentes horas del día, (lo cual) es un aspecto importante a tomar en cuenta cuando uno planifica algo” (I find them to be very far from reality because the people who created them have never taught a class, so, I do not know, they do not know how a class may work in different situations in different times during the day, which is an important aspect to take into account when one plans something).

In short, INT5 highlights the fact that the FGT is not really contextualised in the real environment in which the educational process occurs.

Regarding the same topic, INT4 was not able to answer the question about the FGT, limiting himself to indicate that he does not really know if they foster or hinder the development of socially conscious citizens. In fact, he was unable to state if he was really aware of the framework or not, alleging that *“they are really new”*.

Category nº 6: English language.

Regardless of the different visions participants had in relation to English teaching, in general terms they accounted of English as a global language. For instance, INT1 in A10 affirms:

“Bueno, el inglés, por la importancia que tiene a nivel mundial, si eso es lo que uno ve, es un idioma universal. A lo mejor, deberían darse las oportunidades de otros idiomas también, no que fuera solamente inglés. Que se pudiera dar como antes, que uno tenía que estudiar más idiomas” (Well, English, because of the importance it has worldwide, that is what one sees, it’s a universal language. Maybe, there should be more opportunities to learn other languages, not only English. That it could be like in the past, that you had to study more languages).

Among other considerations, some of our respondents consider English in Chile to be a class-encumbered language. As claimed by INT2 in A10: *“English is an elitist language”*; and by INT5 in A10:

“Pero hay muchas personas en comunas periféricas, como Puente Alto o Conchalí o Pudahuel, que relacionan que una persona hable inglés con alguien que tenga plata” (But there are lots of people from marginal communes, like Puente Alto or Conchali or Pudahuel, that relate speaking in English to having money).

Participants also outlined some of the advantages that learning English may account for. One of the advantages mentioned relates to the cognitive development entailed in learning the language, as can be seen in INT3 A2, *“For growth, from the point of view of your cognitive development (...) the domains in your brain that come into participation when you learn a language”*. Another of the advantages mentioned by the participants relates to travelling and getting better job opportunities as INT3 expresses in A10: *“But I have that feeling, I have that feeling that a lot of people realise how good it is for them to learn the*

language, because they want to travel or because they want to get a better job". Following the same idea, INT4 in A10 claims: *"But, if he had to go abroad (...) when they have the native, immediately they... oh! I should have studied"*. An opposite perspective is shown on this matter by INT5 in A10:

"Lo ven ajeno a su vida, entonces mientras no tengamos como, como utilizarlo si no vamos a viajar, no vamos a utilizar el inglés, si no vamos a hablar con alguien extranjero, no lo vamos a utilizar" (They see it as something unconnected to their lives, so while we don't have how to use it, if we are not going to travel, we are not going to use English, if we are not going to talk with some foreigner, we are not going to use it).

A final point on this matter, in relation to State policies, is added by INT4 in A10 remarking: *"The country itself has no policies for incorporating English as a second language"*.

A sub-category that appeared during the analysis was the encouragement of autonomous learning. In this regard, the participants remarked that it was focused on three aspects. The first one was self-motivated students as INT2 in A9 says: *"I try to do it, but not all the students do this"*. In relation to the same notion, the idea proposed by INT5 in A9, and previously quoted as part of the student segregation sub-category analysis, can also be included here, as it connects with autonomous learning. As he declared:

"Y los que sí manifiestan interés es la gente que tiene claro lo que quiere estudiar (...) desde primero medio y tiene claro, le va bien en todos los ramos" (And the ones that show some interest are the people that already know what they want to study (...) since ninth grade and they are sure, they do fine in all the subjects).

The second aspect mentioned by participants is related to motivation. INT2 in A9 states:

"Just a few of them study English outside the classroom. And, many of these students do that because they are interested in learning another language or because in their

family they have someone who speaks English or who works with English, so that's the reason why. But there are other students who likes (sic) learning English because they are interested in music, because they like this Western world as well so that's the reason, because if they have a motivation to study it (...) I think that is very important when they realise that they want to learn English".

Following a similar idea, INT3 in A10 says *"it seems like everyone wants to learn English, when they are out of school"*. A different point of view regarding motivation was established by INT1 in A9. She affirms:

"Eso es algo que cuesta mucho, el lograr que el alumno se motive, porque uno de los graves problemas que tenemos aquí es éste: el desinterés, la desmotivación" (That is something that is very difficult, to achieve that the students motivate themselves, because that is one of the big problems that we have: the lack of interest, the demotivation).

The final aspect pointed out by participants is related to technology as a facilitator of autonomous learning. INT4 in A9 responds: *"Nowadays, they don't have books, they study with internet. And the internet has all the books in the world"*. In the same answer, INT4 mentions: *"I prepare material for them, but the materials are in a kind of cloud, they go to and pick what they want to download"*. In the same respect, INT5 in A9 claims:

"Sí, de hecho hay muchos alumnos que me piden materiales y páginas donde ellos puedan mejorar su inglés y yo se las doy" (Yes, in fact there are many students who ask me for materials and webpages where they can improve their English and I give those to them).

Finally, INT3 in A9 adds information in the same line, but provides a different point of view at the end;

"If you'd like to read more about this, if you'd like to, please, visit this site or read this author, or read this book, or this article, or click here and whatever (...) do I make sure

that happens? No. So, by doing that, am I promoting autonomous learning? I'm not sure".

This final remark is particularly notable, as it questions up to what point we are actively tracing the outcomes of our teaching efforts; when these are not focused on content-based lessons, which are regularly assessed by standardised written evaluations, INT3 hints that we are lacking of a proper results detection criterion afterwards.

Discussion

Given the exploratory nature of the present research, it is not our aim to argue against some of the results obtained but to expand them, as we had no intention of contrasting them to any given hypothesis in the first place. Consequently, the product of this process unfolds naturally as it was presented to us, shedding light on the views on the development, by means of EFL teaching, of socially aware and reflective-oriented citizens in Chile. Understanding any educative endeavour as an aim-for-the-future effort, one that looks forward to a better future for our human condition, our work provides a strong claim by Crystal (1999), Phillipson (1992), Barahona (2014), and Segade (2015), among others, in favour of the main reasons behind becoming English teachers. In section four, chapters one, three, and five of the present work, these authors sustain that English, gathered as a cultural, job-enhancing propeller, turns out to be the main factor when deciding to take an English teaching programme and not necessarily pedagogy, a notion our respondents confirm. Following this, there would not be any major difference between getting involved in English or any other language teaching, as it can be noticed that that choice is influenced by political, historical and economic reasons from the beginning. It is worth noticing that, for those who enrolled in English teaching programmes basing their decision on an early interest solely in

the language, there is a late engagement with the pedagogical task itself, an aspect evidenced by both Barahona's research and our results. Finally, and in line with Fox's (1975) and Segade's (2015) asserts regarding the notion of English as fundamental for development, most of our results evince that there is no questioning about why English is the first and most important language when learning, a general assumption that might explain such an early preference or disposition towards learning and teaching it.

Regarding reflective thinking, our research has outlined how fundamentally considered it is as part of the educational process. In the fourth chapter of our Theoretical framework, this concept is delved into and categorised as distinctively different, though still related to, from the notion of critical thinking. In the same line, social awareness-raising is characterised as an expected element within any reflective-oriented educational effort. Nevertheless, our results evince that Chilean English teachers have no conceptual clarity regarding these concepts, finding difficult to recognise them when asked, and at times intertwining and equalling them. Most likely, the underlying motives for such misreading dwell on the fact that, according to Abrahams & Farías (2010) as previously developed in chapter five; neither pre-service teachers are instructed to develop reflective skills, nor institutions foster the matter as claimed by the Ministry of Education's prerogatives (MINEDUC, 2008). Interestingly, as highlighted by Davidson & Dunham (1997), Shirkhani & Fahim (2011), Sun (2015) and Tang (2016) in chapter four, the significance and necessity of developing critical thinking by means of English teaching is an aspect underscored by our respondents. Chilean English teachers acknowledge the advantages English teaching has when referring to reflective-thinking fostering, but claim to be hemmed in by the national curriculum and standardised evaluation, evincing a systematic problem for not developing reflective thinking within Chilean classrooms.

The notion of teachers as “agents of change” stands out here as a feature related to the reflective-oriented teaching concept. As conceptualised in the fourth chapter of our theoretical framework, this quality might be coupled with a reflective practice as well, in the same fashion as our results attest. Encouraging social awareness through pedagogical practices such as group work, and counterbalancing the hindering position our national

curriculum has currently gained regarding reflective-thinking, our results thus align with Abdallah and Mohammad's (2016). These authors stress using language learning for students' daily lives, as an aid to solving difficulties, and not merely focused on content-based assessments. It seems, as stated by Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 8), that teacher education programmes concentrate more on the education part than on the teacher part. As our results exhibit, English teachers are closer to the role of teaching technicians than the role of transformative intellectuals. This turns the idea of developing social autonomy on learners (Kumaravadivelu, 2003), as well as helping teachers become strategic thinkers and practitioners, notions far from being actually put into practice. Moreover, the contribution of foreign languages in attaining a better understanding and domain of the mother tongue thus enhancing reflective capacity, as Madrid (1998) defends, is a relevant feature not addressed by our results. This is an important aspect when accounting for turning learners into active agents involved in socially-conscious fostering which might be delved into in further investigations.

Our theoretical foundation, particularly in chapter two, stresses the importance the teaching model or paradigm has when focusing on aspects that are more content-based or, conversely, task-oriented. The consistent movement from a solely grammar-translation method to a more communicative-oriented one has had implications when deciding what matters, ideas, or teaching guidelines we should put into focus. This becomes relevant as most of the participants point out the use of the Grammar Translation Method as part of the past of English teaching, gathering that English instruction should be carried out through communication or a more communicative-oriented approach as outlined by Krashen (1981). Still, our results exhibit that Chilean English teachers blame the utterly grammar-oriented, receptive skills-based and quantitatively standardised evaluation currently widespread in the national educational system for hindering the path of opinion-raising and more reflective-aimed tasks within classrooms. This raises the question of to what level Chilean state educational policies regarding English teaching are updated or followed up once put into practice. Additionally, and as pointed out by one of our respondents, as language implies culture, by having different cultures, we should have different ways of language

teaching/learning. This is far from being a reality nowadays. In the third chapter of our theoretical framework, authors like Fishman (1977, 1987) and Segade (2015) stress how English teaching, as it is being currently taught worldwide, is actually promoting western values such as individualism, capitalism and laicism, accounting for an undercover way of cultural imperialism. Following this reasoning, different nations propelling the spread of English for development, Chile among them, are seemingly neglecting idiosyncratic aspects and/or forgetting about the reflective dimension thought to be present in any educational process.

Following the same line of inquiry, governmental policies such as the FGT and the OSEPP, outlined for the improvement of the teaching practice and the upgrading and standardisation of the teaching programmes respectively, prove to be insufficient regarding the matter in question as well. As quoted from Abrahams & Farías (2010) previously in our work, these instruments have proven to be decontextualised and too theoretical when it comes to the teaching practice. Consistently, they do not elaborate on the notion of reflective thinking whatsoever. Thus it is confirmed by our results. Even when the FGT is declared to be known by our respondents, they find it hard to connect it with any reflective-oriented process focused on learners, guessing at an eventual connection with the teaching preparation process instead. On the other hand, the OSEPP have proven to be widely ignored, thus stressing what the revised authors claim regarding their inconsistency and lack of circulation. To conclude this point, it is worth noticing that regarding the FGT, OSEPP, reflective thinking and teaching approach, there would be no difference between the received answers based on the years of experience. Seemingly, regardless of whether the teacher has been teaching for many years or just a few, or if he or she works in the private, public, secondary or tertiary sector; the general opinion regarding the abovementioned concepts is quite similar.

In terms of the necessity for the teaching of English in Chile, chapter three is eloquent in examples against it. Even though several considerations are proposed contradicting the unencumbered nature of English (Fishmann, 1987; Wedell, 2009; Segade, 2015; among others), the matter about our country is not necessarily out of a political or ideological

orientation, but related to a more methodological and even technical lack of proficiency. While our results state that English propels development and cultural enhancement, they also highlight that it is not as governmentally planned as required, establishing that the main institutions in charge of education have no clarity on the guidelines for English teaching in Chile and, when they do, these are not fostered by a notion of cultural trading and global-oriented awareness, but by a more economic-driven approach, thus understanding English teaching and learning from a quite narrow perspective. These results are concurrently homologous to what Mesías & Chandía (2016) outline when referring to the Chilean educational system regarding English teaching, and evince, in words of Maringe & Foskett (2010), the locally-oriented nature of the institutions and the English taught in our country. Phillipson (1992), as quoted in chapter four, highlights the elitist nature of English as well. For the so-called third world countries, English still seems to be stuck with a label of class-segregation and not gathered as a cultural tool for further social interaction among peoples. Our results sustain this by declaring English as a signifier of belonging to a higher-income class, a prejudice that keeps English teaching hemmed in by an aura of elitism and uselessness particularly in lower-income and rural Chilean schools. As stated in the referred chapter, having a link between the target language and the own identity is crucial to interact fluently (Shahri, 2017), stressing the necessity of adapting the English teaching curriculum in order to serve the students' cultural requirements and not necessarily the government's. Perhaps, as some of our results attest, we should start asking ourselves why we, as both society and individuals, are fostering English in the first place.

To finish this sub-section, it is necessary to highlight some of the limitations that may have affected our research. The first aspect is related to the degree of complexity that the investigation had. The forms in which human beings may experience a given situation are different and people can make them more complex depending on factors such as the context, their feelings and emotions, the meaningfulness of what you are experiencing, etc. This investigation presented complex data to analyse because of the different perspectives that arose regarding the topic. In this regard, we were careful pointing out the importance and consistency of some findings and distinguishing particularities that are part of the

participants' idiosyncrasy. In this sense, something similar happened to the researchers. At every single step of the research process, we tried to keep personal views and biases as neutral as possible. One of the risks using this methodological approach is to succumb to extreme subjectivity since it may affect the validity of the research and, subsequently, further studies. Another aspect of the qualitative method that might be gathered as a disadvantage here is the fact that this type of research is, in general, time-consuming and labour-intensive. To diminish the impact of this problem, the sample was reduced, mainly for practical purposes. This course of action may raise questions regarding the validity of the present research, as more data may have contravened the results obtained. However, given the consistency of some of our results, particularly those related to reflective thinking, governmental instruments influence and English teaching in Chile overall appreciation; our sample seemed to be sufficient to come up with some general conclusions. This assumption is supported by the variety of candidates within the chosen sample, both in terms of years of experience and working institutions; a preconceived research option aiming to provide different viewpoints for enriching the matter in discussion.

VII

CONCLUSIONS AND PROJECTION

Following our research results, it is important to note that English must be understood as a global economy-driven language; a code not very different from other languages in the world in terms of its intrinsic value, but much more propelled in historical, political, and commercial terms, even to the detriment of other mother tongues in many cases. From this, we can infer what motivates so many English teachers to choose their profession. In general terms, our research underscores that the English language itself, and not necessarily pedagogy per se, is the main factor behind this choice. Our results reveal a tendency towards choosing to study English pedagogy mainly to learn the language independent of teaching. Most commonly, students approach English from utilitarian considerations, such as accessing English written information or for improving job market opportunities. Although teaching ranks far from our respondents' first choice, our investigation found that English teachers develop a stronger interest in teaching, as they advance in the university pedagogical programme. By the time the student teaching phase is reached, they have acquired deeper appreciation for the practice of teaching.

Regarding the notions and definitions that differentiate between reflective and critical thinking, English teachers are far from unanimous. Our results show both concepts to be understood as virtually the same. Some associate these notions with Ausubel's (1963) meaningful learning theory, ultimately adding the concept of reflective practice to this mixed bag. Despite the lack of definition, our results underscore how fundamental the notion of reflective thinking is for English teachers, as a tool that helps develop values and a social conscience. Nonetheless, our research found that reflective thinking is commonly regarded as downgraded by institutions, or insufficient time is allotted for its mastery. Moreover, within the classroom, teachers rarely foster reflective thinking, as it is hindered by curriculum encumbrances such as excessive content-based tests and lack of time. This points out to an

apparent dichotomy or inconsistency between governmental education policy for the national curriculum and what is actually put into practice.

According to our results, English teachers try to employ English as a relevant tool to raise social awareness, attain global knowledge, and analyse real life situations from a reflective point of view, but it can be a challenge to surmount counterproductive incentives of a highly standardised, grammar-based, and receptive-skill focused evaluation system. In addition, teachers lack collaborative peer work even within a single educational institution. This harsh reality hinders the development of common efforts for improving English lesson quality. From this perspective, "quality" is understood not only in terms of pronunciation, lexis, and grammatical skills, but also what is possible to achieve and learn when using the language as an avenue for developing reflective-oriented abilities.

Our study of the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes (OSEPP) shows that English teachers, regardless of their years of experience, give no thought to their role, their scope of action, or their intention. This may be explained, in part, by the relative newness of the instrument in question, as it was only recently developed by MINEDUC. Only a few of our respondents were familiar with it, and this was justified by a more personal involvement in the topic due to current job requirements. Conversely, the other instrument under scrutiny, the Framework for Good Teaching (FGT), proved to be well-known by the English teachers under study. Teachers regard it as a useful organising tool that can be put into active practice, although it is not optimal nor intended for fostering reflective encouragement or greater social-awareness. We should note at this point that our results exhibit quite an amount of criticism regarding the lack of clarity and practicality of the FGT, which teachers consider too theoretical, decontextualised and broad. As the abovementioned instruments are the main guidelines provided by the governmental policies regarding teaching in general (FGT), and English teaching in particular (OSEPP), it is not surprising that our results suggest an inconsistency, as identified by our interviewees, between the national curriculum requirements and what it is expected regarding the development of reflective thinking. Neither the FGT nor the OSEPP foster this aspect, and when they do it, it is peripherally and must be inferred by the reader.

Our results point to a personal interest of English teachers actively involved in fostering reflective skills and autonomous learning that counteracts this situation. Through different pedagogical strategies, such as using ICTs to make learning more appealing, approaching consciousness-raising peripherally, and adapting material to make it more reflective-oriented, our research evinces that teachers make a conscious effort to involve themselves in changing and broadening the scope of English teaching. Our results indicate as well that many times such intentions become stalled and encumbered not only as a result of governmental lack of clarity and inconsistent policies, but also due to increasing difficulty in motivating students towards reflective and autonomous learning. Apparently, as our results indicate, there is a strong resistance from students, parents, and even peers to make teaching and learning, not only of English but any subject, more reflective-oriented and socially-aware. This might occur because such aspects are considered difficult to measure, ancillary in the field of education, in contrast with practical skills and content-based knowledge, and hard to trace in terms of results.

Summing up and to conclude, English teachers, according to our results, approach English as a useful tool mostly because it propels personal development and is a key factor in understanding science, gaining experience abroad, and interacting with people from different cultures and backgrounds. Counterintuitively, our results reveal that some English teachers believe that English learning should be a matter of choice rather than an imposition as it is now. Moreover, three elements deserve particular attention when addressing the matter of English teaching in Chile. First, English is primarily regarded as a tool that opens doors to better job prospects and travelling experiences, whereas reflective thinking or similar nature skills are viewed as secondary or non-existent. Second, English is regarded as something propelled by the government in terms of certain policies and campaigns, but insufficiently planned and utterly inconsistent in terms of its ultimate purpose, both for the population and the country's development expectations. Lastly, English is regarded as a signifier of belonging to a higher social class, revealing elitism as an obstacle for the teaching and learning of English, since students from middle and low-income segments of the population find it difficult to see its advantages for their everyday lives. This aspect is

reinforced by the monolingual nature of the Chilean population, and its more or less flat demographic characteristics in terms of ethnicity and immigration rates due to historical and geopolitical factors. However, the great influx of immigrants in the last 10-15 years may expand cultural horizons for Chileans. It remains to be seen what real impact may result from increasing contact with immigrants to Chile.

In light of all the factors discussed above, we can conclude that English teachers actually play an important role in the development of socially conscious and reflective individuals. Their contribution is based on the capacity English has as a dynamic language for addressing global issues, and awareness of this relevance prompts teachers to do their best to incorporate these matters as part of their lesson plans. Apparently, guidelines such as the FGT and the OSEPP do not play an important role when accounting for reflective-oriented skills or for forming socially conscious citizens, as they are utterly theoretical and detached from the English teachers' daily practice. Becoming aware of this may lead us to think about changing the aforementioned instruments, in the pursuit of making them more accessible and useful. Another path of action may be that of designing a new instrument that explicitly focuses on addressing these aspects, aiming at improving the quality of the English that is being taught. However an initiative of this kind should extend its scope of action further in order to include all the curriculum subjects. Whichever the path, our results indicate that, clearly, English teaching in Chile suffers not only from the lack of central planning, provision, updating, and the presence of methodological resistance and an elitist reputation, but it is also subject to a deeper impoverishment in terms of quality by not stressing reflection and social awareness when teaching the language, elements fundamental for any education process.

Projection

A stated government policy seeks to transform Chile into a bilingual country by 2030 (MINEDUC et al., 2014). Whatever the result may be, English teachers are the main protagonists in achieving this task. For this reason the focus of our study has been English teachers, specifically drawing from data produced by the different English teachers' perceptions regarding the reflective dimension. We attempted to explore this aspect as it brings attention to a portion of the teacher community. Fortunately, teachers of English are aware of the importance of teaching reflectively. However, as already stated in our conclusions, this does not mean reflective thinking is happening in our lessons nowadays. Hence, this research should prompt government officials, teachers, and all actors in the teaching profession to address the elephant in the room, positioning it squarely in the middle of national debate, in the hope of helping to change for the better the way in which both teachers and students teach and learn. Our research aims at teachers who are not yet aware of the importance of a more social and reflective-oriented teaching. However, teachers in training are still on time to make a difference from the way of teaching that we are used to in the current EFL lessons in Chile. Due to the aforementioned, we suggest some relevant lines of inquiry that have emerged to be expanded for further development, or as an option for future works by other researchers.

While some are more directly related to the present research, resulting from the questions that arose in the course of our study, others are more general and not the subject of this project. In the following paragraphs, we offer some options that may be developed as a result of this research, or that, given the specific scope of our study, have not been able to be carried out in depth.

Regarding the most pertinent proposals, the first line of inquiry that may be carried out further involves the notion of reflective conscious teaching. First, we propose to study the eventual discrepancies that different types of schools (public, subsidised, private) may present regarding the matter, by studying several teaching practices carried out in English

lessons. The study's objective will be to generate greater awareness of the current national reality, given that the curriculum is supposed to be the same for the entire country.

Second, other researchers may propose and consequently carry out research work focused on distinguishing reflective conscious thinking from critical thinking. The justification for this study arises from our findings that show the concepts were considered to be critical in forming socially conscious individuals whether or not there was conceptual clarity among Chilean teachers regarding the matter. This would enable us to verify their effectiveness and to adopt perceptions into actual practice.

Third, since our research results concluded that there is not an evident definition of the concept of reflective thinking among English teachers, it would be helpful to study the English teachers' current preparation by limiting the study universe to new generations in order to measure if they are receiving the beneficial instruments and knowledge regarding our research topic. This would allow us to predict if future school students will suffer the same fate as the present generation.

Fourth, owing to the fact that according to one of our interviewees' suggestions, not everyone in Chile should learn English (INT1 in A10) but learn a second language only if necessary and mainly if desired, an interesting research may focus on comparing EFL teaching with any other Foreign Language teaching when intending to foster socially conscious citizens' development. Analysing the possibility that English language, because of its worldwide current position, may be being deployed worldwide to the detriment of the rest stands out as a worthwhile task to be involved in.

Fifth, with the purpose of obtaining a wider scope of reflective thinking teaching, it could be possible to conduct a study on reflective thinking teaching in Latin American countries such as Colombia or Costa Rica, which, as described in our methodological framework, have bilingual-fostering programmes similar to Chile's project. This would ensure a representative result at a continental level.

Finally, a possible line of inquiry may arise for the purpose of conducting a research which studies reflective thinking either through EFL, ESL or EIL teaching. This study would, question whether there is any difference among them, if the geographical location or

teaching approach matter when thinking of English and in pursuit of reflective thinking in contemporary society.

Regardless of the passage of time, teachers' task will never cease. Hence we must constantly learn new techniques and teaching methods, while also question our current society in order to encourage students to learn and keep them motivated. Therefore, although teachers still play a fundamental role in education, several research projects and articles may be developed and continued over the years in order to shed light on these matters. Our sincere hope is that our work may guide future research in either the abovementioned topics or other lines of research.

MAIN CONCLUSION

At the beginning of our research process, we determined a series of objectives that would serve the purpose of guiding our work. These objectives would indicate the path to follow throughout our research. In this manner, we established three specific objectives and one main objective, keeping in mind that they should always set the guidelines for our research questions. In the same way, our chosen instrument should answer to these questions and consequently, our outlined objectives.

The first and main objective of our research was to explore and characterise perceptions of English teachers with regard to their contribution to the process of forming socially conscious and reflective citizens through EFL teaching in our country. Based on this objective, three specific ones were outlined: 1) To explore the experiences of national EFL teachers in order to interpret their understanding of the current situation of English teaching in Chile; 2) To document the level of understanding of Chilean EFL teachers regarding the FGT and the OSEPP; and 3) To identify how these teachers perceived their role in the development of socially conscious and reflective individuals. The following are the main conclusions obtained regarding these three specific objectives and the main objective, determining if the aim was achieved and what was learnt from the attainment of each one of them.

To begin, we wanted to explore the experiences of the interviewed English teachers with the purpose of interpreting their visions regarding English teaching in our country nowadays. From the answers collected, it was possible for us to understand some of the beliefs that national EFL teachers have regarding the state of English lessons in Chile. Thus, we concluded that English teachers agree that today in our country, teaching English is different from teaching any other language, as this particular language has a privileged position in the current world due to different factors. These factors are mainly linked to economic advantages both globally (English as the world's commercial lingua franca) and

locally (English as an edge for getting better job opportunities). In addition, most participants declare to be actively involved in enhancing critical skills, utilising English-teaching methods that will develop socially conscious citizens. Despite this, they also agree that reflective thinking is either insufficient or inexistent in Chilean classrooms. This is attributed mainly to an inconsistency between curriculum demands and the reality of the educational system at an institutional level (schools, teachers and students). While the participants assert that the English curriculum states that the contents should be imparted by fostering critical thinking skills, this is actually very difficult to do when they have to work in a scheme that values results over processes, thus hindering rather than enhancing the students' ability to reflect on what they are supposed to learn. Finally, the interviewees affirm that they do encourage English learning outside classroom walls, mainly focusing on the students who are motivated enough to keep learning beyond classes, and generally supported by technological tools such as ICTs and online resources. This indicates that many teachers in Chile, regardless of age and experience and in different levels of use, are currently on board with technology, this way coping with the educational needs of today's students. In short, the information obtained was helpful to grasp an understanding of the reality of English teaching in Chile nowadays: a very important language to learn for a multiplicity of reasons, imparted by educators who are capable of using technology to motivate their students to learn English after class, and who intend to teach English as a tool to enhance reflective and critical thinking skills despite the multiple hardships that they constantly have to face.

Our second specific objective urged us to gather information about how much Chilean EFL teachers know and understand about the Framework for Good Teaching and the Orienting Standards for English Pedagogy Programmes, two documents identified by the research team as key guidelines in the process of English teaching (OSEPP) and teaching in general (FGT) in Chile. From the answers we received, we noted that Chilean EFL teachers are not familiar with one of these sets of guidelines, not being able to properly define what the Orienting Standards are. Some of the participants tried to provide an answer by linking the OSEPP to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) or to the TOEIC and PET tests, most probably because of the relation between the word "standard"

and the concepts of “framework” and “standardised tests”. The rest of the participants honestly admitted not knowing what the document was or referred to. In this manner, none of the interviewees was able to determine in which degree the OSEPP could be a positive or a negative contribution to the development of socially conscious and reflective citizens, thus making the Orienting Standards unserviceable for them in their labour of teaching critical skills. Now, we consider worthy to point out that the analysis of the OSEPP and the subsequent inquiry about them was done based on the document's orientations towards the promotion of reflection, creative thinking, critical analysis and reasoning in EFL teaching (as stated in our theoretical framework, chapter 5). These thinking skills are not only meant to stay confined within university classrooms, but rather to transcend them by encouraging future EFL teachers to transmit critical and reflective thinking skills from themselves to their future students at schools or at any other educational institution. Afterwards, we observed a different situation concerning the level of understanding of FGT among EFL teachers. In this case and contrary to the OSEPP, the participants knew what the Framework was, and were able to define it in their own words, as well as identify its four domains (usually referring to them as “sections” or “dimensions”). Most participants asserted that the FGT is just a guideline, a sort of advisor for their labour, and that it does not really determine how to develop their lessons. They also stated that, despite knowing the framework at least roughly, they do not see how the FGT may help them in the task of developing reflective thinking in the classroom. This being said, the main conclusion obtained concerning this specific objective reveals that regardless of their ignorance about the OSEPP and their different levels of knowledge regarding the FGT, Chilean EFL teachers are not really sure how these guidelines can actually promote critical and reflective thinking in their pedagogical labour, considering them to be in some way useful, but definitely too theoretical, decontextualised and broad, and not recognising them as intending to encourage reflection among students.

The third specific objective aimed to identify the way in which Chilean EFL teachers perceive their role in the development of socially conscious and reflective individuals. In this regard, we deduced that reflective thinking is considered by the participants to be a highly important part of the educational process. In the same line, our study evinces that the

English teacher plays a fundamental role in students' education as the English language is thought to be a powerful tool that allows people to be globally-aware and up-to-date about what is happening around the world. By means of English, the EFL teacher have the ability to make students become interested in knowing about different matters (for example: music, art, science, news), and motivate them to raise opinions about different topics (as happens with the different themes that are covered in the units proposed by MINEDUC in their textbooks), thus enhancing the development of reflective thinking. The interviewees also state that they provide methods to teach English with the goal of forming socially conscious citizens, such as basing their teaching efforts on the development of values, using real-life situations to provide suitable context for the use of the language, and mainly attempting to use a communicative approach rather than a grammar-oriented scheme for their lessons. Nevertheless, the participants also declare that their labour in this regard turns out to be insufficient for the actual and effective development of reflective thinking, let alone social awareness, a concept that none of the participants referred directly to. They say that in the Chilean context, most English lessons turn out to be grammar-oriented and content-based, thus not using the language for the purpose of making students think reflectively, as this purpose seems to be inexistent and hindered by the curriculum. This phenomenon is explained by the resistance to change the educational system (curriculum, standardised testing, school, teachers and students) offers. Additionally, the answers provided by the participants reveal that there does not exist a solid conceptual clarity regarding the concepts of critical, reflective, and socially-conscious thinking. EFL teachers struggled to tell the concepts apart, sometimes intertwining and regarding them as equals. From all this, we can conclude that Chilean EFL teachers highly regard the English language to be a potentially effective means for the development of reflective and socially-conscious individuals, but fail to see how it can be used for this purpose given the current circumstances in which they have to carry out their pedagogical labour. To overcome this situation, some controllable and uncontrollable variables must be determined; while more training and pedagogical reflection is needed on behalf of the teachers, the system must also stop its resistance to

transformation, changing some of its current conditions (an earlier start in the learning of English, less segregation based on performance, less standardisation, among other settings).

After having scrutinised the results and conclusions of the present research, and determined the achievement of the three specific objectives of our investigation, there is nothing left to do but to ultimately declare the completion of our work. We have explored and characterised the perceptions of English teachers regarding their contribution to the development of socially conscious and reflective citizens through EFL teaching in Chile. This is demonstrated through the conclusions obtained from the answers given by the participants of this research, a heterogeneous sample formed by a group of EFL teachers from different universities, working in different institutions (secondary and tertiary education) and with different levels of experience. The answers obtained from this sample have been considered by the research team to be adequate to conclude that there is a shared opinion among English teachers in Chile regarding the fostering of reflective thinking in our students through EFL teaching. This common perception indicates that the learning of a language such as English by Chilean students can be considered a positive and beneficial asset. The teaching and learning of English would carry some key advantages to our students, such as a wider access to information, the opportunity to access the world through the most dominant and powerful language in the current world, the chance to get to know realities different from ours, people different from ours, and to gain new perspectives on reality. All these prospects can enhance people's critical and reflective thinking skills, and therefore should be promoted in our education system. However, many obstacles seem to be currently preventing this from effectively happening. One critical impediment for this is the lack of reflection EFL teachers are carrying out on the topic. This is evidently based on the lack of clarity English teachers have regarding the different concepts involved (reflective and critical thinking) and the guidelines that regulate our pedagogical labour. This lack of clarity can be traced back to the preparation of EFL teachers in the tertiary education system of our country, oriented by the OSEPP. It is not surprising then that these Orienting Standards have been considered by the participants of our research as insufficient for the promotion of these critical thinking skills among EFL teachers, and consequently among our students.

Having analysed this issue, we can finally determine the importance that the act of reflecting has in the process of contributing to the education of our students. A teacher who does not reflect on these matters and on his/her own teaching labour is destined to repeat the same patterns that have been recreated for so long in our country. EFL teaching in Chile has an enormous potential as a tool for the development of reflective, critical and socially-conscious thinking. It is time to take a closer look to our teachers' practices and the context in which they occur in order to change what needs to be changed and advance in the process of transforming our current culture into a fully conscious, fully developed society, with wider opportunities to grow and flourish. We truly hope that our work will contribute towards this objective.

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APPENDIX

- Instrument Validation
- Participants' file cards
- Consent forms
- Interview Transcriptions