Language Value

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CLIL for the teaching of History and English in Secondary Education: how to complete the existing materials

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ABSTRACT

The importance of CLIL can be understood by the new demands in education and the changing social forces that affect the use of languages in applied contexts today. Therefore, the use of appropriate materials is basic. The aim of this paper is two-fold. Firstly, to establish the key elements of CLIL, reviewing the theoretical frameworks informing this methodology to identify its basic characteristics. Secondly, to examine to what extent they are applied in the teaching of History through a real example of a textbook for 2nd year of Secondary Education. To fulfil both aims, a list of nine criteria has been developed to be used as a relevant tool for teachers when choosing potentially effective materials. This tool will be inspired in the guidelines of two CLIL models in terms of SLA and content support. Finally, possible niches for improvement will be detected, always in order to increase students' motivation.

Keywords: *CLIL; Secondary Education; History; SLA; textbook.*

I. INTRODUCTION

In an increasingly globalized and interdependent world, multilingualism stands as an articulating element of society, which means that its role in school will be key when it comes to training new citizens of the future (Graddol, 2006). In this context the development of communicative competences becomes a priority in teaching. Therefore, Content & Language Integrated Learning (henceforth CLIL) research has become the centre of attention since it exceeds the mere acquisition of a language and allows the student to develop communication skills, also facilitating subsequent learning (Marsh, 1994; Marsh et al., 2001; Ball et al., 2015). In fact, CLIL is intended to prepare students to cope with a changing world and to help them develop a sense of global citizenship, having experiences which they could not have had in a monolingual setting (Ball et al., 2016). However, this methodology can be a cognitive challenge for both students and teachers. The first are expected to develop their basic interpersonal communication skills and their competence in cognitive-academic language, expanding their facets of thinking (Coyle et al., 2010) while teachers have too much to pay attention to in the classroom: timing, teaching methodology, presenting content, language attention, class management, etc. Consequently, counting on an appropriate text-book, which is well designed according to CLIL parameters, can facilitate the teacher's labour but also students' performance. The aim of this paper is two-fold. Firstly, to establish the key elements of CLIL methodology. Secondly, to examine to what extent they are applied in a coursebook for History used in CLIL- learning today in a particular school in Aragon (Spain) and to suggest improvements, when possible, in regard to certain deficiencies detected. This study allows to analyse this learning model and its methodology and to examine how it is being addressed for the teaching of History today. Namely, to critically examine real materials with the intention of analysing their contents and to know whether they allow to deal with concepts, language and procedures at different levels or not. This way it will be possible to grade the adequacy of the tasks for CLIL teaching and decide how to enrich this book for the development of specific competences in the subject of History. It

is also planned to shed more light on how CLIL meets SLA requirements and how content can be supported. Furthermore, attention will be turned to teachers' opportunities to guide their students in the process of learning History in a second language, so they can perceive English not as an added difficulty but as a vehicle of getting access to extra knowledge and resources. For all that, a 9-criteria research tool will be designed and applied to the analysis of book activities, reserving a special space for those criteria that seek to focus on motivation specially.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The importance of CLIL and the great interest around it can be understood by the new demands in education and the changing social and economic forces that affect the use of languages in applied contexts today (Vollmer, 2006). We live in an increasingly globalized society in which economic and social exchanges have a significant impact on the learning of English as lingua franca, which is conceived as a difficult mission by many educational systems around the world. In fact, the European Union policies even advocate the use and command of two other languages apart from the native one (reflected in the 22nd May 2019 Council of Europe Recommendation) what has driven CLIL to be seen as one of the most appropriate tools to achieve this objective in the fastest way.

CLIL is defined as a dual-focused educational approach in which and additional language, such as English in this case, serves as a vehicular tool for learning and teaching both content and language (Ball et al., 2016, p. 5) These two components are interrelated, even if a deeper attention is put on one or another at a specific time. That is to say, CLIL is not a new form of language education but a fusion of content and language learning in an innovative way, overcoming the mere teaching of a subject in English. It is then an educational dual-focused approach that uses several foreign language methodologies to serve the teaching of specific subject content in a second language. As Eurydice, the European publisher and descriptor of national education systems, indicated in 2006, "this two-fold aims calls for the development of a special approach to teaching a subject with

the support of a foreign language and not despite a foreign language" (p. 6). The term CLIL was adopted in 1991 within the European Educational Space context to describe and design good practice in different school bilingual environments where learning and teaching were developed in a second language (Marsh et al., 2001). But CLIL is much more than bilingual education, because it enables learners to master specific language terminology and prepares them for future studies/working life through the support for formal and informal language and cognition (Harmer, 1991; Coyle et al., 2010; Ball et al., 2016). This way, CLIL is pursuing the acquisition of a wide range of subject competences (valuable for the learning of History, for example) and at the same time the improvement of a second language. But since content has always involved language and vice versa, the interest in CLIL lies on the interpretation of the word 'integration', which indicates the teacher is responsible providing language support and scaffolding cognition.

II.1. What CLIL model do we use?

CLIL in Aragon is regulated by the BRIT-Model in Order ECD/823/2018, of 18th May. This model of Linguistic Competence of and in Foreign Languages must respond to the training needs of students with the aim of favouring and develop the necessary communicative competence in foreign languages to reach the B2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages at the end of compulsory schooling. Since CLIL is always content-driven, it involves different models which can be applied in a variety of ways with diverse kind of learners. Perhaps one of the most well-known is the 4 Cs Model (Coyle et al., 2010), which is a pedagogical approach based on four components: Content, Communication, Cognition and Culture. This model builds on the synergies of integrating learning (cognition and content) and language learning (communication and cultures). According to this model and referring to Content, students learn an academic subject through an additional language support and they have communication as the central point of content and cognition. For fostering Communication, students receive language instruction, such as specific vocabulary support, although the syllabus is not language oriented.

CLIL practitioners must also consider Cognition when planning a learning sequence: the instruction must develop critical thinking, which is possible providing texts and activities for students to reflect and answer questions that imply a reasoning process. Bloom's Taxonomy is normally used to identify different levels of critical thinking since cognition is referred to the higher order and lower order thinking skills. Those levels of critical thinking are classified into levels of complexity and specificity, according to cognitive, affective and sensory domains (Bloom & Krathwohl, 1956). Learning at higher levels depends on the acquisition of knowledge and skills of certain lower levels. On the other hand, to work cultural aspects students are encouraged to see themselves as citizens of the world, so they can develop an international awareness and global understanding of History (Guerrero Muñoz, 2014, p. 232). Nevertheless, there is not a single way of meeting and teaching CLIL. Other authors developed their own model based on the difficulty of the tasks. The Competency model (Ball et al., 2016) is focused basically on planning contents, language and procedures at different levels in order to grade the difficulty of the tasks. This way, language and contents are both a vehicle for the development of specific competences in every subject. The intellectual challenge of CLIL implies a cognitive integration that combines different types of knowledge: factual, conceptual, and procedural. One way of integrating these three dimensions consists on using learning tasks, designing our instruction around them and assessing students according to the results they get after working on them (Ellis, 2003; Marsh, 2009; Ball et al., 2016). This concept of task comes from the teaching-learning process for foreign languages, in which tasks are presented as a tool for learning and a way to converge with the curriculum (Vollmer, 2006). To design a task for CLIL can seem a difficult work, but it is possible to do it in a very similar way we design a task for an EFL classroom (Ellis, 2003). Moreover, in CLIL, any task will have a triple projection in three different dimensions: they will teach conceptual content, by means of procedural choices (Ball et. al., 2016) but using specific language from the discourse content. So, content, procedure and language will have to be considered as an integrated type of content, that is, a means

to an end, which is that of developing specific competences for the History area. For this reason, content, procedure and language will have to be taken into account when both designing tools and planning priorities (Llinares & Whittaker, 2009).

There are different ways of conceptualizing these mentioned three dimensions. Ball et al. (2016) proposed a model using the example of a mixing desk. The CLIL teacher will have to regulate the different difficulty factors in a task in every moment of the didactic sequence, also choosing to which dimension he/she gives priority depending on the learning objectives. The dimension with the highest volume is the dimension that the teacher makes the most relevant. This model is valid for fine-tuning evaluation but also for designing tasks and estimating their difficulty, in a similar way the Cummins matrix does: used to measure the combination of cognitive and linguistic levels of the different tasks of a unit (Cummins, 1984).

II.2. CLIL meeting and supporting SLA

The use of language in CLIL is basically connected with most of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) requirements for L2 learning. Therefore, it will be necessary to pay attention to the input guidance and to interaction, without forgetting output must be comprehensible while focusing on form and giving feedback to students. CLIL teachers first need to identify/establish the language of the subject, being aware of what types of language occur in each lesson at three different levels: there is a language related to the subject area (in History we could think of the term 'regime'); another is crosscurricular, referred to as general academic language (for example, 'It's a type of political institution which…), and finally, there is language that forms the speech of the classroom, what we could call the 'interactional language' of communication, also known as 'peripheral language' (Lozanov, 1978). Following with an example in History we could say this is a subject which moves learners away from the 'here and now', that is to say, look back in time to establish ties and connections with the present (Coyle, 1999; Phillips, 2008) (Obj. GH.5 of the Aragonese curriculum (AC) for 2º ESO: "Identify and locate in time and space

the relevant historical processes and events in the history of the world, Europe, Spain and Aragon to acquire a global perspective of the evolution of Humanity") (BOA no. 105, June 2 2016, p. 12870). That is, there is a defect focusing on the past that influences discourse relating in the teaching and learning of the subject (Phillips, 2008). The kind of language needed for History (historical terms, proper nouns, titles, foreign words, speculative statement, passive, language of inference and uncertainty…) will drive to a key aspect in this matter: the need for the History teacher talk to create hypothetical questions as a common aspect of the discourse and also as a challenge for non-native learners of English (Ball et al., 2016). There are authors that go further on this questioning. For Assor et al. (2005) these questions should not just appear during the class or when reading theoretical explanations in the textbook, there should also be a space at the beginning of the class to ask previous-knowledge questions and talk about what students already know, including hypothesis. Learners will always have some prior understanding of the new learning and some idea of what language to use to express their initial ideas, however undeveloped. So, it is important to be aware of the fact that learners dealing with new content need to be able to express their basic comprehension of the content before they can develop their understanding further (Assor et al., 2005). We can then begin to look at the scaffolding and instruments to provide input at this discovery stage assisting students in gradually broadening their understanding of content through the L2 (models, full scripts, word clouds, KWL charts, jigsaw tasks, etc.) (Roth, 2005; Ball et al., 2016). The idea is to provide students with a 'message of abundancy' in order to make the discourse comprehensible (Gibbons, 2005).

Another key point is how to present input in an efficient way. A CLIL teacher will have to guide learners in their learning process of the subject and through the lesson input demands. These refer to listening, watching and reading skills required to complete a task in an L2. For example, the difficulty of understanding the discourse of the teacher is much higher when faster spoken language is present. The same happens with understanding written texts, something that is usually more challenging when long

sentences with multiple clauses occur. These factors can make the process of decoding the message and arriving at the correct meaning difficult for learners, particularly in L2, so the teacher need to adapt input according to the necessities of the class. Moreover, we must remember that, as classroom based, SLA research evidences, although learners may already know the language rules, this does not mean they are able to use them in communicative interaction (Lightbrown, 2000). Therefore, a CLIL teacher must improve the input buy different techniques, which can be applied according to their learners' necessities. As an example, they could use bold letters, underlining, or italics to highlight specific formulas used in a subject such as History or set sentences, employing similar techniques as those for teaching SLA, so students can use them both in written and oral sentences (Smith, 1993). Furthermore, authentic materials (Obj.GH.9. of the AC: "Search, select, understand and relate verbal, graphic, iconic, statistical and cartographic information, coming from diverse sources, including historical sources […] media and information technologies") (BOA no. 105, June 2 2016, p. 12870) can also help a CLIL teacher to support content by bringing the characteristics of real-world speech into the classroom, so information become comprehensible and the vocabulary of the subject closer to the learner in this decoding process. But CLIL can also offer 'authenticity of response' and 'interaction' somehow in the sense historians also read a text about a certain topic and a discussion follows (Obj.GH.10 of the AC: "Carry out collaborative tasks, research projects and debates about the current social reality with a constructive, critical and tolerant attitude, adequately substantiating opinions and valuing dialogue, negotiation and decision making") (BOA no. 105, June 2 2016, p. 12870-12871). This is precisely what historians normally do, so CLIL students would practice an 'authentic' or real type of speech in which academic and formal vocabulary would be openly discuss and decode and therefore would get closer and help content to be understood (Richards 2006, p. 20). Learners also need to get access to comprehensible input and models of new language through the same information in a variety of ways (what is known as multimodality), so they can fix new content and internalize the new vocabulary

associated (Krashen, 1982). But there can be some reluctance if students still do not feel familiar with the new vocabulary. To use L1 can be useful in these cases, especially when approaching a new topic for the first time. L1 could have a support function for explanation but could also have a learning function, as it can help to build up lexicon and to foster students' metalinguistic awareness (Ball et al., 2016).

Regarding to interaction, there must be a mediation or vehicular language between the learner and new knowledge, "with the teacher scouring input content" (Ball et al., 2016, p. 48). This way, the teacher can provide examples of language and vocabulary looking out the learners' production and feeding their observation in terms of output, as well as giving the necessary scaffolding. This principle would be directly connected to the Obj.GH.8 of the AC: ("Acquire and use the specific vocabulary and the notions of causality, change and permanence that Geography and History contribute so that their incorporation into the usual vocabulary increases precision in the use of language and improves communication", (BOA no. 105, June 2 2016, p. 12870)), which pursues to increase precision in the use of language and therefore to improve communication (Crit.GH.3.17). CLIL sessions normally need to be communicative. Students usually first get confidence through speaking about a specific subject and they will not be totally convinced that they understand a concept until they have expressed it in their own words. This is a crucial observation on the relationship between self-expression and cognitive development. So, if we accept this principle, then CLIL teachers need to encourage and promote oral interaction in their classrooms, which requires creating an affective environment in order to encourage learners to interact in the L2 (Ball et al., 2016). This way, CLIL learners need to rethink language having opportunities to use 'stretched language': the language produced by situations where they need struggle to make themselves understood in a foreign language, moving out of their comfort zone (Swain, 1985). Therefore, people learn a language by noticing when it is used incorrectly. If noticing happens, the learners then correct themselves and can use language making use of the grammatical rules for increased accuracy and precision. As previous studies

have also indicated: "sometimes, under some conditions, output facilitates second language learning in ways that are different form, or enhance, those of input" (Swain & Lapkin, 1995, p. 371). That is, students' self-production when communicating can help them notice their own limits and lacks. They will look for correction within their own resources, not just centred on the received input. Nevertheless, to provide students with content knowledge and enhance L2 proficiency, it is also necessary to focus on form within CLIL lessons, so that integration of both content and language is effectively carried out. Most CLIL lessons are sometimes too communicative, since lessons tend to draw attention primarily to meaning and negotiation of meaning, "leaving language apart and using it as a mere vehicle to communicate and not as a goal itself" (Pérez-Vidal, 2007, p. 51). Eventually, this will negatively affect learner output. In order to prevent this and help learners to focus on form, it is necessary to require them to produce comprehensible output, at the same time as teachers provide negative feedback (Mariotti, 2006).

Another important aspect to consider is the question of assessment and the type of CLIL system to be implemented: soft CLIL or hard CLIL (Ball et al., 2016). Soft CLIL is 'language led', so the assessment measures will need to reflect this. The problem lies on how far language teachers should go in their content-based extension. On the contrary, in hard CLIL it is no possible to talk about assessing the language, given the subject-based objectives and overall aims of the curriculum. Normally, the process-led tendencies of CLIL give more importance to the practice of continuous and formative assessment and just look at the aspect of the language particularity in CLIL-based summative testing, identifying the ways in which teachers can warrant fairness for learners being assessed in L2 (Ball et al., 2016). Considering our educational environment, we will have to consider the Brit-Aragón regulation, which says language should only be valued and assess positively, a legal aspect that can interfere in the idea of Mariotti (2006), previously cited, of providing negative feedback as a way to ensure learner's output. This does not mean that teachers should not evaluate it, but they cannot penalize students for their faults. The Order ECD/65/2015, of 21st January, which describes the

relationships between competencies, content and evaluation criteria, indicates that to evaluate complex content, complex tools have to be used. This is the essence of CLIL: the presence of competency contents (Chadwick, 2012; Ball et al., 2016). An option to assess in CLIL is the use of rubrics, preserving a room for language as the only real transversal component which is common to all subject areas and competences and leaving the rest for contents, being both the vehicles for developing the curricular competences.

III. METHODS

To achieve the mentioned aims, literature research was first carried out among the existing materials for CLIL, as well as consulting online resources through Europeana (the European Digital Library). A deep reading of the materials selected was necessary having into account the RD 1105 2014 on the Basic Curriculum for Secondary Education and its application in Aragon through the Order ECD/489/2016, of 26th May. This allowed to know exactly the main assessment criteria, aims and competences for History in the Second Year of Compulsory Secondary Education. The analysed textbook is History, Series Explore, - 2º ESO (*History*, 2017) and it is divided into nine units, covering each one a different period of the universal History from the early Middle Ages to the Baroque. The book is reinforced with a final glossary of useful historical terms and an appendix for Romanesque and Gothic architecture and arts. It also reserves a two-page initial area to introduce the structure of its lessons and activities, showing pictures and terms that are developed next to the main text in order to reinforce input. All units of the book follow one same structure: two introductory pages with large pictures and questions to activate previous knowledge and a text box where to read the aims of the lesson. Next, the book develops its content in English as any other textbook would do in Spanish, with activities on the sidelines. Every unit finishes with four pages for extra exercises to deepen knowledge. Further, a close examination on a specific unit was chosen to center the research (Unit 9: Baroque Europe). This unit pursues to reach the last two contents of Block 3 from the Aragonese Curriculum for History in 2º ESO: "The 17th century in

Europe: authoritarian, parliamentary and absolute monarchies. The Thirty Years War, the Austrians and their policies: Felipe III, Felipe IV and Carlos II / Baroque art: main manifestations of the culture of the 16th and 17th centuries" (BOA no. 105, June 2 2016, p. 12870-12871). Contents also fit assessment criteria Crit. GH.3.14., Crit. GH. 3.15, Crit. GH.3.16 and Crit. GH.3.17. (1)

All the activities of the lesson were examined and classified one by one according to their nature: activities to work individually, activities to work in groups, activities suitable for both modalities, activities for activating previous knowledge, multimodality activities and activities to support language. The niches detected, as well as the deficiencies and shortcomings in the lesson for the application of the CLIL methodology helped to establish a list of 9 analytical criteria for teachers to use as a tool when facing the election of a textbook (See Table 1). The choice of these criteria could seem somewhat arbitrary at first glance because it does not follow any specific CLIL model. Nevertheless, it introduces specific proposals for application in order to cover the main aspects of the Competency Model (Ball et al., 2016), namely, contents, language and procedures (in order to grade the difficulty of the tasks at different levels), as well as the areas of content and communication support of the 4 C's model (Coyle et al., 2010). Once finished the design of the criteria list, all activities were examined again looking for those which meet any or several of the table criteria, reflecting the number and page of the activity. With all the information collected results and conclusions were finally addressed. This tool is intended to be relevant and applicable to any material analysis to be done in the subject of History for CLIL contexts. It has been tried that the criteria serve to know whether the activities meet SLA necessities and they support language and content acquisition. When possible, a proposal for improvement is also presented in the results section.

Table 1. *List of 9 criteria to serve as a Research Tool for teachers when choosing a textbook for CLIL.*

Criteria	SLA* supported by CLIL	Aspects to cover
Crit. 1. Learners get opportunities to use 'stretched language' (Gibbons, 2005, p. 26) with moments of struggle that push them to rethink (Swain, 2000).	INT / CO / FOR /FEED	-Do students face a gap in L2 within their materials so they become aware and modify their output? -Do materials give the chance for receiving feedback after formulating a hypothesis?
Crit. 2. Materials give access to comprehensible input and models of new language through the same information in a variety of ways (multimodality) (Krashen, 1982) and support output at same time.	IP/ CO / FOR	-Do materials contain specific terminology and its equivalent in informal language? -Do materials offer the same information in different channels?
Crit. 3. SS get opportunities to build on the resources of their mother tongue, using L1 in a strategic way (Gibbons, 2005, p. 24).	INT/ CO/ FOR	-Do materials give SS the opportunity to seek information in L1 before starting a new subject? -Can SS express any idea in L1 when they do not get content in L2?
Crit. 4. Activities / content promote work in groups and pairs to use extended language creating an exploratory space in which to make thinking and reasoning explicit. (Gibbons, 2005, p. 32)	INT/ CO/ FOR/ FEED	-Do materials give the opportunity to work in groups or pairs? -Do materials inform appropriately about the language SS need to use? -Do SS can feel motivated to express their reasoning receiving any kind of language support such as 'starting sentences'?
Crit. 5. Materials foster cognitive fluency through the scaffolding of content, language and learning skills. (Ball et al., 2015, p. 196)	IP/ INT/ CO/ FOR/ FEED	-Do materials offer any support to make content more comprehensible? -Do materials offer language vocabulary lists or thinking charts that support the assimilation of content?

Criteria	SLA* supported by CLIL	Aspects to cover
Crit. 6. Activities need to be attractive to increase students' motivation (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 281).	FOR / CO	-Are activities visually attractive? -Are activities related to SS interests? -Are activities designed to show how the content they teach can be useful for daily life?
Crit. 7. Materials provide a 'message of abundancy' (Gibbons, 2005, p. 42), referring to visuals, diagrams, significant landmarks, a landmark of keypoints and similar tools.	IP / CO / FOR	- Do materials offer graphics, tables, schemas or similar to make content more comprehensible?
Crit. 8. Materials help SS to stablish relations between new concepts and previous knowledge or experiences they already had. (Ball et al., 2015, p. 75)	IP / INT/ CO/ FEED	-Do materials provide word clouds, think charts, KWL charts or similar support so SS can remember what they already know? -Do pictures help to activate previous knowledge? -Do the questions presented help to activate previous knowledge?
Crit. 9. Activities help to make formal/academic writing explicit for SS and to convert it into informal language giving a model for use (Marsh, 2009).	CO/ FOR	-Do activities ask SS for rewriting academic texts into informal or rethinking both? -Are the rules to write an academic text clear enough through activities?

*SLA Support: IP (Input) / INT (Interaction) / CO (Comprehensible Output) /FOR (Focus on Form) /FEED

(Feedback)

IV. **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The process of acquiring a new content in History with a CLIL methodology seeks to integrate content and language. Therefore, SLA support will be crucial to implement a CLIL methodology adequately. In this section an analysis of the activities presented in the chosen unit will help to grade the accomplishment of this two-fold aim. For this, the table of criteria designed will be used with the intention of filling the gaps that the book itself may present.

III.1. How CLIL is this unit? Analysing activities through the 9-criteria tool

One of the main aspects of providing language support is the analysis of the cognitive and language demands of units and materials. Students will have to pay attention to and

Figure 1. *Activities 2 from p. 157 and 1 from p. 158. Source: History, 2017*

follow the sequence of ideas in the presentation of the topic, giving importance to the signals the teacher uses to make the organization of the discourse clear. They will also need to learn some new vocabulary and to use it along with the necessary grammar to perform specific communicative functions when talking in groups. To achieve all this, the teacher can talk in a way that helps students to understand, by graduating the difficulty according to the student and allowing them to use L1 in a strategic way, when necessary,

in order to rethink content. This idea of paying attention to language and to rethink is closely connected to Crit. 1 of the proposed criteria tool: Learners get opportunities to use 'stretched language' (Gibbons, 2005, p. 26) with moments of struggle that push them to rethink (Swain, 2000). For that, activities such as n. 2 from p. 157 and n. 1 from p. 158 force students to make a reinterpretation of the language they have seen in the theoretical body (See Figure 1). They need to look at the pictures of the domestic system and jobs and to produce their own message after answering the proper questions. They also need to search for information to reinterpret it when writing a biography of a *valido* in 17th century. The first case would also be connected to Crit. 4. Content promote work in groups and pairs to use extended language (Gibbons, 2005, p. 32).

As for Crit. 3 SS get opportunities to build on the resources of their mother tongue, using L1 in a strategic way, (Gibbons, 2015, p. 24) there are no activities in the unit oriented this manner, as it could be an introductory activity that allows them to investigate the historical context in advance. Thus, they could seek for information in their mother tongue (Spanish in this case) on the Internet or in libraries. The most appropriate activity in the textbook to meet this criterion is placed at the beginning of the unit and is entitled Find out About: students must investigate some terms without any specific pattern (e.g., the scientific revolution, the Spanish Golden Age, etc.). The unit starts with an attempt of previous knowledge activation through questions that foster reflection, which is not exclusive of the CLIL methodology but of tasks in general. In fact, CLIL is nothing new. It draws on principles and procedures that are associated with the communicative approach and meaningful learning. At any rate, there are some specific positive aspects of the unit which has little to do with the proposed criteria tool but that are important for content presentation too. This is the appropriate use of appealing pictures the book does, which are very visual and descriptive. Some of them present content support through language definitions or indications with arrows nearby (e.g., introductory pages and pp. 166, 168, 169) (See Figure 2 and Figure 3).

Figure 2. *Picture with vocabulary introduction. Source: History, 2017*

Figure 3. *Picture with vocabulary introduction. Source: History, 2017*

Iconic descriptors such as dialogue balloons, keys, stairs or CD's drawings are used to indicate the nature of every activity, which also helps target learners to understand how to proceed. The same effect is produced by the use of schemas and diagrams, which make content easier at first glance (p. 158-159 with the lives of the Habsburgs and most relevant facts in their time, or p. 163 where we find the political system of the United Provinces after their treason to the Spanish Crown). But all this visual support has very little to do with CLIL methodology specifically, since they are common to any kind of activities available in most of text books from any subject of today. It would be more oriented towards CLIL if they introduced multimodality in presenting input. Apart from diagrams, activities could give links to videos (authors could create their own videos,

images or extended exercises with interactive maps in a CD annexed). This way they could make input comprehensible (Krashen, 1982) and even clarify the context of the Baroque through film recommendation. For this period of History there are relevant, informative films they could watch in English with/without subtitles such as *Barry Lyndon* (1975), *Caravaggio* (1986) or *The man in the iron mask* (1998). Subtitling them in L2 would serve also for enhancing input.

A key aspect in CLIL is the support and active participation of the teacher in the learning and teaching process, both presenting content and providing scaffolding for content and language when necessary. None of the activities of the unit has been designed to work with the teacher together, but to work individually or in groups of students, considering the teacher as a mere controller (Harmer, 1991). The unit meets the curriculum content and assessment criteria, but it is very far from meeting CLIL requirements. Many speaking activity types would be possible to fill this blank. As an example, we can consider to read articles from historical magazines aloud and to ask for instructions among groups in order to design a final poster. To organize role-playing specific subject scenarios (for example, a dialogue between a doctor from the 17th century and one of the 21st century) or to ask open and closed questions from teacher to class and from student to student (about the consequences of a population growth in the past and now) can also be useful. As far as Crit. 2. is concerned (materials give access to comprehensible input and models of new language through the same information in a variety of ways (multimodality) Krashen, 1982), new language (especially new terminology) is introduced within the main text through the use of bold letters and italics. Another way of presenting vocabulary in the book is through the use of arrows and terminology within a bubble next to a picture, that is to say, annotated visuals (pp. 166 and 172). Nevertheless, this activity does not meet criteria 1 and 2, since input and vocabulary are only presented in one same way instead of using other techniques, such as information gaps, speaking frames, videos, word lists, substitution tables or sentence starters for learners to complete.

III.2. Activities and motivation: engaging students

Questioning can be very positive in CLIL-oriented activities since it stimulates learners' interest and thinking. However, to make questioning effective, we have to give students time to think; we must handle wrong answers assertively; and, finally, we need to help students to understand that wrong answers are always opportunities to learn. The activities of this unit present several questioning proposals in groups, especially at the introductory pages, but most questions are designed to be answered individually. Activities need to be more communicative, that is, more oriented towards a task-type model, in order to create a warm ambience in which to discuss (Crit.6). Here, opportunities to use a 'stretched language' (as indicated in Crit. 1) will come up and the teacher will be able to provide scaffolding to content, language and learning skills (to fulfil Crit. 5: Materials foster cognitive fluency through the scaffolding of content, language and learning skills, Ball et al., 2015, p. 196). Namely, students could give explanations to the topics proposed. For example, they could offer their vision about the Palace of Versailles in p. 155 or express personal attitudes towards the people's ways of life living in the palace. They also can expose disadvantages or advantages of absolutism in that time, likes and dislikes, or how to link this palace to similar constructions they have visited in Spain or any other country. This would promote the use of functional language, that is, what students need in different daily situations, integrating all language skills. On the other hand, Crit. 6 (Activities need to be attractive to increase students' motivation (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 281)) can encompass all the activities in the unit, and possibly the whole textbook. Activities are not as attractive as they could be, especially considering all the digital media and resources available nowadays. Along the unit, it has been observed that there are some activities which consist on listening to CDs or searching information on the Internet (introductory exercise on page 154 (See Figure 4) and act. 3 from p. 157, act. 1 on p. 158, act. 1 on p. 164, acts. 1, 2 and 3 from p. 165 and act. 8 from page 171), (See Figure 5) but they are mere traditional activities which substitute written sources for digital ones.

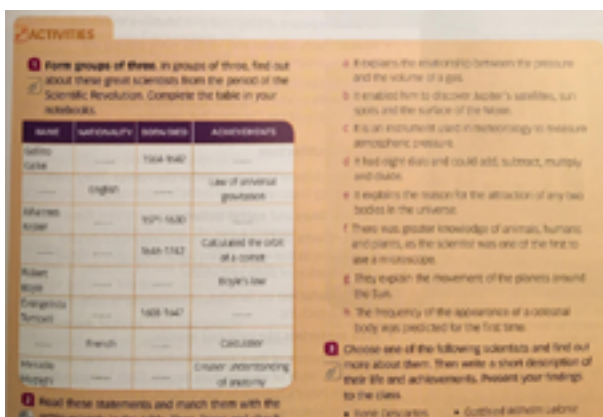**Figure 4.** *Activity from page 154. Source: History, 2017*

Figure 5. *Activity from page 165. Source: History, 2017*

They seem to be there as it was necessary to meet the curriculum dispositions about the digital competence but they do not add any value to the teaching-learning process in CLIL. In this matter, the Aragonese Curriculum indicates that the teaching of Geography and History is no longer understood without the incorporation of Information and Communication Technologies, which carry their own baggage of knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to function safely and critically in the digital world. These activities should go a step forward and promote discussion in class from the different results obtained in the search, introducing the possibility to prepare a project to present in front of the class at the end of the lesson. For example, in act. 1 from p. 158 they might prepare a poster under the title "the Duke of Lerma and its political connections: the city of Lerma as the new Spanish Versailles", so they could feel free to work on information

they consider relevant making learning more significant. Moreover, these activities could be more interactive: presenting graphics, visuals, diagrams and links to videos. They could help classifying terms ('How many classes of baroque constructions do you know?') or promoting creative thinking imagining situations (What if…?/ 'What would have happened if Spain had won the Thirty Year War?'). Thereby, activities would also meet Crit. 4, Activities / content promote work in groups and pairs to use extended language creating an exploratory space in which to make thinking and reasoning explicit. (Gibbons, 2005, p. 32), because they would make reasoning explicit, and Crit. 7 Materials provide a 'message of abundancy', (Gibbons, 2005, p. 42). Here, the teacher needs to have an active role, interacting patiently with students when giving feedback to their discussion, but also when presenting new contents and ideas in class. If the teacher moves fast from one idea to another, students will get lost as they are hearing an explanation in a foreign language. According to Gibbons (2015), for creating that 'message of abundancy', small bites of information can be given and repeated several times. In addition, visual representation can accompany the spoken message and terms can be written with different colour-codes on the blackboard. This could be done, for example, for presenting the Spanish and Austrian possessions after the Thirty-Year War, instead of just answering questions 1 to 4 in p. 160 on the notebook individually.

Activation is also essential both in CLIL and SLA, as in any other learning field. To understand what students already know about the subject they are going to learn, it is helpful to introduce the new topic at same time as the teacher becomes aware of the type of language they already know or in which areas he/she needs to emphasize. I have found that the only exercise meeting partially Crit. 8 Materials help SS to stablish relations between new concepts and previous knowledge or experiences they already had, Ball et al., 2015, p. 75 is the introductory sections "Work with the image" and "How do we know?" in pp. 154-155 (See Figure 6).

Figure 6. *Introductory sections "Work with the image" and "How do we know?" to CLIL unit in p. 154-155. Source: History, 2017*

They establish a series of questions in which students need to interact with a picture that serves as a presentation of the coming content in the lesson. That gives them also the opportunity to expand what they deduce from it or from the information they got on the Internet previously. Nevertheless, these sections are designed in an ambiguous manner, since they can be approached individually or as a group class dynamic. There is no reference to the teacher in the unit, so conversation or debates in which to make input or previous knowledge explicit are not assured. For meeting Crit. 8 it would have been interesting to use visual resources such as a word cloud (with nouns and adjectives as well as specific terminology, for example, Baroque, absolutism, power, war, migration, luxury, epidemic, morisco, hegemony, king, Westphalia, centralization…). Another interesting activity could consist on matching concepts and definitions, fill-in the gaps or using a KWL thinkchart (What I know, What I want to know, What I learned). KWL charts are graphic organizers that help students organize information before, during, and after a unit or a lesson, so students can have a very clear picture of their individual process of learning. There is not such an activity of matching concepts and definitions until p. 162 act. 1, and just as a result of a previous reading of the body content explaining the absolute monarchy of Louis XIV. Even so, this is just a traditional activity which has been used for teaching History in English. Students need to develop not just subject

language awareness, but general academic language awareness. Subject specific vocabulary is just the first layer of language when teaching a subject as History. There is another layer which can make the learning process even more difficult and this is the academic language with all its fixed structures, wealth of verb phrasing (opposed to the predominant noun-phrasing in subject vocabulary) and pre-stablished expressions and formulas. Thus, general academic language is cross-curricular. That is to say, it is valid for all subjects and for future learning in any field of knowledge. Furthermore, unlike subject specific language, this is mostly invisible on the unit and needs to become visible so students can organize and assimilate it.

Although there is no unit activity that meets Crit. 9. Activities help to make formal/academic writing explicit for students and to convert it into informal language giving a model for use (Marsh, 2008) the teacher can take advantage of activities 3 from p. 157, 1 from p. 158 and 1 in p. 164 to guide students towards academic resources on the Internet (See Figure 7). Namely, directing the learners' attention to the main formulas and grammar constructions they present and allowing students to put them into their own words. After that, students might create an "Academic manual" for personal use, or a glossary, in which they could write down all the academic formulas they find and their "translation" into informal language, so they can use the language they learn in different contexts according to the demands. We must not forget that general academic language is closely related to thinking skills within subject areas, so teachers should be able to identify the functions of language involved in those thinking areas by consulting their curricular documents: for example, to comprehend, to identify, to understand, language of the literature, the world of art, from politics, from social sciences (such as statistics or sociology), etc.
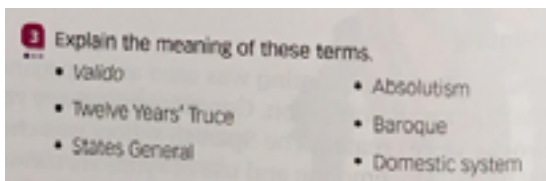
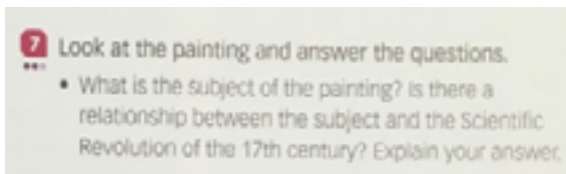**Figure 7.** *Activitiy 3 from p. 157. Source: History, 2017*

Figure 8. *Activity 7 from p. 171. Source: History, 2017*

In general terms and in order to finish this analysis, it is necessary to highlight the better adequacy of the last four pages of the unit, dedicated exclusively to activities related to the content seen along the previous pages. These activities try to be more interactive, with a schema to complete in activity 1 from p. 170, which acts as a review of the whole unit and helps students to organize their information more clearly in four main points, though there is still no support to language in it. On the other hand, activity 7 of p. 171 requires a higher attention and the activation of inductive skills on the students' part, since they have to explain the subject of the Dutch painting from Rembrandt, as well as make connections with what they know about the scientific revolution in the 17th century (See Figure 8). It would be interesting to take advantage of this activity offering language samples to use for analysing materials, or an example of how to analyse the picture using informal language and how to do it when writing an academic extract. The activity could give them statements such as "There are three kinds/forms/types/classes/ categories of …………, this can be divided /classified / articulated into three forms/types/ classes", etc. Learners in CLIL programs need this language to be made clearly visible to them.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Having the appropriate materials when working in a CLIL classroom is basic to achieve

the content and language aims of this methodology. In general terms, the teacher has too much to pay attention to in the classroom: timing, teaching methodology, presenting content, language attention, class management, etc. This is the reason why counting on an appropriate text-book which is well designed according to CLIL parameters can facilitate the teacher's labour. With all this in mind, a material analysis tool has been designed with 9 basic criteria based on CLIL theory. This tool, in the form of a table, seeks to become a useful instrument in the choice of CLIL materials by teachers. To do this and always based on the literature on the subject, a series of questions taking into account how CLIL can support SLA has been presented. This 9-criteria tool has consequently been applied to the analysis of the unit.

Based on the analysis of Unit 9 of the chosen materials for the teaching of History in a school of Aragon using the CLIL system, it is possible to draw attention on different aspects. First, the textual presentation of curricular content seems to be very traditional and plain since it follows the same structure of most Spanish History textbooks. Furthermore, it does not pay particular attention to specific tools that can support content and language acquisition, as CLIL pursues. Content is simply presented for students as a text to be read in order to answer questions about it, with a slight attempt of knowledge activation at the two introductory pages of the unit. For that, the textbook offers a list of questions to work individually or in group, in which they have to infer or guess some content from the pictures, so all the weight of the CLIL competences falls on the teacher's ability to make them valuable. Second, the analysis of the cognitive and linguistic demands of lessons and the introduction of forms of language support are normally the things which subject teachers are least accustomed to doing. Most of the exercises do not encourage communication with the teacher, so its ability to guide content and support language appears to be very limited. This way, it is difficult to use extended language in order to create an exploratory space in which to make thinking and reasoning explicit. In most of cases, talking activities in groups will consist on students using a mix of Spanish and English and the teacher acting as a controlling figure.

Applying the criteria tool as a method of analysis of the unit shows that students could get into the rest of the unit content in a faster and easier manner if the textbook also provided think charts. This would help them not just to activate previous knowledge but to be guided through their learning process, as well as other tools also do, such as word clouds or activities to match the beginning of a sentence with its ending. This would facilitate also the use of L1 to express some difficult ideas or concepts at first, in order to create their own working tools to help them during the rest of the lesson (such as glossaries), while making formal / academic writing more explicit. Finally, in this Unit 9 there are no activities or techniques which provide students with the necessary scaffolding in the use of the language, such as sentence starters, word lists or substitution tables, which can help students in their writing and speaking process.

All suggestions derived from this analysis and here presented could improve the quality of the CLIL text-book, since they can help both the materials and the teacher to support content, cognition and language in a more efficient way, according to the literature on the subject. At the same time, they would increase students' motivation, since they would perceive English not as an added difficulty, but as a vehicle for getting access to 'extra' knowledge and sources in international contexts that can help them in their future careers. In the end, the main purpose of CLIL is to prepare students to face the world of today, in which English is omnipresent, so they can perceive and use it as a vehicular language with which to overcome any barrier that prevents access to information.

Notes

(1) These criteria are reflected in the Aragonese curriculum for the teaching of History in 2nd year of Secondary Education. Crit. GH.3.14. "Understand and differentiate medieval monarchical regimes and modern authoritarian, parliamentary and absolute monarchies"; Crit. GH. 3.15, "Know features of the internal policies of the European

monarchies (in particular, of the Hispanic monarchy of the Habsburg) and foreign policies of the European states of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries"; Crit. GH.3.16 "Know the importance of some authors and works of these centuries" and Crit. GH.3.17. "Discuss the importance of Baroque art in Europe and meet authors and representative works of art and literature. Use historical-artistic vocabulary with precision, inserting it in the appropriate context". (ORDER ECD/489/2016, May 26, which approves the curriculum for Compulsory Secondary Education and authorizes its application in the educational centres of the Autonomous Community of Aragon. *Boletín Oficial de Aragón, 105,* June 2, 2016, 12870 to 12871. https://educa.aragon.es/documents/20126/868873/ORDEN+CURRICULO+SECUNDARIA+2016.pdf).

VI. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Language attitudes and third language writing in a multilingual educational context

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ABSTRACT

The study explores the impact of language attitudes on third language (English) writing. A total of 40 participants (20 from the B2 level and another 20 from the C2 level) from an Official Language School in the Valencian Community took part in the study. Data were collected by means of semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire adapted from Lasagabaster and Huguet (2007), together with and a written composition evaluated using Jacobs et al.'s (1981) taxonomy. Findings from the study show that students' attitudes towards languages are in line with the sociolinguistic status of each language in the Valencian Community. In addition, the present study shows that those students that use both official languages (Spanish and Catalan) at home got better results in the evaluation of their English writings. Our findings indicate the impact of multilingualism on students' L3 writing and suggest the advantages of multilingualism in language learning.

Keywords: *Language attitudes; Third language; Writing; Multilingualism.*

I. INTRODUCTION

Within the legislation released in 1995, called the Resolution of the European Council, acquiring foreign languages was paramount among the citizens to achieve a successful career in the new European Union. As a result, the European education systems felt the need to respond to those demands and give importance not only to cultural awareness, but also to fostering Multilingualism in the school context. As a result, nowadays we frequently have multilingual classrooms where learners acquire communicative competence in different languages, one of them being English, and multiliteracy is one of the main targets in education (Breuer et al., 2021).

Furthermore, as mentioned by Cenoz (2009), it is acknowledged that the sociolinguistic environment of the school plays a role in fostering multilingualism and that learning English as an additional language cannot be separated, among other factors, from the use of other languages or attitudes towards languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015). However, despite the interest in developing students' multilingualism and multiliteracy, little research has analysed the different factors that influence students' writing competence in English as a third language. Most of the research on writing in an additional language has focused on the influence of L1 on second language writing and few studies have focused on third language learners. An issue that the present study aims to cover.

Previous research on third language writers have examined the writing skills of bilingual and monolingual learners (Cenoz & Valencia, 1994; Sanz, 2008) reporting the positive effect of bilingualism on L3 writing. Additionally, the positive effect of bilingualism was supported by other studies that have explored students' mother tongue and its influence on their writing performance. For instance, Sagasta (2003) analysed the acquisition of L3 writing competence taking into account the variable of language used at home. A total of 155 participants participated in the study. Participants were recruited from a secondary school in the Basque Country. Although the language of instruction for all participants was Basque, half of them used Basque at home while the other half used

Spanish. To analyze learners' writings, Sagasta (2003), asked the participants to write a letter to a host family in England. To analyse students' writings, the taxonomy created by Jacobs et al. (1981) was used. Sagasta (2003) revealed that those students who used Basque at home outperformed their peers in writing in Basque. Nevertheless, results concerning students who use Spanish at home revealed that there were no differences among the students who spoke Basque at home and those who spoke Spanish at home (see also Cenoz et al., 2013). Therefore, Sagasta (2003) noted that students transferred the writing skills acquired through instruction in the minority language when writing in the dominant language. In fact, those students who scored high in Basque and Spanish scored higher in English. Additionally, those learners who use Basque at home also performed better in English. Findings from this study confirm the influence of the level of language competence across languages.

Findings reported in Sagasta (2003) were supported in another study by Cenoz et al., (2013) that analysed the assessment of writing skills in the educational context of the Basque country. A multilingual context, similar to the one of the present study, and in which Spanish, English and Basque are used as languages of instruction. A total of 70 participants in the 3rd year of secondary education, recruited from three different schools, took part in the study. Data were collected by means of two types of instruments. On the one hand, a background information questionnaire to gather information about age, gender, school, and different aspects of language use. One the other hand, each student wrote three compositions, one in each of the languages of instruction (Basque, Spanish and English) that were assessed, following Jacobs et al's. (1981) taxonomy, for content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Findings from the study reported that the students who use Basque with their parents obtained significantly higher scores in Basque and English than those that use Spanish with their parents.

Moreover, other studies have examined the prestige of the languages (majority, minority and additional languages) as well as the relationship between language attitudes and

written performance.

On the one hand, Lasagabaster & Safont-Jordà (2008) explored the language attitudes of 416 university students in the Basque Autonomous Community and the Valencian Community. Findings confirmed that students' attitudes towards the three languages in contact across both communities were positive and that the influence of the L1 virtually disappeared when a holistic approach was employed.

On the other hand, in the context of the Valencian Community, Nightingale (2012) analysed, at the secondary level, how factors such as the sociocultural status, a stay abroad period and the 'out-of-school' incidental learning affect students' attitudes towards languages. Findings from this study showed that although attitudes towards the three languages were positive, students showed more positive attitudes towards the English language when attitudes towards the two official languages of the Valencian Community (Catalan and Spanish) were positive. In the same line, Portolés (2014) examined the same issue at University level. Portolés (2014) focussed on students' attitudes towards Catalan, Spanish and English in private and public universities in Castellón and Valencia. A total of 75 participants participated in the study. Data were analysed by means of a questionnaire adapted from Lasagabaster and Huguert (2007), and results from the study showed that the sociolinguistic context influenced attitudes towards the majority and foreign languages, but not towards the minority language.

In the same context, Guzmán-Alcón (2019) analysed teachers' attitudes towards the three official languages in the Valencian Community, taking into account the language school model as a variable. A total of 30 primary school teachers participated in the study. Findings from the study showed that, although teachers believed that multilingualism is encouraged in education, they mainly relied on one language: English in the English model, Catalan in the Catalan model, and Spanish in the Spanish-based language model. Finally, the language model seems to play a role in teachers' attitudes towards languages,

and reveal the prestige of English as a lingua franca, the prestige of Spanish as a majority language, and the lack of prestige of Catalan as a minority language, especially for those who do not use Catalan in education. Similar results were obtained by Guzmán-Alcón & Portolés (2021), who investigated the influence of the language programs and in-service teachers' L1 had on attitudes towards the three contact languages (Catalan, Spanish and English). A total of 21 in-service teachers participated in the study. Data were collected by means of a written questionnaire, based on Lasagabaster and Huguet (2007), and semi-structured oral interviews. Findings from the study confirmed the influence of the language programme on in-service teachers' language attitudes as well as the paramount role of the L1 in the formation of language attitudes. Additionally, findings from the study pointed out that language attitudes and teaching practices do not always match since some monolingual perspectives in language teaching and learning.

In addition, the relationship between language attitudes and writing performance has been addressed by Knudson (1995), Graham and Perin, (2007), Ansarmoghaddam and Bee (2014) and Baştuğ (2015). Knudson (1995) conducted a survey to analyse 68 learners' attitudes towards writing. Findings from the study showed that learners who had a positive attitude towards writing were more likely to be better writers in the long run than those who held a more negative attitude. In the same line, Graham and Perin (2007) examined first and third-year primary students' attitudes and their impact on their writing, reporting that the variable of age is crucial for writing achievement. They also found that the variable of gender was important, as females were found to have more positive attitudes towards writing than males. Similar results on the relationship between positive attitude and writing achievement are reported by Ansarmoghaddam and Bee (2014), who compared how learners felt about writing in their L1 versus English. Findings from the study showed that students who have a positive attitude towards English were more susceptible to use English when writing even outside the classroom. Similarly, Baştuğ (2015) investigated the writing skill and the affective factors of 57 participants, reporting that writing disposition and attitude significantly affected writing

achievement.

From the studies reviewed above, we can claim that previous research has provided information on the effect of bilingualism on L1 and L2 students' writing. Other studies have reported that when different languages coexist in the same region, different attitudes towards those languages are observed. Finally, some investigations have shown a positive relationship between language attitudes and writing performance. However, to the best of our knowledge, no study has analysed multilingual students' attitudes towards languages and their relationship with performance in English writing. A gap that the present study aims to cover. Therefore, in line with Ibarraran et al., (2008) claiming that multilingualism goes along with positive attitudes, the present study aims to analyse multilingual students' writing skill in English, taking into account language attitudes toward the three languages of education in the Valencian Community (Catalan, Spanish and English).

Considering the aim of the current investigation, the research questions of the present study are presented below.

1. Research Question I (RQ I): Is there any relationship between language attitude towards English and student's writing performance?

2. Research Question II (RQ II): Is there any relationship between students' attitudes towards Catalan and Spanish and their English writing? And, how do attitudes towards languages that coexist in multilingual settings play a role?

II. METHOD

II.1. Setting and Participants

The current study was carried out in one Official school of languages (henceforth: EOI) in the province of Castelló, that is located at the Valencian Community, a Multilingual

Community where Catalan and Spanish coexist, and English is learned as an additional language. The EOIs are specialised in language learning and teaching, and attendance is not compulsory. At the EOI of Castellón, ten languages can be learned: Spanish, Catalan, English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Portuguese, Arabic and Chinese. The great majority of students take English or Catalan. The sample consisted of a total of 40 participants, with a C2 level (n=20) and a B2 level (n= 20) of English. The age of participants ranged from 16 to 59 years old (n= 32.2), and the gender distribution was 67.5% female (n= 27) and 32.5 % male (n= 13). In terms of mother tongue 55% (n= 22) of the participants reported their L1 to be Spanish, 12.5% (n=5) reported to be Catalan, and 30% (n= 12) reported both, Spanish and Catalan, and 3% (n= 1) reported having another language as mother tongue. All participants had knowledge of at least three languages: the minority language, Catalan, which is the main language at school; Spanish, the dominant language in the surrounding sociolinguistic environment and in society at large, and English, which is learned as a foreign language.

II.2. Data collection instruments and analysis

In the present investigation, a mixed-method research approach was used. Thus, quantitative data were collected by means of a questionnaire based on Lasagabaster and Huguet (2007) that consisted of two parts. In the first part, general information regarding (i) age, (ii) sex, (iii) level of English (iv) mother tongue and (v) language spoken at home were gathered. Information on participants' language attitudes towards Catalan, Spanish and English were collected by means of questions included in the second part of the questionnaire (see Appendix A). Participants were given 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire that was written in Spanish. Considering the data obtained in the questionnaire, a profile for each of the participants (age, gender, L1, language attitudes towards English, Catalan and Spanish) was created. In addition, students' L1 were categorised according to the language used at home (1 vlc, 2cs, 3 both, 4 other), and language attitudes were categorised on a scale from 1 to 5.

In addition, each student was asked to write a composition (150-200 words) in English about "Advantages and Disadvantages of online shopping (see Appendix B) ". We chose this task considering the criteria formulated by Jacobs et al. (1981) in their book on

"Testing ESL composition: a practical approach", where the author suggested the composition to be realistic and the topic to be appropriate. Thus, a total of 40 essays were typed up exactly as they were written in electronic format (.txt). The written compositions were all scored using Jacobs et al.'s (1981) taxonomy, which included a five-component scale; content (how well they understood and developed the topic; 30 points), organisation (how organised, fluent and cohesive the text is; 20 points), vocabulary (how sophisticated, effective and appropriate the vocabulary is; 20 points) language use (how well complex constructions and grammar are used; 25 points) and mechanics (how effectively punctuation and spelling are used; 5 points). They added up to a total of 100 points. The compositions were rated by the principal researcher and two English teachers from the educational centre where the study was conducted. Following Cohen's (1960) procedure, raters coded independently students' writing according to the dimensions of Jacob et al. (1981), but before coding students' writings, raters went through two training sessions in order to become familiar with the rating scale and to provide them with specific instructions on how the compositions should be assessed. Coding resulted in the following agreements: 88% for content, 87% for organisation, 91% for vocabulary, 85% for language use and 89% for mechanics. Finally, The Pearson moment correlation test was used to measure the strength of the linear relationship between students' attitudes towards Spanish and Catalan and students' scores in L3 (English) writing. This statistical test has a value between -1 to 1, with a value of -1 meaning a total negative linear correlation, 0 being no correlation, and + 1 meaning a total positive correlation.

Furthermore, qualitative data were collected by means of an open question where participants had to express their feelings, with a minimum of 20 words, after finishing their composition in English. In addition, individual semi-structured interviews were held in Spanish. Each interview consisted of five questions (see Appendix C) and provided additional information to the ones provided in the questionnaire. Interviewees were coded as Sx (S1, S2, S3….) including the 40 participants of the study, and the qualitative

data from the interviews were used for further interpretation of the quantitative results.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As previously mentioned, the main goal of this study is to explore students' attitudes towards languages and their relationship on students' English writing. In response to RQI, first, we examined students' written performance. Table 1 provides an overview of the mean scores in each of the five components suggested by Jacob's et al. (1981) to evaluate writing.

Written Dimensions	Group	
	Mean	SD
Content (30 points)	76	5.48
Organization (20 points)	74.9	3.97
Vocabulary (20 points)	76.5	3.93
Language use (25 points)	72.2	5.23
Mechanics (5 points)	70	1.26

Table 1. *Mean scores in each of the components of the compositions.*

As illustrated in Table 1 all dimensions are above 50%. On the one hand, students perform better in vocabulary (M= 76.5), followed by organisation (M= 74.9) and content (M= 76). On the other hand, participants show less accuracy on language use (M= 72.2) and mechanics (M= 70). To answer RQ1, which aimed to analyse the relationship between students' attitude towards the English language and their written production, a Pearson's correlation statistical analysis was conducted. Figure 1 shows the relationship between attitudes towards English and students' written performance. In addition, the Pearson correlation test indicated that the correlation between the two variables is statistically significant ($r = .756$, $p < 0.05$).

Figure 1. *Scatter plot of language attitude towards English and student's written performance.*

Findings related to RQ1 are in line with those reported by Knudspn (1995), Ansarmoghan and Bee (2014) and Bastug (2015), and confirm that a positive attitude towards the target language, in this case English, correlates with better performance in writing. In fact, regardless of the proficiency level, students' attitudes seem to correlate with accuracy in writing. Both groups of students with a C2 and B2 level of English, in this study, show a positive correlation, (r = .803, p < 0.05) and (r= .469, p > 0.05) respectively between attitude towards English and writing production, although the correlation with the group of students with a B2 is not statistically significant. These correlations can also be observed in Figures 2 and 3.
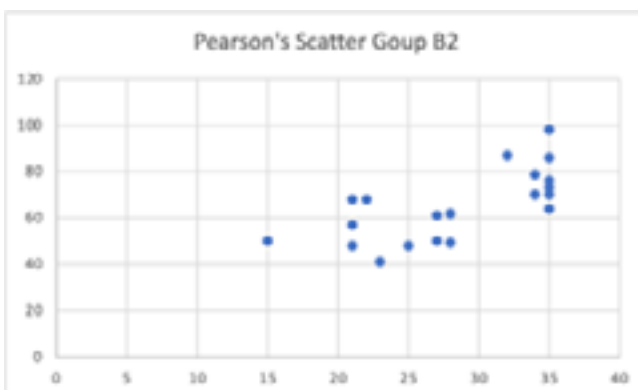

Figure 2. *Scatter plot of language attitude towards English and written performance of Students with C in English.*
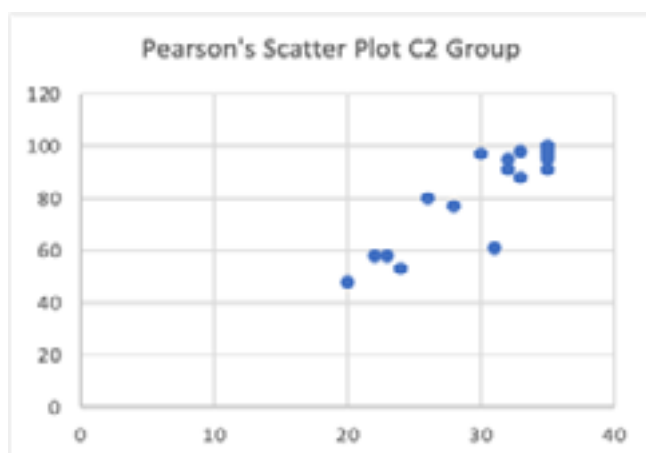
Figure 3. *Scatter plot of language attitude towards English and written performance of Studens with B2 in English.*

Our qualitative data obtained during the semi-structured interviews support our quantitative results. In general, participants reported feeling comfortable when writing in English. None of the students reported a negative attitude towards English, regardless of the level of proficiency, or even mother tongue. This can be observed in the following examples in response to the question "Do you like writing in English?"

S33: "I like writing in English. I feel that I am learning and improving little by little, and that every time I write and I make a mistake I correct it for the next time".

S2: "I like writing in English because I prove to myself that I can do it and since it is not the language I use the most, I am happy to see that I am learning".

S3: "I feel happy when I write in English because I realise that I am able to express myself in a foreign language".

Thus, summarising results related to RQ I, our findings seem to support previous research indicating the positive direction of the correlation between positive attitude towards English and scores in English writing performance.

Additionally, as the present study was carried in a multilingual context, RQ II addressed

the role of students' attitudes towards the two official languages of the Valencian Community on English as a third language. In order to respond to RQ II, which aimed to examine whether students' attitudes towards Spanish and Catalan were associated with scores in students' L3 (English) writing, we conducted Pearson's correlation statistical tests. Findings from the analysis indicated that, although there were positive correlations between attitudes towards Spanish, Catalan and English and students' writings in English, there is only the correlation between positive attitude towards English and participants' English writing that is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) (See Table 2).

Table 2. *Persons Correlation Matrix for attitudes towards Spanish, English and Catalan and written score.*

	Ac_SP	Ac_Eng	Ac_Cat	Wr_Sco
Ac_Sp	1.00	0.34	0.06	0.32
Ac_Eng	0.34	1.00	0.31	0.76
Ac_Cat	0.06	0.31	1.00	0.47
Wr_Sco	0.32	0.75	0.47	1.00

In addition, Figure 4 represents an overview of the percentages of students' attitudes towards the two official languages (Spanish and Catalan), and English as a third language, plus a global attitude towards languages. As illustrated in Figure 4, participants have a holistic positive attitude towards the three languages (76%). However, participants do not have the same attitude towards the three of them. The most favourable attitude is towards Spanish (95%) followed by English (74%) and the least favourable attitude is
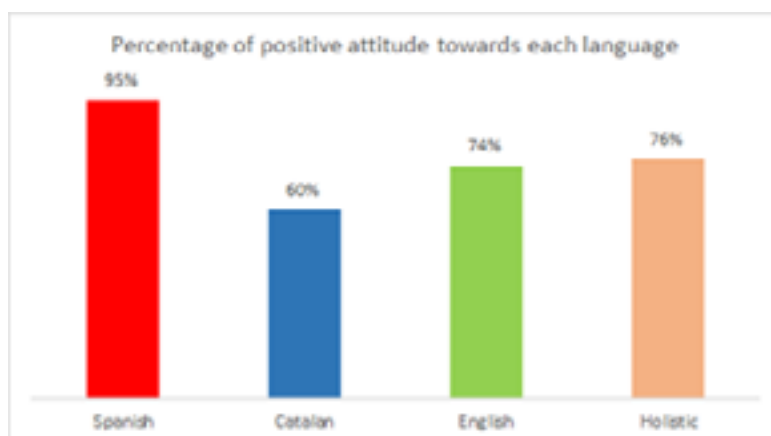

Figure 4. *Percentage of participants' attitudes towards languages.*

towards Catalan (60%).

More detailed information on students' attitude towards the three languages, (Spanish, English and Catalan) is provided in Figure 5, taking into account the information provided in the questionnaire.
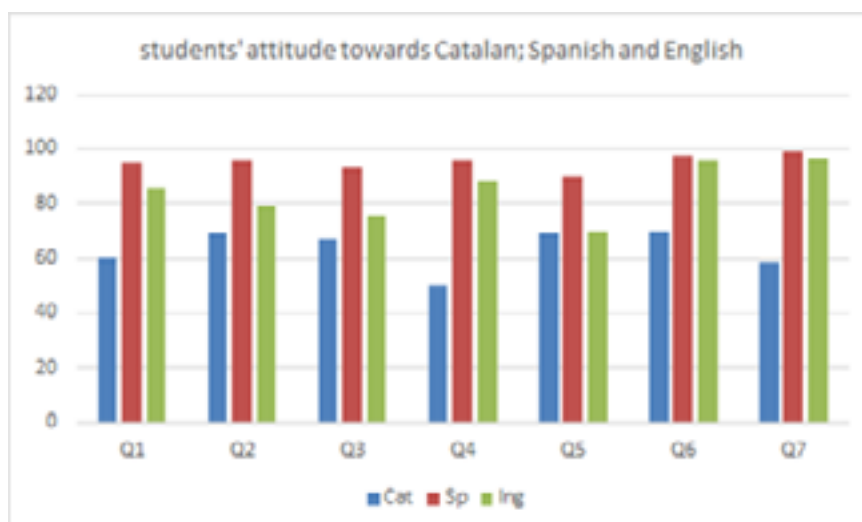

Figure 5. *Participants' attitude towards the three languages (Catalan, Spanish and English)*

Regarding the Spanish language, all responses are above 90%, which shows that participants' attitudes towards Spanish are very positive. If we look at the results related to each of the questions of the questionnaire, it is worth paying attention to question 6 (participants were asked whether if they had children they would like them to speak Spanish), and question 7 (participants were asked about the value of learning the Spanish language). In the case of question 6, 98% of participants responded affirmatively, while 99% of them also considered that it was important to learn Spanish. This can be explained due to the prestige of Spanish as a majority language in the Valencian Community (Portolés, 2014; Guzmán-Alcón, 2019). This finding is confirmed by looking at some of the comments participants made during the semi-structured interviews when participants were asked "what language do you like the most, Catalan, Spanish or English?

S21: "I prefer Spanish because it is my language and I think it is the most important language".

S2: "I believe that Spanish, because it is my language and is spoken all over the world, and it is useful for the society in which we live".

S37: "I prefer Spanish because I think English is given too much importance, but so is Spanish"

S7: "Spanish is the one I am most comfortable speaking because I speak it all the time".

S5:"Spanish because I speak it all the time, at home, at work and with my friends".

S6: "Spanish is a language that has to be taken into account, a lot of attention is given to English and we forget that Spanish is the second most spoken language in the world".

Regarding the English language, there are differences that are worth pointing out. For instance, question 6 and 7 are above 90%, while question 5 and 3 are around 50%. Answers to question 6 "if you had children would you like them to speak English?" and question 7 "do you think it is worth learning English?" seem to indicate the instrumental motivation for learning English, while question 3 "do you like reading in English" and question 5 "would you marry someone who only spoke English?" refer to issues linked to participants' intrinsic motivation for learning English. This is confirmed by looking at some of the comments participants made during the semi-structured interviews where participants' were asked "what language do you consider the most, important (Catalan, Spanish or English?)"

S38: "English since I need it to travel for my job"

S22:"English because when I go around the world I can talk to people".

S33: "I think English, since I've been asked to speak it so much at work since I started, so I've ended up liking it".

S34:"Today, English is the language you need to find a job and it is the one we need the most".

S15: "English because it is very important for the future".

Although our findings indicate participants' perception of the prestige of the English language, and the desire of participants to learn that language, it is worth pointing out that students' attitudes towards the English language are not as positive as their attitude towards the Spanish language. These findings could be explained because participants may see the English language as a threat to the Spanish language (Lasagabaster, 2017). Some of the students' comments during the semi-structured interviews also confirm this tentative hypothesis.

Finally, with regards to the Catalan language, we can observe that students have a neutral attitude towards this language. Here it is worth looking at the answers to questions 1, 4, 6 and 7. Participants in answering question 1 ("I like listening to Catalan) and 4 ("Learning Catalan enriches my cultural background") show a neutral attitude towards Catalan (50% and 58% respectively). This also occurs in question 6 ("If I had children, I would like them to speak Catalan") and question 7 ("it is worth learning Catalan). The percentages of 56% and 62% found respectively in students' responses to these two questions show that neither is there an intrinsic nor an extrinsic motivation for learning Catalan. This is confirmed by looking at some of the comments participants made during the semi-structured interviews in response to the question "what language do you consider the most, important (Catalan, Spanish or English?)"

S13: "Of the three, the Catalan is the least important because I believe it is not worth much".

S22: "Catalan is the least important because I think it is of little use and I have not received a good education, I could not write very well or speak it".

S31: "All of them are important and I like them, but I would say the Catalan is the least important, since it does not open many professional opportunities".

S14: "The one I like the most is Valencia, it's the one I'm most comfortable with, but I think it's the least important".

As it can be observed above, our quantitative data is supported by our qualitative data obtained in the semi-structured interviews. Our findings are in line with previous studies, confirming positive attitudes towards the three languages of the Valencian Community, but, in line with previous studies (Nightingale 2012; Portolés 2014), the sociolinguistic status of each language in the multilingual context of the Valencian Community suggests the need to protect Catalan as the minority language in the Valencian Community. In addition, in line with Portolés (2014), our study shows the prestige of English as a lingua franca, the prestige of Spanish as a majority language and the lack of prestige of Catalan as a minority language.

Another issue observed in the semi structured interviews was that students' mother tongue may play a role in L3 written performance. It seems that those students that are bilingual, that is to say those that use both official languages (Spanish and Catalan) at home, got better results in the evaluation of their English writings. For instance, in answering the question "How do you feel when you write in English?'' S31 and S20 (bilingual spanish and Catalan) got the best scores in English witten performance and reported positive attitudes towards L3 (English) writing:

S31: "I feel good writing in English because I see that I am able to express my ideas in a language that is not my own".

S20: "Happy because it is useful to improve our knowledge and to open our minds" respectively.

However, students whose mother tongue is only Spanish or Catalan did not show such a positive attitude towards English and their scores in English compositons were lower.

S14: "No demasiado bien ya que prefiero escribir en mi lengua, escribir en inglés me cuesta y no lo tengo claro".

To sum up, findings related to RQ II corroborate previous studies that pointed out the impact of multilingualism on students' language attitudes and L3 writing. In addition, and in line with Sagasta (2003) and Arozena (2017), further research is needed to explore in the Valencian Community whether bilingual learners in Catalan and Spanish outperform their monolingual peers when they write in English as a third language. This type of research may shed light on whether having more linguistic resources improves students' writing skills, or how languages are interconnected at different levels (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Arozena, 2017).

IV. CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this study was to explore the relationship between students' attitudes towards languages and third language (English) writing. Our results related to the relationship between language attitudes and students' written performance support previous studies and suggest that a positive attitude towards the target language, in this case English, correlates with better performance in writing. Moreover, considering the two official languages of the Valencian Community, these do not seem to play a role in writing in English as an additional language. In addition, the present study shows differences in relation to the three languages of the Valencian community, supporting previous studies conducted by Nightingale (2012), Portolés (2014) and Guzmán-Alcón (2019). In particular, our findings indicate that, although language attitude does not necessarily correlate with L3 writing performance, participants acknowledge the prestige of English as a lingua franca, the prestige of Spanish as a majority language and the lack of prestige of Catalan as a minority language. Finally, a tentative hypothesis to be further explored is

suggested in relation to the relationship between being bilingual in Catalan and Spanish and students' L3 writing.

The present study also presents some limitations. First of all, the sample is too small to generalize the results. Secondly, no recording was possible during the interviews as students preferred not to be recorded during the interview. Thirdly, we only evaluated students' writing in English and further studies are needed to evaluate students' writing in the three languages of instruction, that is to say, Catalan, Spanish and English. In spite of these limitations, it is worth pointing out that our results suggest some pedagogical implications that may be interesting for language teachers. First, since a positive attitude towards language correlates with written performance, care should be taken to provide an environment that triggers a positive attitude towards English. Secondly, since it seems that having different languages in students' repertoire improves students' writing, a multilingual education approach should be encouraged. This could be achieved by encouraging language teachers to explore "focus on multilingualism" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015) and avoid monolingual classroom practices. This could also be done by encouraging positive attitudes towards the different languages of the curriculum and by incorporating translanguaging as a tool for language learning. Finally, we encourage the implementation of multilingual pedagogies since they may change attitudes to languages and create some multilingual sensibilities and awareness of languages, whether they are local, national or international, and this, in turn, may facilitate the acquisition of other additional languages.

V. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Nos gustaría contar con tu ayuda para contestar estas preguntas. No es ninguna prueba y por lo tanto no hay respuestas 'correctas' o 'incorrectas', ni siquiera tienes que escribir tu nombre. Lo que nos interesa es tu verdadera opinión. Por favor, danos las respuestas de forma sincera, es la única manera de garantizar el éxito de la investigación. Muchas gracias por tu ayuda.

Primera parte: información general

    1) Edad: _____

    2) Sexo: Chico __ Chica __

    3)¿En qué curso de la EOI estás?____

    4) Lengua materna: Castellano __ Valenciano __ Ambas __ Otra (indica)_____

    5) ¿Cuántos años llevas estudiando inglés? ___

    6) ¿Estudias otro idioma aparte del Inglés?_____ ¿cuál?_____

    7) ¿En casa hablas en catalán/valenciano (sí / no), castellano (sí / no), inglés (sí / no)?

Segunda parte: actitudes lingüísticas.

Indica la importancia de saber cada lengua en:

Por favor, contesta en una escala de uno a 5. Dónde 1 está totalmente en desacuerdo y 5 totalmente de acuerdo.

SOBRE EL CATALÁN/ VALENCIANO

Me gusta escuchar el catalán/valenciano hablado   1 2 3 4 5

Me gusta hablar en catalán /valenciano 1 2 3 4 5

El catalan/valenciano se tiene que impartir en todos los centros educativos de la CV 1 2 3 4 5

Me gusta hablar en catalán/ valenciano 1 2 3 4 5

Aprender catalán/valenciano enriquece mi bagaje cultural   1 2 3 4 5

No me importaría casarme con alguien que solo hablara catalán/valenciano 1 2 3 4 5

Si tuviera hijos/as me gustaría que aprendieran catalán/valenciano 1 2 3 4 5

Vale la pena aprender catalán/valenciano 1 2 3 4 5

SOBRE EL ESPAÑOL

Me gusta escuchar el Español hablado   1 2 3 4 5

Me gusta hablar en español 1 2 3 4 5

El español se tiene que impartir en todos los centros educativos de la CV 1 2 3 4 5

Me gusta hablar en español 1 2 3 4 5

Aprender español enriquece mi bagaje cultural   1 2 3 4 5

No me importaría casarme con alguien que solo hablara español 1 2 3 4 5

Si tuviera hijos/as me gustaría que aprendieran español 1 2 3 4 5

Vale la pena aprender español 1 2 3 4 5

SOBRE EL INGLÉS

Me gusta escuchar el Inglés hablado   1 2 3 4 5

Me gusta hablar en inglés   1 2 3 4 5

El inglés se tiene que impartir en todos los centros educativos de la CV 1 2 3 4 5

Me gusta hablar en inglés 1 2 3 4 5

Aprender Inglés enriquece mi bagaje cultural   1 2 3 4 5

No me importaría casarme con alguien que solo hablara inglés 1 2 3 4 5

Si tuviera hijos/as me gustaría que aprendieran inglés 1 2 3 4 5

Vale la pena aprender inglés 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix B

WRITTEN EXPRESSION

What are the advantages and disadvantages of Online Shopping? (between 150- 200)

Te gusta escribir en inglés:

a) Nada   b) Muy poco   c) Normal   d) Bastante   e) Mucho

¿Por qué? (Utilitza un mínimo de 20 palabras)

Appendix C

Q1:Do you like writing in English?

Q2:What language do you like the most, Catalan, Spanish or English?

Q3:How do you feel when you write in English?

Q4:What language do you feel more comfortable with?

Q5:Do you think that learning how to write in English is useful?

Q6:what language do you consider the most, important (Catalan, Spanish or English?)

Revisiting Views of Grammar and Grammar Learning Strategy Use: A Multiple Case Study in Vietnam

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ABSTRACT

It was undoubted that studies on grammar instruction have long been d iscussed. However, there remains a dearth of research on how English as a foreign language (EFL) high school students learn grammar. Revisiting this line of grammar research, the researchers explored how EFL students experienced grammar learning at high schools in Vietnam. The researchers conducted a qualitative multiple case study and used semi-structured individual interviews as the main instrument for data collection in this study. Six high school Vietnamese students were interviewed regarding their views on the role of grammar and their use of grammar learning strategies. Grounded on pedagogies of grammar instruction, the study showed that most participants still learned English grammar through

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the traditional approach, i.e., FoFs instruction. Findings from the inductive content analysis indicated that all participants acknowledged the essential role of grammar in learning English, and demonstrated a strategic approach to grammar learning, with environmental and behavioral management and cognitive strategies being the most popular strategies. The findings can help English teachers adjust their teaching approach and techniques to maximize students' grammar achievement and enhance their effective grammar learning strategies for long-term benefits. The study contributes to research on Asian EFL students' attitudes towards grammar learning and their use of grammar learning strategies.

I. INTRODUCTION

Grammar plays an undeniably significant role when students start to learn English as a foreign language, especially in improving their language performance at school. Many linguists have extensively discussed the importance and necessity of grammar in learning English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) (e.g., Cook, 2016; Halliday, 2003). Accordingly, numerous studies have been conducted in grammar teaching, exploring the effect of a particular grammar teaching method and technique such as Focus on Form (FoF) versus Focus on forms (FoFs) instruction (e.g., Long, 1991; Marzban & Mokhberi, 2012), explicit versus implicit learning (e.g., Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Dekeyser, 1994), grammar-based teaching (e.g., Azar, 2007), using singing in grammar teaching (e.g., Busse et al., 2021) and computer-assisted educational games (e.g., Kayan & Aydin, 2020). Nevertheless, for grammar teaching to be successful, learners' beliefs and grammar learning strategy use must be investigated as all successful learning depends on what is going on inside the learner's mind and their regulatory behavior (Zimmerman, 2000).

Learner beliefs about language learning have been studied for more than three decades, mainly in the United States, with the earliest work on Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1999). Since the 1990s, it has been researched in other EFL/ESL countries such as Thailand (e.g., Fujiwara, 2014), Vietnam (e.g., Bernat, 2004), and Malaysia (e.g., Peng & Hui, 2012). Learner beliefs were also reported to correlate with strategy use (e.g., Yang, 1999), motivation (e.g., Bernat, 2004), and proficiency (e.g., Fujiwara, 2014). However, little research has been conducted regarding learners' beliefs about the role of grammar in Vietnam. Although there are a few published studies on grammar research, these studies included Vietnamese teachers as the main participants and lacked Vietnamese students' qualitative perspectives (e.g., Phan, 2017).

Likewise, grammar learning strategies (GLSs) were substantially neglected in the lines of grammar research as highlighted by Pawlak (2020b). Researching GLSs is important

because studies have proved a positive relationship between students' use of learning strategies and language achievement (e.g., Azizmohammadi & Barjesteh, 2020; Chen et al., 2020), and thus, the lack of grammar strategies may hinder students from gaining grammar achievement. Also, due to the lack of qualitative research on GLSs, many EFL researchers tended to adapt existing questionnaires of language learning strategies to measure EFL students' grammar learning strategy use without providing information about psychometric properties (e.g., Alsied et al., 2018; Abri et al., 2017; Gürata, 2008; Gimeno, 2002). A qualitative approach to explore EFL learners' GLSs would, therefore, be a first and often very helpful step to instrument development and adaptation because it can help researchers gain insights into students' actual use of GLSs, perception, and learning experiences. Thus, the present study seeks to understand Vietnamese high school students' attitudes towards the role of grammar and their use of GLSs by using in-depth semi-structured interviews.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

II.1. Pedagogies of Grammar Instruction

In recent years, there has been a renewed interest in the two dichotomies concerning grammar instruction in English language classrooms. Concerns revolve around explicit versus implicit or deductive versus inductive instruction. In deductive and explicit teaching, rules are given before any examples are provided, while in an inductive and implicit lesson, rules are inferred from given examples (Thornbury, 1999). Besides, Larsen-Freeman (2003) remarked that if the grammar rules are quite simple, it is unnecessary to apply the inductive approach, but for complex grammar items, to exemplify and clarify the rules' usage in contexts clearly, it is better to present them inductively. Also, if more focus is on the strong communicative approach and less on grammar instruction, low accuracy can result (Hinkel & Fotos, 2001). For instance, Lightbown and Spada's (1990) study revealed that after being exposed to a five-month intensive ESL course, native French speakers who received form-focused instruction could use English structures such

as progressive -ing and adjective-noun order in noun phrases with accuracy to a greater degree than the students in classrooms in which lessons were solely communicative.

Long (1991) recommended the 'focus-on form' (FoF) approach, which contrasts with the traditional structure-based grammar teaching, i.e., the 'focus-on-forms' (FoFs) approach. In addition, Long (1998) pointed out that in FoFs instruction, grammar is introduced out of contexts, meaning that specific grammatical points have already been systematically pre-selected, and follow-up exercises are already designed to tackle those grammatical features. A typical example of FoFs will be in a lesson taught using the 3P technique (Criado, 2013; Ur, 2018). Meanwhile, FoF instruction draws students' attention to meaning. Only when students encounter communication problems will attention to forms be given. A good example of this type of instruction can be observed through a task-based lesson, where teachers do not predetermine what grammar feature will be studied.

Previous studies support the idea that FoF instruction can boost learners' confidence in using English and lead to positive results in enhancing learners' communicative competence (Takano, 2018), as an effective method for grammar error treatment (Shintani, 2015). However, the meta-analysis of 48 experimental and quasi-experimental studies conducted on grammar instruction in the foreign and second language instructional settings (including English and French) from 1980 to 1998 showed that both FoF and FoFs instruction produced substantial and equivalent effect sizes (Norris & Ortega, 2001). Also, the results showed that explicit types of grammar instruction, with explanations and focused practice, are more productive and contribute significantly to achievement than implicit models.

II.2. Beliefs about the Role of Grammar and Grammar Teaching Methods

The importance of grammar has long been acknowledged by linguists and educators. Not only is grammar "the most distinctive aspect of language" (Cook, 2016, p. 9), but it

is also a part of communicative competence (Yalden, 1987) and "a mode of entry to the study of meaning" (Halliday, 2003, p. 180). Similarly, EFL learners have been reported to acknowledge the indispensable role of grammar. For instance, Hos and Kekec (2015) found in their qualitative findings that most university Turkish students perceived grammar as essential. Likewise, Thai university students believed it was necessary to learn grammar (Saengboon, 2017). Mixed results were also found for EFL students' views on grammar teaching methods in different countries. Graus and Coppen (2016) found that most Dutch university students preferred explicit, form-focused, and inductive grammar instruction. Meanwhile, Chinese students believed that combining traditional and communicative approaches would enhance their grammar learning (Deng & Lin, 2016).

II.3. Grammar Learning Strategies (GLS)

GLSs were defined as "actions and thoughts that learners consciously employ to make language learning and/or language use easier, more effective, more efficient, and more enjoyable" (Oxford et al., 2007, p. 117). Asian learners have been reported to use a variety of strategies for grammar learning. For instance, adopting Pawlak's (2018a) Grammar Learning Strategy Inventory, Kadir et al. (2020) revealed that second-year university Indonesian students used metacognitive, cognitive, affective, and social strategies at a medium level, with social strategy having the highest mean score. Using Oxford's (1990) SILL, Supakorn et al. (2018) compared Chinese and Thai high achieving and low-achieving 11th graders in their GLSs. The results indicated that high achievers used more GLSs than low achievers in both Asian countries, although Thai students used more GLSs than Chinese learners for both proficiency groups. Thai high achievers employed more memory, cognitive, affective, and social strategies than Chinese high-achieving counterparts and Thai low-achievers used more metacognitive, social, and affective strategies than Chinese low-achieving peers.

Furthermore, some cognitive learning strategies, such as memorization and controlled practice for grammar learning, were used more frequently by students of elementary

English level than advanced learners (e.g., Pawlak, 2008). Also, the translation strategy was used differently to learn grammar by learners of various proficiency levels. For instance, Japanese students of English beginner and intermediate level believed that translation strategy was effective in facilitating grammar learning (Horwitz, 1999). In contrast, the translation strategy was not perceived effective by more proficient, and English-majored Taiwanese students who used this strategy less frequently than their non-proficient peers (Liao, 2006). Also, Pawlak (2008) reported that most advanced Polish students adopted the formal practice and consulted printed reference grammar sources but used memorization less frequently and rarely used translation, contrastive analysis, natural practice, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies.

Language learning strategy research has witnessed significant advances and developments in recent years, primarily in conceptualizing the strategy construct (Oxford, 1990; Pawlak, 2011; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998; Zimmerman, 2000). The conceptualizations have been shifted from the notion of strategic learning to self-regulation, examined under the psychological perspectives (Oxford, 2016; Rose, 2012). SRL refers to "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions for attaining one's learning goals" (Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009, p.299). According to Zimmerman (1986), learners become active participants at different stages in their SRL process because they have metacognitive strategies (planning, organizing, self-instructing, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating), motivation (competence, self-efficacy, and autonomy), and appropriate behaviors (selecting, structuring, and creating conducive learning environments). SRL strategies have been well-documented in language and science learning. For instance, Zimmerman and Pons (1986) identified 14 SRL strategies (e.g., self-evaluation, seeking information, environmental structuring, rehearsing and memorizing, and review notes) that 10th graders used during class, homework, and studying in a writing course. Also, Cleary (2006) found that high school students used adaptive strategies such as seeking and learning information and managing environment and behavior strategies and also demonstrated maladaptive regulatory behaviors (i.e., strategies students use to avoid

learning) when self-regulating their science learning.

In addition, elements of metacognition and self-regulation have been integrated into recent language learning studies in EFL contexts (e.g., An et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2013) to broaden the traditional strategy research. Also, a few studies provided insights into how students may employ various strategies in learning grammatical points of a language. Gimeno (2002), for instance, conducted a grammar learning strategy intervention on 60 Spanish secondary school students to compare the effects of metacognitive and cognitive strategies on learning English conditional sentence Type 2. The results show that the metacognitive group benefited from macro strategies such as preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion, and outperformed the cognitive group in grammar interpretation tests and inductive ability. This further indicates that in comparison to cognitive strategies (e.g., memorization of grammatical rules, repetition, and over-practicing), which are often encouraged in many EFL language classrooms (Oxford et al., 2007), there may be other strategies in learning grammar that can be more productive because students who use only memorization strategies tend to have lower performance scores than students who employ metacognitive strategies (Chiu et al., 2007).

II.4. Grammar Learning in Vietnam

In Vietnam, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach was introduced in the 2000s, and despite this, most English language programs in Vietnamese high schools still focus on grammar and vocabulary, with explicit grammar teaching being the most popular instructional method (Phan, 2018). Besides, despite being sent to language training schools and centers to learn CLT approaches, e.g., learning through discovery and project-based learning, most school teachers continued to use the traditional method in their practical teaching context (Pham, 2007; Phan, 2017). It is challenging to apply CLT to language teaching classrooms in Vietnam because of factors on the part of students (e.g., lack of communication opportunities and low proficiency level), teachers (e.g., lack of training, feeling of inadequacy), the educational system (e.g., large class

sizes, insufficient facilities, textbooks, exam-focused) (Pham, 2007; Phan, 2017).

Despite the national plan for foreign languages from 2008 and 2020 to develop students' foreign language productive skills, most Vietnamese high school students continued to learn grammar in FoFs and GTM classrooms (Phan, 2018). Thus, there remains a myth concerning what high school Vietnamese students think about this way of learning grammar and their beliefs about grammar teaching methods. Although most Vietnamese high school students have learned English for many years, they still find it hard to use even simple and common vocabulary and grammar to communicate in the English language in daily conversations (Nguyen & Le, 2020). Dan (2008) conducted a study with seventy-two Vietnamese college students, including both English majors and non-English majors, to explore common problems that Vietnamese students encountered with grammar. Dan (2008) concluded that Vietnamese students commit widespread errors with tense and aspect although they have spent years learning English. When Vietnamese students learn English grammar, they tend to copy down the structures, do exercises to get familiar with the structures, and frequently employ memorization strategies to remember the grammar rules and structures (Duong & Nguyen, 2006). However, whether Vietnamese high school students use other GLS to learn grammar is still unknown due to a lack of previous studies.

Based on the review of the related literature, the study proposed two research questions:

(1) What are Vietnamese high school students' attitudes towards the role of grammar in learning English?

(2) What grammar learning strategies do Vietnamese high school students use to learn English grammar?

III. METHODOLOGY

III.1. Design

The researchers conducted a multiple qualitative case study, an essential strategy to describe and expand the understanding of a specific phenomenon. In a multiple case study approach, regularities among cases are revealed, and emerging concepts in each case that are not found in the remaining cases can be either rejected or confirmed (Stake, 1995). In other words, this approach is employed to illustrate and gain insights into a specific issue by seeking another layer of themes that emerge across all the investigated cases. Hence, to dig deeper into the pursuit of insights and critical comments and afford the participants opportunities to describe and reflect on their learning experiences, the researchers conducted in-depth semi-structured interviews.

III.2. Participants

Six high school Vietnamese students (three boys and three girls), aged between 15 and 18, studying at various high schools in the northern and southern parts of Vietnam were recruited through a snowball sampling technique. The researchers identified a small number of students who have the necessary characteristics, and these students served as informants to help researchers get in touch with other students who are eligible for inclusion criteria (e.g., studying at a public high school and having at least 7 years of learning English). This sampling technique was used because it was difficult for the researchers to get access to the population of high school students in all three regions in Vietnam during the Covid-19 pandemic. To obtain a more accurate and general picture of grammar learning and beliefs, only non-English majors were selected as these students can represent the majority of Vietnamese high school students who do not choose English as a major. Moreover, more 12th graders were chosen because they can provide a better reflective overview of how they have learned English grammar and the

learning problems they encountered from middle school to high school. The participants and their guardians received a consent form via email and signed it electronically. Before the actual interview, the researcher called each participant to introduce herself, briefed them on the purpose of the study so that the participants got to know her before scheduling an online Skype interview with them. Participants were also informed that their interviews would be recorded, and all their personal information was kept confidential. Pseudonyms were used for participants, and their personal information is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Demographic information of participants*

No	Names	Gender	Age	Grade	English proficiency level	Locations of high schools	Preference for learning grammar	Years of formal English learning	Classroom
1	KA	Female	17	12	Elementary	Ho Chi Minh City	No	7	Traditional
2	May	Female	15	10	Pre-intermediate	Ha Noi Capital	Neutral	7	Task-based
3	Noah	Male	18	12	Intermediate	Ho Chi Minh City	Neutral	7	Traditional
4	Taylor	Female	16	11	Pre-intermediate	Ho Chi Minh City	Neutral	9	Traditional
5	Pierre	Male	17	12	Elementary	Long An Province	No	7	Traditional
6	Quade	Male	18	12	Pre-intermediate	Long An Province	Yes	7	Traditional

III.3. Data collection

Each interview lasted about 40-50 minutes and was conducted in a face-to-face Skype video meeting. The interview was conducted in Vietnamese. All interviews were audio-recorded and subsequently transcribed verbatim into a word document for coding with careful and thorough consideration during transcription. The transcript was subsequently translated into English. Audio files were safely stored and downloaded onto a computer. The interviews comprise 16 questions structured in three blocks: the first one was about collecting demographic data; the second was about responding to research questions, and the last was geared towards students' answering grammar sentences (SeeAppendix).

Students' handouts, shared electronically with the researcher, were also examined.

III.4. Data analysis

Data were gathered, collected, transcribed, and analyzed based on the inductive content analysis guidelines suggested by Marshall and Rossman (2014) and Creswell (2007). The researchers organized the qualitative data through open coding and created categories for abstraction. Accordingly, the researchers clarified the content by reading through the transcripts many times, writing marginal notes, and forming initial codes. The researchers also described each case and its context and used categorical aggregation to establish themes and patterns. After common patterns among cases were found, the researchers identified dissimilar patterns before checking and rechecking codes with data and clustering them into final categories. The researchers continued revising and refining the category system, and within each category, searched for sub-topics, including contradictory viewpoints and new insights. Suitable direct quotes from the interviews were used to illustrate, support, validate the findings.

III.5. Trustworthiness and Reflexibility

The use of self in research means that the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection, and the researchers' position was used as a form of reliability (Merriam & Tisdell 2015). The researchers were aware that their position and reflexivity affected how they made sense of participants' worldviews. Also, the researchers used document analysis to triangulate the interview data by analyzing students' handouts. Besides, the researchers abandoned their expert stance and held a neutral attitude towards participants' sharing, following Merriam and Tisdell's (2015) guidelines. Moreover, as advised by Glesne (2015), to enhance the reliability of the data analysis, the researchers conducted many reviews of the translated transcripts, double-checked, and discussed the descriptions of the codes, illustrative data extracts, and the category scheme.

IV. FINDINGS

Most participants still learned grammar in traditional classrooms with explicit FoFs instruction and only one participant was taught with a task-based approach. Despite being exposed to different grammar teaching methods, all participants had a positive attitude towards the centrality of grammar in learning English and used different GLSs. These main findings are reported as follows.

IV.1.   Positive attitudes towards the role of grammar

Grammar was defined by participants in the study as mastering sentence structures and formulae, and to all participants, grammar played a crucial role in learning English whether they liked learning it or not. For instance, May remarked, "Grammar is an indispensable thing" and KA posited, "grammar is very important". Other participants explained the importance of grammar stating that learning grammar lends itself to learning other skills. They also argued that if learners possessed grammar competence, they would have a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures used for both speaking and writing and they could make themselves understood by producing utterances grammatically.

> *Grammar helps us understand the sentence structures and the writing style adopted by foreigners. So, I think it is very important.* (Quade)

> *Grammar helps us speak fluently and present ideas better when we write… If I don't master English grammar, then I won't be able to learn other skills well.* (Taylor)

> *I think it is quite important because if our grammar is not good, we will make sentence mistakes when we speak, which makes it difficult for others to understand.* (Pierre)

In addition to skills development, the essential role of grammar was also examined on other dimensions. For instance, May and Noah pointed out that learning grammar could facilitate advanced English studies and preparation for an English international test such

as IELTS, TOEIC, and TOEFL.

> *If we study grammar well, it will be beneficial for us when we practice and prepare for the IELTS exam.* (May)

> *If I study higher, the grammar I know will help me in my learning a lot.* (Noah)

Notably, Noah pointed out that most high schools in Vietnam seriously focus on teaching grammar and vocabulary for the high-stakes exam, which was also evidenced by the content of the handouts participants were given after learning one unit in class for further practice.

> *Grammar is very important because we only have written and reading exams… At my school, we are studying grammar from the beginner to the intermediate level. Perhaps at other better schools, they teach students much more advanced grammar, and most of these schools focus on grammar and vocabulary.* (Noah)

From participants' considerations on the role of grammar in learning English, it can be concluded that learning grammar is very important for these EFL high school learners, probably because the grammar-based examination is still in practice.

IV.2. Grammar Learning Strategies

IV.2.1. Environmental and behavioral management strategies

Despite learning with a different teaching approach, all participants used learning strategies to assist them in grammar learning. The first group of strategies, the environmental and behavioral strategies, indicate regulatory strategy use during studying and homework completion, such as looking for support and resources, time management, and habit formation. For instance, when faced with learning difficulties, KA tended to seek help from her friends or teachers:

> *I often ask my friends who can understand the English foreign teacher to*

translate for me. If I misunderstand something, I will ask my teacher so that I will not repeat the error in the next test.

Moreover, to facilitate the understanding and memorization of the grammar structures, some students shared that they learned grammar in meaningful contexts with illustrative examples that suit their English level.

When we learn tenses or new grammatical structures, we should find two or three examples for us to practice until we understand them. (KA)

When I study a grammar sentence, I have to put it in context. I think I will remember it for a longer period. (Noah)

Having gotten access to the Internet, some participants also self-studied by using the Google search engine to seek online materials and multimedia sources or download grammar learning applications. Thus, knowing how to employ multiples of available virtual sources to serve their grammar learning suggests that participants know how to self-regulate their learning. In particular, they reported using environmental management strategies to assist their grammar studies.

I often download apps to learn grammar... If a grammar lesson is difficult for me, I will go online, and search materials related to it. (May)

I watch English movies and listen to music in English, pay attention to new things to learn. This works for me. There are things that teachers do not teach, but thanks to watching movies, when taking tests, there are sentences I remember when watching movies, and I can do it. (Quade)

In addition to managing the learning environment, all participants mentioned using behavioral management strategies to adapt to the learning environment requirements. For instance, participants employed over-practicing (i.e., doing and redoing numerous

exercises in handouts or assignments) to get familiar with grammatical structures and memorize the formulae more easily. The following instances illustrate the use of this strategy.

> *I take out the handouts and homework exercises assigned by my teacher in class, and I do them again and again and memorize the structure.* (Pierre)

> *I think when teachers deliver the lesson, we should try to remember right away what they teach and do exercises all over and over again.* (Quade).

IV.2.2 Cognitive and metacognitive strategies

The next group of strategies, cognitive strategies, involves taking notes of and reviewing structures, using given words to analyze grammar sentences, guessing and making inferences, and translating. Among the cognitive strategies, translation and reviewing were the most widely used by all participants. For instance, Taylor shared that she often "reviewe[d] the lessons immediately after class because [she could] remember the knowledge better." When finding the answers to grammar sentences, she often "read the whole sentence, analyze[d] the type of sentence, and inferre[d] the structure." Instances of other participants' employment of cognitive strategies concern "tak[ing] notes of grammar structures, formulae, and examples" (taken from KA), "translat[ing] the whole sentence to find out the meaning and look[ing] for signal words or signs" (taken from Quade) and "guess[ing]" (taken from Pierre).

In addition to cognitive strategies, some participants also used metacognitive learning strategies, which include using strategies to understand how they learn and to consciously complete an exercise or a learning task successfully, including planning, and making efforts in learning. For example, Taylor shared how she planned grammar lessons, and Quade vocalized the necessity of making efforts in grammar learning.

> *If there is a grammar class tomorrow, I will take time to prepare for the lesson tonight. If my teacher doesn't tell me what to study tomorrow, I'll prepare for*

the next unit. (Taylor).

> *I think when teachers deliver the lesson, we should try to remember right away what they teach…we should focus on studying it because later on we need a lot of English.* (Quade)

Although planning and making an effort in learning contributes to the repertoire of successful learning strategies, the responses from the students in this study seem to indicate that few students use these strategies for grammar learning. As May pointed out, "If [students] memorize the structures but still make mistakes in their answers, they should try to understand what mistakes they made." Although understanding mistakes is a part of the self-reflection process, only one student (May) directly mentioned this strategy. It seems that most students who participated in this study did not know how to fully self-reflect on their learning, which may explain their failure to give correct answers to some grammar sentences in the practice part of the interview, although they had already learned all the grammatical points in the English program that the researcher used to test them.

Also, some of them used maladaptive strategies, i.e., strategies that students often use to avoid learning or that impede their learning. The first instance concerns giving up easily after several unsuccessful learning attempts.

> *If a grammar lesson is difficult for me, I will go online and search for materials related to it. If I still cannot understand it, I will give up.* (KA).

Besides, students' failure to make appropriate learning plans and inability to maintain or balance focus on learning are epitomes of the lack of adaptive strategies.

> *Because I think I will study it at university again, I focus on studying the subjects that I think I will sit for the university entrance exam. I think the problem lies with me, not the grammar.* (Pierre)

> *When I took the high school entrance exam, I spent a lot of time studying but if there was no exam or test, I didn't pay much attention to studying English. When there was no pressure of sitting for the high school entrance exam, I did not realize the importance of studying English on my initiative.* (May)

Other instances of students' lack of adaptive strategies to control their learning included their failure to make regular efforts to review what they learned and attribution of a lack of self-motivation to negative personality traits, i.e., laziness or boredom.

> *In grade 9, I studied a lot about [grammar]to sit for the high school entrance exam, but after the exam, I didn't review so I didn't remember...*(May)

> *If I study hard, my grammar will be good, but if I am lazy or bored, I will get discouraged easily.* (Pierre)

V. DISCUSSION

In light of the findings, participating students generally had positive attitudes towards the role that grammar plays in their English learning journey. Most of them still learned grammar in traditional classrooms (except one student-May). Although learning in diverse language classrooms, participants had reflective thoughts about teaching approaches and adopted multiple strategies to deal with grammar learning. In particular, these findings were discussed as follows.

The fact that most students are taught with explicit FoFs instruction may indicate that the traditional grammar teaching approach is still prevalent in Vietnam, although, in some high schools in the capital city, students can be taught with the CLT approach. Thus, this indicates that mixed practices in grammar teaching exist in Vietnam. Also, as pointed out by participants, high school teachers often required students to focus on learning grammar for passing exams. However, this practice could unintentionally feed into students' minds that learning grammar at high school was all about mastering

predetermined grammar knowledge for high-stakes exams. Despite the emphasis on learning grammar to pass exams, participants believed that grammar was essential for skills development and international English tests. Thus, their beliefs were consistent with the positive attitude that EFL students in South East Asia (e.g., Deng & Lin, 2016; Saengboon, 2017) and other regions (e.g., Hos & Kekec, 2015; Graus & Coppen, 2016) held about grammar in previous studies.

Besides, participants' beliefs about the centrality of grammar were in line with those of linguists and educators, such as Cook (2016) and Halliday (2003) who emphasized the essential role of grammar in learning languages and highlighted the long-term benefits of learning grammar, enabling us to make sense of what we speak and write. Thus, it seems that the positive beliefs about the importance of grammar in language learning are not only unanimous among EFL learners in most Southeast Asian countries but also those in other nations. Also, from the participants' perspectives, the traditional FoFs approach to grammar teaching does not seem problematic because participants approved focusing on forms when learning grammar, which confirms Daloglu's (2020) findings. Thus, Vietnamese English teachers should consider learner beliefs and balance them with contextual factors, learners' characteristics, and assessment requirements since learner beliefs can affect how they internalize the language. Accordingly, English teachers should not completely abandon the FoFs approach in ongoing language teaching reforms, because the findings in this study showed that participants did not indicate antipathy towards this type of instruction. Combining different grammar teaching approaches, updating teaching techniques, and varying instructional activities can increase students' motivation in learning grammar.

Consistent with the findings of other Asian students such as Indonesian, Chinese and Thai learners who were reported to employ a variety of strategies to learn grammar (e.g., Kadir et al., 2020; Supakorn et al., 2018), participants also used various GLSs such as environmental and behavioral management and cognitive strategies. Also,

metacognitive strategies were found among some participants of pre-intermediate and intermediate levels. Nevertheless, students used traditional cognitive learning strategies such as translation and reviewing records more often than the remaining strategies. Previously, Taiwanese students in Liao (2006) and Japanese students in Oh (1996, as cited in Horwitz, 1999) believed the translation strategy was helpful for learning grammar, and this belief was also mentioned by participants in this study. The most surprising results, however, concerning Vietnamese learners' grammar learning strategy use is their report of maladaptive strategies, i.e., lack of metacognitive strategies which has not been mentioned in previous studies. Evidence of maladaptive strategies such as failing to make plans, ascribing incorrect attributional causes, exerting an insufficient effort, and giving up learning early indicate that learners may face learning problems because of not knowing how to practice the adaptive strategies to facilitate grammar learning.

Hence, the findings of strategies that students use to learn grammar inform English teachers to help students tackle grammar learning problems linked with these maladaptive strategies. By guiding students to search for materials, seek help, and self-regulate their grammar learning, teachers can help students become autonomous learners. Despite having to cover many sections in a grammar lesson within a limited amount of time in class, English teachers can consider orienting students to learn self-regulated learning strategies in tutoring or extra classes organized by the school. Although English teachers have to face a mismatch between the modern and strategic teaching approaches and the testing system in Vietnam, which was more traditional and form-focused, teachers should balance educational goals and provide chances for students to develop learner autonomy as much as they can, which will be likely to bring long-term benefits.

Finally, information about useful strategies that participants employed for learning grammar, as mentioned in this study, can be beneficial to EFL/ESL researchers who are enthusiastic about self-regulated learning strategies to design an instrument that can measure learners' self-regulation in English grammar learning. Subconstructs of

SRL strategies for learning English grammar can include environmental and behavioral management (EBM), cognitive (C), and metacognitive (MC) strategies. Instances of items that can be formulated based on the findings in this study include but do not limit to "I use different ways of learning grammar" (MC), "I employ different sources to facilitate my grammar learning" (EBM), "I translate into Vietnamese grammatical concepts, rules, structures, or usage to help me learn English grammar" (C), "I make sure I follow the grammar rules" (MC), "I notice the position of verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs when working on a grammar exercise" (C), "I make lists of important structures, rules, and usages and memorize the lists" (C) and "I make a schedule to help me organize my time to study grammar" (EBM). Admittedly, an exhaustive list of items that can be created from the findings of this study is out of the scope of this article. Hence, the researchers recommend that future studies continue this line of grammar research.

VI. CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

In summary, all participants in this study acknowledged the essential role of grammar in learning English. However, most of them were still learning in the traditional classrooms, focusing on structure presentation and memorization of grammatical formulae, which indicates that the traditional approach is still prevalent at high schools in large cities and provinces. Despite this, all participants demonstrated the ability to self-regulate their learning and adopted a strategic approach to grammar learning on their initiative despite their occasional use of maladaptive strategies, which has not been mentioned in previous studies about grammar learning in Vietnam. The study opens another avenue for grammar strategy research into adaptive and maladaptive grammar learning behaviors and strategies and provides valuable information for English teachers to provide resources and use various teaching techniques to help students self-regulate their grammar learning effectively and to design strategy intervention to tackle ineffective grammar learning problems.

Nevertheless, this study has some limitations. Firstly, it did not consider all high school

participants studying in various locations (e.g., rural and mountainous areas), and not all Vietnamese high school students in all teaching and learning contexts were included, who might receive different grammar instruction such as explicit versus implicit, FoF versus FoFs, GLT versus CLT. Also, due to the limited number of participants, i.e. six students, the findings cannot be generalized to all EFL learners in Vietnam and should be interpreted with caution. Also, as the study is exploratory, it is difficult to compute the accurate percentage of students who use a particular strategy and the frequency of overall strategy use that belongs to each participant. Thus, English teachers and instructors can consider the result from this study to design an appropriate grammar learning strategy questionnaire sensitive to the local context. As strategy learning research has been a fad in recent years, the study contributes to its neglected field, i.e., GLSs, and provided valuable information regarding which GLSs Vietnamese high school students may use to facilitate their grammar learning. Thus, future research about GLSs can replicate this study to confirm the results.

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VIII.   Appendix: interview questions

1.   Which grade are you in?

2.   When did you start to learn English?

3.   What do you think your English level is?

4.   Do you think you are a successful English learner?

5.   How do you define a successful English learner?

6.   Do you like learning English grammar?

7.   What do you think about the role of grammar in learning English?

8.   What do you think about the role of grammar that you learned in your high school textbooks?

9.   Are you satisfied with the grammar content taught in your English textbooks?

10. What do you think is the difficulty level of learning grammar in learning English on a scale from 0 to 10?

11. What do you think is the difficulty level of learning English grammar covered in your textbook on a scale from 0 to 10?

12. What are your attitudes towards English grammar periods?

13. Do you know how to learn English grammar well?

14. Do you spend time learning English grammar seriously? If yes, how?

15. What strategies do you often use when doing English grammar exercises?

16. Find the answers to three grammar sentences and explain later how you come up with the answers.

    [COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVES]

1.   A mobile phone would be a _ present. (useful)

    [CONDITIONAL SENTENCES]

2.   If he____(help) me work out, I_____(spend) some time tomorrow helping him with his homework

    [ARTICLES: A/AN/THE/-]

3. A: Excuse me, where is _____Room 25, please? B: It's on _____second floor

   OR

    [RELATIVE PRONOUNS]

1.   Scientists _____examined the fossils say it is a plant-eating dinosaur _____is nearly 200 million years old.

    [REPORTED SPEECH]

2.   She'll come and see you on Friday if that's all right', she told me.

She told me that _____ '

[REPORTED SPEECH]

3. Give me a ring if you need any help,' she told me.

She told me _____

Non-epistemic possibility in tourism research article sections

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a study of modal verbs with dynamic meaning for the expression of possibility in the tourism research article in the introduction and conclusion sections of the article. The main aim of this paper is then to analyse these dynamic modal verbs in a corpus of scientific journals in the discipline of tourism. It is understood in this study that dynamic modal verbs contribute to defining the speaker's point of view. In this sense, this analysis will determine which section has the highest frequency of dynamic modal forms. Furthermore, the functions that these modal verbs fulfil in the sections under study will be highlighted, according to the context in which these forms are found.

Keywords: *modality; dynamic modality; research article; tourism; mitigation*

I. INTRODUCTION

The tourism research article has not received the attention it deserves (Lin & Evans, 2012), despite being a discipline with great impact on the economies of many countries (Benkraiem et al., 2020, p. 25). Other textual genres related to the tourism register have been studied, as can be seen in the work of Yui Ling Ip (2008), Sulaiman (2014) and Carretero and Zamorano-Mansilla (2015) on promotional texts such as the brochure, Llorens Simón (2022) on digital texts, Lin and Evans (2012), Dolnicar and Chapple (2015), Aluthman (2018) on academic writing texts; and Ahmed (2015), Sabila and Kurniawan (2020), Álvarez-Gil and Domínguez-Morales (2018), Álvarez-Gil and Domínguez-Morales (2021) in the abstract genre of these scientific texts.

As noted in Álvarez-Gil (2022), tourism research provides organisations, whether public or private, with fundamental information for the implementation of their activity, which implies the formulation of recommendations based on empirical research. Despite the works that have been mentioned on the language of tourism, the rhetorical structure of the research article has so far only been carried out in Álvarez-Gil (2022). In this work, a formal analysis of the genre is included in a structure of stages, following the terminology of systemic-functional linguistics, as outlined in Martin (1984). In this work, Álvarez Gil also describes the recurrent lexico-grammatical structures in each of the sections of the scientific article and the lexical and syntactic variables that are registered in the genre. In addition, the author is interested in a series of grammatical structures that appear in the sections and indicates aspects such as the significant variation that exists in each of them. These structures are intended to show the authors' point of view, among other things. Several mechanisms are studied, being of special interest for this paper the use of modal verbs.

In this article, I intend to contribute to this characterisation of the scientific article with a study of the variation existing in the expression of dynamic possibility in the sections of the scientific article called "introduction" and "conclusion". Thus, the main aim of

this paper is to analyse the dynamic modal periphrases in a corpus of these sections in the discipline of tourism. The texts in this compilation are taken from scientific journals in this discipline. All of the publications have a relevant impact index in the field. It is understood in this study that dynamic modal periphrases contribute to defining the speaker's point of view, as pointed out in Palmer (2001) and Biber et al. (1999). In this sense, I will try to determine in this analysis which section has the highest frequency of dynamic modal verbs. In addition, the functions that these modal verbs fulfil in the sections under study will be highlighted.

To this end, corpus linguistics tools are used to manage the texts and their consultation, as well as to select specific examples that illustrate the functions that these forms show in the corpus. As context is fundamental to the identification of modal meanings, it is necessary to carry out a first-hand analysis of each example identified. The role of context in determining the meaning of a given modal verb has been discussed previously (Alonso-Almeida, 2015a). The same modal verb can indicate different meanings, so that, without assessing the context, an adequate categorisation of these verb forms would not be possible, since this procedure without prior automatic labelling would not yield results, as the software by itself cannot discriminate semantic and pragmatic issues in dynamic forms.

This article is structured in five sections, plus the references at the end of the paper. After the introduction, the concept of modality used in the analysis of dynamic forms is described. In section three, the methodological issues for the analysis of data in the introduction and conclusion of scientific articles are explained. Likewise, the tourism research article is described and characterised as a textual genre from a systemic-functional perspective in a succinct manner. In the next section, the modal verbs with dynamic value in the introductions and conclusions of the tourism research article are analysed. Here, not only the modal forms and meanings in the texts studied are described, but also the modal functions fulfilled by these modal forms are included. The

conclusions derived from this study are given in the last section.

II. MODALITY

The concept of modality has been differently approached in the scientific literature giving way to several definitions. Some of these are as follows:

Palmer (2001, p. 1): Modality is concerned with the status of the proposition that describes the event.

Saeed (2016, p. 134): Modality is a cover term for devices which allow speakers to express varying degrees of commitment to, or belief in, a proposition.

Rocci (2017, p. 3): Modality is the semantic category associated with the basic human cognitive ability of thinking that things might be otherwise, that is thinking of alternatives: situations other than what is the case. Modality refers generally to the linguistic means that allow "one to say things about, or on the basis of, situations which need not be real" (Portner, 2009, p. 1, my emphasis).

Alonso-Almeida and Álvarez-Gil (2020, pp. 62–63): Modality is the term used in linguistics to refer to the expression of a speaker's evaluation of an event in terms of such notions as probability, possibility, obligation, permission and necessity, among other more fine-grained attitudes towards the propositional content framed by the modal particle.

These definitions show the different perspectives that linguists have on this concept. It is therefore a phenomenon that can represent different realities, but all definitions agree that modality qualifies the meaning of a linguistic event. One of the most interesting aspects is what is modalised. On the one hand, Palmer (2001) and Saeed (2016) talk about propositions while Rocci (2017) refers to situations, and Alonso-Almeida and Álvarez-Gil (2020) call them events. On the other hand, Narrog (2005, 2012) prefers to use the term

state of affairs. It is relevant, then, to point out here the technical meaning of the concepts proposition and state of affairs, as the term situation is more obvious. Proposition refers to the true or false expression of meaning in the field of logic-semantics, while the term state of affair refers to a fact, which can be a result or consequence of some human action. In this paper, since modality is studied in modal verbs, it seems appropriate to use the term proposition, as they respond to the same philosophical nature of language.

There is no doubt that modality has an evaluative function with which the propositional content is qualified. The speaker can specify obligation, possibility, necessity by referring to this propositional content. This evaluative aspect of modality would form part of what are called stance studies, as Alonso-Almeida (2015b, p. 2) explains:

> Stance indeed refers to different phenomena in language, and so it is generally the umbrella term for notions, such as epistemic stance (Finegan 1989), commitment (Caffi 1999; Caffi 2007; Del Lungo Camiciotti 2008), mitigation (Martín-Martín 2008; Alonso-Almeida 2015a), reinforcement or strengthening (Brown 2011), intensification (González 2015), authority, involvement and hedging (Hyland 2005a; Hyland 1998), assessment (Goodwin 2006), modality and evidentiality (Chafe 1986; Chu et al. 2011; Fairclough 2004; Marín Arrese 2009; Carrió-Pastor 2012; Pic & Furmaniak 2012; Goodwin 2006), affect (Martin 2000; Martin & White 2005), and vagueness in language (Cutting 2007).

There are several ways in which modal forms can be classified. However, Lyons' (1977) semantic classification into epistemic modality and deontic modality seems to be one of the most widely accepted and is maintained by Palmer (1986, p. 19). The same split classification is found in Biber et al. (1999, p. 485), but the categories are called intrinsic modality and extrinsic modality.

Palmer (2001) gives another classification that distinguishes between propositional modality and event modality. The former includes epistemic modality, and evidentiality,

which refers to the source or mode of information (Pic & Furmaniak, 2012). The latter phenomenon has been frequently studied in these last decades (cf. Chafe 1986; Willett, 1988; Leavitt et al., 1991; Lazard, 2001; Plungian, 2001; Viechnicki, 2002; Boye & Harder, 2009; Mushin, 2013; Haßler, 2011; Alonso-Almeida, 2015a; Alonso-Almeida, 2015c; Greco, 2018) and analysed as a mechanism indicating the speaker's point of view with respect to the information offered. The event modality expresses an attitude with respect to the information provided and is divided into deontic modality and dynamic modality which are related to meanings of obligation and ability, respectively, among others. It is precisely dynamic modality that interests me in this study.

Dynamic modality is a complex term, as it is often overlapped with epistemic modality, as both types of modality are related to reasoning based on possibilities, yet of a different nature. According to Alonso-Almeida (2015d), dynamic modality appears frequently in texts of a technical-scientific nature, and he indicates that this type of modality "is used even when the context implies assurance" (Alonso-Almeida, 2015d, p. 404). He notes that this certainty and confidence in the realisation of the event described in the proposition is achieved by considering the capabilities of a particular object or person, so that rather than a modulating effect, it would indicate factuality. This is seen in the following example where the use of will illustrates how the authors are aware of what their work can contribute to the food industry and which they identify as a fact and which they therefore mark by *will*.

> The article **will** be of value to practitioners, researchers, policy makers and other stakeholders involved in the food industry (Taylor et al., 2015).

There is a tendency to mix up dynamic modality and epistemic modality because of the difficulty of determining what kind of possibility is referred to in each example. The context is essential here, since it is possible to determine whether it is a possible fact due to a quality or, on the other hand, due to the speaker's own supposition. In the first case,

reference would be made to the dynamic modality, and in the second to the epistemic modality (cf. Carrió-Pastor, 2012).

The English language has nine central modal verbs (Biber et al. 1999, p. 483), which are *can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would* and *must*. These authors establish a relationship between modals in pairs according to a grammatical value based on the expression of time: can and could, may and might, shall and should, will and would (1999, p. 485). However, despite this use of late medieval origin, the past forms of these verbs have different pragmatic functions, including the mitigation of propositional content as a politeness strategy, since they avoid imposing the speaker's criterion, as occurs with might in *The low hotel occupancy this year might be a consequence of the unexpected rise in the number of B&B in the islands*. In this example, the whole proposition is attenuated using the modal verb which indicates a probability that what is expressed in the propositional content will be fulfilled. This means that might do not represent past tense. In addition to the central modal verbs, there are other forms which are called peripheral or marginal, although they are often referred to as semi-modals These peripheral forms are need (to), ought to, dare (to), and used to. As can be seen, one of the aspects that stands out in the semi-modals with respect to the core modals is the possibility that the former can be followed by to plus infinitive, while the latter can be followed by an infinitive verb without to (cf. Denison, 1993). Similar to the semi-modals is a third group of idiomatic expressions with modal meanings (Biber et al., 1999, p. 484): *have to, had better, be supposed to...*

III. METHODOLOGY

The analysis of modal verbs in this paper is based on the variants found through the computer analysis of a corpus of introductions and conclusions in tourism research articles, as explained in the introduction. These sections have been taken from the tourism articles to compile the corpus in plain text files for use with the tools of the CasualConc suite (Imao, 2020). The word count of the introductions sub-corpus is 100,363 words,

while the conclusions form a total of 83,156 words. To facilitate the comparison of the results obtained by this procedure, the data have been normalised to 10,000 words.

The identification of the introduction and conclusion sections in the selected documents has been carried out following Álvarez-Gil (2022). Due to their position at the beginning of the articles, it was not complicated to identify the introductions in the texts. Something similar has occurred with the conclusions, although this section may appear in combination with the discussion section. When this happened, the relevant checks were made to ensure that the contents included in the corpus corresponded exclusively to the conclusion.

As explained above, the data collection has been achieved by using the string *can/ could/ may/ might/ might/ must/ will/ would/ shall/ should/ should* in CasualConc, which returned the concordance lines that include these forms in the introductions and in the conclusions. As mentioned above, context is crucial to identify the modal meanings and pragmatic functions played by the verbs in each of the sections of the scientific article analysed in this study. In this respect, von Fintel (2006, pp. 22-23) argues that "modal expressions have in of themselves a rather skeletal meaning and it is only in combination with the background context that they take on a particular shade of meaning (such as epistemic or deontic)", even though these "are not entirely subject to the whims of context but impose their own preferences as to what kind of modal meaning they would like to express". Following these ideas, the analyses report on the frequency of occurrence of modal forms in the introductions and conclusions of the scientific article in tourism. These occurrences of modal verbs are presented first as a whole and then for each form that has been identified.

The introductions and conclusions on which this paper is based are drawn from a set of 160 research articles found in journals published between 2015 and 2018 with a score of more than 9 points on the ICDS (Secondary Composite Index Broadcasting) visibility

index. Such an index indicates that a journal with nine ICDS points or more is bound to appear as listed in several international databases. The relevance of this criterion for the selection of journal articles in our corpus is that it ensures, firstly, that the journal enjoys prestigious recognition and, secondly, that the journal has a wide distribution in the scientific community for which its contents are intended.

In this paper we have selected the journals Journal of Travel Research, Journal of Vacation Marketing, Tourism Economics and Tourist Studies from which to retrieve the texts, as they meet this visibility criterion. The corpus of introductions and conclusions results in the distribution shown in table 1:

Table 1. *Corpus*

Year	Number of articles	Journals	Section	Word count
2015	15	Journal of Travel Research Journal of Vacation Marketing Tourism Economics Tourist Studies	Introduction	100,363
2016	58			
2017	37		Conclusion	83,156
2018	50			

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following table shows the results for the use of the modal verbs *can, could, may, must, may, might, will, would, shall* and *should* with the actual number of occurrences (NR) and the relative frequency (RF) per 10,000 words.

Table 2. *RF of modal verbs in introductions and conclusions.*

Modal verbs	INTRODUCTION		CONCLUSION	
	RF	NR	RF	NR
can	24.51	246	34.39	286
could	3.69	37	19.36	161
may	10.06	101	31.87	265
might	2.29	23	4.93	41
must	1.00	10	3.37	28
will	11.36	114	15.75	131
would	5.88	59	12.87	107
shall	0.40	4	0.24	2
should	3.59	36	18.52	154
Total	62.77	630	141.30	1175

Of these forms, those with a dynamic modal meaning are distributed in the introductions and conclusions, revealing a higher frequency in the conclusions, as follows:
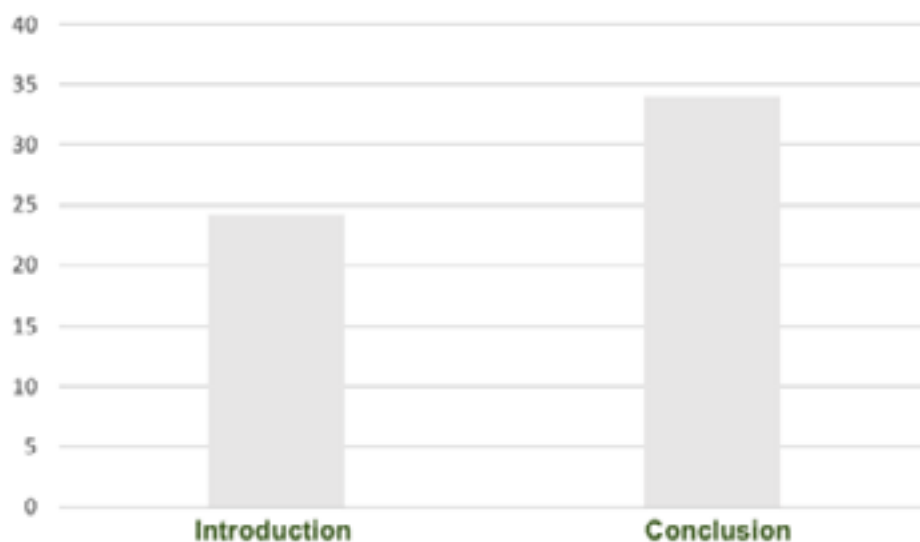

Figure 1. *RF of dynamic modal verbs in introductions and conclusions.*

The dynamic modal verbs used in the introductions of the texts are *can, could, may, will* and *would*, with the distribution shown in Table 3.

Table 3. *Relative frequencies of occurences of dynamic modal meanings per section in tourism articles.*

	can	*could*	*may*	*will*	*would*
Introduction	23.32	0.00	0.10	0.70	0.10
Conclusion	33.67	0.24	0.12	0.00	0.00

It can be seen from this table that the proportion of dynamic modals is indeed very significant. In both introductions and conclusions, the most frequent modal form is can. In examples (1) to (4), below, instances of this modality are given in context, where can implies features that are specific and refer to the object referred to in each instance:

(1) Thus, based on the IP addresses of consumers, a hotel company can advertise a given price in a particular country but not make that price available to users from other countries (Introduction; Song et al., 2018).

(2) Some notable examples include Cooper et al. (1998), Goeldner and Ritchie (2003), and Hudson (1999), each questioning how a model can predict travel behavior as tourists travel with different motivations on different occasions (Introduction; Litvin & Smith, 2016).

(3) Representational performances can offer a venue to reimagine how the myth is presented, and ask important questions that should be asked of all national myths (Conclusion; Zhang & Ryan, 2018).

(4) This paper has provided an importance index and identified the 30 most important web-sites within the West Australian tourism industry. This can assist key policy makers and managing bodies of the destination to have a better understanding of important hubs, where they are located in the network, and how their structural powers can be used for the better management of the network. Moreover, it can help hubs to better understand their position, and

more strategically plan their networking on the Internet (Conclusion; Gardiner & Kwek, 2017).

The qualities of the objects *this* ('an importance index'), *company, examples, performances* and *structural powers* which appear as subjects of the modal verb can in each case allow us to understand that the actions are carried out thanks to these qualities themselves. Sometimes, some epistemic nuances can be understood in the use of *can*, as a certain degree of probability can also be inferred that the proposition preceded by can will be realised. This depends on the individual speaker and what contextual premises are considered in the interpretation of the modal form. A clear example could be the last case of *can* in (4), as *can* may be judged to indicate the probability that an importance index will be helpful, rather than that it will be able to help. In the second interpretation, it refers to a dynamic value that enables the described action.

This same meaning of dynamic possibility to carry out an action is found in the use of modal verbs, as exemplified in examples (5) and (6) with *will* and *may*, respectively. The future sense in (5) is certainly unavoidable, since the statement resembles the formulation of a promise in the sense described in Searle (1969). In this sense, the will to carry out the action seems to indicate that the necessary conditions for this will be fulfilled. In (6), the form *may* indicates the logical outcome resulting from what has been said earlier in the text and, therefore, its use indicates the subject's ability to carry out the action.

(5) The successful incorporation of AR into the tourism model will contribute to understanding the rapidly evolving technologies travelers will face in the future (Introduction; Chung et al., 2018).

(6) To continue with this line of research, we suggest to study whether the presence of foreign direct investment in the hotel industry gives rise to an increase in the competitiveness of the destination of the investment, due to knowledge

transfer. Accordingly, efficiency may explain the reverse direction of causality (Conclusion; Mendieta-Peñalver et al., 2018).

Variation in the use of dynamic modality in introductions and conclusions is presented in terms of the calculation of LL in Table 4.

Table 4. *Log-likelihood and log ratio values to measure the effect of variation in the presence of epistemic modal verbs. An asterisk indicates a higher presence in the conclusions.*

	can*	*could**	*may**	*will*	*would*
Log-likelihood	17.31	3.17	0.02	8.45	1.21
Log ratio	-0.53	-2.27	-0.27	inf.	inf.

Dynamic modality seems to be more frequent in the conclusions of tourism research articles, as shown in Table 4. The data obtained from the LL calculation indicate that the forms *can, could* and *may* are more likely in conclusions, possibly because they allow the presentation of ideas without directly imposing the authors' judgement.

As for the function of these modal values, one is as a negative politeness strategy, as seen in the following example:

(7) If we assume that online chatting with friends is not entirely unlike people sharing their travel experiences around a kitchen table, we could argue that SNSs just give us easy access to how it is done in practice (Conclusion; Alnawas & Altarifi, 2016).

In the case of could argue in (7), the authors mitigate the propositional content by means of the manifestation of the context expressed by the modal verb could, which indicates that the circumstances are present that enable the authors to be 'in a position' to argue about what is expressed in the clause introduced by that. The difference with the rest of the examples is that the use of could does not seem to indicate doubt or absence of

certainty, as noted in Alonso-Almeida (2021).

From a pragmatic perspective, the use of dynamic modal verbs in conclusions may have an intensifying effect on communication, since this modal meaning refers to a true fact based on the assumption that a person, an event or an object has the intrinsic capacity or the external conditions are present for them to perform the action described in the proposition. Hence, the information is offered as a conclusion. However, even so, these modal verbs may mitigate the eloquent force of the propositional content (see Depraetere, 2017, p. 16), as the facts expressed are based on potentially possible events and/or abilities. Examples include the following:

(8) Destination image in relation to tourism can be defined as a continuous mental process by which one holds a set of impressions, emotional thoughts, beliefs, and prejudices regarding a destination due to information obtained from different channels (Crompton, 1979; Liou, 2010; Milman, 2011; Reynolds, 1965) (Introduction; Kim & Chen, 2016).

(9) In particular, we highlight works that can help us to use a (critical) mobility lens to sharpen our understanding of the forces shaping the development of these policies as well as the implications thereof (Introduction; Torabian & Mair, 2017).

(10) Such research directions can facilitate the development of important research streams, e.g. segmentation, latent class/profile analyses), which together can provide the theoretical insight that is necessary to explicate the differential adoption patterns of various population groups (Conclusion; Morosan, 2018).

(11) Photos and visual processing may, after all, be more basic to human existence than the processing of verbal information, and photos may therefore evoke deeper elements of consciousness than words (Harper, 2002) (Conclusion;

Andersson et al., 2016).

In example (8), the form can is used to introduce a definition, so it does not express doubt at all. On the contrary, it refers to a real and true possibility representing the concept destination image in relation to tourism. Actually, in this context, the use of this modal form might not be necessary, as is the case in the rest of the examples, since they refer to a fact whose possibility lies in the internal characteristics of the subjects or to the conditions which, in fact, exist. The presence of these modal verbs, as indicated above, is maintained in order to contextualise the information by avoiding the explicit imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987) of the perspective and thus prevents future criticism in the scientific literature. In the case of the other forms of can in examples (9) and (10), they also refer to the real possibility based on the ability of the objects or events mentioned, works in (9), such research directions in (10) and research directions and research streams also in (10), to perform the actions described in each of the propositions preceded by the modal form. In the case of the example in (11), the form may on the two occasions in which it appears expresses the possibility of the written actions being carried out based on the qualities of the subjects responsible for these actions.

V. CONCLUSION

This article shows partial research carried out on a corpus of tourism articles to identify modal verb forms and the functions they fulfil in introductions and conclusions; in this case those forms with dynamic meaning. A quantitative conclusion is that dynamic modality appears more frequently in conclusions. The modal verbs that appear with this value are *can, could, may, will* and *would*. As far as functions are concerned, we have detected an intention to express mitigation and linguistic politeness by means of dynamic modal verbs, which are intended to avoid imposition.

Another function clearly linked to these modal verbs found in introductions and conclusions is the expression of factuality. Information is thus expressed on the basis

of the capacities and potential of the subjects. These characteristics appeal to the possibility that the events described are realised without the imposition of the authors' point of view.

This work represents a first approach to the study of dynamic modality in a corpus of scientific articles in English. In this case, a description of the forms and functions of dynamic modal verbs in introductions and conclusions has been carried out, so it would be necessary to cover the analysis of these mechanisms in all sections of the research article in order to examine possible variation. It would also be important to analyse interdisciplinary variation in the use of modal verbs.

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Book review

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Since the dawn of the Internet, technology has played a crucial role in all spheres. In particular, in the educational and research world, the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) has greatly advanced, making a complete transformation in the methodologies used. Thus, virtual research environments are considered essential these days for those scholars and researchers who want to advance their investigations in the field of Spanish as a second language (SL2) or foreign language (SFL) (Allan, 2009; Mairal-Usón & Faber, 2020; Whishart & Thomas, 2017). The book *e-Research y español LE/L2: Investigar en la era digita*l, edited by Mar Cruz Piñol (2021), deals jointly with the contributions to SL2/SFL from three diverse fields, i.e., library science, corpus linguistics, and digital editing. This publication provides a new, interdisciplinary, and international vision combining theory with case studies.

This volume, written in Spanish, comprises ten chapters. While the first two chapters deal with the theoretical framework, the remaining eight chapters are organised into three main blocks. Part I of the volume aims at guiding SL2/SFL researchers to incorporate technologies in their personal research environment. Part II presents the main features of research with large language samples to help researchers select the most appropriate

corpus to work with according to their objectives or even compile their own ad hoc corpus. Finally, Part III shows the advantages of disseminating and visually presenting research outcomes using technology.

The book opens with Chapter 1, where Cruz Piñol makes a revision of the theoretical and methodological foundations that contextualise the use of technologies for SL2/SFL research. To start with, the concepts e-Research and personal research environment are deeply analysed. Then, the main lines of SL2/SFL research are described to show, on the one hand, that all of them are nourished by the three main pillars which shape the research with technology, i.e., the use of large amounts of data, the collaboration, and the multidisciplinarity; and on the other hand, to highlight the need to make this research visible. The chapter ends presenting the objectives, the structure, and the main content of the volume.

In Chapter 2, by Trigo, the use of technologies for SL2/SFL research is contextualised in the framework of Digital Humanities. The author explains that the use of technology has been a major transformation in the research world and has led to a revolution bringing the use of new terminology and substantial changes in relation to the dissemination of research. Trigo continues delving into three areas of reference within the Digital Humanities: 1) the reinvention of new research environments, especially the role played by libraries and the free access; 2) the dissemination and the digital impact of research; and 3) the digital research in the learning of SL2/SFL. Thus, preparing the grounds to address the needs grouped into the three main parts in which this volume is divided.

The volume continues with Part I, *El Entorno Personal del Investigador (EPI)*, which includes Chapters three, four and five. This section includes topics related to library science.

In Chapter 3, López-Hernández, Muro-Subías and Santoja-Garriga focus on the process of searching for quality academic references when dealing with SL2/SFL and the problems

encountered by researchers. In particular, the current needs of scholars and researchers when dealing with the search of resources are analysed. The authors of this chapter suggest that the university libraries are a good solution as they are considered dynamic and offer their users multiple resources such as databases, repositories and collaboration systems between librarians and researchers. In the last part of the chapter, some of these resources are deeply examined to find scientific quality references.

Chapter 4, by Morante, explores how to manage the bibliography in the research world. She starts by pointing out the two main needs researchers have to face, i.e., organising and citing the bibliographic information. Bibliographic reference managers are proposed as a good solution to simplify these tasks and the research process thanks to the technological aid they offer. Morante explains how to introduce and organise data and get citations and bibliographical references from these tools. Finally, a comparison among six bibliographic reference managers is provided, paying special attention to one of them, i.e., Mendeley. This chapter is believed to be of great utility for researchers to integrate their job in these bibliographic reference managers.

In Chapter 5, Marín Queral examines the usefulness of social networks in shaping one's personal research environment. The author starts by digging into the advantages and disadvantages of being present in social networks. Then, differences between general and academic networks are mentioned regarding the management of the digital identity, the dissemination of research results, how documents are managed, and impact measurement. In the last part of the chapter, diverse case studies are shown, including the use of Twitter, Google Scholar, ResearchGate, Humanities Commons, and ORCID just to mention a few.

Part II, entitled *La investigación con muestras de lengua*, comprises Chapters six, seven, and eight, all of them devoted to linguistic corpus research.

Chapter 6 opens Part II of the volume, in which Buyse pays attention to corpora composed

by native speakers to explore them deeply. The main objective of the chapter is to offer scholars, researchers, and other experts in the field of SL2/SFL the basis to use these language samples and to start creating their own corpus. In the first pages, the author introduces the needs, advantages, and drawbacks of using corpora. Then, a classification of language samples is offered to help researchers find the best corpora according to their objectives, followed by an analysis of the most important current native corpora for SL2/SFL research. It concludes with diverse grammatical, lexical, and pragmatic case studies from both a synchronic and a diachronic perspective to analyse different Spanish variations.

In Chapter 7, Lozano continues investigating the paramount role played by language samples in SL2/SFL research. This time, the importance of designing a corpus for learners due to its usefulness when learning Spanish is emphasised. Moreover, the author illustrates the key role played by corpus methods to allow researchers to understand the features of Spanish for L2 learners in an objective and systematic way. The chapter starts examining the needs which exist in the acquisition of SL2/SFL in natural contexts. It then continues exploring the advantages and disadvantages of using technology in SL2 learners' corpora and the basic principles of the corpus for learners' design. After that, diverse case studies based on learners of SL2/SFL corpora are analysed. Finally, a list of free SL2/SFL corpora for apprentices is offered to the reader.

The focal point of Chapter 8 is the use of corpus to investigate the phonic component of SL2/SFL. Llisterri examines the oral corpora of Spanish as a first language (SL1) and SL2 and explains how technology can help both teachers and researchers in their studies based on oral corpora. After an introduction including the main features of oral corpora, the chapter continues delving into the possibilities and limitations of using online oral corpora. The last part of the chapter compares 14 oral corpora from non-native Spanish speakers with 23 oral corpora from native speakers. It concludes with the presentation of the main tools to explore and use oral corpora.

Part III, *La visibilización y la visualización de la investigación*, is made up of Chapters 9 and 10. This section focuses on the visibility and visualization of research results.

In Chapter 9, Lloret Cantero, López Ferrero and Cruz Piñol set out the needs of SL2/SFL researchers when dealing with the search of online articles through specialised journals, bulletins, and book volumes. The authors suggest thesaurus, thematic websites, and digital maps as the best alternatives to make up for these necessities. In the third section of the chapter, three thematic websites, two digital maps, and a new website called *Porta_ELE* are presented to facilitate SL2/SFL scholars and teachers the search of online periodical publications. *Porta_ELE*, created after analysing 159 online periodical publications related to SL2/SFL, includes an interactive map to facilitate users search of articles and find journals to publish their work.

Finally, in Chapter 10, Barros García focuses on the potential visualization techniques have to share research outcomes and transfer knowledge in the field of SL2/SFL. The author encourages the research community to use visual ways both to present the results of their investigation and as an analysis and research tool due to the affordances it provides. The chapter begins dealing with the needs to visualise the research data to improve the transfer of knowledge. It then continues with the advantages and limitations provided by technology to visualise data. Finally, various case studies and projects are shown to illustrate data visualisation.

All things considered, this volume is believed to be the perfect guide for those experts, teachers or researchers who aim at investigating SL2/SFL in the digital era using a multidisciplinary vision. In particular, it centres on the fields of library science, corpus linguistics, and digital editing. *e-Research y español LE/L2: Investigar en la era digital* offers invaluable digital resources to get on with the task of researching SL2/SFL in the 21st century.

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Book review

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Science Communication on the Internet, by Luzón and Pérez-Llantada (2019), deals with traditional, new, incipient trends and genres in scientific online communication that have arisen due to the evolution of the Web 2.0 technologies. In this light, these new tendencies and genres are addressed as the combination of Web 2.0 technologies and the communicative processes of disciplinary communities. This book is addressed to researchers and members of the scientific community who are interested in the area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). In this sense, this publication analyses the broadening environment of online genres so as to comprehend matters concerning scientific communication nowadays. Within this book, a deep investigation considering several issues is explored: the transformation of some conventional printed genres into digital ones, the evolution of some genres into modernized digital hybrids, and lastly, the origins and the development of the emerging genres as a response to the current requests of our society. Therefore, a significant view into the linkages among traditional and incipient genres should be carried out in order to comprehend these new trends and genres. Other aspects that should be taken into consideration have to do with mechanisms and procedures involved in the constitution of new genre bonds, series and

linkages that play a significant role in the dissemination of science research to scholars and different public. Through the examination of different online science genres, this book aims at determining the rising heterogeneity of genre nature and its subjacent plans in relation to the community, the discipline and the individuals.

This volume, composed of a collection of eleven chapters, can be divided into three main sections with a specific topic explored in each of them:

Part 1: Scientific Research Articles evolution into digital genres (Chapters 1–3).

Part 2: Emergent genres arising from digital affordances (Chapters 4, 5, 7, 8 and 9).

Part 3: Digital genres interconnection among public audience and the scientific community (Chapters 6, 10 and 11).

Chapters 1, 2 and 3 of this volume focus on the relevance of scientific research articles as meaningful tools thanks to digitalisation. In this sense, through this procedure the most relevant features of science research articles are analysed, whereas developing digital genres are contrasted with the conventional written genres in terms of formal and functional aspects. This section of the book is based on previous studies that are concerned with several methods of scientific publishing dating from the 17th to the 21st century (Atkinson, 1999; Banks, 2008; Bazerman, 1988; Gross & Harmon, 2016; Gross et al., 2002; Owen, 2007). In such a way, the authors do not just contemplate how the genre idea has resulted into a more complex concept generated by technological components, but also broadens this perspective, assimilating rhetorical points. Another point that should be pointed out is the perception of the processes of the new genre responding to fluctuations in social interactions and situations. For this reason, a deep insight into the authentic language for specific purposes has been addressed. In accordance to Luzón (2017), Pérez-Llantada (2013), Gross et. al. (2002), and Mehlenbacher (2017), the research article has remained stable in its significance with reference to its formal and

functional aspects regardless its shifts to the Internet, e.g.: e-journals, being identified as preserving and extending existing functions and values, complementing and fostering them, instead of displaying a wholesale reinvention that radically transforms a communicative practice.

In view of the previous issues, it is worth mentioning that the contemporary science genre does not appear to be an independent, detached system. On the contrary, it constitutes a part of, as well as cooperating within, a "broader ecology of genres" as Mehlenbacher (2017) indicated. With this in mind, this approach portrays a view of particular digital genres and their connection with other genres. As the authors of these chapters describe, contemporary articles assuredly do adopt original formal features, as for instance the IMRAD model functioning with a prevalent pragmatic approach due to their ongoing epistemic engagement and their agreement with social rules. However, these scholars also present an attractive explanation on the development of the relationship between the visual and the verbal text in the evolution of the Internet. By doing so, this strong phenomenon has allowed all participants to delve into new opportunities of communication. Furthermore, there is a special focus on the underpinning term of progress and evolution argued throughout all these chapters of the volume constituting a standard track.

Chapters from 4-9 -excluding chapter 6- approach the emergent genres appearing from the usage of digital permissions, especially the graphical abstract (GA) (Hendges & Florek, 2019), videos as for instance three-minute thesis (3M-thesis) presentation or author videos and podcasts (Rowley-Jolivet & Carter-Thomas, 2016), and lastly, multimodal reframing of scientific documents throughout ideas as hyperlinks. Following this line, Maier and Engberg (2016) examine the issue of knowledge mediation and adjusting strategies bearing in mind specifically the aim of explanatory extent demanded for diverse public so as to control the knowledge asymmetry amidst them. Additionally, a special note must be taken into the modern context directed to the trend amongst the current

genres conveying robust features divided on divulgatory and advertising genres (Rowley-Jolivet & Carter-Thomas, 2016). With regard to this new divulgatory purpose, multimodal rising aspects are analysed; for instance, the frequent usage of colour and images with the aim of appealing to a larger public. On top of that, there is an explanation of the advantages and drawbacks of the process of democratisation of science transforming it into a public value. In connection with the concept of interconnectivity, there is a specific outlook on interoperability, open debate and a profound significant assessment.

Chapters 6, 10 and 11 provide a rather distinct perspective on digital genres. Open peer review is regarded by Breeze (2016) as a relevant issue to research since it has led to significant advances in the manner editors interact with authors as well as in the manner authors communicate their feedback or counterarguments. Aside from that, the progress of the notion of science and technology receives a fascinating interpretation by (Smart & Falconer, 2019) on their research of Vatican discourse Laudato Si. In this way, the previous mentioned work comprises a linking genre located amongst the digital and print genre. Lastly, multi-contextuality and context breakdown regards a specific attention in Internet-mediated public science (Anson & Dannels, 2004; Reid, 2017). In contrast to the previous chapters, these final sections of the volume target more thoughtfully on the evolving interconnected social language and knowledge formation between, correspondingly, author replies and referees, some Popes and the Pontifical Academy of Sciences, and ultimately, the public audience and the professional community in scientific digital, oral and printed genres. All in all, the enhanced perceptibility and dissemination of these procedures as a result of the Internet afford a powerful insight into the research on the way these participants, namely, experts, semi-experts and a larger anonymous audience, collaborate and play a relevant part on the construction of scientific publishing and knowledge.

Last but not least, this volume presents a very practical and genuine appreciation of the sophisticated environment of digital genres in science, centering its attention on the

outbreak of modern models and characteristics allowed by the Internet which is likely to arrange new genre rules. Furthermore, there is also a special focus on the developing of reciprocal communicative schemes and the manner they are employed with scientists and a larger open access public. In the light of this matter, diverse interrelated subjacent issues are approached such as the topic of control of quality within digital media, as well as the extreme decline of scientific content, which is unreachable for the general public. Yet, along the chapters of this book, it appears a clear and powerful issue regarding the positive aspects of digital media, specifically, the remarkable power of digital media to disseminate knowledge as well as the chances these media provide in order to strengthen the proactive inclusion of the entire online community.

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