THE COLOMBIAN AND CHILEAN BILINGUAL PROGRAMS (2011 -2014) AS PORTRAYED BY THE ONLINE-PRESS ‘EL ESPECTADOR’ AND ‘LA TERCERA’

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UNIVERSIDAD DISTRITAL FRANCISCO JOSÉ DE CALDAS

SCHOOL OF SCIENCES AND EDUCATION

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM IN BASIC EDUCATION MAJORING IN ENGLISH

BOGOTA D.C.

2017
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20111165029

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A thesis submitted as a requirement to obtain the Bachelor

Degree in Basic Education Majoring in English

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Acuerdo 19 de 1988 del Consejo Superior Universitario.

Artículo 177. “La Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas no será responsable por las ideas expuestas en el trabajo”. 
First of all, I wish to devote this work to God, because without Him I could not be who I am. Second, I dedicate this work to my mother, father, and sister, who have stood by me, motivating and supporting me with their confidence and love throughout this journey.
Acknowledgments

First, I would like to thank God, for all the blessings I have received during my whole life. Similarly, I would like to thank my mentor and tutor Yolanda Samacá for her assessment; without her and other teachers’ support, this paper could not have been developed.

Secondly, I want to express my gratitude to my whole family in general, and especially to my mother, my father and my sister who have supported and boosted me throughout this path. Third, special thanks go to my friends (Laura Beltrán, Miguel Casallas, Mauricio Martinez, Laura Mojica, and Shawn Saranillo) who had given me all their support when I most needed it.

Finally, I wish to warmly thank the following professors who expertly guided my academic formation: Tomás Sánchez Amaya, Maura Diaz, Patricia Escalante, Azucena Alonso, Jaime Martinez, Martha Candia, Thomas Osoro, Cristian Soler, and Gloria Elizalde. As well as, the following professors: Fabio Bonilla, Helena Guerrero, Zoraida González, Gladys López, Álvaro Quintero, Rigoberto Castillo, Pedro Cabrejo, and Silvio Puertas. They have been my role models of distinct admiration and respect whom I hope, one day, to grow to their professional stature.
The Colombian & Chilean bilingual programs as portrayed by the online-press

Abstract

This paper presents a research study that describes the manner in which the online-press websites ‘El Espectador’ from Colombia and ‘La Tercera’ from Chile have represented language policies related to the bilingual programs EODP ‘English Opens Doors Program’, and the ‘National Bilingual Program’. The corpus of this study is composed of the news reports published from 2011 to 2014; due to both countries facing social and political changes, marked by students’ protests, educational reforms, and a transition of political leaders during this period. Under those circumstances, there was a significant number of news reports that were analyzed following the principles of qualitative content analysis approach by Elo and Kyngäs (2007). Findings revealed that Colombia and Chile have been looking forward to becoming advanced and developed countries. Hence, they have been implementing different educational neoliberal policies focused on the training of the workforce, where English plays the main role as a valuable asset that assures opportunities for them to be fruitful and competitive countries worldwide, according to the different political authorities and entertainment celebrities; disregarding the adverse effects that neoliberal policies – like bilingual programs - bring to their countries. As the findings illustrate, during the last years the implementation of these policies have only achieved to expand more the social, cultural and economic gap already existing in both countries.

Keywords: The Discourse of the News, Language Policy and Planning, Bilingualism, National Bilingual Program (NBP), English Open Doors Program (EODP), Qualitative Content Analysis.
Resumen

Este estudio de investigación que describe la manera en que los sitios web de prensa en línea ‘El Espectador’ de Colombia y ‘La Tercera’ de Chile han representado las políticas lingüísticas relacionadas con los programas bilingües PNB ‘Programa Nacional de Bilingüismo’ and PIAP ‘Programa Inglés Abre Puertas’. El corpus de este estudio está compuesto por las noticias publicadas entre los años 2011 y 2014; debido a que durante este período de tiempo ambos países se enfrentaron a cambios sociales y políticos, marcados por las protestas de los estudiantes, las reformas educativas, y una transición de los líderes políticos. Dichas circunstancias ocasionaron que hubiese un número significativo de noticias, las cuales se analizaron siguientes los principios del enfoque cualitativo de análisis de contenido de Elo and Kyngäs (2007). Los hallazgos revelaron que Colombia y Chile en su búsqueda de convertirse en países avanzados y desarrollados; han venido implementando diferentes políticas educativas neoliberales, las cuales están enfocadas en la capacitación de la fuerza laboral, donde el inglés juega el papel principal, ya que es visto como un activo importante para que asegura oportunidades para ser competitivos y lograr el éxito a nivel mundial, esto, según las diferentes autoridades políticas y celebridades de la farándula y entretenimiento; ignorando los efectos negativos que políticas neoliberales – como los programas de bilingüismo – trae a sus países, debido a que, como ilustran los hallazgos, durante los últimos años, la implementación de estas políticas sólo ha logrado expandir aún más la brecha social, cultural y económica en ambos países.

Palabras clave: El discurso de las noticias, política y planificación lingüística, bilingüismo, Programa Nacional de Bilingüismo (PNB), Programa Abre Puertas (PIAP), análisis de contenido cualitativo.
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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>British Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEFR</td>
<td>Common European Framework of References</td>
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<tr>
<td>COLCIENCIAS</td>
<td>Departamento Administrativo de Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECLA</td>
<td>Economic Commission for Latin America – Spanish CEPAL</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as Foreign Language</td>
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<td>ELT</td>
<td>English Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>EODP</td>
<td>English Open Doors Program</td>
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<tr>
<td>FLL</td>
<td>Foreign Language Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICFES</td>
<td>Instituto Colombiano para la Evaluación de la Educación</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDB</td>
<td>Interamerican Development Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LP</td>
<td>Language Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPP</td>
<td>Language Policy and Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEN</td>
<td>Ministerio de Educación Nacional Colombia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINEDUC</td>
<td>Ministerio de Educación Nacional Chile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NBP</td>
<td>National Bilingual Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OEI</td>
<td>Organización de Estados Iberoamericanos para la Educación, la Ciencia y la Cultura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEI</td>
<td>Proyecto Educativo Institucional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Program for International Student Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SENA</td>
<td>Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIMCE</td>
<td>Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
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Chapter 1

Introduction

Media power is generally symbolic and persuasive, in the sense that it primarily has the potential to control, to some extent, the minds of readers or viewers, but not directly their actions (Van Dijk, 1995).

In the last decades, the Latin America educational field has embraced several reforms, especially within the realm of the English Language Teaching (ELT). This fact has led a great impact on the “Educational Community” (i.e., students, teachers, directors, coordinators, and parents), changing the teaching and learning practices of English.

These reforms have been made to fulfill some requirements established by relevant organizations such as the World Bank (WB), the United Nations (UN), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) the World Trade Organization (WTO), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the Interamerican Development Bank (IDB), among others. One of these requirements involves the use of English as Foreign Language (EFL), since it has become the official language for prevalent international organizations, and has enabled and facilitated agreements to exchange different products around the world.

The English language has gained relevance from the XX century to the present, according to Crystal (2003), historically and geographically English has penetrated deeply into the social, cultural, political, economic, and academic domains. Additionally, it has permeated the
communicative sphere. One can see this in most of the advertisements, instructions for machines, tourist maps, and signals, protests, software, video games, TV shows, news, and more that are produced in English. Therefore, the management of this language has been presented not just as a requirement, but as a necessity.

As the globalization phenomenon has expanded its scope, it has been necessary for developing countries such as Colombia and Chile; to create and implement new educational policies that will bring more great opportunities to insert and integrate their population within the global educational and economic dynamics, as suggested by the UNESCO (2002, 2007), the OECD (2002), and de Wit, H., Jaramillo, I., Gacel, J., & Knight, J., (2005).

As Kachru and Smith (2008) state, ‘the rapid diffusion of knowledge, most need to prepare their citizens to perform in ways that would ensure their prosperity and eminence in the world’ (p. 178). Therefore, to get a competitive and innovative population that can negotiate and contribute to diplomacy, international trade, and scientific knowledge around the world; all nations need their people to be proficient in the main international medium of Information, Communication, and Technology (ICT), and business that is English language.

Colombia and Chile have addressed their LP, into the development of English language proficiency, for this reason, they have launched the NBP (National Bilingual Program), and the EODP (English Opens Door Program); in order to integrate their citizens into the global processes, such as the participation in international trades (Abrahams & Farias, 2010).

As referred to in the BC reports, after the analysis of the bilingual policies in both countries in 2015; it is evident that the aims for a country, such as Chile, after Pinochet’s dictatorship, have
been to create opportunities for everybody, and open its economy to the world, creating a
necessity of education investment to get qualified bilingual professionals (British Council,
2015a). Similarly, Colombia's goal is to build a better-educated, English-speaking labor force,
owing to the nature of the international industry demands for English speaking workers. This
country is convinced that 'English' is the path to produce economic growth and overcome poverty
and the inequality gap (British Council, 2015b).

The purpose of this research is an attempt to look into the Colombian and Chilean bilingual
programs NBP and EOPD respectively, from the perspective of two online-press sites and ‘El
Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’, due to both programs and online-press sites follow a similar
political ideology. In this sense, the present study aims to characterize through the use of the
qualitative content analysis addressed by Elo and Kyngäs (2007), how these online-press sites
portrayed the bilingual programs in Colombia and Chile within the period of 2011-2014, due to
the governments from both countries, - as addressed for the online-press - have shown a keen
interest in the bilingual policies within their political campaigns in comparison to other Latin
American countries, eliciting high expectations and a number of debates that criticized the former
governments in that period. Thus, the media presented an augmentation of news reports related to
this issue within this time.

Furthermore, I want to add two situations that motivated me to do this study. First, is the fact
that I was involved with the research group ESTUPOLI “Estudios Críticos de Políticas
Educativas”, where I was a research assistant in a project entitled “Discursos, Medios Interactivos
y Políticas Educativas”, which is subscribed to the research center from the UDFJC. Secondly,
thanks to the exchange program available in the university through the Centro de Relaciones
Interinstitucionales (CERI), I had the opportunity to study at the Universidad Mayor de Santiago de Chile for one semester and gained a new perspective on the current bilingual programs that have been implemented in Colombia and Chile thus far.

In addition, this study was developed within the field of bilingualism and belongs to the second research line established by the Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas’ (UDFJC) “School of Sciences and Education” entitled “Incidencias de los discursos, representaciones e imaginarios en la acción educativa y social” as well as to the second research line from the LEBEI (Licenciatura en Educación Básica con Énfasis en Inglés), entitled “Discurso representativos e imaginarios en la acción educativa social”. The latter examines the understandings of the different discourses that circulate the world, representing different imaginaries about any subject, and which have an impact on the social, political, economic, and cultural fields. In this way, the educational field from the UDFJC assumes responsibility for developing processes that can influence the construction of new perceptions, attitudes, and ways of depicting reality, and at the same time allows the performance of interdisciplinary nature activities, which is a guiding principle of the school.

Finally, the current work is divided into seven chapters. The first chapter displays the researcher’s interest in the bilingual policies, the research questions and objectives, as well as the benefits and justification for carrying out this study, which is expressed in terms of the importance of this investigation and the contribution that this study might have for the educational community, in general, and for pre-service EFL teachers, in particular. The second chapter presents the literature review in which the concepts about ‘The Discourse of the News’, ‘Language Planning and Language Policy’ (LPP), and ‘Bilingualism’ are discussed within the
Colombian and Chilean context to have a better understanding of the bilingual programs ‘NBP’ and ‘EODP’. Furthermore, it describes the path that the bilingual programs in Chile in Colombia have gone through in their attempt to provide these nations with bilingual education in English. The third chapter examines the research methodology, including the research design, the type of the study conducted, and the instruments and techniques used to collect and analyze the corpus. The fourth depicts and defines the two main categories emerged from the data analysis process. Finally, chapters fifth and sixth present the conclusions and the pedagogical implications arising from the study, providing the reader with some recommendations for further research.

**Statement of the Problem**

The present research study focuses on how ‘*El Espectador*’ and ‘*La Tercera*’ reveal and validate the bilingual policies in Colombia and Chile. These two developing countries are strengthening their bilingual programs with a focus on EFL, where the term ‘bilingualism’ is reduced to teaching and learning English for the most part in a Spanish language context. An example of this is the Colombian National Bilingual Program (NBP), as analyzed in Valencia Giraldo (2005, p.1) as cited in Mejía (2006; 2011) and supported by Guerrero (2008), González (2009), and Usma (2009 & 2015). A reductionist notion of bilingualism legitimized by the MEN (2006), within the document “*Estándares básicos de competencias en lenguas extranjeras: Inglés. Formar en lenguas extranjeras*” as cited by Valencia (2013, p.34).

It is important to remark that Colombia and Chile, as seen through different political campaigns and official documents (‘NBP’ and ‘EODP’), firmly believe that English will bring the essential opportunities to become successful since it will attract investment from foreign
industries. Both countries share the idea that making their population proficient in English will open the door to job opportunities, eliminate inequality, close the economic gap, and bring prosperity to everyone (Munoz, 2010), Sánchez (2013), MEN (2014d), MINEDUC (2014).

Besides that, the implementation of the bilingual programs ‘NBP’ in Colombia and ‘EODP’ in Chile have had a significant impact on all aspects of society, particularly in education, in which the primary stakeholders are the teachers, coordinators, and principals. Therefore, they have become the primarily responsible agents for implementing these policies and the first to be held accountable (in particular by the media) if these policies work or not.

Nowadays, we live in a networked information age where technology allows the media to spread information all around the world, enabling their users to update their knowledge with just one click. As Van Dijk claims, the media is in charge of promoting some conceptions that depending on the interests of elite groups or institutions, affect social behavior, culture, opinions, beliefs, and knowledge, due to their symbolic power to persuade and control their minds indirectly (1995, p.11).

Thereupon, within the globalized world, the media plays a significant role in the process of social and cultural dissemination of discourses, and the consolidation and legitimization of information for the contemporary society (Fairclough, 2006, p. 97). Hence, it becomes necessary to observe more carefully and document what the media states.

The corpus to be examined and analyzed through a qualitative content analysis is composed of news reports related to the ELT and the bilingual programs NBP and EODP, published by ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ between 2011 and 2014. This period was selected, due to the
Colombian and Chilean governments showing a great concern about the low scores (especially in English) that students from high school and higher education obtained in the private and public sector on national and international tests. They had expected that after the massive investment they had made in the implementation of the EODP in Chile since 2003, and NBP in Colombia since 2004; the scores would rise significantly. However, as it has been illustrated by the EPI\(^1\), it has not happened. Thus, the discussion about those programs increased considerably at a time when politicians, and the academic community, especially ELF teachers, were debating about the failures, achievements, and relevance of these programs in such a context. As a consequence, some news reports related to this topic were distinctly sizable in comparison to other years.

In this sense, this study also conceives a better understanding about the paths the Colombian and Chilean bilingual policies have gone through since their inception up to today. Besides, it makes a characterization about the way in which these bilingual policies are assumed and presented by ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’. This exploration may contribute not only to my development as a researcher but also to the field of ELT in Colombia and Chile.

Moreover, my interest in this topic began with the work I developed as an assistant of the research group (ESTUPOLI) at the university (UDFJC) in which the group was engaged in analyzing how the media legitimates some educational policies, throughout the use of different discourse strategies. Besides that, my participation in an exchange program, in which I attended classes for one semester at the ‘Universidad Mayor de Chile’ within the program ‘Pedagogía en Inglés para educación Básica y Media’ enabled me to realize that both countries are behind the English Proficiency Index \(\text{http://www.ef.com.co/epi/}\)
same goals regarding the bilingual policies. I noticed this by reading and watching the news reported on TV, and Internet, and when I was talking with the teachers from the university. Simultaneously, I started to realize that most of the news spread through the online press were related to bilingualism in English, which constitutes a matter of attention and interest for me, both as an English learner and as a future teacher of English.

To conclude, as a pre-service teacher, it is important to reflect on the reality that EFL teachers are facing within the frame of ‘globalization’, since teachers are the key players involved in the implementation of the bilingual policies within the different contexts in which we develop our profession. For example, in the classroom where the plans finally take place; teachers are in fact the final policymakers (Menken, 2008, p.178). Notwithstanding, teachers have little or no participation in the design of those policies or even the curricula (Munoz, 2010). Therefore, they must cope with pressure from society and the government. In this respect, and taking into account the panorama described above, I decided to conduct a research study to know more about the bilingual policies in Colombia and Chile around the inquiry stated below:

**Research Question:**

How have the bilingual policies in Colombia and Chile been revealed through the online press ‘El Espectador’ and “La Tercera” from 2011 to 2014?

**General Objective:**

To characterize how news reports from ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ have revealed the bilingual policies regarding the ELT in Colombia and Chile.
Specific Objective:

To identify the themes the online-press have focused on when addressing the bilingual programs ‘NBP’ and ‘EODP’ in Colombia and Chile.

Justification

The relevance of this study relies on the need to understand and reflect on the reasons that support and underlie the bilingual policies, and simultaneously in the manner that these policies are widespread through the media, more specifically from the online press.

Nowadays, with the expansion and development of technology, communication, and the internet, the media has gained a significant role in the process of globalization and is the entity responsible for the information circulating worldwide. Ergo, it became a powerful instrument to inform and keep people around the world up-to-date with the important decisions, such as the implementation of new projects, policies, laws, among others. Therefore becoming a responsible agent in the diffusion of the bilingual programs NBP and EODP.

Unfortunately, as the media influences their audience, most of us tend to take for granted most of the ideas coming from the media, without questioning or going beyond what is informed by them. Thus, it becomes necessary to examine how the media presents the bilingual programs in Colombia and Chile, due to the main diffusion of these programs throughout the press, and the significant influence on the beliefs and ideologies that people have, affecting the society positively or negatively.
Furthermore, this study aims to characterize how ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ represent the bilingual programs EODP in Chile and the NBP Colombia, within the frame period of 2011 through 2014, due to the publication of many news reports related to these programs during this time.

The bilingual programs in Colombia and Chile serve as examples of how these countries place the economic development putting the knowledge of English at the forefront, possibly disregarding other educational needs; as pointed by González (2009, p. 186) and Byrd (2013, p. 6). Therefore, questions remain as to whether or not programs such as EOPD or NBP accurately reflect what the Colombian and Chilean societies deem as relevant.

To summarize, this study is important, because it provides a more in depth understanding of the bilingual programs NBP and EODP, and also allow us to identify how those policies come to us by use of the online press, which implant imaginaries and assumptions around the society. Similarly, it offers a new perspective for the EFL; due to the majority of studies in this area being done about these policies themselves, and not about what the online press said. Moreover, EFL teachers can assume a more informed perspective on the bilingual policies, and can reflect on their educational, social, political and economic implications.
Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter provides a theoretical discussion of the concepts that will underpin and contextualize the research question of this study. First, it will present a conceptual view about the Discourse of the News. Then it will address a conceptualization of ‘Bilingualism’ and ‘Language Policy. After that it will depict a Latin American overview of the international intervention within the continent. Finally it will conclude describing the Colombian and Chilean bilinguals programs ‘NBP’ and ‘EODP’.

The Discourse of the News

Since the last century, scholars such as Halliday (1978), Habermas (1979; 1984, 1987), Fowler (1991), Van Dijk (1995), Fairclough (2003), Foucault (2005), Pardo (2008), Wodak (2009), among others, have researched the field of ‘Discourse Analysis” to analyze the relationships among language and communication, society and mass media, and the influence that different discourses have on the audience’s minds. They have found that the public tends to assume, naturalize and reproduce the information the media conveys without any awareness about it. Ergo, it is relevant to take a general overview of this topic, since the nature of this study lies in the description of the speeches scattered in the online press sites. There have been several authors who have developed distinct methods to analyze news reports, that describe the points of views related to this matter that have been addressed by the scholars mentioned above.

Van Dijk is one of the first theorists interested in the systematic structures of the news reports. He started his studies on the news reports in the 80s, in his books “New as Discourse” (1988a)
and “New Analysis” (1988b); in these works, he and his students were especially interested in the analysis of the press news reports. Their analysis relied on two dimensions: text structures and context. The first dimension describes and explains the micro- and macro structures of the news, the common schemata that new agencies manage, and the rhetoric speech that is used to transform this news in discourses. The second dimension deals with the analysis of cognitive, social, economic, cultural, and historical factors embedded in the news (1988a, p. 176). Thus, “New as discourse”, is understood as all the news reports selected by the researcher to understand the types of discourses those are reproducing, (excluding the analysis of TV or radio news, due to its nature is more textual). “We are concerned mostly with news in the press that is with news discourse or news articles published in daily newspapers” Van Dijk (1988a, p. 4).

Moreover, Pleshakova (2014) identified Van Dijk’ (1998) categories of a news report into a new set of the main categories of analysis. Beginning with the “lead”, which is the first paragraph of a news story, under the headline. Pleshakova contends that the lead expresses the major semantic categories of a news event, such as key players, the main event, and main location (Van Dijk 1986, p. 161). It is followed by what he calls “the hook”, that is, the first span of text under the headline. The “hook” is a short description, narration, anecdote, or question that leaves the reader expecting further elucidation. It usually appears at the top of the story. Also, there is something known as “the nut graph” which is a short span of text in the body of a report that shows the main point of the news story. In contrast to the ‘the hook’, the ‘nut graph’ frequently appears in the third to fifth paragraph, but it is hard to establish where it will appear. The reason for this is that it does not have a fixed position in the news story unlike the other main
generic discourse units, which are located within the typical outline of a new article, i.e., the headline, lead, hook and coda/conclusion.

Nonetheless, Colleen (2001) defines the components of the news discourse as having two key dimensions: the first dimension comprehends the news story itself (written or spoken tests), and the second one describes the process involved in producing those texts. Texts are relevant because they encode values and ideologies that impact and reflect on the larger world, as well as the process dimension, which includes the norms and routines of the community of news practitioners, it is the news agenda. Studies within this area have a deluge of alternatives to explore, especially about the influence of the news discourse outside of its analysis. Colleen gives a few examples of a social researcher who made remarkable investigations from a single media entity, (newspaper, video, podcast).

Santa Ana (1999) uses a corpus of thousands of stories to analyze metaphors of racism in the Los Angeles Times’ coverage of anti-immigrant ballot initiatives; and Lippi-Green (1997) uses a film archive of the entire Disney animated oeuvre to correlate accent and stereotyped renderings of nonwhite, mainstream characters in Disney films. (p. 423)

Following the topic related to news as discourse, there are two types of news which are divided into two categories by Fulton et al. (2005) and are important to take into account. The first category is “Hard News”, which describes the news related to the economy, war, serious crimes, politics, accident or disasters, foreign affairs, that is to say, the information that the “public need to know to act as efficient and well-informed citizens”. The second category is “Soft News” which stimulates human-interests and touches universal concerns, such as arts, lifestyles, sports, entertainment, and celebrities.
Likewise, the “inverted pyramid” and its use becomes relevant. This is a journalistic technique about a writing style used by newspapers. It was referred to for the first time by Edwin L. Shuman, in his book *Practical Journalism*, as cited by Canavilhas (n.d., p. 4). Here Shuman points that this technique consists in organizing news facts, narrating the most significant ones at the beginning of the text, and in that way making sure their newspapers hold just the essential information, fulfilling the requirement of a news item, to be efficient, fast and concise. “The inverted pyramid” places on top the most valuable information, followed by the body of a news story, while in the bottom stands the least relevant information. As the pyramid narrows, the scope of information narrows with more specification. Recently, within the field of communication research, we could find a new North American positivism theory called “Agenda Setting”, which allows us to explain how the mass media shapes the public opinion of a specific society. McCombs (2006, p. 13) states that this agenda is composed of online press, with more or less relevance within this society.

McCombs and Shaw, (1972, p. 36) define the agenda setting as the ability the mass media has to select and highlight certain issues instead of others, causing that the audience only perceives the highlighted issues as the most significant parts. This line of work began in the earliest seventies, because news reports and opinion articles became necessary information producers, which changed ideologies and interests, belonged to different readers, and influenced them with the information reports written by the journalists, essayists, and directors.

However, in this new era where technology has permeated every human environment, it is important to know the relationships between media and people.
Shoemaker and Reese (1996) points out that “the audience use the information provided by the media, as an instrument, to reinforce and justify their own pre-dispositions” (p. 32). Crespo, Moreno, and Delgado (2003) argue “casi todo el conocimiento de lo político y social es construido a través de los medios” quoted by Checa, (2013, p. 4). Therefore, the media has the power to define and influence public views and beliefs, and also the manner in which citizens relate themselves to their environment. Accordingly, it remains important to observe closely the discourses spread by the media and their influences on the citizens’ perceptions, in this case, on the bilingual policies in countries such Colombia and Chile. It should be noted that this study analyzes the news about what they say, but not how or why they say that.

**Language Planning and Language Policy**

Language has two concepts that have been studied in two forms: the first one sees ‘language planning’ as the complement of a ‘language policy’, and the second one sees the two concepts separately, and with different purposes. In this part, we will take note of the characteristics of each concept to facilitate the understanding of the current LEP executed in Colombia and Chile.

The studies of Language Planning and Language Policy (LPP) emerged and were established as a subject of an academic inquiry after the II World War when massive migration brought mixture among different cultures and languages. Scholars such as Joan Rubien, Einar Haugen, Bjorn Jernuld, and Jyotirindia Das Gupta have an optimistic belief that with the formulation of a clear LPP, it will be possible to solve language problems. However, as a significant number of nations were freed and decolonized, and as the purpose of ‘nation building’ emerged, a linguistic union was required. Therefore, a copious number of researchers started to analyze the
advantages, disadvantages, status, and access to the world that a selected language could bring to them socially, economically, and politically. Even so, immigrants still desired to maintain their native language and reject a full linguistic assimilation (Wright, 2016, p. 9).

**Understanding language planning**

Language Planning is frequently associated to Language Policy, so it is described as the efforts of humankind to influence the structure and acquisition of the functions of a language into a particular community. LPP as a field of study dates back 1960. According to Wiertlewska (2012), the first definition was introduced by the linguists Weinreich and Haugen in the late 60s and 70s. Haugen defines ‘Language Planning’ as the activity of preparing a normative orthography, grammar, and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers in a non-homogeneous speech community (1968, p. 673). In this regard, Ferguson (2006, p. 3) claims that since 1960 the governments whose goal is to find solutions to language issues at a national level, have used the term ‘language planning’ as the choice of language practices, as mentioned by Munoz (2010).

According to Haugen (1966b), Language Planning involves four stages: the first one corresponds to the ‘Selection’, it means the election of a language variety to accomplish a certain function in X society. The second one is the ‘Codification’ which consists in the designation of a linguistic norm, developing a writing system, rules of grammar, and vocabulary. The third one is the ‘Implementation’, in charge of ensuring a policy is accepted and followed by the target population, achieving this by the promotion and spreading of books, pamphlets, newspapers, and textbooks using the new codified standard variety of language. Finally, the fourth stage is the ‘Elaboration’, which refers to the continued modification of the norm to meet the requirements, its central area is the production and dissemination of new terms.
A decade later, Cobarrubias (1983, p. 63) after an exhaustive search within the ethical issues that precede the decision-making into language-status planning, which has been a neglected area, elaborates a taxonomy establishing four ideologies that motivate and support the language planning of a particular society. Those Ideologies are 1) *Linguistic assimilation* (everybody should be fluent in the society’s dominant language). 2) *Linguistic Pluralism*, (favors the use of multiple languages). 3) *Vernacualrication*, (restoration of a native language into a commonly spoken language). 4) *Internationalization* (adopting a non-indigenous language to communicate quickly with other nations).

Later on, Cooper responded to: who plans what, for whom, and why; ending up with a general definition referring to ‘language planning’ as the mechanism “*to deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes*” (Cooper, 1989, p. 45). Cooper´s definition differs from former ones, for instance, Fishman (1968) and Rubin and Jernudd (1971), considered language planning as oriented towards problem-solving and progress as its primary goal (Bakmand, 2000).

In turn, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, p. XI) define language planning as an activity ‘*intended to promote systematic linguistic change in some community of speakers.*' Those activities are commonly ‘top-down.’ It means they are directed by a power such as the government and are focused on dissemination of language policy. Contrary to this position, Ager (2001, p. 5) asserts that “*language planning involves unofficial influence on language*”. Therefore, even if laws, academics, and publishers determine LP; a community does impact and defines its own language (as cited by Menken, 2008).
Traditionally, there are two levels in which ‘language planning’ is branched: ‘Status Planning’ and ‘Corpus Planning’. Haugen (1966b) refers to the first tier as the social and political position a language will be assigned, which includes the Selection (1) and the Implementation (3) stages. In Bright’s words, status planning deals with the initial choice of language, including attitudes towards other alternative languages, as well as the political implications of these options. The second level refers to changes or standardizing of individual elements of the language, e.g., lexicon and orthography, and grammar; it means the Codification (2) and Elaboration (4) stages. Similarly, Bright argues that ‘corpus planning’, deals with norm selection and codification, as in the writing of grammars and the standardization of spelling” (Bright, 1992, p. 311). In contrast to the latest definitions, Kloss (1969) recognizes the ‘Selection’ stage as the “status planning” and ‘Codification’ stage as the “corpus planning” corroborated in Spolsky (2004, p. 6)

Coulmas (1998) characterizes Language Planning as a two-fold phenomenon concerning the linguistic and social aspects of a language, where one fold is involved in raising or lowering the social status of language (Status planning) and the other one refers to modifying “the nature of language itself” (Corpus planning). However, as those are part of language planning phenomenon, they cannot be separated from each other. Language planning can rarely be completely corpus-oriented or status-oriented.

Moreover, Cooper (1989) extended the two levels of ‘language planning’ exposed by Haugen, Bright and Kloss, and annexed the third one. He understands ‘Status Planning’ as the mechanism that can turn a language into a prestigious one, after a ‘Corpus Planning’ intervention. The ‘Corpus planning’ develops potential functions that ensure a language has the necessary terminology to operate as the medium of communication among the different organisms that
govern every human activity. Its intervention is not limited just to the official, local, or national, aspects; it can also be applied internationally. Hence, both, Corpus and Status planning are closely interrelated and are interdependent.

Cooper formulated a third level known as ‘Acquisition Planning’, which some consider as a subordinate dimension of status planning. Cooper insists it is different because at this level the authorities select the language that should be used as the medium of instruction in schools, forcing a whole community to acquire its knowledge through the chosen language.

Recently, Pérez de Arce (2014) created a typology of ‘language planning’ according to the different approaches that Sichra (2003), Lo Bianco (2004) and Baldauf Jr. (2004), and Amorós (2008) have elaborated in concordance with the objectives of language planning. Below are the six types of language planning and their purposes summarized by Pérez de Arce (p. 30)

I. **Status Planning**: To define and determine the social position a language or a set of languages.

II. **Corpus Planning**: To change, establish or affect in any way the form (grammar, vocabulary, phonology, syntax) of a language.

III. **Acquisition Planning**: To promote language learning and increase the number of speakers.

IV. **Usage Planning**: To increase the possible contexts of language use.

V. **Prestige Planning**: To increase the influence or public image of the languages.

VI. **Discourse planning**: To influence people’s language ideologies through institutional discourse.

As one can observe, the conceptions of ‘Language Planning’ vary from those who considered it as the norm declared and executed by someone with power, to the others who prefer this term to describe the language practices of a community without any official declaration. Besides that, depending on the authors’ differing philosophies, it has been divided into diverse domains, levels, and stages. In consequence, as Spolsky (1998, p. 66) explains, the term ‘planning’ was preferred
earlier on, but the bountiful failures of national language planning efforts caused people to favor
the term ‘language policy’ in the late 1980s, for this reason, it will also be reviewed.

Understanding language policy

A general description of ‘language policy’ says it is what X government does officially
through legislation, court decisions or policy to determine the usage of languages, either to favor
national priorities or to establish the rights of individuals. It is designed to support or discourage
the utilization of a particular one. For instance, McCarty defines language policy as a
‘sociocultural process’ that ‘includes public and official acts and documents, but, equally
important, it constitutes, and it is represented by the practices each of us engages in every day’

Spolsky and Shohamy (2001), describe the nature of an LP relies on the relationship among
language situations, people involved, reasons for developing an LP, and the results of an LP.
They adopted the three types of LP proposed by Cooper (1989, p. 36), which concern: 1) Status:
changing laws, proclaiming an official language. 2) Corpus: set out and modify language forms:
grammar, lexicon. 3) Acquisition: education sets opportunities to learn a variety of X language.

According to Shohamy (2003, p. 281), who describes LP as a cycle in which the three levels
addressed above (Language Management, Language practices, and Language ideology) work
together if any of them work separately from the others, the entire cycle breaks. She takes the one
proposed by Parsons (1995), as follows: [(Problem): Problem definition, identifying alternatives,
responses, solutions- evaluations of options- selection of policy options – implementation –
evaluation (problem)], instead of taking the sequence proposed by Ager (1996) [Initiation –
estimation – selection – implementation – evaluation – termination], who considers the process of LPP is not cyclical, instead is set up in separated phases. According to Spolsky and Shohamy (2001, p. 18), it is incorrect, due to its lack of flexibility and that it does not allow the correction of mistakes during the whole process.

Besides, Shohamy (2003) highlights that the type of design that an LP has depends on who is proposing and who is executing it. For instance, a particular organization, or individual, does the top-down design, different from a down-top design which the speakers decide, choosing a specific tongue according to their needs, and which does not necessarily match with the one the managers have decided. This choice is affected by the people’s ideology, meaning what they think about the language and LP as cited by Menken (2008, p. 176).

Baldauf (1994) distinguishes between language policies and planning, considering the latter an implementation of the former, highlighting that both of them have unexpected results (Spolsky and Shohamy, 2000, p. 3). LPP decisions arise in response to sociopolitical needs, where ‘language planning’ is a government activity about the selection and promotion of a unified administrative language, and are intended for communities, families, schools, and individuals subject to control by the policy-makers (Robinson, 1998).

Lambert (1999) identifies four types of LP that he distinguishes between the following types of countries: first, the ‘Linguistically Homogeneous’ (where there are minorities, but they remain insignificant in comparison with the official language) second, the ‘Mosaic Societies’ (where there is a large number of ethnic groups and languages, like in Nigeria, and India), and third ‘Dyadic or Triadic Countries’ (it includes relatively equal ethnos linguistic groups, e.g.,
Switzerland, Belgium, Canada). Regarding such a description, one can say that countries such as Colombia or Chile, could be located in the first category described by Lambert.

The conception of LP depends on contextual variables. Spolsky and Shohamy (1999, p. 32) define it as ‘an explicit statement, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document, about language use.’ Therefore, it is better to understand and distinguish between the three levels that make part of an LP within a speech community: 1) its language practices: which correspond to the habitual pattern of selecting and building up its linguistic repository. 2) Its language ideology, which refers to the beliefs that community has about language uses; and finally 3) language management, some specific efforts to modify or make a kind of influence in the Praxis. Further on, Spolsky pointed that it is better to talk about ‘Language management’ because it includes language practices, language beliefs and ideology, and the explicit policies and plans resulting from “language planning activities that attempt to modify the practices and ideologies of the community’ (Spolsky, 2004, p. 222). Finally, he concludes stating that ‘the real LP of a community is more likely to be found in its practices than its management.’

Apart from that, Spolsky (2009) resets the three levels of LP stated before and asserts that a nation-state LP is composed of four factors. They are: 1) the ‘Sociolinguistic Ecology’ (language practices), 2) ‘a Set of Beliefs’ (language ideology) relating language to national identity, 3) the Effects of Globalization (the pull towards international languages, especially English), and 4) the Pressure for Attention to the Linguistic Minorities (rights of indigenous or migrants); as quoted by Singh, Zhang & Besmel (2012, p. 352).
Summarizing the LP view by Spolsky (2004), LP operates within a speech community of whatever size, and functions among a wide range of linguistic and non-linguistic elements, variables and factors. Also, it has a bilateral link with power, due to its implementation requires ‘power’ and a strong centralized LP enhances the power of a government.

Language policy has been associated with labeled statements in official documents, which could “take the form of a clause in a national constitution, a language law, a cabinet document, or an administrative regulation”. (Spolsky and Shohamy, 2000, p. 3), (Spolsky, 2004, p.11). Besides, Spolsky says that an LP represents the cover choice of a group of people, government or any linguistic community. There are other authors who prefer to use the term ‘language planning’ to refer to

“the creation and implementation of an official policy about how the languages and linguistic varieties of a country are to be used and is carried out by a variety of government departments and agencies, academies, comities, popular societies and individuals” (Crystal, 1987, p. 366).

However, there are other authors like Lambert, Shohamy, Spolsky, and Wiertlewska, who prefer not to enter this discussion, and so use the concept of ‘Language Policy’ (LP) to talk about ‘language policy and planning’ (LPP).

Consequently, LP schemes exist in all countries, but in some of them, these are not specified in written documents, due to LP containing implicit (practices and is an individual choice) and explicit (processes involving in language planning and evaluation) actions. It happens in diverse places, where LP is not explicitly established by an authority, hence, to study their nature implies analyzing their language practices and beliefs (Spolsky, 2004).
This is what Pérez de Arce (2014) addresses as a Macro and Micro level of LPP, the first one occurs at a large-scale, and the second one could be applied to minority languages. Depending on the approach used, language policy and language planning are two terms used equally or interchangeably (Munoz, 2010).

For instance, in Colombia, its condition of a plurilingual country has led to the creation of two types of language policies: The first group intends to balance the performance between minority languages (indigenous, creole), and majority languages (Spanish). In contrast, the second group is oriented towards the implementation of bilingual programs that promote major languages, in this case, English (García & García, 2012).

Similarly to Colombia, in Chile, a set of initiatives can be found in regards to Ethno-education and native languages maintenance, but are disregarded and just exist on written texts, because they have no budget (Pérez de Arce, 2014, p. 8). While the rest of initiatives are focused on an overt and compulsory policy on teaching and learning EFL, this LPP is aligned, in both countries, with the international parameters established within the CEFR, in which what should be taught and learned in integrated processes is specified as cited by Munoz (2010, p. 24).

**Bilingualism: A Theoretical Perspective**

Conceptualizing the term bilingualism is such intricate work, due to different disciplines, such as psychology, sociology, second language acquisition, education, neurosciences, and critical linguistics fields examining it. Thereby, it has different theoretical views, positions, and ideologies that can determine its definitions.
The following review displays the primary definitions that the term ‘Bilingualism’ has received within the sociolinguist and psycholinguistic grounds. This work will take into account only some of the classical definitions, which define this phenomenon better. After that, we will address bilingualism’s conception as presented in official documents from Colombia and Chile, since these conceptions are the grounds of their current bilingual educational policies.

One of the first definitions is given by Bloomfield (1935, p. 55), who says a bilingual person is the one who has a native-like control of two languages. Similarly, Haugen (1953) assures that a bilingual person is one who can use complete and meaningful expressions in two different languages. Later on, Weinreich asserts that “the practice of alternatively using of two languages will be called bilingualism, and the person involved, bilingual” (1953, p. 5), as one can see those are narrow views of bilingualism.

However, Fishman et al. (1971) as in (Baetens, 1986), argue that even if a bilingual person is equally fluent in two languages, they can be hardly eloquent about all topics, due to societal factors usually being imbalanced. Grosjean (1985), who has a wholistic [in his terms] view reinforces this and believes that a bilingual can be compared perfectly to a speaker-hearer in their right, who uses the two languages depending on their needs. Therefore a bilingual is seldom completely fluent in both languages (p. 467). Furthermore, Harding and Riley (1998) add that since bilinguals communicate in different contexts, their vocabulary and abilities to speak, write, listen or read may vary in each language.

Nonetheless, other linguistics have questioned the statement above arguing that the phenomenon of bilingualism is relative; therefore it should be understood as the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual (Mackey, 1957, p. 5). Later, in 1976, he adds that
‘bilingualism’ is also the quality of a population that makes use of two languages without having notable attitudes in one of the languages. In the same line, Weiss (1953) claims that bilingualism is the direct, active and passive use of two languages by the same speaker, where ‘active’ refers to speaking or writing, and ‘passive’ to listening or reading. Correspondingly, Macnamara (1967) defines bilingualism as the capacity to develop at any level of communicative competence. Therefore, someone who has skills in one of four modalities of the second language as cited by Miranda (2012, p. 264), can be considered bilingual. As one can notice, these are the widest and at the same time minimalistic views of bilingualism.

Eventually, this conception took on a more balanced and open view, for instance, Titone (1976) sees ‘bilingualism’ as the ability of an individual to express himself or herself in a second language while respecting its concepts and structures. Correspondingly, Blanco (1981) affirms that a bilingual person is the one who can encode and decode at any degree the linguistic signals coming from two different languages. Moreover, Cerda Massó (1986) defines bilingualism as the ability that a speaker has to use two languages indistinctly, to cover the same collective and private communicative tasks within a community (e.g., Quebec, Belgium, Switzerland). One can also find definitions that describe a bilingual as the person who learns a set of meanings with two different linguistic representations (Romaine, 1999), or the phenomenon of competence and communication in two languages (Lam, 2001) as cited by Bermúdez and Fandiño (2012, p. 102)

Other academics such as Hakuta, Ferdman, and Diaz (1987) view ‘Bilingualism’ as an individual-level mental concept, as a characteristic of individuals who possess and use two linguistic systems. However, he states three ways to see bilingualism: 1) Cognitive Bilingualism; 2) Social-Psychological Bilingualism, and 3) Societal Bilingualism. The first one is related to
mental development characteristics; the second corresponds to individuals who organize the social world regarding the different groups and social situations associated with the two languages in which they interact. The third view befalls when bilingualism is used as a societal construct to describe the interactions between social groups and societal institutions, as well as among groups, in which the group and institutional boundaries correspond to linguistic borders (p. 284). Moreover, one can include within the *Societal Bilingualism* the definition given by Mohanty and Perregaux (1997), where bilingualism is understood as the person or groups of people who have communicative skills, with multifarious degrees of proficiency, in oral and/or written forms, in order to interact with speakers of one or more languages in a given society as cited by Snow (1998), and Butler & Hakuta (2006).

Bilingualism’ has generated dichotomies throughout time, the most popular featuring individuals: *coordinate vs. compound bilingualism, early vs. late bilingualism, simultaneous vs. successive bilingualism;* and social groups such as *additive vs. subtractive bilingualism, and elite vs. folk bilingualism* (Hakuta, 1990). However, there is no agreement yet, about the definition of ‘bilingualism', due to its multi-dimensional aspects. The only clear thing is that a bilingual person is the one who has knowledge of more than one language, but what isn’t clear is: *What do we mean by “knowing” two languages.* Butler & Hakuta (2006). Further on, Hakuta (2008) says that bilinguals vary in significant ways concerning the age of acquisition, language proficiency attained, participation in a bilingual speech community, and the particular languages involved. Thus, bilingualism or multilingualism refers to the co-existence of more than one language system within an individual (p. 1).
As well as Hakuta, Baker (2001) makes a distinction of bilingualism between a person and a social group, community, region or country, therefore, addressing: *individual and societal bilingualism*, as well as the distinctions between *language use* and *language ability*, also referred to as language degree and function. For him, ‘bilingualism’ involves five dimensions. The first one adduces the level of proficiency and its functionality, the second, points to an individuals’ proficiency in a language and how it may vary across the four primary language skills. The third one alludes to only a few number of bilinguals who are equally proficient in both languages, given that most of the times one of the languages tends to be stronger and better developed than the other. Fourth, claims that just a few bilinguals possess the same competence as monolingual speakers in either or their languages because bilinguals use them for different functions and purposes. Finally, he stated that the “Fifth Dimension” points out how a bilingual person’s competence in a language might vary over time according to different social, cultural, and political circumstances. Thus, it describes not only linguistic, psychological, and sociological aspects but also, it studies the relationship between power and status structures, as well as the political systems in society (p. 367).

So far one can see that, regardless of how bilingualism is defined, it has acquired less limited and restricted views, making it hard to create any concise and all-inclusive definition about it. Bilingualism’ is a nonstatic phenomenon, and as Baker and Jones (1998) point out, it has evolved due to the interaction among different civilizations, ergo, bilingualism is the result of a combination of individuals’ economic needs, societal and cultural change, and the movements in political power.
Thereupon, in countries such as Colombia and Chile, where the majority of the population speaks Spanish, they do not need to use English to survive. Hence, the definition of bilingualism could vary, as the Canadian linguistic Fred Genesse says in an interview for a Colombian teachers’ journal, to be bilingual could represent a person who is thoroughly proficient in two different languages, it means that he/she can handle a conversation, and to read and write accurately. However, being bilingual could refer to a person who can manage his/her first language and has basic communicative skills in a second language. The version of bilingualism varies according to the community where the individual lives and the purposes for which one needs to be bilingual. (Revista Internacional Magisterio, March 2007, p. 64).

Furthermore, throughout the revision of Chilean official documents, unlike Colombia, instead of defining bilingualism, they talk about the importance of learning English, although it is mentioned, especially in the media, the possibility of an English proficient population, thus transforming them into a ‘bilingual country’ (Rohter, 2004).

Nonetheless, in Colombia’s official documents ‘bilingualism’ refers to the learning of prestigious international languages, such as English, French, and German. Therefore, most of the people understand the term ‘bilingualism’ to mean ‘proficiency in the use of the (foreign) language (Rey de Castro & Garcia, 1997, p. 5). As well, they mention the possibility of investing considerable sums of money, since being bilingual in a prestigious language provides access to a socially accepted form of bilingualism, leading to the possibility of employment in the global marketplace (Mejía, 1998, 2004). In this sense, Mejía (2006) claims that the notion of bilingualism is often associated with the mastery of Spanish and another Western language, mainly English, disregarding dimensions of multilingualism and cultural dimension (p. 153).
Instead, Guerrero (2008) argues that ‘bilingualism’ in Colombia regards English–Spanish instruction, privileging these two languages over other types of bilingualism such as indigenous and creole, which take place in the same context. As mentioned before, Colombia has a reductionist vision of bilingualism, for this reason, it is mandatory to teach English at any public or private school, and no other language.

According to the NBP, as ‘El mejoramiento de las competencias comunicativas en inglés como una lengua extranjera en todos los sectores educativos. [Improvement of the communicative competence in English as a foreign language in all educative sectors](MEN, 2004: Slide, 3). After that, the MEN re-define in the document “Estándares básicos de competencias en lenguas extranjeras: Inglés. Formar en lenguas extranjeras: ¡el reto!” (Basic standards for competencies in foreign languages: English. Teaching in foreign languages: The challenge!) Bilingualism as ‘the different ranks of dominance that an individual makes him/her to communicate in more than one language and one culture’ (p. 14).

Moreover, Valencia (2007) states that as a result of a globalized world and the generalized use of English around the world, the term bilingualism has acquired a different meaning in the Colombian context (p. 29). It is used to refer in most cases to the exclusive ‘English and Spanish’ bilingualism or only English. In other words, a bilingual Colombia is reduced to “the learning of English by Spanish speakers” González (2007, p. 311). Furthermore, Usma (2015) points how ‘Bilingualism’ within the different documents emitted by the MEN promoting its NBP “acquires a meaning that denies the multilingualism acknowledged by the National Constitution of 1991”, thus explicitly assuming that bilingualism in Colombia becomes reduced to the English language. This contradicts and denies what the “Colombian National Constitution of 1991” clearly stated,
saying that Colombia recognizes and protects cultural and ethnic diversity and that indigenous languages are official inside their territories, therefore the teaching of any other language will be bilingual (Articles 7 & 10, p. 14). Therefore, it is necessary that Colombia adopt an ample vision of ‘bilingualism’ and ‘bilingual education’ instead of narrowing it down to the teaching of English. (Mejía, 2007, p. 37).

Those definitions differ from those outside the Latin American context. Some scholars attribute bilingualism to the exchange between an indigenous language and Spanish because there are several rural areas where there is a predominant indigenous language population. Except for Brazil, Uruguay, and part of Paraguay (Portuguese-Spanish), Puerto Rico and the U.S. Southwest where Spanish–English bilingualism exists. (Escobar, 2013).

To conclude this section, one can say that in countries such as Colombia and Chile, the concept of ‘bilingualism’ is the use of the dominant language these countries have, combined with English. Both countries deny in their “bilingual policies” the existence indigenous or signal language, which along with Spanish, indeed are ‘bilingualism.’

**Latin American Overview: International Intervention**

After the above discussion of language planning and policy and bilingualism, it becomes convenient and useful to have a broad overview around the context in which the bilingual [Spanish–English] programs ‘PNB’ and ‘EOPD’, have been released. Whereby, this part outlines some of the most important educational programs that have been launched in Latin countries during the last decades. Different supra-national and private organizations support these programs and aim to promote the economic growth of developing countries such Colombia and
Chile to generate innovation and narrow the broad gap of inequality that exists in these countries, by producing new learning and labor opportunities, at the rate of the OECD countries.

As a result, some supra-national organizations such as: the UNESCO, IDB, IMF, IMF, WB, UN, and others such as the OEI (Organization de Estados Iberoamericanos para la Educación, la Ciencia y la Cultura) and the ECLA (Economic Commission for Latin America) started working with the governments of several Latin American countries to overcome the challenges within their education systems. Especially, on goals relating to the teaching of English and learning proficiency, due to the importance and value it has been gaining as a global language since the past. Therefore, English is one of the educational requirements to enhance education and open the doors to development in Latin America.

Indeed, those new educational plans include all levels of academic formation, from elementary to higher education. For instance, on a report by the World Bank (WB), de Wit et al. (2005), pointed out the important role that ‘Higher Education’ has within the internationalization processes that Latin American countries are facing, like those of knowledge accessibility and economic trades. A sample of this crisis is the number of Latin American students who have studied abroad, contrasted with the few number who come back to their home countries. Likewise, to aggravate this situation, the percentage of students from developed countries who want to study in Latin universities is poor; due to Latin American countries not having a method to attract able national and international students from overseas. Hence, the national governments and the stakeholders must propose and formulate new policies that will improve and take advantage of the benefit that globalization and internationalization delivers.
Therefore, Latin-American countries started to be part of the project entitled ‘Educación para Todos’ (EPT) which launched for the first time in 1990. This project has been reformed over time, (Machado, Ana, p.14) in UNESCO, (2002). The EPT is a global initiative within the framework of the Latin-American Orientations and Regional Agreements, looking for the improvement and promotion of high-quality education, both in Latin American and Caribbean countries, aiming to overcome poverty, illiteracy, and inequality. In this meeting, the ministers of education of all these countries have established the same goals related to education to achieve at the end 2015.

Additionally, in 2003 the UNESCO outlined a general education plan entitled: “Education in a Multilingual World” in which it remarked the need for the adoption of English as a foreign language to participate in the global community and at the same time support the world’s cultural diversity. This entity highlights education is an essential element to economic development and progress for developing countries. In addition to that, the proliferation of English will make knowledge more accessible for all. Therefore, the final goal of the UNESCO for 2015 is to “increase mobility and digital interaction, proficiency in more foreign languages and intercultural competence as a need for communication and participation in many areas” (UNESCO, 2003, p. 8). However, it does not specify or provide any data about what is understood by “development” (Byrd, 2013).

According to this, the ‘Proyecto Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe’ (PREALC) which is a supported feature of the ‘EPT’, proposed that education in Latin American countries should be oriented towards the promotion and enhancement of the technical and technological training at secondary and higher level of education. Therefore, in 2007 there was a
meeting in which the UNESCO in cooperation with the ‘Oficina Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe’ OREALC reported and evaluated the last program in this paper entitled ‘Educación de Calidad para todos: un Asunto de Derechos Humanos.’ In the meeting, they discussed the quality of education and the efficiency of the policies that have been implemented to reduce inequality and posed Education as a primal right of any person. Therefore concurring that all governments should ensure their policies be relevant, appropriate, and efficient and above all respect human rights and search to reach social equity.

Three years later in 2010, the OEI started an ambitious project to arrange its last goal for this decade. This goal consisted in achieving an education cycle that provides a satisfactory response to any urgent social demands, which are: procure for more people to accomplish a long time learning process, with an equitable, inclusive, and quality offer, which involves a large quantity of institutions and sectors of the society. As of now, Latin-American ministers of education assume the importance of receiving and taking into account the new proposal “Metas educativas 2021: la educación que queremos para la generación de los bicentenarios” [Educational goals 2021: the education we want for the bicentennial generation] (Marchesi, Blanco, & Hernández, 2014). Moreover, to achieve one of these goals, which is for their population to achieve literacy in EFL, the ministers of education have created and implemented other plans, and programs to support these big goals.

However, to understand how language policies work within countries such as Colombia or Chile, where there is not a precise definition of a local tongue educational approach, a foreign language blueprint, or a bilingual policy. We need to draw on laws, decrees, and programs, and
Language Policies in Colombia and Chile

Colombia and Chile are countries that have suffered myriads of political and educational reforms in past decades, in search of economic growth and development, these changes have been characterized by the increment the private-public partnerships and alliances, which and the emphasis made on turning their populations into Spanish–English bilinguals. Below, a description of the historical background of the English programs NBP and the different phases and denominations it has had during the last decades in Colombia. Also, an illustration of the various programs that make part of the EODP in Chile, and the modifications it has had since its establishment fourteen years ago.

Colombia: The National Bilingual Program (NBP)

The language policy in Colombia has gone through a considerable number of processes and reforms, the primary goal of those processes is to ensure that every person in the country becomes bilingual in English. Now, we will describe the phases that the ‘NBP’ has had since 1826 up to today.

Based on Bonilla, and Tejada (2016), the first bilingual policy in Colombia can be found on Law 1826, which establishes Spanish, Latin, Greek, French, English and an Indigenous language, to be compulsory across publicly funded schools within the country, clarifying that the Aboriginal language to be taught be selected by the educational institution according to the number of speakers that region had. After almost 150 years, in 1970 the trend of learning Latin in
Colombian schools ended, and after the visit of Colombia’s president to France in 1979, the country decided to embrace the French language as a compulsory subject for grades 10° and 11° at secondary school (p. 187).

It was in 1982 when the MEN decided to improve foreign language teaching in the country, so with the association with the BC and Centro Colombo Americano, made a reform on the current educational objectives, raising students’ low levels of proficiency, renovating language teaching and learning techniques, and updating the materials. Along with this, they created an “English Syllabus” with a communicative approach for grades 6-9 and 10-11; at the same time, this reform encouraged school heads to contemplate the possibility of including other languages in their curricula. Later, in 1889 the BC applied a survey of ELT field and its development, concluding that initiatives like the “English Syllabus” did not work as expected because teachers did not have enough proficiency in English and were not familiar with the new approaches and methods to (Usma, 2015, p. 64).

Further, with the proclamation of the “The Colombian National Constitution of 1991”, the government set out (within the Articles: 7 & 10) an open political recognition of all indigenous languages and a cultural diversity of plurilingualism. Four years later, the Colombian Congress announced “The General Law of Education” on February 8th of 1994. This law decrees within the articles 21, and 22 the capacity to communicate in a foreign language (paragraphs ‘m’ and ‘l’ respectably), therefore article 199 considers the idea of recruiting foreigners for bilingual schools. Likewise, its pedagogical interest in article 57 on the bilingual education within the diverse number of ethnic groups located inside the territory, is revealed.
During the 90’s the Colombian government partnered with USA and UK stakeholders and decided to undertake a project entitled “Colombian Framework for English” COFE, which was carried out between 1991 and 1996 in different universities around the country. The signing of the execution of this project took place on February 19th of 1991, in Bogotá D.C. Then, a group of academic institutions engaged in research with a higher impetus and began to consider the revision of their curricula according to the new guidelines (Rubiano, 1996, p. 2). The main proposal was to establish changes in Bachelor programs for English teachers, suggesting a greater number of hours in the target language, as well as the inclusion of a research component in all Bachelor programs; and in that way improve the English teaching in secondary schools. Also, teachers must approve the test “First Certificate in English” FCE, whereby Colombia could have a count of their certified teachers at national and international levels. According to González (2009), Quintero (2012), Usma (2015) and Bonilla and Tejada (2016).

Afterwards, in 1999 the MEN, under the administration of Germán Bula published the document entitled “Lineamientos Curriculares en Lenguas Extranjeras” [Curricular Guidelines for Foreign Language]. These pedagogical guidelines aimed to help foreign language teachers appropriate the essential conceptual elements and guide the educative processes efficiently and autonomously, attending the curricular design within the ‘Proyecto Educativo Institucional’ (PEI) [Institutional Educational Project]. As a result, teachers could establish attainable achievements in the development of communicative competence in the foreign language, conduct continuous assessments and make decisions that make the particular curriculum relevant and promote useful and meaningful learning (MEN, 1999, p. 1). Nonetheless, this document has little relevance in the PNB historical process, possibly because its focus is more related to theories of
SLA and FLL that will help to the construction of new curricula, and also because Colombians wrote it (Quintero & Pinzón, 2012). The truth is that with this document the MEN bases the reasons for the teaching of foreign languages and places the priority it has within the curricula and the PEI of the different educational institutions in the country. As Usma stated: “*The road for what later on would become the National Bilingual Program was paved*” (2009, p. 128).

Three years later, a plan called “Revolución Educativa” [Educational Revolution] was launched within the first “Plan Sectorial: 2002–2006” in which the challenges for the Colombian education for the coming years were set out. One of the goals for education was to improve its quality and to narrow the inequality gap by teaching English to all the population (MEN, 2002). As a result, one of the initiatives to achieve that was the formulation of the NBP. Later the ‘Educational Revolution’ was retaken in the “Plan Decenal 2006-2016” in which the government commits itself to promote and further the teaching and learning of EFL in all educational levels, through the appropriation of the ICTs. (MEN, 2008)

Eventually, the MEN under supervision from the BC launched the ‘*Programa Nacional de Bilingüismo Colombia 2004 – 2019. Inglés Como lengua extranjera: una estrategia para la competitividad*’, this program has the fundamental goal of enhancing the communicative competencies in EFL at all educational levels (elementary, secondary, and higher) across Colombia (MEN, 2004). This program included the adoption of international standards “Common European Framework of References” (CEFR) as a guide to assess and evaluate the main four skills in English (listening, reading, writing, and speaking) as cited by Valencia (2013). In the presentation of this program the MEN stated:
Colombian citizens will be able to communicate through English with internationally comparable standards. This will contribute to the insertion of the country in the processes of universal communication, the global economy and cultural openness” (Mejia, 2006, p. 153)

The PNB aroused plenty of controversy within the educational community in general. First, the discussion about English being the language of choice and its disregard to other languages. Second, the adoption of international standards and the existing paradigm that place native speakers as a model for the learners. Third, the strengthening of English proficiency in young people threatens our identity (Salamanca, 2007).

According to Bermúdez, Fandiño, and Lugo, the implementation of the NBP is based on two considerations. The first one looks at the mastery of a foreign language as a crucial aspect for any society interested in forming part of the global dynamics. The second one asserts that enhancing the communicative competence in English will increase opportunities for citizens of any population, along with the recognition of other cultures, and individual and collective growth.

Moreover, at the end of 2004, simultaneously to the NBP, the MEN launched a document entitled ‘Educación: Visión 2019’ of which the proposal was to build a long-term route focused on the main challenges and goals of the educational sector. Therefore the strengthening EFL is one of three strategic programs to improve the quality of education and the country's competitiveness (MEN, 2006a).

In the same period, as part of those strategies the MEN created the handbook entitled “Estándares básicos de competencias en lenguas extranjeras: inglés - GUIA N° 22” [Basic
competence standards in foreign languages: English – Guide N°22], in accordance to the CEFR. The MEN justifies this framework’s capacity to measure the performance of Colombian students because other countries have adopted it. Therefore, the state could examine and compare its results in relation to other nations, and at the same time introduce the international framework at a local level (MEN 2006b). Thus, “Guide N°22” would allow the needs of students and teachers to be determined. To overcome the real ‘Challenge’ consisted in achieving and ensuring that the Colombian level of English proficiency was comparable with international referents to guarantee the students and workers’ mobility, which is one of the pillars of competitiveness.

After this, the implementation of the “Standards” started a socialization process in March 2007, which includes changes in the components that make up English evaluation at the national state tests “Saber-pre” and “Saber-Pro” or ‘ECAES’ according to the CEFR. This socialization culminated in June 2009.

The National Bilingual Program has raised considerable controversy within the academic field in the last decade. Especially, because of the adoption of those foreign and decontextualized standards, and the effort for its implementation. As Cely claims (2009: slide 7; cited by de Mejia, 2011) that focusing education on English will improve the quality of teaching and that the competitiveness is not enough to sort out the current crisis.

Nevertheless, the advice by the BC is the legitimization of more inequality and exclusion of EFL teachers in the country (González, 2009). As Usma (2009) claims, the PNB’s actions and alignments foster the instrumentalization, stratification, and standardization of the culture and the languages, bringing more professional trammels to the teachers. These restraints consist in being
labeled as "certified" or "uncertified", or in other words, making them "winners" or "losers" in this academic field (González, 2008b).

As a result of the critics that NPB obtained from a high number of teachers along the country, and after noticing its little effect, the MEN launched the ‘Proyecto de Fortalecimiento al Desarrollo de Competencias en Lenguas Extranjeras’ (PFDCLE). Its main proposal is to empower citizens to communicate themselves in English, with comparable international standards, enabling them to participate in the universal communication processes (MEN, 2013a). This project focused on four areas: 1) Training and accompaniment to teachers; 2) Pedagogical aspects; 3) Evaluation and monitoring, and 4) Management for institutional strengthening (MEN 2014a).

The next year, the Colombian congress declared the ‘Law 1651, 2013’ by which the articles 13, 20, 21, 22, 30 y 38 from the previous ‘General Education Law 115, 1994’ were reformed, tracing the path to the ‘education for work’ where English is a technical tool for employment. (Congreso de Colombia, 2013b).

The following year, after the elections for the presidency of Colombia where Juan Manuel Santos (the former president) was re-elected, he announced his new ‘Plan Nacional de Desarrollo’ [National Plan of Development] ‘NPD.’ Chapter 4 of this plan is dedicated to the Colombian education; where we can find the title ‘Colombia Bilingüe’ where it is established that the government will train well-qualified teachers of English supported by the ICTs (p. 665). English is the most used language in education, business, and culture dissemination worldwide (p. 88). Therefore, English bilingualism will boost the human capital, and the country will be qualified to sell our services to international markets (e.g., Call Centers), and scientific data.
These actions will be in charge of the SENA and COLCIENCIAS, through five strategies: 1) Attraction, accompaniment, and training for the teacher; 2) Adaptation of new pedagogical models; 3) Constant educators’ and students’ assessments; 4) Technological infrastructure; and 5) Improve the use of English outside the classrooms. On the other hand, the NPD pursue the promotion of an educational system for indigenous people within the framework of the ‘Decree 1953, 2014’, strengthening their autonomy both, in bilingual and intercultural education, and administrative processes.

Furthermore, on July 10th 2014 President Juan Manuel Santos and the current Minister of Education, Maria Fernanda Campo, at that time, introduced the ‘NBP 2015–2025’ which was preceded by the evaluation of the previous project ‘PFDCLE 2010-2014’. From which the MEN concluded Colombia showed some progress in the implementation of this project PFDCLE. Regarding the improvement in the scores teachers and students had during that period in the different tests they took, along with the support shown by the government with the formulation of the ‘Law 165, 2013’ (Paternina, 2015, p. 305). However, the implementation of the new program, entitled “Colombia Very Well” (CVW), has as the main objective that all Colombians learn English. This program has an economic support of 1.3 billion of Colombian pesos for ten years in a flagship endeavor (Bonilla & Tejada, 2016) for its development.

The CVW program is a compilation of the previous programs; the idea was to redirect their goals to achieve in 2025. Based on the last results of the national tests ‘Saber Pre’, and ‘Saber Pro’ along with other examinations implemented on the different educational institutions across the country; Mrs. Ocampo highlighted the new program had been created based on the needs identified within the rural and urban sectors of the society. For this reason, it has links with the
productive sector, and counts with the financial support of the Presidency of the Republic, the National Planning Department (DNP), the SENA, the ICFES, and the private Council of Competitiveness, as well as the Ministries of Commerce, Industry, and Tourism. At the same time, the CVW consolidated this enterprise as a national policy while contributing to the goal of making Colombia the most educated country in Latin America with the highest English standards in South America in 2025 (MEN, 2014c).

Curiously, the CVW did not last more than three months, because, on September 18th, 2014, the new ministry of education Gina Parody presented to all secretaries of education the guidelines necessary to make Colombia the most educated Latin American country by the year 2025. Those guidelines include a new program entitled ‘Colombia Bilingüe’ (CB) the MEN is going to bring native teachers of English to improve the educators’ and students’ level of English. It will further endow all educative institutions with the required infrastructure, with English Classrooms, bringing new methodologies to implement the teaching of English from kindergarten, and strengthen the ‘Escuelas Normales’ since they are in charge of training the majority of teachers (MEN, 2014d).

Therefore, since 2015 CB program kept feature from the former CVW like textbook materials such as English Please, Bunny Bonita, and the Basic English Standards as can be seen on its website. Since the pillar of the current presidency is: “Peace, Equity, and Education”, the main objective of this program is for all students to communicate better in English, thus ensuring better professional and labor opportunities. The strategies to do so are: to focus on teachers, materials,

\[2\] Colombia Aprende: La Red del Conocimiento “Colombia Bilingüe” available in: [http://aprende.colombiaaprende.edu.co/es/colombiabilingue/88005](http://aprende.colombiaaprende.edu.co/es/colombiabilingue/88005)
and continuous assessment; have short, medium and long term goals; and integrate the program with institutions of higher education.

As shown above, in the last decades the LP in Colombia has addressed the implementation of decontextualized programs to teach and learn English, made to accomplish with international requirements. As García and García (2012) claim, in Colombia, it is not possible to talk about a ‘national bilingual program’, but of a promotion of EFL programs that disregard the current language situation inside the country.

**Chile: the English Opens Doors Program (EODP)**

Chile is a country that has suffered various social, economic and political reforms, especially after Pinochet’s dictatorship. Regarding education, these reforms have been aligned not just to have a good quality of education, but also to boost the ELT around the country (Pueblas and Pérez, 2012) by upgrading students’ and teachers’ performance. It has happened in Chile, as a consequence of its new international accords, its public-private partnerships, and its membership within the ‘OECD’. Therefore, there is a general sense “that English language skills […] are seen as vital if a country is to participate actively in the global economy and to have access to the information and knowledge that provide the basis for both social and economic development” (Richards, 2008) as mentioned by Martin (2016, p. 25). Below is a description of the historical background that frames the language policy EODP.

When Chile was returning towards being a democratic nation and started to show economic growth, the government decided to invest in language education. Therefore, it was not until 1998, that the MINEDUC along with the National Congress, as part of the revitalization of Chile,
established on the national the ‘General Education Law 20370. This law modified the personal, social, and cultural areas from the 29th article, making it compulsory for all students graduated from a publicly funded school to understand and express themselves in at least one foreign language (Munoz, 2010).

Due to the economic modernization and social tensions throughout the XX century; the Chilean National Congress set the ‘Supreme Decree of Education’ No. 239, in which English is established as the compulsory foreign language of instruction for every single official school in the country. It means, that English became another subject such as mathematics or Spanish, which should be taught a minimum of three hours per week (p. 19). Also, it includes a list of linguistic and lexical elements students must achieve at the end of their studies (MINEDUC, 2004, p. 121). According to Pérez de Arce (2014), it was when English started to be taught from the first grade, and a common syllabus was implemented.

At the beginning of 20th century, Chile founded some bilingual English/Spanish schools. It was in the 1970s that these schools created the ‘British School Association of Chile’ (ABSCH); therefore these schools had immersion programs that only a minority elite could pay. As a result, in 2003, the MINEDUC implemented the “English Open Doors Program” nationally ‘EODP’ (Pueblas & Perez, 2012).

As Chile’s economy opened to the world through various trade agreements, there was a need for qualified bilingual professionals. Consequently, the Chilean government started investing highly in English language teaching through the (Piscoff and Araya, 2012) ‘EODP’, promoting other neoliberal policies such as the public-private partnerships with ProChile (Ministry of Foreign Affairs), CPC (Private council of Competitiveness), CORFO (Production Development
Corpration), SOFOFA (Sociedad de Fomento Febril), UNDP (United Nations Development Program) among others to provide funding for in-service training, graduate studies, and the Semester Abroad program, among others (Abraham and Farias, 2010).

Consequently, in search of a proper way to develop the country in the post-dictatorship was Chilean leaders, launched in 2003 the 'EODP', through an alliance between the MINEDUC and the UNDP (United Nations Development Program). The main goal of this program has been "to improve national economic competitiveness and promote equity by extending English language learning to all students in publicly funded schools” (Matear, 2008, p.132). Therefore, to achieve this goal it has as a mission to improve the English proficiency level of student especially at the publicly-funded schools from pre-school until last year of high school.

In the beginning, this program was not related to the national syllabus and curricula. Instead, it was designed with the aim to become a public policy during the administration of the Minister of Education Sergio Bitar (2003 - 2005). The EODP wanted to establish a technical leadership to increase availability, to improve the quality, and to enforce ELT in Chile. Besides, this policy wanted to improve the English level from the fifth elementary school year to the fourth high school year of the students, through a definition of national standards for the English learning and support for English teachers in their classrooms (Decree, 81).

Moreover, the EODP has an approximate regional investment of 300 million Chilean pesos (CLP). This budget is invested in the teachers’ professional development, meaning, in the payment of tests to diagnosis their English level, training courses, workshops, and seminars to update their methodologies with Chilean and foreign experts (MINEDUC, 2016)
Since its formulation, the EODP has had three main lines of action to reinforce the population’s English performance in a decade. The first line is to promote the uses of international standards, with the help of the BC. The second is related to the professional development of the EFL teachers, and the children. The third line focuses on the development of special support in the learning process in school and the employment fields. Nowadays, this program includes within their lines the teaching of Chinese (EducarChile, 2005).

Accordingly, the MINEDUC started by improving the quantity of English instruction in schools; lowering the grade-level in which obligatory English instruction begins in publicly funded schools, from 7th grade to 5th grade; adding an extra hour of instruction; creating and distributing an optional English curriculum with materials for 1st to 4th primary grades; and implementing a standardized English test [SIMCE] (Martin, 2016 p.25).

Also, the MINEDUC has been looking to support the EODP throughout the implementation of different strategies. Such strategies are the ‘National Center for English-speakers Volunteers’ (NCV), the ‘Summer and Winter Camps’ (SWC), the ‘Public Speaking Contests of Spelling’ (PSCS), the ‘English Debates Tournaments’ (EDT), along with scholarships to study abroad. Moreover, to enhance the manner of measuring the levels of learning and achievement in the subsidized school system.

The EODP was initiated in 2004 when the MINEDUC decided to launch the first phase in an 18-month period. This program was officially known as PIAP (Programa Inglés Abre Puertas). It calls for all Chilean elementary and high school student to be able to pass a standardized listening and reading test. The goal is to make all 15 million of Chile's people fluent in English within a generation. Sergio Bitar, the Minister of Education at that time said, “English is an instrument of
equality for all children” and “We know our lives are linked more than ever to an international presence, and if you can’t speak English, you can’t sell and you can’t learn” (Baker, 1012).

At the beginning of this program, the government applied some English tests at a national level, in which both students and teachers got very low scores; therefore the program focused strongly on the promotion and design of a public policy that allowed the increase and improvement of the quality of English classes given by publicly funded schools. In fact, during his period as Chile’s president, Sebastian Lagos said to President Bush “As a country, we want to be a bridge and a platform for flows of international trade and in the Asia-Pacific region”. (Rohter, 2004).

Furthermore since the creation of the EODP, its main director Rodrigo Fabrega said that the most important factor for Chile to become a developed country is to prepare an entire army of English teachers to overcome the gap that currently exists in the country. For that reason, since 2004 the MINEDUC has been recruiting volunteers from English Speaking countries, and sending Chilean teachers to countries like USA or England, to learn more about English culture and manners (Palabra Maestra, 2011). It does not mean that Chileans should change the way in which they speak, As Bitar said to the New York Times: “We will speak English Chilean-style, because the important thing is to understand English and to be able to use it as a tool in our favor” (Rother, 2004). English is the lingua franca that can open doors and deliver more opportunities for graduates from high school because English is the language of communication in the twenty-first century (MEXT, 2008).

In the last decade, Chile has had remarkable advances in educational matters. For instance, it has shown a major coverture, better funding, and a larger accessibility into the school system than
in the last century. Also, Chile has improved the average learning results of students in the national test, SIMCE (Sistema de Evaluación por la Agencia de Calidad de la Educación Chilena) [Evaluation System by the Chilean Educational Quality], which a test administered by the MINEDUC every two years, to 11th grade students base on the CEFR (Martin, 2016); and in international tests such as the ‘Program for International Student Assessment’ (PISA) or the Trends in Mathematics and Science Study (TIMMS).

Furthermore, all these tests have been applied and led by the BC all around Chile, first, to evaluate the students’ learning processes, and second, to assess the teaching methods and approaches used by the different educational institutions. Consequently, as the results that both teachers and students got in those tests were not the best, the MINEDUC established the English levels students need to certify according to the CEFR, where a student finishing primary school certify A2 level and B1, when they finish their secondary school. Besides, teachers have to score B2 or higher, and follow the national curriculum (Arriagada, 2015).

Consequently, the ‘Curriculum and Evaluation Unit’ (CEU) from the MINEDUC (2011), presented a detailed report based on examinations and census implemented since the beginning of the EODP in 2003. This report gives an account in figures about the actions executed by the government to achieve specific objectives from the overall program, such as the creation of national standards, the attainment of international certification, and the teachers’ and students’ development, which includes classroom support and training strategies. Therefore, starting from the weaknesses that the statistics showed, they introduced this plan in 2012.

Following Pliscoff and Araya (2012), the program can be divided in three stages: 1) Design Stage (2004-2006): where Bitar was the creator of the economic bases of the program and
Horacio Walker the scholar in charge of the establishment of the academic foundations. 2)
Articulation Stage (2006 – 2010): where the public sector make alliances with NGO [Non-governmental organizations], private companies and international entities. 3. Evaluation Stage: Here the EODP, which is transferred to the “Unit of Evaluation and Curricula of the Ministry of Education” [Unidad de Evaluación y currículo del Ministerio de Educación], due to since 2012 the objectives of the program have been focused on improved the quality of education through the creation of different mechanism of assessments (p. 190).

**EOPD’s strategies**

The initiatives that make part of the EODP, such as the ‘NVC’; the ‘SWC’; the ‘PSCS’; and ‘EDT’; were designed to provide inputs and motivation to reinforce the English communication skills of the public and semi-private school students along Chile. The ‘NVC’ seeks to make Chile an appealing place for native and near-native English speakers to work as English teaching assistants in the different schools, while the ‘SWC’ consists in organizing immersion activities such as role-playing exercises, group projects, and competitive games in summer and winter for students of 9th grade. Moreover, the ‘PSCS’ is a spelling bee competition for fifth and 6th-grade students, and the ‘EDT’ is the competition destined towards seventh and 8th-grade students. These competitions take place each year in Santiago, where students from other provinces are invited (Pueblas & Pérez, 2012).

As reported by Baker (2012), the NVC was founded in 2004, starting with fifteen volunteers working in a pilot program in the Antofagasta region (North of Chile). The number has increased over the years, and now they have more than one thousand and five hundred volunteers. (See ‘Volunteer Manual 2012’), supported by the MINEDUC, and the UN Development Program. The
volunteer English speakers are between twenty-one and thirty-five years old, and teach English in Chile under the direction of head teachers in public and semi-private schools.

On the other hand, in 2014, the NVC already had 29 Chilean ‘ambassadors’ in countries such as England, the United Kingdom, Australia, Poland, Spain, Canada, China, Malaysia, Argentina and the Dominican Republic. As well as in various locations from the United States, such as Los Angeles, San Francisco, Denver, Minneapolis, West Virginia, Alaska, Cincinnati, Phoenix, Santa Clara, Stanford, Chicago and Washington DC. (MINEDUC, 2014).

The primary focus of the NVC is to cover poor urban and rural areas with the objective of facilitating contact with the English culture and values, as well as creating curiosity towards other countries. They also support other activities, such as English camps or games like ‘spelling bees’. The government has also invested in teacher training, as well as on the professional development of the existing teachers, throughout ongoing support of offers of total English immersion programs, and study trips abroad (Matear, 2008). It is clear that the population supports the program and is interested in the activities like the ‘PSCS’, the ‘SWC’, and the ‘EDT'. This could be corroborated by the great confluence of people who attended and participated in the promotional fair held in Santiago in 2005, ‘Expo Inglés’ (Matear, 2008, p. 10).

Moreover, Chile has created some strategies to counteract the lack of well-qualified teachers of English. One strategy consists of offering economic incentives like scholarships to enroll in a bachelor program in English at any university inside the country. As well as scholarships for the best students, who can go to study their penultimate year of university abroad, as long as they pass through a rigorous process to be accepted by the university of destination. Another strategy is to expand the offer on training courses in English language and methodology, which will result
in the establishment of local teachers’ networks, and at the same time communities of collaboration. Some of this training is known as the ‘English Summer Town’ and ‘English Winter Retreat’, which take place annually, and consist of total immersion seminars where foreign professionals share their expertise with Chilean EFL teachers. Henceforth, Chile will secure its schools with high-quality professionals improving the English-language education within the country.

Besides, the MINEDUC launched in 2015 the ‘Plan de fortalecimiento del aprendizaje del inglés’ (FEP) [Plan to Strengthen the English Language Learning], which is a line of the EODP. The FEP wants to improve the students’ performance and scores on the English tests and at the same time the quality of education that they receive in publicly funded schools. Therefore, it aims to directly benefit teachers and low-income throughout the country.

As this plan has been part of the ‘Educational Reform’ boosted by the Michelle Bachelet’s government (2014 – 2018), in 2014, the EODP transferred from the ‘Curriculum and Evaluation Unit’ (CEU) to the ‘Division of General Education’ (DGE). This is because the latter is carrying out the English component of the reform that will end in 2018, intensifying and strengthening the teaching of English in at least 1,000 publicly funded schools. Further, it should be stressed that the EODP has been endorsed and supported since 2003 by Michelle Bachelet, in her first government (Bachelet, 2013).

Arraigada (2015) currently, MINEDUC developed an immersion course called ‘”English rural town”’, especially designed for English teachers in rural areas to bring more expertise and better results to the rural context, they should improve the quality of resources for rural teacher as well as equipping the human resources.
The FEP started with 23 schools from the province of Elqui in 2015. Then in 2016, it benefited another 23 schools from the province of Limarí, in the Coquimbo’s region (MINEDUC, 2016b). Later on, in April the FEP was launched in Atacama’s region, which according to some teachers, is a major step towards the “New Public Education”. This new educational model will establish standards of quality, regarding infrastructure and learning processes. All of this, within an appropriate environment to achieve the main goal, which is to become a bilingual country with a high quality of education for all (MINEDUC, 2016c).

According to the ‘Manual de Implementación del FEP’ and its chronogram for 2016, the plan is divided into three stages. First, it consists of the selection of the institutions, the signing of commitments and agreements with the respective schools. The second is related to the release of the FEP in different regions, and of having meetings with the selected institutions to assist and assess them. Third, concerns the organization and execution of the activities this plan has. These are the regional workshops on methodological improvement and curriculum updating, the support of American specialists’ team, the support of English-speaking Voluntaries, extracurricular activities for students, the English Teacher Training Network (RDI), and online courses.

Likewise, the actions and the capacity of development for establishments participating in the FEP seek to benefit 300 local schools per year. As a result of the implementation of the FEP, a broad part of students will benefit with this (MINEDUC, 2017).

Giving these points, one can see that as long as Chile wants to become a bilingual country in the following years, it should take into account what the OECD and the UNESCO have stated about the significance of retaining and constantly training capable and efficient teachers. Hence, it must continue with pre-service and in-service English teachers.
Nonetheless, the government should not ignore that this focus on English may detriment other important goals of education; the MINEDUC should not see education solely as a means to increase economic production (Byrd, 2013). Even though, they claim that the EODP will: First, reduce poverty, second, lower the inequity rate, and third, overcome under development by 2018. Too much has been said about the EODP, but the reality is another, and there is still a plethora of things to do, as Matear says: ‘the future of a Bilingual Chilean population is still uncertain’ as cited by Pueblas & Pérez (2012).

Up to this point, although in last decade EFL teaching has been a topic of scrutiny, especially by the national entities such the MINEDU (2009) based on standardized tests, has publicly declared that Chilean teachers of English are inadequately skilled and incapable of effectively teaching English at schools (Barahona, 2015).

Moreover, in contrast to the Colombian case, what I could find is that the majority of research carried out in Chile has been focused on analyzing the shortcomings, strengths and some concerns presented in the field of ELT such as: the curricula in both schools and universities Abraham and Farias (2010), topics related to SLA beliefs (classroom size, objectives, pedagogical content, course methodologies, student assessment, etc.) Batt and Diaz (2010), Martín (2016), the creation of virtual platforms (Sagredo, 2012, attitudes and perceptions (Arraigada et al., 2015), (Aceituno, 2015). Byrd (2013) points that is important that the government convince Chileans especially those who come from low economic status see the need to learn English as well as universities, support this proposal by demanding English certifications to their students as requirement to get their degrees.
Moreover, Munoz (2010), Pueblas and Pérez (2012) claim that it is important to know what the population thinks and understands about a language policy, and in the outcomes of their studies that there is a unanimous positive attitude towards English learning and teaching practice, but at the same time most students or a high number of them, do not feel they can use the language, as they have not developed all the communicative skills to interact in real communicative situations. Pérez de Arce (2014) studies the ideologies behind the language policies educational programs, finding out that there are two visions about them. The first is the ‘Rationalist’ and the second is the ‘Romantic’. The first one is related to the need of learning EFL, and the second one is linked to the idea of indigenous language recovery.

On the other hand, Ann Matear (2008), based on her studies on the ‘EODP’ shows a more realistic about it, pointing out that Chile will need more than three generations and support from the main stakeholders - parents, teachers, students - to achieve its goal of becoming bilingual in English; and most important to implement a better distribution of resources for the acquisition and use of this language. Otherwise, English will continue generating more inequality, blocking access to certain areas of employment and further study to large portion of low-income population, and opening the doors to a small elite. Hence, the language to be taught to future generations is an educational issue, but also it is a political and financial one in which power, domination, and political affiliation play central roles (Bohn, 2003, pp. 160–161) as quoted by Matear (2008, p. 132).

For instance, look at the partnership with powerful agency such as the British Council, which has been the company in charge of the teaching and learning of English culture in Colombia and Chile since 1940. Hence, these countries have the same view in regards to English and have
implemented programs such as the ‘NBP’ and the ‘EODP’, aiming to increase their economic growth, as well as the repetitive discourse aiming to become a ‘bilingual’ country (Barahona, 2015).

However, according to the rankings, Chile is ahead of Colombia, because it has implemented separated projects to reinforce its national bilingual program ‘EODP’, while Colombia formulated a language policy that did not consider its realities, meaning its implementation will not have a significant impact on their country. That is why; the Colombian government has started to follow the example of Chile, by applying short-term projects in different parts of the country to consolidate its NBP (Sánchez, 2013), (British Council, 2014).

In brief, this section has developed concepts, such as the Discourse of the News, Bilingualism, Language Planning and Language Policy, and the historical background of the bilingual programs ‘NBP’ (Colombia) and the ‘EODP’ (Chile). The aforementioned concepts will have an essential role for the analysis of the corpus3.

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3 This study does not provide a complete picture from critical scholars in the Chilean context, due to the restriction some academic databases have. However, the researcher could have access to some theoretical and research based literature.
Chapter 3

Research Design

This chapter addresses the methodology used in this qualitative study. First, it describes the research paradigm. Secondly, the type of study. Third, it gives an account of the criteria considered to select the corpus of this investigation. Finally, it addresses how it deals with objectivity and trustworthiness.

Type of Study

This is an exploratory, interpretive, and descriptive study, where the researcher describes his/her perspective and interest of study by putting forward a research inquiry. Therefore, the researcher should select, explore, interpret, and describe the data through the use of categories he/she has already abstracted from the data, to understand and illustrate the phenomenon, answering his/her inquiry (Elliot and Timulak, 2005, p. 150). Consequently, the goal of qualitative research is to discover categories and patterns, which emerge after a close and profound observation, careful documentation, and thoughtful analysis of the research topic. As Merriam (2009) said, it does not discover simple generalizations but findings.

Moreover, in the qualitative paradigm, the researcher builds a holistic picture about the issue in an open-ended question, analyses words, reports, detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting. It is featured for the use of interviews, observations, audiovisual
The Colombian & Chilean bilingual programs as portrayed by the online-press

As this study is framed in the qualitative paradigm, it deals with the realities and subjectivities that are being constructed daily, as Holstein and Gobrium claim in Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p. 490). Therefore, it implies a process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social problem, which must be carefully supported to reassure that its interpretation is not biased. Consequently, the data analysis framework that best fits this research study is the qualitative content analysis technique (Kohlbacker, 2006).

Corpus, Contexts, and Backgrounds

Corpus. The corpus of this study is formed by the news reports related to the bilingual policies, which were published between 2011 and 2014 in Colombia and Chile by ‘La Tercera’, and ‘El Espectador’ respectively. As the researcher mentioned before, the criteria to select these new articles is associated with many news reports related to the bilingual policies, published within this period. The news reports collected in total are 126, the majority of them from 2011, and it can be visualized better in Table 1.

Following Yin (2003), the researcher started to collect the data that would answer their research question by checking all the articles and selecting just the ones related to the English language policies. To facilitate that, it was necessary for the researcher to

Table 1. Corpus: number of news reports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>La Tercera</th>
<th>El Espectador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
subscribe themselves to both websites ‘La Tercera’ and ‘El Espectador’ to get access to their internal search engines. That way I could start collecting the data using the keywords: [‘inglés’ ‘bilingüe’ ‘bilingüismo’] within each website. Then, I proceeded to organize the news report into separated documents classifying them by dates, sections, and topics mentioned in their headlines for a later comparison (See appendix A).

The unit of analysis of this study are the statements or the ‘chunks” related to the bilingual programs; it means the excerpts from the corpus. These chunks of information work as sampling units that facilitate the collection, storage, and analysis of the data, as well as the report of the results, within the qualitative content analysis (Domas & Marsh, 2005).

Additionally, it is important to highlight that the researcher did not need any permission from the aforementioned online press sites. Thus, their contents are available and free for everybody in the following websites: El Espectador’ http://www.elespectador.com/noticias, and ‘La Tercera’ http://www.latercera.com/ respectively, even though, the news reports are available for a given period of time. Moreover, the researcher selected “La Tercera” from Chile and “El Espectador” from Colombia, also because their formats, political, social backgrounds, ideologies, and objectives are similar, as can be seen below.

**Contexts and backgrounds.** Colombia and Chile; have been interested in making part of the global dynamics, for those reasons they have started changing their laws to follow the parameters established by international agencies and organizations such as the WB, IMF, UN, UNESCO, IDB, OECD, among others. This has brought great controversies within each country, provoking protests, civil strikes, and national students’ movements against those neoliberal reforms, particularly between the period understood between 2011 and 2014. Within this period, both
The Colombian and Chilean bilingual programs as portrayed by the online-press

Colombian and Chilean students were protesting against the educational mismanagement and demanding for reforms to strengthen their educational system, and make this a right for the whole population, without economic restrictions. While in Chile the students were protesting against the mismanagement of the educational finances, in Colombia the student mobilization consisted in a protest against the ‘Reform Project for Higher Education’ presented by the government to the national congress of the republic, which was looking for the complete privatization of higher education. Therefore, both student movements were resisting top-down education policies associated with globalization (Valencia, 2013).

Furthermore, during this period, these countries have been promoting programs to foster, and reinforce the bilingual policies, focused on the English language, which they have been implementing as a prerequisite to getting involved within the global economic dynamics.

Here, a brief overview about ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ backgrounds is presented, to give a better understanding of the context where they produce and publish their news reports.

‘El Espectador’. It is the oldest newspaper in Colombia, founded on March 22nd, 1887, and started publishing daily since 1915 in Bogotá and Colombia. In 1997, its founder, a well-known journalist from Medellin city named Fidel Cano, along with his family, stopped disclosing its publications because of the financial crisis they faced. So in 2001, they sold it to the ‘Grupo Empresarial Valores Bavaria’, today ‘Valórem’, which belongs to one of the major Colombian industrialists, Julio Mario Santo Domingo. (GMT BBC Mundo, 2001).

The history of this newspaper had been characterized by the damage it has suffered because of its political alignment. El Espectador ideas were opposed to the conservative
government that has ruled and managed the country up to today. Equally, the armed conflict between the ‘Conservative’ and ‘Liberal’ parties in Colombia detached several crimes supported by politicians, drug traffickers, ‘guerrillas’ and ‘paramilitares.’ As a consequence, a significant number of editors and journalists were exiled.

The newspaper launched its website elespectador.com, on May 29th, 1996 before it was closed in 2001. Its design format and layout have changed several times, and in 2006 the .com domain was added to its logo, and at that time, the online version was already available for the comments and opinions written by its users. Despite its financial crisis, the newspaper was not closed, rather it turned its daily edition into a weekly one. Nonetheless, after seven years, in 2008, El Espectador reopened the doors and started to distribute a daily tabloid format and set up new "editions": online, latest news, news map and printed version (Espectador 2008, May 7th).

Moreover, it has been considered one of the best newspaper around the world since 1994, positioned at the same level of The New York Times (USA); Financial Times (UK), Izvestia (Russia), Diario del Pueblo (China), Al Ahram (Egypt), Asahi Shimbun (Japan), and Times of India (India), according to Le Monde (France). It also makes part of the SIP (Sociedad Interamericana de Prensa), the WAN (World Association of Newspapers and News publishers) and the ANDIARIOS (Asociación de Diarios Colombianos).

‘El Espectador’ started to interact with a multimodal environment which complemented the daily printed version and an up-to-date multimedia portal where information and synergies with other media such as Caracol TV allowed to provide newsworthy and reliable information. Besides, new forms of expression such as blogs, wikis, and video channels allowed for a better
comprehension of its contents and an open space for the discussion and debate with their readers about national and international events.

Nowadays, the newspaper does not belong to the Liberal party; instead, it declares itself as an independent and unbiased newspaper, which is a political position that promotes a degree of social equality, through equal opportunity. Its slogan: “la opinión es noticia” [the opinion is news], serves to inform its general focus, which is on opinion articles; thus it has gained recognition as the most independent, critical, and the less unbiased newspaper around Colombia. Since the XX century, it has criticized and openly denounced how the other media existing within the country has been under cover by remaining silent on the various atrocities, and injustices that Colombia has suffered throughout its history.

‘La Tercera’. This is one of the most influential daily national newspapers in Chile. It was formerly known as ‘La Tercera de la Hora’ owned by COPESA (Consorcio periodístico de Chile S.A.), which is managed by the businessman Alvaro Saieh and makes part of the PAL (Periódicos Asociados Latinoamericanos) [Latin American Newspaper Association], composed of fourteen leading newspapers in South America.

It was founded on July 7th, 1950 by the family ‘Picó Cañas.’ In the beginning, its name was La Tercera de la Hora, only had an evening edition; and was linked to the ‘Radical Party’ which declared itself as liberal, socialist, and laic. However, this association was ended up in 1965 and became independent of any political party, government system or religious expression. In 1970, the newspaper was one of the unwavering opponents to Salvador Allende’s government in 1973,
and supported the ‘Military Coup’ on September 11th of the same year, as well as the military regime of General Augusto Pinochet, along with the newspapers ‘El Mercurio’ and ‘La Nación.’

During the following decades, it remained as a tabloid newspaper, featured for the use of an informal language and addressed to the working-class. ‘La Tercera’ adopted its current format in 2003, from a Tabloid to a Berliner format, adopting a formal language, and increasing the number of pages significantly in an attempt to reach the higher social strata public. Therefore it started to compete for popularity against newspapers such as ‘EL Mercurio’ and ‘La Nación.’ In October 2007 the newspaper made changes to the design of its layout, giving it a more minimalist look.

La Tercera renewed its website in November 2008, integrating all the COPESA media on a page called Mediacenter La Tercera. A month later, the newspaper became part of the Strategic Alliances CNN Chile; composed of Radio Bio Bio and a group of local TV channels, plus UCV TV, and a Network Map City Daily Citizen.

Since, August 1st, 2010, ‘La Tercera’ presented a new header format entirely different from the previous ones. This time it had red and white letters. The Chilean Marcelo Godoy and the Spanish Javier Errea remade the newspaper’s design. Since November 2nd, 2010 La Tercera includes the international edition of the Spanish newspaper El País to subscribers who make an additional payment.

Since the arrival of director Cristián Bofill (1999-2013), the newspaper has specialized in coverage political, business, educational, and economic events. That has been reinforced by its former director Guillermo Turner (2013-2016), and its current manager and director Juan Pablo
Larraín, who follows the same idea of independence and unbiased contents addressed to everyone. Furthermore, ‘La Tercera’ became one of the most influential newspapers in Chile, and reference point for the political world, and the rest of the media circulating within the country.

The Researcher’s Role

As a qualitative researcher interested in understanding how people make sense of the world according to their experiences, in this case, I was keen on what these online press sites [‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’] transmitted about the latest bilingual policies (Merriam, 2009). This was done “not in the hope of proving anything, but rather in the hope of learning something” Eysenck (1976) as cited by Starman, (2013, p. 41). Therefore, the role the researcher has had in this research is to describe and interpret the corpus by itself, being only responsible for revising the documents under the qualitative research paradigm. In consequence, as a researcher, I did not just analyzed the data but also became a source of data myself (Sampieri et al., 2006).

Ethical issues

Regarding ethical issues, this research was conducted considering some ethical considerations proposed by Lincoln (2005); Mertens and Ginsberg (2009); Salmons (2010) APA (2010); as cited in Creswell, (2013, p. 133). Due to this study not having any direct participant that could be harmed or injured, the ethical considerations of the present work rely on the procedures the researcher has followed throughout the investigation. First, since the beginning, I made sure the resources they used as data did not need any requests for permission. Second, in the data collection process, I searched more than twice within the online press sites, making sure not to have missed any vital information. Third, the analysis of the data was done manually at the beginning; then systematized
The Colombian & Chilean bilingual programs as portrayed by the online-press

using the spreading-sheet program Microsoft Excel, in which the investigator has recorded the whole analysis development.

Moreover, Lincoln and Guba (1981), along with Baxter (2008), proposed the use of some strategies to validate and give reliability to a qualitative study. The strategies the investigator has applied while conducting this study are: to have a clear research question and proposal; to select the appropriate methodology according to the inquiry; to implement a purposeful sampling strategy and to collect and manage the data systematically. Finally, as the last strategy, the application of double coding, i.e., after a period of time the researcher goes back to the data and codes it again, that way they can verify the results.

To sum up, this chapter has revised the research paradigm, the type of study and the method that frames this research study. Also, it describes the corpus and its context, highlighting the techniques and the criteria considered to select the data that makes up the corpus. Finally, it addresses the role of the researcher, along with the ethical issues taken into account to give objectivity and trustworthiness to this investigation. Next, the reader can find the data analysis process and the findings of this study.
Chapter 4

Data Analysis and Findings

This chapter illustrates an account of the procedures the investigator followed to order, structure, and assign meaning to the data, characterizing how the online press sites ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ have revealed the bilingual policies in Colombia in Chile between 2011 and 2014. Likewise, it addresses the procedures ensued to analyze the corpus/data and construct the categories.

Data Organization and Management

Data gathering in this study comes from the news reports published between 2011 and 2014 by ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’. These news reports were selected because of their relation to the current language policies launched in Colombia and Chile. The corpus consists of 126 news articles that the researcher explored and interpreted, in an attempt to answer the research question.

The procedures for data organization and management were preceded by Elo, and Kyngäs’ content analysis procedure diagram (2007, p. 110), and Kohlbacker (2006) premises in favor of the qualitative content analysis as a text interpretation methodology. Thus requiring the researcher to go back and forth revising the data without assuming any theoretical notion a priori. Furthermore, this type of research does not intend to change or intervene directly within the context, but rather to give an account of it through the interpretation obtained from the news reports, seeking to answer a ‘how’ question (Baxter & Jack, 2008).
Data Analysis Framework

As observed in Figure 1, the ‘corpus’ was analyzed under the premise of Elo and Kyngäs (2007) following the inductive approach in which these researchers point out that a qualitative researcher should: first, become immersed and completely familiar with the data through iterative reading, second, start organizing the data to making sense of it, and with this in mind continue with the interpretation process. For this reason, it appears to be the methodological framework that best suits this study.

Moreover, the analysis was conductive through the following phases: The first consisted in organizing the data, doing ‘coding sheets’ on an Excel file (See table 2). After that, the researcher started doing an ‘open coding’ analysis, that is to say, making notes in the margins, giving them names or titles that will help me to describe all aspects from the content. For that reason it
became necessary to read the data again and again, according to this, I followed and applied the process described above with each online press site.

Table 2.
**Matrix sample from ‘La Tercera’ and ‘El Espectador’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>ID Document</th>
<th>Autor</th>
<th>Publication Date</th>
<th>N°</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>News Report</th>
<th>Unit of Analysis</th>
<th>Macro-Structure Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>La Tercera 2011</td>
<td>Por</td>
<td>5 APRIL 2011 - 15:45 AM</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Injuy y Montecano lanzan beca para cursos e-learning en inglés</td>
<td>Hay mil cupos disponibles para jóvenes de 15 a 29 años que pertenezcan a los quintiles más vulnerables y que presenten excelencia académica en la posbultación</td>
<td>Becas incentivos formación en inglés</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>La Tercera 2011</td>
<td>por</td>
<td>30/05/2011 - 15:14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Universitar los dictan talleres de inglés a estudiantes de quintas a octavo básico</td>
<td>La iniciativa es organizada por alumnos de Ingles de la U. Católica de Valparaíso y beneficia a estudiantes de quintas a octavo básico</td>
<td>Capacitación en inglés por parte de alumnos U. Católica Valparaíso</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly to the first phase, the second one consisted in carefully continuing the process of grouping all the titles from each online press site, according to their similarities, getting as a result 287 ‘themes’ out of 474 ‘titles’ from ‘El Espectador.’ Comparatively, the researcher got 260 ‘themes’ out of 568 ‘titles’ from ‘La Tercera.’ As he/she was continuously reading and drawing inferences, they proceeded to group the ‘themes’ by the aspects they have in common, and at the same time, took away those themes that would not answer the research question. Then, after a meticulous process came to 32 ‘patterns’ out of 287 ‘themes’ from ‘El Espectador’ (see appendix D), and 54 ‘patterns’ out of 260 ‘themes’ from ‘La Tercera’ (see appendix E).
Therefore, after doing open coding and finding relationships among the ‘patterns’ aiming to classify and reduce the data, as Cavanagh (1997) asserts ‘the purpose of creating categories is to provide a means of describing the phenomenon, to increase understanding and to generate knowledge’ as cited by Elo and Kyngäs (2008). Then, the researcher continued recording and registering the data into the coding sheets (See appendices B and C), and achieved a reasonable among of codes that named ‘preliminary categories.’

Finally, the researcher focused the analysis on the process of abstraction and creation of categories, which meant go back and forth between the corpus and the data analysis, identify more commonalities among the previous codes that resulted in the following categories: 1. “Hastening Neoliberalism: Language Policy as Spectacle”, and 2. “English: The Witty Weapon Legitimizing Inequality”. In the next section, the researcher presents these categories’ relations with the preliminary categories to explain their findings.

Findings
The objective that led this study was the unveiling and characterization of the manner in which ‘El Espectador’ represent the bilingual policies EODP in Chile and the NBP in Colombia. In this regard, the analysis of the corpus allowed the researcher to conclude that apart from broadcasting the opinion of the elite, they portray a positive view about the English-Spanish bilingualism, legitimitizing a neoliberal model and the hegemony of English, where the social, cultural, political and economic inequality prevails (Byrd, 2013, p. 49).

In the following paragraphs, the researcher will provide examples from data analysis that support the categories, that illustrates how ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ represented the bilingual programs NBP and EODP, between 2011 and 2014.

**Hastening Neoliberalism: Language Policy as Spectacle**

This category discusses the role of neoliberal educational policies, assumed by the Colombian, and Chilean governments. Hence, the neoliberal government’s strategies and regulation features these policies, such as the privatization of public institutions, as well as the augmentation of associations between national and international organizations. Eventually, it relates the promotion of the bilingual English programs NBP and EODP, which are focused on the training of the Latin-American labor force.

As indicated previously, all these changes in the educational field are what Edelsky (2006) calls *neoliberal education policies*, highlighting their main purpose, which is hastening a market ideology throughout all social domains. All these policies seek to benefit the private national and international corporations by producing a type of workforce for the modern emperies. *Neoliberalism* is not different from *neo-conservatism*, because they both support the philosophy
of free market, while ‘Liberals’ are concerned with civil rights, liberty of thinking, and the humanization of society.

Also, this category is featured by the Colombian and Chilean purposes for promoting educational reforms, increasing the investment in EFL at all stages of education, signing partnerships with the private sector, and promoting technical programs. Therefore, the policies allied to the English language teaching and learning have become both the flagship and the spectacle of the multifold neo-liberal policies reforms. This is because policymakers are not changing their minds, and just using the new understandings as the impetus for political actions of this spectacle made to entertain their population - which is part of the audience - (Edelsky 2006, p. 267) by forcing them think that strengthening the English language instruction will improve the quality of life in Colombia and Chile significantly.

Consequently, this category also considers the inputs toward the bilingual policies given by TV producers and celebrities, such as politicians, soccer players, singers, and actors, who provide inputs and support the bilingual policy that makes it mandatory for all citizens to learn English. It can be seen considerably in ‘La Tercera’ where a number of news reports associate famous people with English skills, where English becomes the show that both governments stand for and spread out, to strengthen other neoliberal policies that go beyond being a competitive country in the modern world.

From here on in [out], the investigator will illustrate the most relevant excerpts extracted from the corpus that gives an account of the issues featuring this category. These are: the political campaigns and budget allocation, the establishment of alliances and partnerships between the public and private sectors, the investment in incentives such as scholarships, training courses,
free online access to different English platforms, and the curricular reforms within the Colombian and Chilean educational systems to foster their respective bilingual programs NBP and EODP.

The first issue that characterizes this category is the topic related to the negative scores and results that students obtain at different standardized tests. This is because they give an account of the low quality of education in both countries. Those claims are based on the scores achieved by the students every year, when taking different tests such as PISA, SIMCE, Pruebas Saber, and other international English tests such TOEIC, TOEFL, IELTS, from where the EF (Education First) take the results to indicate the English proficiency of approximately 57 countries around the world in the EPI. As can be seen below in excerpts #22 and #519, the results for Colombia and Chile have not improved enough from one year to another, especially in English.

El inglés, una de las principales barreras para el intercambio internacional. No.54

#22. Según cifras de Education First, entidad encargada de determinar el Índice de Nivel de Inglés (EPI) en 54 países del mundo, Colombia ocupa el lugar número cincuenta, seguido de Panamá, Arabia Saudí, Tailandia y Libia.

[19 / 08 / 2014] El Espectador

Estudio ubica a Chile entre países con peor nivel de inglés No. 52

#519. Análisis midió conocimiento del idioma en 60 países. Chile ocupa el puesto 44, aunque aumentó en 3,57 puntos respecto de 2012. [10 / 11 / 2013] La Tercera

Besides, the results of those examinations knock down two myths: first, that Colombians are good readers and second, that Chileans are the ‘English’ from South America.

Nacionalismo Y Educación No. 24

# 102. Esos resultados son humillantes para Colombia, un país cuya capital se dice llamar “la Atenas suramericana”. Pero aquí los gobiernos, que se indignan sin fundamento, no sienten vergüenza por eso. [08 / 02 / 2017] El Espectador

Parlamentarios dicen que hay que aplicar tecnologías y más recursos en inglés. No. 4

#229. “La información obtenida, constituye un punto de partida. Tampoco debiera sorprendernos mucho (los resultados) porque lo que se obtiene permite derribar un mito en que algunos sostenían que somos los ingleses de América del Sur”, comentó el senador Quintana. [29 / 03 / 2011] La Tercera
Although this may be true, the Colombian and Chilean governments have centered their attention only on the achievement of high scores at standardized tests – especially in English – assuming that it will solve their different educational issues, which is not true. In contrast, focusing only on tests just aggravates the latent educational crisis they face. This is because it discourages and deprives: diversity among students, teacher’s professional judgments, and the development of in-depth learning and critical thinking. This, in turn, pushes learning to take a back seat to cramming and teaching to be overshadowed by coaching on test-taking (Edelsky, 2006, p. 256).

Equally important to mention is that most news reports strongly tied the low scores students from the public sector get in English tests to the quality of education they receive (see excerpts #12 and #64 below).

Moreover, and despite all the investment the government has made on bilingual programs such as NBP and EODP, they have failed since their insertion, regardless of having augmented the amount of beneficiaries (covering more population); they have not shown a significant improvement in their results on international tests. The major educational entities support this. The MINEDUC in Chile and the MEN in Colombia have not noticed any great improvement in the scores that students obtain in the national tests they take annually, such as SIMCE in Chile, and ‘Pruebas Saber-Pre y Saber-Pro in Colombia. Nor in other international tests offered by organizations like ETS (Educational Testing Services) or the BC (British Council), which along
with EF (Education First) classify the English proficiency level of 57 countries around the world in the EPI (English Proficiency Index[^4]). As Edelsky (2006) says, training students for taking tests is not the solution when there are multifold issues to solve first, like the lack of resources. Furthermore, teachers will appear as guilty of students’ poor performance on the different tests (Valencia, 2013, p. 18).

The following excerpts exemplified how various politicians from both Colombia and Chile have promised to improve the quality of education by strengthening the bilingual programs ‘EODP’ and ‘NBP’, and by investing part of the national budget in different incentives and subsidiary programs that will foster the English teaching and learning in each country.

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[^4]: EPI is an statistic tool that attempts to rank the level of English worldwide since 2012

Following that aim, the excerpts from the bilingual programs EOPD and NBP addressed discourses that relate these programs to a high and excellent quality of education. Thereby, the language policy is not only the political campaign’s flagship, but also a spectacle to keep the audience’s attention away from other relevant issues afflicting not only education but also important issues like high-quality healthcare, social and economic inequalities among other (Byrd, 2013, p.19).

Moreover, the Colombian and Chilean governments in search of reinforcing English learning and the training of the working class - within the frame of the NBP and the EOPD - have settled several public-private alliances between national and international organizations that belong to both the educational and productive sectors.

As can be inferred from the excerpts above, the public-private partnerships only support the merchandising of education causing the funds for this human right to go directly to private agencies because according to the tests’ results the public sector has not accomplished the expected standards.

Likewise, the news reports reaffirm that students from semi-private schools (escuelas subvencionadas – escuelas por conseción) get better results than students who attend publicly funded schools. This fact validates the public–private partnerships and alliances, which promote
other neoliberal policies. Sadly, the credit offers for bank loans in exchange for studying at expensive educational institutions, -which allegedly are the best ones - condemn poor students to years of work in order to pay such huge sums of money (see excerpt #400 below).

Moreover, all these reforms bring what Edelsky (2006) names as a ‘corporatist', meaning the fusion of corporate interest with government authority and a direct relationship to education. Moreover, it can be noticed in the government’s desire in making partnerships with commercial and academic institutions belonging to the private sector. Under a neoliberal model, education must be controlled through rigid standards and high-stakes tests. Aiming, first, to produce a sufficient labor force specialized in ICT, enabling corporations to dominate the global market. Secondly, to make sure that “public” education provides only “basic” literacy, and in that way disorganize the market and the neoliberal belief that people should only get what they can pay for (Gee, 2004a) as cited by Edelsky (2006, p. 197).
As it has been already indicated, through different national institutions like the MINEDUC and the MEN, the governments have begun to give several incentives to promote all programs focus on English bilingualism, science, and technology, as can be seen above.

Nevertheless, most of the time those ‘incentives’ are not complete, so people who want to get access to them need to have enough money to fund their studies, trips, and material until the government returns part of those expenses. Consequently, the students who do not have that money would have to get a loan from a bank or public/private agencies such as ICETEX, and COLFUTRO in Colombia; or CORFO in Chile, organizations that would support part of the expensive costs but charge some interests for the funding. Therefore, those incentives are affordable for a certain part of the population, which does not include the vulnerable ones.

Additionally, both governments have implemented a reform in their educational systems, that is, making changes in their curricula at a national level, thus accomplishing international standards and enhancing their students’ performance on tests, improving the students’ opportunities.

In the light of the above, several excerpts from the corpus mention the actions taken by the Ministries of Education from both countries, which support this neoliberal reforms. Some of the measures are the implementation of immersion classrooms, scholarships to students who want to be English teachers, endowing the majority quantity of publicly funded schools in every province or department of the country with technological resources, and bringing international staff from English speaking countries. Lastly, bringing advisors from renowned English language institutions, such as the ‘British Council’, Cambridge and Harvard universities, the MIT among others.
Besides, the new reports mention the application of new methodologies to upgrade teachers' qualifications by giving them more opportunities for training and enhancing their English skills. As well as the augmentation of hours for English instruction – starting from elementary school – that according to the national and international authorities, - such as the WB, UN, IMF – which claim that all these changes, aim to overcome the low education quality. The evidence of the low scores Colombian and Chilean citizens get in core subjects areas such as math, physics, natural sciences, humanities, and especially in English, backs up the claims of the quality of education.

As can be seen in the following excerpts, these reforms prioritize the investment in programs that upgrade the ELT in both Colombia and Chile, since, as the governments justify, English is a necessary competency in a globalized world.

Likewise, without weighing the pros and cons, the government has sponsored the increment of institutions that offer technical training and has installed this type of education in publicly funded
schools. The reasons, according to the governmental authorities, are to abolish unemployment and increase the country’s labor force.

As Smith (2004) pointed the corporate rhetoric about the need for shift to a knowledge-based economy, which prepares skilled workers, people who are willing to work anywhere in the world (E.g. overseas outsourcing). This is despite of questioning to what extent the new jobs are low-paying service jobs; as cited by Eldesky (2006, p. 104).

In order to do so, the governments highly support institutions like the CFT (Centros de Formación Técnica) in Chile and SENA (Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje) in Colombia, these institutions have close links with private companies that require a cheap labor force. Hence, CFT and SENA become primary providers of a workforce, meaning their technical students, who must do their ‘work’ internships with those companies in exchange for a poor salary to get their technician’s diploma.

In that respect, it appears to be that education for work has become a legitimized form to exploit the young population. The reason for this is that, while most of the interns (articled clerks) get their diplomas and are immediately unemployed, just a few of them keep their jobs in exchange for a more or less fair salary, working as professionals. Therefore, it becomes a profitable business for those companies, which obtain a cheaper labor force in exchange for almost the same job a certified technician or professional would do for a proper salary. This is a neoliberal cycle, in which the only winner is the private sector (Crotty, Epstein, and Kelly, 1997, p.10).
The Colombian and Chilean governments assist the personal interests, as long as they support their political goals (Phillipson, 1992). The following excerpts depict how the government and the private sector are funding and fostering thousands of vacancies to train students for work, neglecting the quality of it.

Furthermore, those neoliberal policies do not stand on their own, aside from the great influence and support by the world biggest economies; the media have an important role in spreading and legitimating those policies. As Edelsky (2006) has said, the media are accomplices of the government and are involved in the social, political, cultural, and economic changes. It should not happen in a democratic nation, where the media should provide unbiased information from all concerned parties. Conversely, the media act as the microphone of the public–private limited companies, along with the government position, since they are part of the Business Roundtable pushing neoliberal policies for education and other public domains (Edelsky, 2006, p. 9).
For instance, the news reports talking about the pros of knowing English, and its necessity for becoming successful, so they take celebrities and influential people as a sample to follow. Therefore they contribute to this policy by publishing and broadcasting entertainment in the compulsory language. Besides, it can be seen that different media networks such as Disney, Telesur, Univision, RCN, help distribute this "info-ganda" to local affiliates. As well as online press like ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ to spare the expense of doing their own reporting according to Ivins (2005), as cited by Edelsky (2006, p. 8).

Notwithstanding, this spectacle arranges an illusion of democratic participation and obvious benefits, that are addressed to the few symbolic elite. In fact, we are just the audience of the governments’ decisions. This is better described by M. L. Smith (2004, p. 12) “What happens on
stage (the plot acted out by a cast of villains and heroes) is disconnected from the action backstage” as cited by Edelsky (2006, p. 6).

As a result, imperialism through the media is a central feature of cultural and linguistic imperialism, because it establishes an asymmetrical relationship between the center and the periphery population (Phillipson, 1992). As can be seen with big conglomerates that are members of the ‘Business Roundtable’ and other corporate organizations that are pushing the neoliberal agenda in education and other public spheres within countries from the ‘outer’ and ‘expanding’ circles according to Kachru (1991) - broadcasting only vital content aligned with the corporate interests (Edelsky, 2006, p. 9).

According to Galtung (1980), ‘Scientific’ and ‘Media’ imperialism is part of ‘Cultural Imperialism’, where the ‘Center’ goes to ‘Periphery’ to collect different types of data. This data is based on official, academic documents, as well as surveys or questionnaires responded by non-academic people about a myriad of topics. After that, the center analyzes the data and creates different products (books, journals, theory, methods, and manufactured goods) to export to the periphery. Also, Boy-Barret (1997), adds that the cultural resources (ideas, theories, experiences) coming from the ‘Center’ are being constantly renewed. Thus the periphery remains in a dependent situation. Thus, as Shiller (1976) states, the sum of processes by which a society is attracted, pressured, forced, and sometimes bribed into a shaping social institution, to correspond to the values and structures of the ‘dominating center of the system’ occur through different commercial products: films and TV serials, advertising agencies, and other operations financed by the government as cited by Phillipson (1992, p. 57), who sees those actions as a vestige of British colonialism and as an arm of American cultural imperialism.
As indicated above, political campaigns, public-private associations between national and international organizations, curricular reforms, and the implementation of the bilingual programs in each country, are seeking to objectify and dehumanize education and labor fields, as well as deregulate and privatize capital mobility. In a word, all those facts point out what we refer to as the *hastening neoliberalism* that is eating away both Colombia and Chile, following what Crotty, Epstein, and Kelly (1997), refer to as the Neoliberal Global Regimen (NGR).

**English: the witty weapon legitimizing inequality**

This category discusses the role of English language as part of the latest neoliberal policies implemented in last decades. Thereupon, it depicts how the Colombian and Chilean governments legitimize the power of English by turning it into an overrated asset, not only to succeed but also to survive within a globalized world. At the same time, this category illustrates how the language policies that boost English, propitiate the vast social, cultural and economic inequality existing in both countries.

However, to understand how these excerpts evidence the way English is expanding the already existing cultural, social and economic gap within countries that belong to the ‘Expanding Circle’ (Kachru’s words) or ‘Periphery Countries’ (Phillipson’s words), which the case of Colombia and Chile. First, it is necessary to know about the ‘English Linguistic Imperialism’ theory, as well as the role of *English in our current society* (Crystal, 2003).

Due to the influence and relevance that English has gained from the XX century to the present, according to Crystal (2003), it has historically and geographically penetrated deeply into the political, cultural, economic, social, communication, and international educational domains. For
instance, most of the media, advertisements, instructions for machines, tourist map and signals, protest, amongst others, are carried out in English. Therefore, it is not just mandatory but a necessity to dominate the English language.

According to Kashrus’s (1991) categorization about ‘World Englishes’, he divides the diffusion of English in three concentric circles: The Inner circle’ (English L1 varieties), the Outer circle’ (ESL varieties), and the ‘expanding circle’ (EFL varieties), belong to the ‘expanding countries’. In contrast, Phillipson in his theory of ‘English Imperialism’ (1992), splits up the world Englishes in two categories: ‘Center Countries’ (English is the L1) and the ‘Periphery Countries’ (English is the L2 and LE).

As English has been marked as the language of the modern development, and scientific and technological advance, it has become a lingua franca for the socio-economically privileged individuals. Consequently, ‘linguistic imperialism’ is understood as an asymmetrical relation that exists between English and another language, where English is the norm by which all language activity or use should be measured (Kubota, 2012, p.60).

For the most part, English imperialism has been associated with exploitation and inequity within the social, political, and economic spheres. It asserts the dominance of English of other languages. Therefore, serving as a sample of what Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (1986) named ‘Linguicism’ which is defined as the use of ideologies, structures, and practices used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduced an unequal division of power and material/immaterial resources, and which also takes place in the political discourse and actions about multi fold language issues (Phillipson, 1992, p. 52).
Nonetheless, Pennycook (1994) discusses the political and cultural implication of the spread of English in the last years, disputing the view according to which English teaching and Applied Linguistics have nothing to do with politics and culture. In contrast, he asserts that when someone teaches a language, he/she is teaching within a social, cultural and a political context. Pennycook (1994), debates the assumption that considers that the proliferation of English has been neutral, natural or beneficial. Rather, he argues that it has been imposed by the Anglo-American potencies. He coincides with Phillipson (1992) in saying that English is the language of international capitalism but criticizes him for not considering that English can be used in different contexts; English should be acknowledged not just as a language of imperialism but also as a language of opposition. (p. 2162).

Correspondingly, supporting Pennycook’s claims, Warschauer (2000) states English could be beneficial or harmful depending on the circumstances; for instance, Canagarajah (1999) claims English can be adopted for non-native speakers to express their subjectivity as a means of resistance, as cited by (Kubota, 2012:60). Therefore, as we are becoming a global society full of people wanting things such as traveling, doing international businesses, studying abroad, and knowing other cultures, we need a lingua franca to meet the international communication demand, which is English. Hence, English is not good, bad or neutral; it works as a double-edged weapon that we should master to our benefit.

The following pages contain some of the excerpts extracted from the corpus that illustrates on the one hand, the English hegemony over other languages that have been led by foreign and national interventions within the commercial, labor, and academic fields in Colombia and Chile. For instance, the exigency of English language certifications, and the spread and promotion of
British and American ELT tenets lagging the indigenous languages that still exist in both countries.

On the other hand, these excerpts point out how being or not being proficient in the English language has become an advantage for the elite and a disadvantage for the major part of the population. This is owing to bilingual programs like the EODP, and the NBP only training in English a cheaper labor force, favoring the resources and benefits of multinationals and transnationals companies, and eventually expanding the social, cultural and economic gap.

The first characteristic of this category is related to the power of English over other languages, which is normalized and legitimized by the academic and labor fields, as can be seen above that government, labor, and educational facilities do not question the hegemony in the current world. Therefore, English becomes mandatory for the developing countries craving to make part of the global dynamics; the news emphasizes the fact that English is not only needed at an economic level for international trade, but also for scientific, social, and cultural exchange. Besides, it is named as an emancipator language that open doors and break barriers overseas. In many cases, it is addressed as ‘the language of businesses’, ‘the language of internet’ or ‘the language of peace’.
Moreover, as people undertake the enterprise of learning English and getting a certified proficiency, and private institutions start offering English training, it becomes a double-edged weapon that benefits, for the most part, the biggest corporations, which need labor force overseas. Therefore, supporting the private company’s interests, the national governments turn English into a compulsory requirement for everything – even to graduate from an university - reinforcing this idea by presenting the knowledge of English as an advantage [even for brain health] and vice versa (See Excerpts below).
The most highlighted benefits of speaking English are related to the acquisition of higher social and economic status, especially in developing countries, where a large percentage of population is losing many opportunities to study and work both inside and outside its countries. Such is the case of Colombia and Chile (and is also a justification for the high percentage of young unemployed people).

Conversely, not speaking English becomes a disadvantage that creates barriers between international companies that want to commercialize Colombian and Chilean tangible and intangible goods. As extracted from the excerpts below, a person who lacks English skills becomes a defenseless victim of the globalization. Also, the management of English will ensure more places/vacancies for cheaper employees in international industries. It can be seen in the excerpts related to the creation of workforce for the Empire.

According to these excerpts, not managing English reduces opportunities for both countries to make cultural and commercial connections with other cultures and countries. This transforms the act of not mastering English into a barrier and a handicap not only for getting a job or access to the information and communication but to login to the neoliberal world system.
As Rajagoplan (2009) notes English has become *a powerful divider between the rich minority that has access to education and the vast majority of the peoples who toil under severe conditions of underemployment or downright unemployment*” as quoted by Barahona (2015, p.3).

Furthermore, the online news reports addressed how the governments diffuse a bunch of job opportunities - in economically powerful countries such as Canada, USA, UK, and Australia – that both Chileans and Colombians are losing, because of their lack of English proficiency. Consequently, each government has started to implement English as a compulsory subject at elementary and high school; and at the university level, where English has become a key requirement to get a diploma in many institutions, no matter the profession.

Correspondingly, the job-vacancies available are for jobs that native people from those countries do not want to do. This generates a professional degradation in developing countries where professionals in the search of major opportunities to practice their English find they could
make more money working as waiters, housekeepers, receptionist, dishwashers, among other jobs; than working in professional fields in their home-countries. At the same time, it can also be noticed in some excerpts that many international companies such as call-centers are interested in a labor-force that speaks English.

Regarding the issues mentioned above, the government uses them to support the execution of the bilingual program NBP and EODP, along with their subsidiaries programs. These include immersion programs with native speakers of English, contests and tournaments in English, summer and winter camps inside and outside the country, cultural activities like theater performances in English, volunteers services from university students in publicly funded schools, and the use of virtual resources and TV; to improve the inputs and the exposition of people to English. For instance, the SENA’s virtual platform, MOOC (Massive Open Online Courses) such as Duolingo, Rosetta stone, and YouTube.
Furthermore, the Colombian and Chilean government have developed several strategies to diffuse and spread English literacy, claiming they want to be bilingual countries (Spanish-English), taking the concept of bilingualism just to refer the management of English and Spanish, as addressed in chapter two (see p. 16). Besides, we can see how this inaccurate definition is also legitimized on the online press.

While disregarding the broad indigenous communities, who live in these territories and are already ‘bilingual', apart from speaking their native languages they can also talk in Spanish. Consequently, the government invests efforts and resources in the learning of English, disregarding the indigenous population and native languages that are at risk of disappearance.

Notwithstanding, the excerpts below illustrate a resistance imparted by minority groups does exist, especially in Colombia, where indigenous cabildos have been organizing themselves to defend their cultural costumes and identities. For instance, they have started by creating alphabets and writing their oral languages.
Despite the indigenous population in Colombia and Chile being relatively large, the national policies of these countries have been keen on the spread and diffusion of English, because it has become a great source of business for the private and public sector. As well as for the agencies and organizations in charge of the offering English training, like the ‘Instituto de Cultura Británica’ in Chile, the ‘Centro Colombo Americano’ in Colombia, along with the British Council headquarters. Besides, English and American universities, sign agreements with public entities such as the MEN or MINEDUC for large sums of money to train teachers and students, and scholarships to support part of the stay abroad while studying or working. Note that all these agreements are made mostly with private institutions from overseas which charge twice for the fees of Latino students.
By following the English imperialism line, the news reports support and spread some ELT tenets, which according to Phillipson (1992) consolidate a British base all around the world and keep the American and British powers. Moreover, the researcher will address four of those ELT tenets that are present in most of the curricula. The first one states that *English is best taught monolingual*, the second, claims *the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker*, the third one assures that *the earlier English is taught the better the result*, and the fourth, affirms if *other languages are used to instruction, the standards of English will drop*.

From my experience as EFL Learner and teacher I could say that all the ELT requirements mentioned above, are just myths and ideologies that come from countries that belong to the ‘Inner Circle’ or ‘the Centre’, because in the reality those principles do not work at all in context such Colombia or Chile, where the English input is minimum and the “native-speakers teachers” are not teachers or linguistics, therefore, most of them do not know how their language work.

Accordingly, it is necessary keep in mind those tenets to understand how the business between international organizations and the public sector of each country works. As well as the reasons why non-native speaker’s teachers of English become the puppets of the bilingual policy spectacle, where external organizations such the BC (British Council) or the ETS (Educational Testing Service) are the puppeteers who manage teachers’ professions as they want. Thus
invalidating their knowledge, and imposing methodologies and pedagogies that are not suitable for their contexts.

By implementing ELT tenets, a huge demand for English material and products such as books, jobs for English teachers emerges; as well as immaterial resources such as ideas, teaching principles, and methodologies. Thereby, these imposed tenets only reaffirm the English linguistic imperialism, and which at the end are just fallacies used by the interested parts –government and private corporation– to profit themselves (Phillipson, p. 47).

In this part, we can notice as well that the social representation of English Language Teachers is bad one, due to the responsibility for the results at different standardized test relies on their shoulders, and the government never cares about other issues damaging the educational system. Therefore, English teachers are forced and at the same time discriminated when they do not accomplish with ETL requirements pointed by Phillipson (1992, p. 185), which are to speak English native-like or to be native, to teach their classes monolingually, and to train their students just to pass specific tests, while depriving them of academic freedom. This is the easy way to justify the low students’ performance, but the ‘illnesses’ affecting education go beyond English teacher’s performance. For instance, standardized tests validate those ELT practicums, where teaching becomes “test prep” (Edelsky, p. 266).

In the same fashion, we find international tests services operators that offer standardized English test all around the world, and which are the major authorities in qualifying people’s knowledge and expertise. In fact, an individual who applies for any job or program at higher educational level must demonstrate expertise by certifying it with one of those tests. In the
following part, it can be seen how teachers of English are one of the disadvantaged groups with language test certifications.

In that respect, ‘certifications’ have become the most important requirement for a person who is willing to improve their social, cultural, and economic mobility. It is well known that despite English being a foreign language in Latin-American countries, there are plenty of labor and academic corporations that demand an English certification, they have preferred these certifications more than professional diplomas, as one can infer from the excerpts below.

Certifications in English has become such as great business for the companies that produce, offer, sell and validate those test services. Even when a student cannot afford to pay those tests the government signs partnerships and pays for those examinations from the public treasury, which is a good business for those international agencies that event in poor and developing countries assure their ‘clients’ tests-takers.
Standardized tests have been criticized for bias, triviality and the thinking they promote (Gould, 1981). Frequently, test items have trivial content. Thus they are not chosen for knowledge application. Instead, they favor multiple choice answers, avoiding depth and critical acumen (Hoffman, 1962) and for confounding product and process, that is, eliciting wrong answers for the right reasons and vice versa (Meier, 1981). Likewise, tests do not offer assessment or give feedback based on process, just an account of arithmetic calculations (Edelsky, 2006, p. 251).

As a result, certified testing, more than an educational device becomes a product to market and improve competition values employed for all human activities and has become a key issue for the language policy spectacle.

Furthermore, all the factors mentioned about such as the advantages and disadvantages of knowing English, the certifications in English as required to work or study, and as a way of assessing education quality according to English proficiency; hold the real interests behind the public and private alliances, the funds supporting the English literacy in ‘periphery countries’ sponsored by international organizations like the WB, ILO, UN, IMF. Thereupon, the false assumptions around ELT in the periphery; support the researcher in establishing a relationship between the issues and the legitimized perpetuation of the inequality at social, cultural, and economic levels caused by the power of English upon other languages, as illustrated above.

Por qué a Manizales le fue menos mal en las pruebas Pisa? No. 41

#234. En 2003, las brechas entre instituciones públicas y privadas eran evidentes, las tasas de deserción revelaban que muchos estudiantes renunciaban al colegio por falta de motivación frente al modelo de enseñanza tradicional y había que actuar frente a la calidad de la formación de maestros y rectores. [10 /12 /2013] El Espectador

Simce de inglés 2012: 82% de estudiantes no alcanza el nivel mínimo de manejo del idioma No. 45

#294. De este modo, el 83,3% de los estudiantes del grupo socioeconómico alto certifican sus estudios, mientras que en el bajo sólo llega a un 0,8% quienes manejan el idioma. [06 / 06 / 2013] La Tercera
This part of the analysis is where all the findings take form and rationale; here we can notice how low scores in standardized tests, curricular reforms, and the implementation of a bilingual policy along with work programs training, instead of improving the educational field, embody and host a myriad of injustices. For instances, we have seen that the education received by vulnerable children and teenagers is not the best, and not only because of the teachers, but also because of lack of materials, home support, healthy habits and feelings, and a safe environment to develop their skills. Many children come from the countryside and have experimented real violence, many of them have not studied for long periods of times, or who must work after school. These are few cases from the many that make part of the educational crisis. As Kozol
(1991) states, underfunded schools and inequitable funding formulae have delivered ‘savage inequalities in school buildings, equipment, and experienced and credentialing teachers; and curricular inequalities’ that is, disregarding the native language and ethnicity of students, as cited by Edelsky (2006, p. 270). Moreover, curriculum based on standardized test and certifications does consider that tests score gap is linked to other facts, such as students’ income, parents’ occupational status, and racial diversity.

Thereupon, developing countries increase levels of unemployment, especially in vulnerable young people who do not find educational or job opportunities, join temporary fiddly jobs, or go to the street to do what Latin people known as “rebusque” (Despite of difficulties a person creates solutions). That is in the best of the cases; others fall into delinquency and drugs. As Fairclough (2006) highlighted, the unemployment or sub-employment are part of the result of the globalization and the neoliberal discourse, that it is a rational strategy for getting cheap work (p. 125).

To sum up, this category shows how English imperialism makes use of two mechanisms: educational language planning, and pedagogy. For instance Phillipson claims, that ELT and all the discourse around it, divide ‘culture’ from ‘structures’ by delimitating the focus on language pedagogy to technical objects, excluding important social, economic, and political matters. Not to mention, ELT has become a remarkable business that benefits a few, especially those located in the ‘Center’ (Kachru’s Inner circle). This is because ELT is nowadays a compulsory policy all over the world, and in all countries from the ‘Periphery’ (Kachru’s Expanding circle), although they are free of not accepting those international policies, *those decisions do not derive from*
The Colombian & Chilean bilingual programs as portrayed by the online-press policymakers neutral rationality but from their alignment with the dominant corporatist agenda (Edelsky, p. 267).

Additionally, it reflects on how a neoliberal policy speedily turns the social world into a giant market where every act is converted into a competitive market transaction (Treanor, 2004)—where “every sphere of economic, social, cultural, and biological life [becomes] a commodity, open to privatization” (Lipman, 2005). Here corporations win, moving capital and production to obtain the cheapest labor force and the least controlled conditions; thereby incurring a “race to the bottom” in wages; income disparities grow obscenely to produce the largest gap in wealth since the 1920s, as cited by Edelsky (2006, p. 258).

In short, the procedures of data management followed by the explanation of data analysis have been illustrated, including the steps the researcher followed to obtain the two categories [Hastening Neoliberalism: Language as Spectacle and English: the witty weapon legitimizing inequality] that characterize the representation of the Colombian and Chilean bilingual policies within the online press sites ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’. The following chapter presents the conclusions of this study.
Chapter 5

Conclusions

The main objective of this research study was to unveil and characterize how the online news reports from ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ revealed the bilingual programs EODP in Chile and NBP in Colombia from 2011 to 2014. The result of the corpus analysis showed that both online press sites portray positively and similarly the neoliberal principles towards the bilingual policies.

The first idea that can be noted is that regardless of the country, the bilingual programs NBP and EODP, implement almost the same strategies to become English-Spanish bilingual countries, to comply with the international neoliberal requirements needed for entering the global dynamics. That is, the development of a workforce for the global powers and guaranteeing their inclusion into the world market, to allegedly reach an economic adjustment. Therefore, most of the excerpts extracted from ‘La Tercera’ and ‘La Espectador’ highlighted this aim.

Moreover, several scholar and teachers have shown their positions against these programs, which instead of mending our broken and unequal educational systems – in Colombia and Chile - have legitimized the social, cultural, and economic marginalization of the major part of the population, including EFL teachers from the publicly-funded sector (Matear, 2008), Pérez de Arce (2014), Baker (2012), Usma (2009, 2015), Guerrero (2008, 2009), Barahona (2015), Mejía (2007, 2011), González (2007, 2008, 2009), García and García (2012), Valencia (2013), Bonilla
and Tejada (2016). These scholars have shown resistance of this LP, and have uncover the voices of those who do not have voice [teachers and student from rural school].

According to Sánchez (2013), the EODP and the NBP have similar proposals; both programs are dedicated to the improvement of the English proficiency of High school students. Also, they adopted the CEFR as a framework to evaluate and assess the linguistic competencies. They emphasize the necessity for strengthening teachers’ skills, considering that they affect the academic performance of the students directly. Therefore, both Colombian and Chilean governments aim to attract transnational corporations and “foreign direct investment and knowledge industries based around the manipulation of information, thus capitalizing on investment in education and skills training. English language skills have been deemed crucial to the successful promotion of trade across language barriers” (Matear, 2008) as cited by Byrd (2013, p. 4).

Moreover, the speculations provided by the research question showed that the aforementioned online press sites, promote the hegemonic power of English and the implementation of other neoliberal reforms by reporting and justifying the government decisions through the use of statistics, rankings, and ciphers about low scores that comes from the result of national (Pruebas Saber, SIMCE) and international tests (PISA, IELTS, TOEIC, TOEFL). As I could notice from the analysis, the media use those statistics, as part of the arguments that relate the insufficient performance in English that Colombian and Chilean students get in those standardized tests with the low quality of education thence leading to the rise of unemployment and poverty (Phillipson, 1992), (Edelsky, 2006), and (Fairclough, 2006).
It is evident that the predominance of English upon other languages marginalize people from the ‘expanding circle’ (Kachru, 1991) who do not speak English, disavowing the multiculturalism and plurilingualism that exist in Colombia and Chile, and widening the inequality gap; and consequently forcing the remind indigenous cultures to abandon their autonomy and identity, due to English is seeing as a mandatory requirement to communicate and do not get ‘info-excluded’, ‘job-excluded’ and all kind of inclusions that will come it (Matear, 2008)

On the one hand ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ support the idea of a bilingual policy through a display of news reports that talk about the benefits and advantages of having English language proficiency. Such advantages are the improvement in the scores in international rankings, access to communication and knowledge, more job and study opportunities, better international image, and the market opening. Consequently, not being proficient in English embodies various types of limitations and to be at a disadvantage in comparison with those who already manage English.

On the other hand, the alleged advantages pleaded by influential politicians and celebrities through ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ are for the big and powerful national companies and organizations. Of which their activities include contracting and sub-contracting graduates from technical schools. As well as for international corporations, which outsource cheaper labor force from Latin American countries, as they do in countries such as China, India, Japan, and The Philippines among other nations. Therefore, the weak economic of those countries, keeps people being on the dole, and making them accept the ‘fiddly jobs’ that people from developed countries will not do for minimum wage, despite their salaries being higher than those paid by the
companies of developing countries (Fairclough, 2006, p. 127). For instance, excerpts #148 and #149.a from ‘El Espectador’ explicitly pointed to the huge job offer (e.g., call center services) demanded by international companies.

In addition to the factors already mentioned, alliances and partnerships between the public and private sectors strengthen the neoliberal goals and foment cultural and economic inequalities. Although, some economists defend these alliances by pointing out the participation of the private sector started since the insertion of the ‘Corporate Social Responsibility’ (CSR) policy and it is required, owing to the public sector does not have enough budget, shows resistance to innovation because of bureaucracy, and conducts its political activity on power rather than on its organizational system causing the stagnation of whatever entity (Pliscoff & Araya, 2012).

Nonetheless, as can be drawn from the data analysis, the implementation of those neoliberal educational policies that are focused on standardized tests, and training workforce for outsourcing, only legitimize the injustice inequality by neglecting other social, cultural, and educational needs, such as the extinction of the six surviving indigenous languages in Chile and the marginalization of sixty-seven native-indigenous languages in Colombia.

Moreover, from the findings we can say that although there major part of the population in both countries blindly supports the bilingual policies, there is a small but representative part of Colombian and Chilean people – rural teachers, social researches, native/indigenous people – who exert resistance and opposition against those global neoliberal policies (see page 102).

As result, the real advantages of the implementation of neoliberal reforms are just for the big companies and wealthy investors, who save lots of money from the exploitation of tangible and
intangible resources belonging to the developing countries, expanding the cultural, social, and economic gap.

Regarding the analysis methodology, the qualitative content analysis (Elo and Kyngäs, 2007), is a technique that allowed the researcher to identify the topics, themes, patterns and categories that illustrated and characterized how ‘El Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’ spread, justify and legitimize the bilingual policies in Colombia and Chile.

For the most part, the investigator found this research experience to be very enriching since it gave them new insights about the language policies and the bilingual programs NBP and EODP within the Colombian and Chilean context. The research outcomes of this study changed his/her view about standardized tests, curricular reforms, English teaching training gathered under the hidden interests behind such policies. In this regard, this research allows English teachers to make informed decisions about the positive and adverse effects of those policies on their teaching. A bilingual education is not bad at all, but as teachers we need to point out to a multilingual education, where our students could feel free to choose any language to learn. Also, this let us comprehend the culture of the target language. From my point of view, learning other languages allow us to see and understand the world from other perspectives, which make us more tolerant people. As Tejada (2012) pointed, languages open doors to the interconnected world, in constant mobility, and reinvention, a world where the communication among cultures, being bilingual or multilingual has become a requirement *sine qua non* to guarantee development through the understanding of the other.
Pedagogical Implications

Language policy and planning is a topic that has been studied previously, yet the information related to it constantly changes and new theories and concerns are born depending on the context in which language policies are being implemented.

The present research study has disclosed that despite the myriad discourses spread through the online press sites ‘EL Espectador’ and ‘La Tercera’, which defend and justify the implementation of bilingual programs EODP in Chile and the NBP in Colombia, the reality is another. As inferred from the corpus and theory, the application of these policies in developing countries only expands the already existing social, cultural and economic gap, consolidating the inequality for the population in general, and for the educational community in specific. As addressed by Viñas (2011) on a report for the Council on Hemispheric Affairs says that “Although Chile boasts one of Latin America’s most stable economies, the economic inequality amidst Chile’s growing affluence has been a significant challenge for the well-reputed Andean nation”; and the country reaches to be “developed country” and rise its GDP (Gross Domestic Product), the majority of Chileans do not take notice when it happens, due to the high rates of inequality.

Thus far, we can observe that despite that programs such as the NBP and the EODP have been created to “supposedly” with the aim of eradicate poverty and inequality, as highlighted by several scholars, these neoliberal-economic programs have caused the opposite, increasing socioeconomic gap, not providing any opportunity for the distribution of wealth (Byrd, 2013).
However, as this study does not intercede on a direct population in pedagogical terms, it does have significant implications for English language teachers, not only for in-service and pre-service teachers from the ‘UDFJC’ from Colombia and the ‘UM’ from Chile, but also for educators and researchers around the world. The reason for this being how it documents relevant facts about the programs above it can work as a resource for further studies.

Moreover, this study issues important points about the execution and assumptions that come from the English programs NBP and EODP, which have just been used as a spectacle by the Colombian and Chilean governments to justify the investment of large sums of money from their national budget. Not only this, but they also serve as the floor for the insertion of neoliberal policies that have nothing to do with educational freedom and human rights. Conversely, those policies go behind the legitimization of the human and natural resources exploitation. Likewise, the findings of this study can be used to have another perspective on the role of the bilingual policies and their influence within the academic community.

Furthermore, this research study enables the researcher to reflect on two visions of English. First, the vision of English as the business for the developed countries responsible for organizing the curriculums and tests required for expensive certifications, where the ELF teachers’ only aim is to prepare students in mechanically learning how to pass X English tests, to become a successful employee within a globalized world. Secondly, as the vision that sees English as a tool of empowerment and resistance (Pennycook, 1994; Warschauer, 2000; Kubota, 2012).

Consequently, as ELF teachers we need to unveil the real interest of these bilingual programs to prevent our students from these ghoulish interests, but without ignoring the relevance and diversity that English has acquired through the globalization process and that it is a current tool
of communication worldwide. As Kachru (1991), Kachru and Smith (2008) state in their theory about “World of Englishes”, rather than teaching British or American English, we must emphasize on our students’ awareness as users of different Englishes, considering their cultural and social backgrounds for them to have effective communication.

Also, as a teacher of English, it is important to know how the policymakers settle a new policy and legitimize this through the different media. In this study, we can see how important it is not to swallow everything the media broadcasts, but rather read and scrutinize the circulating information. This is necessary to generate a critical and constructive point of views that could support a humanistic and holistic education, which does not follow neoliberal reforms as lambs follow their pastors, disregarding our history and cultural background.

In this regard, Fairclough (2003) assures the media is an entity in charge of making judgments, validating and spreading out the information within the local and global context. Notwithstanding, as teachers we are social agents of change, we must develop and enhance critical skills in our students, and invites the community to analyze and identify educational issues broadcasted by the media, which transcend disciplinary boundaries, because at the end we as teachers are the final policymakers (Menken, 2008, p.178).
Further Research

Through the development of this research study and knowledge that the researcher has gained, they are sure that there is a miscellany of possibilities for continuing researching the fields of language policy planning and news report discourses. As described in the theoretical framework and the data analysis sections, there is a clear relationship between media in general and the spread, legitimization, and naturalization of policies. Therefore, it becomes necessary for the educational community to understand the connection between these two domains.

Additionally, the outcomes from this work suggest that teachers (particularly the English language teachers) must be aware of the promotion of neoliberal discourses within the educational field, and assume more critical practices among in-service and pre-service teachers. Therefore, there is a broad range of possibilities for doing further research on this area:

- Researching the effect of the implementation of bilingual programs and curricular reforms focused on test preparation, and the pedagogical implications it has for teachers and students.
- Action research and Case studies that evaluate pedagogical implementations based on international ELT principles oriented to both teachers’ professional development, and curriculum development.
- Studies that inquire into media discourse practices from a critical perspective and connect them to the emancipation and empowerment construction of the educational community.
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The Colombian & Chilean bilingual programs as portrayed by the online-press

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Appendices

Appendix A

Data collection management sample
Appendix B Matrix 1. Display of findings ‘El Espectador’
### Appendix C Matrix 2. Display of findings ‘La Tercera’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>La Tercera (From 568 paragraphs, 568 preliminary ideas)</th>
<th>La Tercera (250 themes taken from 568 Preliminary Ideas)</th>
<th>La Tercera (Selection of “Patterns” related directly the bilingual/policy) 55 taken out from 55</th>
<th>La Tercera (Selection of “Preliminary Categories” taken from 55 “patterns”)</th>
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<th>Unit of analysis to Coding Process</th>
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<td>Preliminary Categories</td>
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<td>Categories</td>
<td>2</td>
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- Promotion of Speculative Ideologies and Neglecting the Implementation of Educational Policies
- English as the Bright Weapon Generating Inequality
- Political Strategies and the Communicative and Long-Term Development of English
- Economic Gap, Inequality, Shared Public and Private Infrastructure
- Social Representation of English Teaching and Teachers

Outlier
Appendix D

‘El Espectador’ from patterns to preliminary categories
Appendix E

‘La Tercera’, from patterns to preliminary categories

| A1 | Actions taken by the national ministry of education in order to strengthen the bilingual policies |
| A7 | Adaptation of literary and artistic work aiming to promote English language learning |
| A13 | Educational alliances: a business between the government and private international agents |
| B1 | Low percentage of proficient users of English in Chile |
| B10 | Low quality in English language and vocational education |
| C50 | Courses, workshops and activities to boost English language learning |
| C26 | Complementation between learning a foreign language (English) and the use of ICT |
| E29 | Educational assessment: a tool to diagnose and to measure issues within the educational field |
| M17 | Measurements and actions to enhance the quality of education |
| N8 | Necessity to train more Chilean teachers in English language to supply and compensate the lack of them |
| M24 | Strengthening of English language, technological and vocational education |
| N60 | Virtual resources to the English training (PIAP) |
| P27 | English open doors program (PIAP) |
| P17 | Poor Chilean English language proficiency level |
| P13 | Budget to promote the bilingual program (PIAP) |
| C17 | Chile and the bilingual policy |
| E41 | International certification of English language exams |
| E56 | Institutions responsible for applying international certified English tests |
| E32 | Government strategies to promote English learning linked up with the national bilingual program (PIAP) |
| E15 | Incentives to encourage teaching and learning of English language |
| A22 | TV producers contribute to promote English language by transmitting some programs in English |
| F33 | Celebrities and politicians: inspiring the learning of English language |
| I27 | Incentives that contribute to the development of the country within the education field, focus on bilingualism (English), science and technology |

PROMOTION OF NEOLIBERAL IDEOLOGIES AND ASSUMPTIONS IN THE FORMULATION OF EDUCATIONAL POLICIES

| R14 | English language literacy: a relevant issue for a country that wants to take part of the global dynamics |
| R1 | Recruitment of Latin American students by foreign universities, especially British institutions |
| I39 | English language relevance nowadays |
| I38 | English language expansion and its influence in the world |
| I11 | The most valued languages by European Union |
| C39 | North Korea and its relationship with global issues (bilingual and technology education) |
| O1 | Job opportunities with English language |
| M18 | Bilingual manpower in English or any global language, as a requirement to get a job abroad |
| N1 | Necessity of English training for Chilean people, due to the global economic opening |
| C46 | Chilean economic development agency (CORFO). Entrepreneurs invest on innovation, technology and development of the human capital |
| D18 | Professional degradation |

POSTURES THAT DEFEND THE COMMUNICATIVE AND LINGUISTIC IMPERIALISM OF ENGLISH |

| D1 | Education inequality: economical gap |
| R51 | Sense results, another evidence of education inequality |
| M12 | Economic marginalization and exclusion: another restriction for learning other languages |
| R30 | Sense test: negative results and not certification |
| R39 | Sense test: positive results and certification of students |
| L1 | Legitimacy about the "simce" application of test and results |
| T3 | Evaluation criteria of simce test. |
| H3 | Linguistic disregard in united kingdom as a restriction to the development of a country which wants to take part in the global dynamics |
| D16 | Disadvantages for not having bilingual skills (English) |
| C5 | Schools quality classification according to test results |
| V1 | Perceptions about English language teachers |
| V4 | Voices of the English language teachers about the plans and programs to make Chile a bilingual country |
| C10 | Features of a good English teacher and its importance on a Spanish speaking context |