



VNIVERSITAT ID VALÈNCIA

FACULTAD DE FILOLOGÍA, TRADUCCIÓN Y COMUNICACIÓN
DEPARTAMENTO DE FILOLOGÍA INGLESA Y ALEMANA

*Programa de Doctorado en Lenguas, Literaturas,
Culturas y sus aplicaciones*

TESIS DOCTORAL

**THE IMPACT OF CONTENT AND LANGUAGE
INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL) ON
VALENCIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION
STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE ACQUISITION
AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT:
A CASE STUDY**

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VALENCIA, JULIO DE 2018

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research would have been impossible to execute without the support and cooperation of a number of people to whom I would like to express my appreciation.

First and foremost, I owe my deepest gratitude to my two supervisors Dr. María Luisa Pérez Cañado and Dr. Miguel Martínez López, for guiding my research with their immense knowledge and expertise these past four years. I will be forever grateful for their wise advice and personal involvement even across distances during my stay in Brussels. Dr. María Luisa Pérez Cañado's kindness, her capacity to work, and to transmit enthusiasm for this subject really are an inspiration. My other supervisor, Dr. Miguel Martínez López, motivated me to start my journey as a researcher and has offered me his valuable input and warm assistance all the way. It has been an absolute privilege to be their student for such a long time. My sincere thanks also go to the rest of my thesis committee for accepting an invite and serving as tribunal members.

I am especially obliged to all those who took part in the tests, interviews and questionnaires, as well as the Headteachers of the two schools involved, Ms Cristina Peris and Ms María del Puy, for their contribution to this scientific research. I would also like to acknowledge that many of the statistical analyses presented in the study would not have been possible without the helping hands of Beatriz Valero and Valentina Cuevas.

Last but not least, I would like to take this opportunity to express my deep heartfelt thanks to my extremely understanding friends and family. In all fairness, this thesis simply would not exist without the unfailing encouragement of the people who I love the most: my parents. Por creer siempre en mí bastante más que yo misma y por vuestro cariño y apoyo incondicionales, Eladia y Pascual: esta tesis es vuestra.

It is only too difficult to acknowledge all the kind people who have joined me in this adventure, so, even if you have not been mentioned here: Thank you.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The European Commission embraces linguistic diversity as part of our DNA whilst acknowledging that "the coexistence of this variety of languages constitutes an asset, but it is also a challenge for Europe" (Eurydice, 2017, p. 9). Such diversity is reflected in our joint economic, political and cultural ventures, which bring to light the imperative of successful communication across and within member states. Moreover, globalisation poses increasing demands on the foreign language skills of citizens and, in this sense, bilingual and multilingual education have figured prominently on the European agenda for many years.

The present dissertation focuses on Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), a very promising pedagogic approach which appeared on the European scene with the aim of restructuring foreign language (FL) learning strategies. The generic term CLIL, coined by David Marsh in 1994, describes a methodology whereby a language other than the students' mother tongue is learnt in combination with content. More specifically, the target language is used as a means to a particular end: acquiring knowledge and skills in a non-linguistic subject. Since CLIL encompasses a great variety of models and methods and is appropriate for all kinds of learners at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, characterising this flexible approach is a difficult but necessary task to which we will devote part of this dissertation.

The popularity and widespread adoption of CLIL in the past decades is evident in our country, particularly since the European Commission's Eurobarometer (2006) placed Spaniards at "the bottom rung of the foreign-language-knowledge ladder" (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009, p. 7). The realisation of our worrying position on the scale greatly reinforced the sweeping uptake of this innovative form of education in Spain. Focusing on the Valencian setting, over the past few years, and in order to address the identified learning challenge, the regional educational authorities have also promoted the adoption of CLIL. This means using the target language (English in the majority of schools) as a vehicular language in one or more subjects, in adherence to European guidelines on plurilingualism. Since the region of Valencia is a bilingual area, our legislators have had to devise a language policy based on the increased presence of foreign languages in the

curriculum while ensuring the preservation and promotion of Valencian, our co-official language. Given the timetable constraints typically present in formal education, CLIL has been regarded as one of the best possible solutions to increase the foreign language exposure of students following an already packed curriculum.

It cannot be denied that CLIL implementation has become a focus of attention and the subject of ongoing debate for educationists and scholars alike, a situation which has generated a steady growth in research. Across the continent, research literature to date has generally revealed from positive to very positive effects of CLIL on foreign language learning, and on students', teachers' and families' attitudes and motivations. Pertaining to subject content learning through CLIL, most research studies have shown optimistic or neutral results, although there is a growing trend of investigations pointing to a possible negative impact on content subjects. Lastly, and in terms of the influence of dual-focused education on the first language, research is still thin on the ground, but the majority of existing studies have not uncovered detrimental effects.

While numerous scholars have praised the profuse benefits of CLIL within the linguistic, cognitive and learning dimensions and in volitional, sociocultural and pragmatic terms, it is also important to voice the chief shortcomings of CLIL, which involve methodological, syllabus, materials and evaluation challenges (Pérez Cañado, 2013, pp. 16-18). Deficiencies have also been identified in qualitative and quantitative research related to the impact of CLIL, and these mainly concern the areas of research design, variables and statistical methodology. According to Pérez Cañado and Ráez-Padilla (2015, p. 4), the new CLIL investigation agenda needs to favour longitudinal studies with post-test designs, control groups and multiple triangulation. Studies should ensure the homogeneity of the samples and factor in moderating and dependent variables such as L1 and content knowledge. Additionally, a variety of statistical analyses should be performed not only to locate significant differences between cohorts but to ascertain whether these are a consequence of the CLIL scheme/s under study. It is precisely these lacunae often presented by CLIL investigations which our thesis will seek to overcome.

This longitudinal mixed-methods study on three groups of students, their teachers and their parents seeks to furnish new data on the effects of CLIL implementation in the Valencian multilingual context, a Spanish region conspicuous for its scarcity of solid empirical research on the topic. In reporting on our investigation, the present dissertation is organised into seven chapters. After this initial introduction, *Chapter 2* begins with a revision of key methods in the history of language teaching, providing a useful background for the discussion of CLIL. After reflecting on how FL teaching has evolved, a definition of bilingualism is offered in *Chapter 3*, followed by a focus on bilingual education models that constitute the main predecessors of CLIL instruction: Canadian immersion programmes and the numerous Content-Based Instruction models of bilingual education in the United States. The second part of the chapter further characterises CLIL by focusing on its background, definition, rationale, traits, main benefits and perceived challenges.

Chapter 4, which constitutes the last part of our literature review, sets the context of this investigation through an overview of the main research studies carried out within European countries. These relevant publications have been distributed in groups, according to geographical proximity: Northern, Central, Eastern, Southern and Western Europe. The chapter places a special emphasis on Spanish CLIL implementation and research in various monolingual (Madrid, La Rioja, Andalusia, Principality of Asturias, Castile la Mancha, Extremadura, The Canary Islands and Castile and León) and bilingual (The Basque Country, Catalonia, Galicia, The Balearic Islands and Valencia) regions.

Next, *Chapter 5* provides a justification of the study and a thorough description of the method (context, sample of the study, variables incorporated and instruments), along with the three objectives (articulated in 12 research questions) that constitute the prime focus of this thesis. By examining the inner workings of a particular CLIL programme in this context, we seek to contribute to conducting robust CLIL research in the Valencian region. To this end, our first objective involves measuring the satisfaction generated by a particular CLIL scheme in its principal stakeholders (students, teachers,

parents) and identifying the weaknesses, strengths, opportunities, and threats of the programme at all the curricular and organizational levels (competencies, methods, materials and resources, evaluation, teacher training, mobility programmes, workload and coordination and organisation). The second goal of this thesis is to consider the impact of the CLIL programme on the development of students' English linguistic competence by assessing their attainment in grammar, vocabulary, the receptive skills (reading and listening) and the productive skills (writing and speaking). Lastly, our third objective is to evaluate the effects of the aforementioned scheme on pupil performance in other subjects: Spanish, the regional language (Valencian) and the content subject taught in the foreign language (Ethics).

The remainder of *Chapter 5* provides a discussion of both the quantitative and qualitative data collection processes and the statistical measures employed to analyse the data. This investigation applies three types of triangulation: data triangulation (drawing on different sources of information to counteract biases), methodological triangulation (employing a variety of data-gathering procedures) and location triangulation (collecting data from two different sites). Pertaining to statistical methodology, the data collated is analysed with the aid of the SPSS program in its 23.0 version and factor and discriminant analyses are used to establish which variables are truly responsible for the differences found between groups.

Chapter 6 then reports on the qualitative and quantitative results obtained. Outcomes are decoded and discussed at length, resorting to the analyses mentioned above and referencing the specialised literature review presented in the foregoing chapters. The qualitative part of the chapter provides a global analysis of stakeholder perceptions through the interpretation of questionnaire and interview findings before concentrating on the specific results derived from across- and within-cohort comparisons. In turn, the quantitative part of Chapter 6 is divided in three main subsections. In heading 6.2.1, the effects of CLIL on the foreign language are discussed from three angles: the FL competence differential between the cohorts, the effect of intervening variables and the durability of effects of the CLIL programme on FL competence. Then, subsection 6.2.2.

examines the impact of CLIL on student grades in the Spanish, Valencian and Ethics subjects, while in 6.2.3 a detailed discriminant analysis is used to scrutinise competence differential by quantifying the effects of the variables involved.

The thesis closes in *Chapter 7*, which offers a recapitulation of the principal findings of this multifaceted study in relation to each of the 12 research questions articulated in the design section. In addition, the limitations of the present investigation are acknowledged and feasible lines for future research are suggested. After the seventh chapter, we offer a complete summary of the present research study in Spanish and at the end, this thesis incorporates a list of appendices that includes the graphs and tables and the various instruments used for the analysis (tests, questionnaires, protocols and rubrics). It is our hope that the findings of our research study, despite its limitations, may discretely contribute to validating the participants' stances and views on the programme, and to provide useful empirical evidence on the effects of CLIL in a multilingual educational context like the Valencian region.

CHAPTER 2

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

Throughout history, methods have responded to the changing goals of language learning, for example, communicating with foreign trade partners, supporting missionary efforts to spread religion, reading academic scholarship and sacred texts, or, most recently, facilitating interaction on transnational and global levels. Language teaching methods therefore have prioritized different skills, for example, listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing, given the needs of learners and the values of societies. (Hilgendorf, 2012, p.1)

This second chapter of our dissertation seeks to provide a useful background for the discussion of CLIL by briefly reviewing the history of language teaching methods. A glance through the centuries of foreign language teaching will allow us to reflect on its evolution and to identify and understand its different trends.

As Stern aptly puts it, "the conceptualization of language teaching has a long, fascinating but rather tortuous history" (1983, p. 483). Certainly, a great number of different methods have been advocated and promoted throughout the years in what appears to be an eternal quest for the best FL teaching method. In the course of the development of FL teaching, theorists and teachers in their particular cultural and social contexts have tried to find an answer, thus contributing to this seemingly endless discussion. Hence, they have constantly shifted their focus between the key questions of instruction: objectives and goals, the learning and teaching processes and subordinate aspects such as materials, evaluation, teacher or learner roles (Klippel, 2004).

Methodological innovations, as Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 3) underscore, have been prompted by the imperative to reflect advances in language learning theory and changes in the type of proficiency needed by students. Furthermore, "as schools of thought have come and gone, so have language teaching methods waxed and waned in popularity" (Brown 1987, p. 11). In the interest of simplicity and encapsulating various literature sources, four main periods in the history of FL teaching will be identified here (Shakouri-Masouleh, 2012; Salmani-Nodoushan, 2006; Titone, 2004; Klippel, 2004):

- *Up until the 18th century*: In ancient Rome, Greek was studied as a second language through a teaching process that resembled L1 acquisition: by direct contact with

native speakers, imitating their words, sentences and pronunciation. A great shift occurred during the expansion of the Roman Empire in the Middle Ages: Latin would occupy a pre-eminent position as the international language of the state, religion, commerce and education.

- *The 18th century*: This period was characterised by a lack of theoretical basis in FL teaching. Between the Renaissance and the 19th century, there were chiefly two opposing currents in language teaching: one along the lines of common sense, i.e., teaching by living in contact with the target language, and a second trend that had begun after the Renaissance characterised by grammaticalism. Latin grammar was highly considered, and many believed it developed the intellectual ability of students, so it was associated with mental gymnastics and became an end in itself. For this reason, despite the fact that Latin was substituted by the use of the vernaculars after the rise of modern languages, it continued to exert a strong influence on FL teaching. This traditional method came to be known as the *Grammar-Translation Method* and it relied heavily on textbooks, offering a frozen view of language as a system of syntactical and morphological rules to be memorised and applied (cf. heading 2.1).
- *The 19th century*: This moment in history is conspicuous for what has been termed the *Reform Movement* (cf. heading 2.2). In the first half of the century, teaching manuals by Seidenstucker and Plötz popularised the above-mentioned Grammar-Translation Method; however, in the second half, strong reactions to the method would arise, resulting in the birth of the *Direct Method*. The work of individual reformers Jacotot, Prendergast, Marcel and Gouin preceded this late 19th-century movement considered by some as the "last thorough and extensive reorientation of language teaching" (Shakouri-Masouleh, 2012, p. 67).
- *The 20th century* saw a shift from method to post-method. In this period two different currents can be distinguished in foreign language teaching. Educationists and scholars took the first steps towards making FL teaching scientific by borrowing theories from linguistics, psychology and sociolinguistics, which resulted in proposals like the *Audiolingual* or the *Audiovisual* methods, among others. There was also a second current embodied by method developers with their individual philosophies (cf. heading 2.7); for instance, Asher's *Total Physical Response*,

Lozanov's *Suggestopedia*, Curren's *Community Language Learning* or Gattegno's *Silent Way*. Later in the 1990s, several pedagogists and educationists decided it was time to reevaluate the concept of methods and, thus, the very notion of language teaching through methods and its legitimacy were questioned. This endeavour to find, not a new alternative method but an alternative to methods, would culminate in the introduction of the *Post-Method* era, with interesting propositions such as *Cooperative Language Learning*, the *Lexical Approach*, *Neurolinguistic Programming*, *Computer Assisted Language Learning* or the *Multiple Intelligence Theory* (cf. section 2.10).

We find that looking back at the history of FL teaching not only constitutes an interesting exercise in itself, but is also a requirement in the context of this thesis. It will enable us to better understand how CLIL was born and to ponder why this approach has been considered much more efficient than previous ones. Accordingly, the following sections seek to describe the principal language teaching methods by paying special attention to their main characteristics, objectives, assets, pitfalls and their impact on the evolution of foreign language teaching.

2.1 The Grammar-Translation Method

Grammar-Translation has been described as the earliest and most traditional FL teaching method, "employed mainly when studying and reading academic literature" (Weihua, 2004, p. 250). It is mainly characterised by its great emphasis on the written word and grammar of the foreign language (FL) and by a general disregard for communication skills.

The Grammar-Translation Method (henceforth GTM) was developed in Europe between the 18th and 19th centuries and has its roots in the procedures used for the study of Latin and Greek in the Middle Ages. Due to the long tradition of the method in

teaching prestigious classical languages, it was adopted in the 18th century after the rise of modern foreign languages in Europe. The GTM, with its leading exponents Ollendorf, Plötz and Meidinger, soon became the standard way of approaching the foreign language curriculum in European schools. The following is a brief summary of its principal features, adapted from Richards and Rodgers' description of GTM (2001, p. 5):

- The method approaches FL instruction through a detailed analysis of grammatical rules, memorisation of vocabulary lists and translation from and into the target language. Its main goal is to access the literary works in the FL but language learning is also an end in itself, as it fosters mental discipline and develops intellectual skills.
- In a typical GT lesson, grammar points are introduced deductively (rules are explained and illustrated with examples) and a list of related vocabulary items is provided with their equivalents in L1. Then, the grammar rule is practised through sentence translation activities which students are meant to read aloud as they write.
- The medium of instruction is the learners' native language. The L1 is kept as a reference system at all times, for it enables explanations of the grammatical points and comparisons between the two languages.
- The major foci of GT lessons are reading and writing skills, while listening and speaking are generally neglected. Learners are therefore expected to achieve high standards of accuracy in their written translations.

The GTM was inevitably attacked by language teaching theorists, such as Ticknor in the early 19th century, who advocated for spoken and active methods and was against teaching grammar to the FL students before they reached their teens (Weihua, 2004, p. 251). By the mid-19th century, several factors like the increased communication needs among Europeans and subsequent demand for oral proficiency led to the opposition to the method. GTM's neglect of the communicative aspect of FL learning was, from the onset, one of its main pitfalls.

Although relatively easy on the teacher once the grammar item had been introduced, the GTM proved a frustrating and tedious endeavour for the average learner. Monotonous rote learning of core vocabulary lists and grammatical rules, in addition to the massive translation practice, was in every way a laborious task. All this hard work was not aimed at real communication: students were not expected to express themselves in the target language (TL) but to provide perfect translations. The GTM conceived the target language as a system of rules and items to be analysed, compared to the mother tongue and learnt by heart, a considerable effort which, undoubtedly, left students with little sense of achievement. Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 7) criticise this controversial method claiming it has neither advocates nor a rationale behind it to justify it in terms of psychology, linguistics or educational theories. Stern, in turn, (1984, p. 455) comments on four drawbacks of the method that were conducive to its failure, namely, stress on the language as a mass of rules and exceptions to be learnt, limited practice techniques based on the dominance of L1, excessive memorisation and language facts presented with no coherence.

Despite its criticisms, the GTM would continue to be used for a long period of time and is still employed nowadays in some parts of the world, generally in combination with other methods. Typical arguments put forward in favour of the method would be the role of L1 and cross-lingual techniques in FL teaching, how the method fosters reading comprehension and problem-solving, how it allows FL teaching in large-sized groups or that it has less strict requirements regarding teacher competences and qualifications (Stern, 1983, p. 455).

2.2 The Pre-Reform and Reform Movements

In the second part of the 19th century, Europe witnessed the fall of the Grammar-Translation Method and the rise of teaching reforms developed by individual language teaching specialists that radically changed the FL teaching panorama. The ideas and

methods of innovators such as Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin would pave the way for the 1880's Reform Movement in Europe by promoting alternative approaches to FL teaching. These specialists saw the need to move away from the GTM procedures in order to address the increasing demand for oral proficiency. They supported a more natural and student-centred approach to FL instruction and developed new teaching principles taking into consideration the way in which children learn languages.

Unfortunately, their proposed reforms did not develop into an educational movement due to poor dissemination, acceptance and implementation. As Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 8) point out, this was probably due to the insufficient organisational structure (associations, journals, conferences, and the like) of the language teaching profession at the time. Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin's innovative ideas would gain credibility during the Reform Movement in the 1880's. The works of linguists Sweet, Viëtor and Passy in England, Germany and France, respectively, gave robustness and further propagated reformist ideas. Contributions revolved around the teaching of grammar and pronunciation, methods and the elaboration of visual and aural materials for FL instruction. Besides, the Reform Movement benefited from several events taking place in those years: the establishment of a new linguistic discipline called Phonetics and the foundation of the International Phonetic Association, which designed the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). These changing circumstances and new findings would give the reformers an insight into speech processes that had a profound effect on how they approached FL instruction thereafter. It should be noted that not all reformers supported the same procedures regarding FL teaching; however, they shared many beliefs:

- The spoken language is crucial and this should be reflected in an oral-based methodology.
- The findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and to teacher training.
- Learners should hear the language before seeing it in written form.
- Words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be practiced in meaningful contexts and not be taught as isolated, disconnected elements.
- The rules of grammar should be taught only after the students have practiced the grammar points in context- that is, grammar is taught inductively.

- Translation should be avoided, although the native language could be used in order to explain new words or to check comprehension. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 10)

The ideas that the reformers presented became principles that would constitute the foundations for new methods to come, and thereby may be seen as the beginnings of Applied Linguistics. Though often regarded as controversial, they proved necessary to blaze a trail for newer ground-breaking methods such as the Direct Method.

2.3. The Direct Method

This method was developed in the late 19th century in Europe as a result of the Reform Movement against the traditional GTM. The term Direct Method came from an official documentary paper issued in 1901 by the French government and it was built on the foundations of a shared belief: that FL learning should be similar to first language acquisition. European educationists during the Reform Movement had already turned their attention to the naturalistic principles of language learning, i.e they attempted to build a methodology imitating the way children learn their first language. It was the works of reformists Sweet, Viëtor and Passy, among others, that translated those linguistic principles into practical axioms for the FL classroom. The theoretical foundations of the Direct Method were primarily naturalistic methods of education, experimental psychology and linguistic principles of inductive analogy (Weihua, 2004, p. 177).

First introduced in France and Germany, the method spread in the subsequent years within Europe and overseas. It was particularly well received in the United States, where it was brought by educationists Hennes, Sauveur and Berlitz. The Direct Method was widely disseminated and variations of it were implemented under a variety of names: *Natural Method*, *Berlitz Method*, *Oral Method* and *Phonetic Method* among

others. Following Weihua (2004, p. 176), its main principles can be summarised as follows:

- The medium of instruction is the foreign language. Translation into the L1 as a means of explanation and communication is avoided at all costs.
- Speaking skills are developed in a graded progression and much attention is paid to correct pronunciation. Listening comprehension is encouraged as all new items are first introduced orally.
- Emphasis is on vocabulary and simple sentences are taught through direct association with the immediate physical environment: concrete meanings are introduced through objects or demonstration and abstract concepts, through association of ideas.
- Grammar is taught inductively: students are encouraged to deduce grammar rules from the texts read in class.
- The focus of instruction is spoken everyday language to practise communication skills in small intensive and interactive classes.

Teachers following these guidelines needed to demonstrate and act, rather than resorting to the L1. They had to use full sentences in the target language (TL) and make students speak, respect their pace and correct their mistakes. Instructors adopting the Direct Method, according to Titone (1968), were expected to speak normally and naturally, ask questions, be patient and stick to their lesson plans rather than to books (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 12). Contrary to the relatively easy procedures that characterised the GTM, the Direct Method required skilful, competent and inventive teachers with complex lesson plans.

For instance, an average lesson, as Stern (1984, p. 459) highlights, would start with the teacher orally presenting a short 'text' especially constructed in the FL. Vocabulary would never be translated but taught through different techniques like paraphrasing, use of synonyms, demonstration or context. The students would then practise their listening and speaking by reading the text aloud and answering the teacher's questions. Grammar points in the text would then be taught inductively and practised with new non-

translational activities involving substitutions, dictations, transpositions, and narrative or free composition. These innovative types of grammatical exercises brought about by the Direct Method would influence language pedagogy for years to come.

Nevertheless, several problems have persistently troubled the Direct Method; for instance, its inadequacy to go beyond elementary stages or its ambition to recreate the conditions of L1 acquisition disregarding the practical realities of a FL classroom. Considerable emphasis has been placed on the exclusive use of the TL as the medium of instruction when occasionally resorting to the L1 would simplify the explanation of complex ideas or grammar points. Moreover, this method is too dependent on native or highly qualified teachers rather than on textbooks, which has attracted much criticism. This concern is aggravated by the fact that the innovative procedures of the Direct Method were not supported by a thorough methodological basis; hence, linguists in the early 20th century would call for the development of sound methodological principles that would lay the foundations for future teaching techniques (Weihua, 2004, p. 177).

The Direct Method enjoyed considerable popularity in private school settings that could afford to employ native teachers and to have small groups of highly motivated students. In public schools, due to budget constraints, teacher background, classroom size and time, the Direct Method did not take hold (Brown, 1987, p. 58). Despite the limitations outlined above, the Direct Method remained the dominant foreign language teaching method until the 2nd World War. The innovations it brought about not only affected the subsequent Audiolingual and Audiovisual methods, but can even be traced in current FL teaching practices. As Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 14) put it: "One of the lasting legacies of the Direct Method was the notion of 'method' itself. The controversy over the Direct Method was the first of many debates over how second and foreign languages should be taught".

2.4 The Reading Method

This method was developed in the 1920s by American and British educationists and it does not correspond to any particular shift in linguistic or psychological theories, but it was rather created to respond to specific practical needs. Stern (1984) provides a historic perspective of the *Reading Method* that clearly depicts its strongly pragmatic basis. He first mentions West (1926), who recommended an emphasis on reading out of practical educational considerations: it was the most useful skill for his EFL students in India. West devised graded reading materials with the aid of Thorndike's *Teacher's Word Book*, published in 1921. Coleman (1929), contemporary to West, provided pragmatic arguments for the introduction of the Reading Method in American high schools at the time. Similarly, Bond (1953), at Chicago University, developed his reading method for language courses between 1920 and 1940.

The principal feature of this method is the training of FL students in reading comprehension, postponing the other skills without neglecting them. Its main methodological features have been synthesised by Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló:

- Content: Controlled vocabulary within reading texts. Basic grammar
- Objectives: Learner needs. Basic language and reading
- Materials: Graded readings texts
- Procedures: Oral introduction.
 - L1 is permitted for explanations and meaning.
 - Intensive and extensive reading exercises
- Assessment: Ability to use the FL. (ibid. 2005, p. 164)

Students following this method were taught different reading strategies, including techniques adopted from L1 reading instruction. Teachers distinguished between two types of reading, namely, extensive rapid reading of graded readers (to improve general comprehension) and intensive reading for detailed study. The FL was introduced orally to improve pronunciation and "inner speech", which were commonly held to play an

important role in reading comprehension (Stern, 1984, p. 461). Courses paid attention to individual learner needs and age through graded reading materials with a controlled vocabulary and regular repetition of new words. Grammar and vocabulary were carefully sequenced allowing for a systematic approach to reading instruction.

This attempt to teach English for the specific purpose of reading received much criticism at the time, and especially during the 2nd World War, when the changing circumstances brought about an urgent need for an oral-based approach. Nonetheless, the Reading Method is still worthy of praise for the relevant new elements it introduced into FL teaching:

- a) The possibility of devising techniques of language learning geared to specific purposes, in this case the reading objective.
- b) The application of vocabulary control to second language texts, as a means of better grading of texts.
- c) The creation of graded 'readers' (...)
- d) The introduction of rapid reading techniques to the FL classroom thanks to vocabulary control. (Stern, 1984, p. 462)

2.5 The Audiolingual Method

The years between the 1950s and the 1980s have been referred to as the Methods Era for being the most active period in the history of teaching approaches and methods. A vast number of movements and theories on both general education and FL settings emerged, which were soon superseded by others just as enthusiastically followed (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). New methods would be designed from a more empirical perspective, inspired by psychological and linguistic theories rather than intuition. Some FL methodological trends would make use of technological innovations such as recordings and visual materials. The Audiolingual method from the 50s and the Audiovisual method originally developed in the 60s in France are two of them.

Audiolingualism is a foreign language teaching method that originated in the United States in the 50s and was followed in regular language programmes for over two decades. Audiolingualism has its origins in the so-called *Army Method* or ASTP (Army Specialized Training Program) that emerged in the 40s and aimed at providing some much-needed foreign language training to the American army during the 2nd World War. The Army Method, although short-lived, successfully provided conversational proficiency to its students and became considerably popular. Nonetheless, concerns were soon expressed about the suitability of the Army Method as a model for conventional FL teaching. The ASTP was carried out under special circumstances: with small-sized groups of mature and highly motivated students and in 60-hours-a-week courses. Therefore, the success was likely due to the intensity of this oral-based approach and its innovative methodology rather than to a well-developed theoretical basis, as Richards and Rodgers (2001) highlight.

The Audiolingual Method, term coined by Brooks in 1964, emerged in the US within a context of renewed interest in FL teaching. Proof of it is the variegated literature on Applied Linguistics and language teaching methodology published in those decades or the implementation of the Foreign Language in Elementary School programmes (FLES). Audiolingualism draws on structuralist theories of language, mainly those of Bloomfield and Fries, and on the new behaviourist approaches advanced by Skinner and Watson in the 50s, among others.

During that period, the US saw the emergence and development of linguistics and particularly of structural linguistics. There was a reaction against traditional grammar and a new focus on language as a structured or rule-governed system. Linguistic systems, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 55), were conceived as “systems within systems” (from phonemic to morphemic to syntactic systems). For structuralists, mastering a language involved learning these elements and the rules governing them, i.e., going from minimal units to complex structures, from phonological level to sentence level. Given that language description started from the phonological level, it was assumed that FL instruction should do so too. Thus, speech was introduced first

with a view to providing the foundation on which to build the rest of the skills at a later stage. The main target, hence, was the rapid development of oral fluency. With this intent, methodologists identified the main structures of the language: basic sentence patterns and grammar. These minimal steps were then arranged in order of difficulty to match the learners' skills at each stage and were intensively drilled with a focus on pronunciation.

The influx of the new behaviourist approach can be observed in how Audiolingualism applied typically behaviourist ideas to language teaching: the concepts of *stimulus* (the language part being presented), *response* (the student's observable reaction to the stimulus) and *reinforcement* (the teacher's feedback). It was hoped that the right audiolingual techniques would induce the correct behaviours, i.e., provide the required experiences for FL learning to take place. Below, and following Byram (2004, p. 59), we condense the typical procedures that could be observed in an audiolingual lesson:

- 1) First, a short text (generally a dialogue) is presented with its translation and the teacher models it for students to memorise.
- 2) Drilling exercises ensue in which the same grammatical structures are modified with different lexical items and repeated. Then, the correct version is provided without delay.
- 3) Students are given a substitution table showing the underlying grammatical structure previously practised. It may or may not include grammatical terms.
- 4) Learners modify and role-play dialogues similar to the original text first presented and memorised.
- 5) Pupils practise reading and writing with the patterns and vocabulary introduced during the lesson.

Many of the underlying theories and methodological features of Audiolingualism would have a lasting effect; after all, it was one of the first methods based on principles of psychological and linguistic nature. The contributions of Audiolingualism include its graded and varied techniques that avoid translation, its separation of the different

language skills, a shift in focus from morphology and lexis to syntactic progression, and its inclusion of heterogeneous learners and larger sized groups (Stern 1984, p. 465).

Several criticisms, however, were soon put forward, mainly of a pragmatic nature or vis-à-vis the method's psychological foundations. Audiolingualism does not provide a complete list of grammatical rules or adequate criteria for the treatment of error and does not capitalise on useful generalisations in grammar. In addition, syntactic relations are not adequately dealt with and the manipulation of syntactic structures is a goal in itself, which results in a lack of practical application. This teaching method has been criticised for the negative effects that the exclusion of meaning can have on the correct development of lexis and receptive skills in the learners. Finally, Audiolingualism fails to factor in variables other than language and overlooks the importance of creativity in the application of language rules (Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló, 2005, p. 167).

Without doubt, Audiolingualism influenced and inspired other FL teaching methods in Europe before its demise, such as the Audiovisual Method in France. In the mid-60s, Audiolingualism disappeared from the centre of the methodological agenda, a place which was soon to be occupied by the Communicative Language Teaching in the 70s.

2.6 The Audiovisual Method

This programme, called the *Méthode Structuro-Globale Audio-Visuelle* (SGAV) was devised by the Centre de Recherche et d'Étude pour la Diffusion du Français (CREDIF). At the CREDIF, a team of specialists directed by Rivenc and Guberina developed and published several audiovisual programmes like *Voix et Images de France* (1961), soon followed by adaptations in the UK, America and Canada. Reinfried (2004, p. 61) describes two versions of the Audiovisual Method: the strong version dominated by the simultaneous use of visual and auditory materials, and the weak version, which

can dissociate these elements during instruction or give them a much less prominent position. Audiovisual courses were rigidly sequenced, especially in the strong version, and lessons had typically five phases we summarise below (ibid. 2004):

- 1) *Presentation phase*: A dialogue with 30 pictures (approximately) is used to introduce every teaching unit. Each slide is followed by its corresponding verbal text forming a semantic unit.
- 2) *Explanatory phase*: Learners' partial understanding is improved by an analytical monolingual explanation provided by the teacher (e.g. pointing, using mime or paraphrasing) in the form of an interactive conversation.
- 3) *Imitation phase*: The students repeat the dialogue (either individually or as a group), imitating the recording, and the teacher corrects their pronunciation.
- 4) *Exploitation phase*: By asking and answering questions about the pictures, the pupils further assimilate the dialogues. Then the dialogue is role-played initially using the pictures as stimuli.
- 5) *Transposition phase*: At this final stage, activities like free conversation or the creation of new dialogues take place. In other words, students are expected to use the language material in new situations.

In addition to these phases, the average Audiovisual lesson includes phonological practice and drilling of the grammatical items which appeared in the context of the dialogue. The introduction of reading and writing is deliberately delayed to give priority to oral skills and communication.

The theoretical assumptions of the Audiovisual Method are based on descriptive linguistic studies like *Le Français Fondamental* (1958), which offer valid criteria for the selection and grading of French grammar and vocabulary. In addition, the Audiovisual Method's holistic, non-analytical view of learning is a result of the influence of Gestalt psychology theories. In other words, the collection of utterances is introduced and learnt as a whole before it is broken down into smaller segments, so the learning proceeds from a global view to its parts in a fundamentally inductive fashion.

In addition, this method rejects the mere repetition of decontextualised patterns in favour of a meaningful social and situational presentation of language. Audiovisual teaching has been linked to different methods such as the Direct Method for its careful sequencing of input, exclusive TL instruction and use of visual media. It has also been compared to its contemporary, the Audiolingual method, because both approaches use auditory materials although the latter lacks pictorial stimuli.

Similarly to its precursor, the Direct Method, issues in conveying meaning have persistently afflicted the Audiovisual Method. More concretely, as Stern (1983, p. 468) reflects, images can be misinterpreted, and their equivalence to the associated recordings of verbal text is questionable. Furthermore, Reinfried (2004, p. 62) alludes to different empirical studies that have proved how picture sequences are an insufficient means of semantic transmission, i.e., the explanation of linguistic statements via holistic, situation-related semanticisation is limited. The neglect of the writing skill and lack of creativity as a result of the rigid sequencing of courses are some of the main drawbacks of Audiovisual methodology. Other pitfalls of Audiovisual pedagogy generally listed include the absence of written materials to adequately support oral teaching, the fact that beginner lessons are exclusively limited to dialogues, or the method's apparent inability to develop grammatical awareness in learners (Reinfried, 2004, p. 62).

Despite these criticisms, we cannot deny its contributions towards the modernisation of language teaching resources. Particularly since the advent of Audiovisual language teaching, textbooks began to shift their focus from descriptive and narrative texts to dialogues, and publishers started to offer additional visual and audio media as optional material with foreign language resources.

2.7. The Natural Approach

The popular *Monitor Theory* put forward by Stephen Krashen in the late 1970s, combined with Tracy Terrell's FL teaching experience, constitute the foundations of this humanistic approach. The proposal was reflected in the book *The Natural Approach* published in 1983, which includes both theoretical and implementation sections (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

Similarly to the TPR method, the Natural Approach draws on naturalistic principles of SLA, i.e., FL learning should be made similar to the way children naturally acquire their mother tongue. Its theoretical rationale, Krashen's influential Monitor Model, rests on five claims we briefly introduce below (Krashen, 1985; Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado & Luque Agulló, 2005):

- *The Acquisition versus Learning Hypothesis*: This hypothesis differentiates between acquiring a language (a subconscious and natural process identical to L1 learning) and a different process called learning (which is conscious and involves learning grammar rules). Acquisition takes place through natural communication i.e., when the language is a means rather than an end in itself.
- *The Natural Order Hypothesis*: Second language rules are not acquired in order of linguistic complexity or explicit teaching but in a standard, predictable order determined by innate mechanisms and regardless of the language in question being learnt.
- *The Monitor Hypothesis*: The monitor is an editing device that plans, edits and corrects the learner's production when there is time. Such planning and/or correction may take place both before and after the utterance. It only controls learning and may interfere with the process of acquisition.
- *The Input Hypothesis*: Krashen proposes that language is acquired when students process comprehensible input that is slightly superior to the level of the learner (formula $i+1$). Comprehension can be achieved through the context, pictures, or

- mime. To achieve acquisition, the learner must use innate mechanisms such as the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), triggered when input is heard and understood.
- *The Affective Filter Hypothesis*: It considers that factors such as motivation, self-confidence or anxiety foster or impede acquisition. Even though these factors do not produce acquisition by themselves, a low affective filter free from unfavourable attitudes is desirable as it can influence the students' success.

These hypotheses, although stimulating for FL teachers at the time, certainly raised many questions among pedagogic theorists and psycholinguists. It was felt that parts of this model were a mere description of teacher perceptions, inexplicit, untestable and did not tally with the intuitions of many successful FL learners (Brumfit, 2004, p. 415).

The Natural Approach focuses on the use of language in communicative situations in which meaning, rather than structure, is at the core of FL teaching, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 187). These authors distinguish three main stages in the learning process of this approach, depending on the students' linguistic development: the *pre-production* stage (no output in the TL is produced yet), the *early-production* phase (learners produce single-word or short-phrase answers) and, finally, the *speech-emergent* stage (which includes tasks like role-play, expressing opinions or group problem-solving). The teacher has three central roles in the Natural Approach: as the primary source of comprehensible input, as the agent responsible for the creation of an interesting and friendly atmosphere with a low affective filter, and as the provider of the appropriate mix of classroom activities that arise from elicited student needs (ibid. 2001). Classroom techniques are often borrowed and adapted from other methods like TPR, CLT or the Direct Method; the novelty lies in how the Natural Approach uses familiar techniques while aiming at "providing comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input, minimizes learner anxiety, and maximized learner self-confidence" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 186).

This approach enjoyed many years of popularity, but this was not to last forever. While the Natural Approach was a valiant attempt to foster basic personal communication

skills in a foreign language, various controversial aspects such as delayed oral production and the treatment of error were hotly debated. In addition, the problem of defining exactly what constitutes the comprehensible input that teachers have to provide was intensely criticised (Brown, 1987, p. 165).

2.8. Minority Methods

The following sub-section is a brief overview of certain alternative methods that enjoyed some popularity in the FL teaching arena but that did not really gain far-reaching acceptance. These methods (Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way and Total Physical Response) have been grouped together because they can be considered humanistic or learner-centred and, although relatively short-lived, they all had some influence on later proposals and are thus worthy of mention.

2.8.1. Community Language Learning

Differently from other methods, Community Language Learning (CLL) focuses on how adults acquire foreign languages rather than on a comparison between the L1 and L2. Its ideologist, Professor Curran, considered how adults' conscious learning of a foreign language often led to a fear of errors and higher levels of anxiety than in younger students (Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado & Luque Agulló, 2005, p. 180). He saw the need to create a safe learning environment formed by a supportive community of peers and an understanding teacher. CLL is a method "which focuses most assiduously on building trust" (Nunan, 1991, p. 236).

The origins of CLL thus lie in psychology, more precisely in Carl Roger's counselling theory from the 1950s. Curran decided to create a method that would include counselling learning techniques in the FL classroom, an initiative further developed by

his main follower: La Forge. The clients, consulting room, counsellor and the problem became the learners, classroom, teacher and the language to be learnt in CLL. The concept of whole-person learning is at the core of this method and it involves taking into account both affective and cognitive factors. This "holistic approach", as Cherrington (2004, p. 132) points out, redefines the learning process and the relationship between teacher and student. The teacher's primary role is that of a non-judgemental and understanding counsellor who supports the adult students minimising any potentially threatening learning situation.

CLL has a developmental theory of the learner that goes from dependency on the teacher to mutual interdependency in five stages. According to Larsen-Freeman (2001, p. 99), in stages I to III the teacher focuses not only on the language, but especially on encouraging students and supporting the learning process (here accuracy is subordinated to fluency). From stage IV onwards, students have gained some confidence and are able to benefit from the teacher's feedback. Stage IV has been compared to adolescence in the sense that the learner becomes more independent but still needs the teacher's support to advance in her/his FL proficiency until the final stage (V) of total independence can be reached.

This method is a truly student-centred one since the syllabus is defined by the community. Furthermore, as Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 93) aptly put it, CLL "emerges from the interaction between the learners' expressed communicative intentions and the teacher's reformulations of these into suitable target-language utterances". This is achieved through the cross-fertilization of conventional and innovative learning tasks such as translation, group work, recording, transcription, analysis, reflection and observation, listening and free conversation. Textbooks are considered rigid, and therefore, materials are ideally tailor-made by the teacher or counsellor.

CLL seemingly places great demands on teachers and this is precisely one of the most frequently mentioned shortcomings of the method. Concerns have been expressed with

respect to the specialist training and skills needed to become an adequate CLL instructor. Moreover, detractors of the method have criticised “the lack of a syllabus, which makes objectives unclear and evaluation difficult to accomplish” and have voiced their fear that a focus on fluency may lead to inaccurate use of grammar (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 98). Other limitations listed include the size of groups, which need to be relatively small. Last but not least, the counselling metaphor at the very core of this method has been questioned. Critics observe that the sharing nature of CLL may be unsuitable and even threatening for some types of learners, provoking the very thing the method strives to avoid: anxiety. Nevertheless, for others (Cherrington, 2004) CLL is proof that non-direct communicative learning is possible in a language classroom. In this vein, Brown (1987, p. 119) advocates for a broad eclectic view and a creative application of the method by suggesting adaptations of CLL like its implementation at intermediate levels to avoid the initial stage of complete dependence. For this author, CLL is a potentially useful method despite the above-mentioned pitfalls, provided teachers are willing to adapt CLL to their particular curriculum constraints.

2.8.2. Suggestopedia

The second minority method examined herein, Suggestopedia, is developed in the 1960s by Georgi Lozanov, a psychiatrist and educator, and it is based on yoga, Soviet psychology and the use of fine arts and music. The method uses these techniques to arrive at what Lozanov (1978, p. 267) terms a state of “concentrative psycho-relaxation”.

Suggestopedia has three main assumptions, according to Meng-Ching (2004, p. 587): learners are able to learn at a much faster pace, learning combines conscious and unconscious functions, and our potential as learners is normally inhibited by tensions, societal norms and fears that need to be removed. In Larsen-Freeman’s (2000, p. 81) words “this is accomplished by desuggesting the psychological barriers learners bring with them to the learning situation and using techniques to activate the ‘paraconscious’

part of the mind, just below the fully-conscious mind". Or simply put: when the learner feels at ease and believes that success is possible, then subconscious language acquisition takes place. Interestingly enough, Lozanov did not articulate a theory of language for this method; however, Bancroft (1972, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 101) lists six main theoretical components of the desuggestion and suggestion process, namely, "authority, infantilisation, double-planedness, intonation, rhythm and concert pseudo-passiveness".

Typically, Suggestopedia courses are very intensive: they cover ten units in approximately 30 days and lessons are four hours a day six days a week. An optimal group is considered to have 12 students of similar social background and an equal number of male and female members. They work with handouts containing graded and lengthy dialogues, their translation into L1 and an explanation of the main lexical and grammatical features. All four language skills are practised and the L1 can be used, especially at early stages. Learners' mistakes are considered normal and gently corrected by the teacher in a soft voice (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, pp. 102-103). A great deal of attention is given to the appearance of the classroom and the atmosphere created through posters and music because these indirect materials are believed to help peripheral learning. Furthermore, according to Lozanov, when Baroque music is playing, we can take in enormous amounts of data as a result of a decreased pulse rate and blood pressure and an increase in alpha brain waves (Brown, 1987, p. 141).

A typical Suggestopedia lesson is spread over three days and would follow this structure, divided in four main stages:

- Introduction: Setting the scene through drama, realia, humour, etc.
- Active Concert: A suggestopedic text (...) is read dramatically to music while students listen and follow the written version
- Passive Concert: Students sit back and relax as they listen to the teacher reading the text at normal speed and without any distortion to a background of gentle baroque music.
- Elaboration: All the practice activities which are familiar to most communicative language teachers: songs, rhymes, games, repetition, dialogues, etc. (Norman, 2003, p. 45)

Many authors have criticised this method based on the pseudo-science of Suggestology, and Scovel (1979), in particular, censured its highly questionable experimental data. However, as Lozanov (1978, p. 267) himself admits, it is precisely this appearance of science, this "suggestive-desuggestive ritual placebo-system" that makes it effective.

2.8.3. The Silent Way

The Silent Way (henceforth TSW) is an alternative language teaching approach put forward by Caleb Gattegno (1972) in his book *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way*. The main premise of this approach is somewhat unusual: the teacher must remain almost silent allowing for the time and space learners need to maximise their foreign language practice. Similarly to Suggestopedia, as Brown (1987, p. 142) puts it, TSW is theoretically sustained more by cognitive than by affective arguments inasmuch as it approaches learning from a problem-solving perspective. Its learning hypotheses include the use of physical objects like rods, stress on discovery learning (in place of repetition) and problem solving. The Silent Way fosters independent learning through awareness or the development of inner criteria to distinguish accurate from inaccurate output. The belief that self-awareness can be taught (and thus self-monitoring and self-correction) is central to this approach.

Cognitivist ideas influenced TSW; for example, the notion that teaching should be subordinated to learning, i.e., to serve the learning process by activating the students' inner resources (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It is important to note that, for Gattegno, working on the second language as a tool for communication is outside the scope of the classroom and he focuses more on language as a means of self-expression (Young, 2004). The Silent Way follows a structural approach, with a syllabus that introduces grammatical items and related vocabulary sorted by complexity. Specifically, the basic unit of teaching is the sentence, and once the structural patterns are introduced, it is the learners who figure out the grammar rules (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 82).

The main materials used in TSW can be summarised as follows (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, pp. 68-70):

- *Rods*: Rods are generally used to trigger meaning. In lower level courses, rods are first used to teach the colours or numbers and they subsequently serve the purpose of teaching more complex structures such as prepositions, conditionals, syntax or just abstract concepts.
- *Sound-colour charts*: FL sounds are represented here with blocks of colour. The instructor and students point at the charts to form syllables, words, or phrases and indicate stress patterns.
- *Fidel charts*: They are colour-coded charts that list together all the different representations of each sound in spelling using the same colour.
- *Word charts*: They contain hundreds of new words that constitute the functional vocabulary of the FL being taught. Letters are coloured following the sound-colour charts to aid pronunciation.

Typically, beginner level courses start with an introduction of the language's basic sounds via sound-colour charts. Once the colours and sounds are associated, the teacher uses colour-coded Fidel charts to teach the different spellings each sound has. Then, vocabulary is expanded through the use of color-coded word charts that show the proper pronunciation of the new words. Later, the main structures of the language are taught inductively through a set of meaning-focused situations created by the instructor. The students, with minimal guidance from the teacher (repeated modelling and corrections are avoided), produce and practise the target language structures (Larsen-Freeman 2000, pp. 68-70). The instructor's silence is believed to have a positive effect in promoting the learners' self-awareness and independence as they only have themselves and their peers to explore the language. The teacher's role is therefore quite demanding, as s/he must be ready to play second fiddle and refrain from giving answers that the learners can find either cooperatively or on their own. In TSW, all four language skills are practised from the very outset, albeit with a focus on oral skills at the beginning. Also, translation into the L1 is avoided, although it may be used for instructions if necessary. Differently

from some methods characterised by the avoidance of mistakes at all costs, Gattegno's (1972) TSW regards errors as "gifts to the class". This outlook helps the learning process by promoting self-correction and empowering students in their exploration of the language. Besides, mistakes inform the teacher on what items need to be reinforced in a learner-centred approach of this nature.

Much has been said about this *prima facie* revolutionary approach. Authors like Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 88), for instance, claim TSW is in fact quite traditional in its structural and lexical syllabus and in other features like its emphasis on accurate repetition. Nevertheless, they acknowledge that TSW brought about interesting innovations such as the teacher's indirect role, the types of materials used or the learners' responsibility to explore language independently.

2.8.4. Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response (henceforth TPR) was first developed by Professor James Asher in the 1960s, but it was almost a decade later that its key text *Learning Another Language through Actions* (1977) appeared on scene and was extensively discussed in professional circles. Physical movement is the central tenet of this method, or in Cain's words (2000, p. 37), "TPR is a way of using movement, gesture and group dynamics linked with spoken language in the form of commands, to create an atmosphere in which learners quickly and easily acquire comprehension of new vocabulary and structures".

TPR has a clear structuralist orientation, although part of its psychological base has been linked to Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach (1983). The humanistic pedagogy of TPR is geared at lowering learners' anxiety to facilitate the acquisition of the foreign language. Asher had a stimulus-response view of language acquisition and developed his learning theory by observing small children's interaction with their parents, typically based on commands, physical response and rewards. TPR's playful

atmosphere seeks to imitate that stress-free learning environment in which the child is exposed to input and naturally starts speaking whenever s/he feels ready. Proponents of TPR thus encourage students "first to understand through observation, then to act in response to speech and, after language is internalised, to begin to speak" (Cain, 2004, p. 632).

At beginner levels, TPR does not require props or materials beyond what is commonly found in a classroom. As students make progress, however, realia, pictures, word charts or slides may be used to construct specific situations in which more complex language can be introduced. A summary of a typical TPR lesson sequence is now provided (Cain, 2000, p. 38):

- The instructor gives a command verbally and models it.
- (S)he then asks some helpers to model with her/him while the rest watch.
- All the learners in class now follow the command.
- Smaller groups within the class model the command.
- When after some lessons their desire to speak emerges, students may give commands to the instructor and work in pairs.
- After verifying they understand the language, the teacher allows learners to perform individually in front of the class.

The instructor plays a central and active role in TPR as a decision-maker with regards to the range of activities proposed, and as a performer or model for the students. The teacher must also create a motivating ambience and feelings of success in the learners. This includes giving little feedback in the early stages when students are least proficient and more correction in advanced levels, always in an unobtrusive way. Total Physical Response is not a method to be implemented in isolation but an approach expected to be used together with other FL teaching techniques or procedures.

2.9. Communicative Language Teaching

Now that we have finished our description of the main short-lived minority methods, let us turn to the examination of two particular approaches which, contrarily to these, would have a long-lasting effect on how we teach foreign languages. The Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth CLT) and Task-Based Instruction (TBI) described below would gain wide popularity from the second half of the 20th century and are of special interest to this dissertation since they share many characteristics with CLIL. As our main focus, CLIL will be extensively characterised in chapter 3; however, we would like to mention here its common traits with communicative, humanistic and lexical approaches.

CLT originated in the late 60s as a result of a shift in the British and North American language teaching traditions. CLT, also labelled the Functional-Notional Approach, rejected the structural linguistic theories underlying Situational Language Teaching, Audiolingualism and previous approaches in favour of a focus on the functional and communicative possibilities of language.

This approach is to be regarded as a widely accepted set of general principles in FL teaching, resulting from a combination of circumstances, and not as a method developed by any particular educationist. One of its triggers was the reaction caused by Noam Chomsky's criticisms of structural linguistic theories in his book *Syntactic Structures*, published in 1957. Applied linguists such as Christopher Candlin and Henry Widdowson also emphasised the need to teach communicative proficiency rather than mastery of structures in the FL. These authors, who worked on the theoretical basis of CLT, were heavily influenced by the ideas of American sociolinguistics scholars Hymes, Gumperz and Labov; British functional linguists Firth and Halliday; and philosophers Austin and Searle, among others (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In the 1970's, the Council of Europe developed an innovative syllabus deeply influenced by Wilkins' *Notional Syllabuses* (1976) to cater for the language learning needs of the

increasing numbers of migrant citizens in the continent. It then resulted in Van Ek and Alexander's *Threshold Level English* (1980). Wilkins rejected traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary and "attempted to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 154). Wilkins' syllabus model accounted for two types of meaning: notional categories (like time, frequency, sequence, quantity, location) and communicative function categories (such as requests, offers, denials, complaints). Concurrently, in the United States, Hymes (1972) focused on language as social behaviour and proposed the term *communicative competence* to define its use in a social context, integrating it with communication and culture. Some years later, Canale and Swain (1980) would identify the four dimensions of communicative competence, namely the grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence (Savignon, 2004, p. 125).

The rapid acceptance by governments, policy-makers, teachers, publishers and FL specialists of the above-mentioned general principles played a vital role in the emergence and expansion of CLT. Ramifications of this method, such as Content-Based Instruction (CBI) or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), continue to be evident to this day. CLT, according to Larsen-Freeman (2000, p. 121), confirms the interdependence of language and communication and makes communicative competence the goal of language teaching. The international prominence and scope of this widely accepted approach means there is no single authority or syllabus to follow and its applications can be as diverse as the contexts where it is used.

Howatt (1984) distinguishes mainly a weak and a strong version of CLT. The more widespread weak version gives students the chance to use the FL to communicate and "attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching", something he describes as "learning to use English". In the strong version, however, language is acquired through communication, so Howatt talks about developing the language system rather than "activating an existing but inert knowledge"; in other words, "using English to learn it" (ibid 1984, p. 279).

By definition, CLT is learner-centred and its implementation in a particular context will depend on language learner needs. The role of the students is to be communicators and to engage in negotiation of meaning in order to complete the tasks. Contrary to most teaching methods discussed before, the role of the teacher in CLT is far from a central one. The teacher becomes a facilitator responsible for creating situations that foster communication among the participants. In addition, the teacher has a second and third role as an independent participant and a researcher and learner (Breen & Candlin, 1980) striving to contribute to the communicative learning experience. Other teacher roles such as needs analyst, counsellor and group process manager are also listed by Richards and Rodgers (2001). These same authors claim that not much has been written regarding CLT's theory of learning and thus foreground three underlying principles common to CLT practice: the communication, task and meaningfulness principles. In brief, activities should involve real communication, language is used to carry out meaningful tasks and the language employed has to be meaningful to the learner (ibid. 2001, p. 161).

Much has been said on what makes a truly communicative activity. For Johnson and Morrow (1981), communicative tasks share three characteristics: there exists an information gap that requires an exchange of data, there is a choice of form and content (generally absent in drills), and there is feedback from the other participants which makes the communication task purposeful. In CLT, students work with task-based materials in different configurations like pairs, small groups, triads and as a whole group to maximise interaction opportunities in the TL. Practising all four skills from the onset and attention to form are important, so CLT typically includes both meaning-focused activities with a stress on fluency (mistakes are part of the process) and form-focused exercises where accuracy is important. FL learning itself, however, is not the only goal of CLT. The use of authentic materials requires attention to sociolinguistic aspects such as the relevance of context, setting, genre, or roles. Varied language experiences and negotiation in CLT aim at providing students with intercultural and inter-linguistic awareness (Savignon, 2004, p. 128).

Communicative Language Teaching became immensely popular, giving rise to an array of alternative methods such as The Natural Approach, Content-Based Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning or Task-Based Language Teaching, which seek to engage the learners in meaningful communication. CLT "has spawned a number of offshoots that share the same basic set of principles, but which spell out philosophical details or envision instructional practices in somewhat diverse ways" (Rodgers, 2001, p. 2).

For decades, many considered CLT a total success and did not venture to challenge its claims. However, when initial enthusiasm began to fade, this "panacea" (Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado & Luque Agulló, 2005, p. 187) started to be questioned and criticised in what came to be known as the post-methodology or post-communicative era (cf. heading 2.11).

2.10. Task-Based Instruction

Often regarded as a strong form of the Communicative Approach, Task-Based Instruction (TBI) shares many traits with the former and has gained similar popularity. Although task-focused syllabus planning can be traced back to vocational training practices from as early as the 1950s, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) developed in the early 1980s. TBLT is an approach devised within a communicative framework and relies on tasks "as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 223).

TBLT, according to Jiménez-Raya (2008a), has been endorsed mainly by SLA researchers and other authors like Prabhu (1984), Willis (1996), Nunan (1989, 2004) or Van den Branden (2006), and it is characterised by its "use of authentic communication, attention to meaning, focus on form in meaning focused activities, inclusion of pragmatic properties, importance of interactional processes (...), integration of language

skills, and a strong connection to psycholinguistic processes" (Jiménez-Raya 2008a, p. 50). Subsequently, this scholar summarises the pedagogic principles underlying TBLT, namely, its attention to experiential learning and learner activity, the use of authentic materials, the focus on interaction as the main way of learning to communicate, its selection of tasks derived from needs analysis and the fact that TBLT connects classroom language learning with real language use in the real world.

As has already been introduced, many of the features outlined above are shared with CLT; in fact, researchers like Ellis (in Jiménez-Raya, 2008b, p. 5) consider TBLT as a “continuation” or “a strong form” of CLT. For Long and Crookes (1993, in Larsen-Freeman 2000, p. 146), the main difference between them is not the type of tasks but “the accompanying pedagogic focus on task completion instead of on the language used in the process”. Put differently, the focus of instruction is shifted from the practise of language functions to the communicative use of variegated forms to deal with a particular task.

Before we move forward in this summary of TBLT, it is necessary to clarify what is meant by task, as many different views have been offered since the appearance of TBLT. Nunan’s detailed definition is particularly worthy of mention:

“[T]he communicative task [is] a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The tasks should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right”.
(Nunan, 1989, p. 10)

For this author, there are mainly two types of tasks or processes which a TBLT syllabus may specify, namely, *real world tasks* (those practical and useful for life outside the classroom) and *pedagogical tasks* (those supported by SLA findings but without a necessary application in real life). In turn, Prabhu (1987) lists three types of activities: *information-gap*, *opinion-gap* and *reasoning-gap* activities (in Larsen-Freeman 2000, p. 148). With regards to syllabus design, several task-based alternatives to traditional

(often unsatisfactory) linguistically-based syllabi have been proposed. Instruction with grammatical syllabi imposes a sequence different from the learners' usual acquisition sequences. In the form-focused alternatives, attention to new features occurs when the learner is "psycholinguistically ready" because s/he has a "perceived need for the new item", as Long and Norris (2004, p. 599) put it. However, only a small number of TBLT syllabi have been applied on a large scale, and research on their methodological and learning implications is scarce, according to these authors. They mention the *process syllabus* by Breen (1984), the *procedural syllabus* (Prabhu, 1984), and the *task syllabus* (Long, 1985; Nunan, 1991; Skehan, 1998), among others.

As for the theoretical foundations of this approach, "TBLT is motivated primarily by a theory of learning rather than a theory of language" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 226). Below is a list of principles central to TBLT theory and of assumptions about the nature of language that may be inferred from TBLT approaches (Richards & Rodgers 2001, pp. 226-228):

- Language is primarily a means of making meaning.
- Multiple models of language inform task based instruction [...]
- Lexical units are central in language use and language learning [...]
- 'Conversation' is the central focus of language and the keystone of language acquisition.
- Tasks provide both the input and output processing necessary for language acquisition [...]
- Task activity and achievement are motivational.
- Learning difficulty can be negotiated and fine-tuned for particular pedagogical purposes.

In TBLT, teachers have a key role since they are responsible for selecting, sequencing and adapting the tasks to the learners' needs. They play an important part in preparing the students for the tasks through pre-tasks and instructions and in focusing the learners' attention on form within the meaning-focused activities. As for the students, their work implies adapting to participation in group work, monitoring task progress, paying attention to the forms used, creating, taking risks and negotiating meaning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, pp. 235- 236).

The TBLT approach has a great advantage on the grounds that having the goal of task completion allows for a more natural and meaning-focused use of the foreign language, a common trait with CLIL. However, one of the main risks of TBLT would be the production of "fluent but unchallenging or inaccurate language" as a result of prioritising meaning (Foster, 1999 p. 69). Finally, it should be noted that several aspects of this approach remain unjustified; for instance, the "proposed schemes for task types, task sequencing and evaluation of task performance" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 241) or the ideological assumption that it provides a greater foundation for teaching than other approaches.

2.11 Post-Method Approaches

It can be inferred from the methods and approaches presented so far that the history of foreign language instruction in the past century has been marked by the permanent search for better ways of teaching. This quest for a ready-made solution to FL teaching issues led educationists to embrace trendy methods or approaches soon substituted by newer and more promising ones that oftentimes proved to be equally short-lived. In the 1990s this notion of all-purpose methods for mainstream FL teaching was called into question due to its serious limitations. This meant the beginning of what has been termed "the post-methods era" (Richards & Rodgers 2001, p. 247) or as Ur (1996, p. 7) calls it, a "post-communicative" period.

2.11.1. Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) emerges within the new post-method context and is an approach that involves a great number of pair and small group activities. Despite having antecedents that go back over a century, CLL would be more regularly promoted from the 1960s and 1970s in the USA, coinciding with the forced integration

of public schools (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). CLL is heavily influenced by developmental psychology proponents Jean Piaget (1965) and Lev Vygotsky (1962), with social interaction being at the very core of this approach. Furthermore, with cooperatively structured tasks, “students learn step-by-step, functional interaction techniques at the same time the group spirit or trust is being built” (Christison & Bassano, 1981, p. xvi).

Cooperative Language Learning has been defined as “group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others” (Olsen & Kagan, 1992, p. 8). One of the principal tenets of CLL would be its group-focused procedures (as opposed to teacher-centred instruction). For this reason, it does not follow any particular syllabus, since CLL can be used for a wide range of curriculum orientations. As for the role of the learners, they are taught teamwork skills or interdependence and how to become responsible for their group’s and their own learning, which includes planning, monitoring and evaluating skills (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). They need to engage in the collaborative tasks at hand as actively as possible. In turn, the teacher becomes a facilitator by supporting the learners, supplying resources for a well-structured lesson, setting goals, organising well-functioning groups of heterogeneous proficiency levels, creating a safe learning environment and giving feedback. As can be seen, CLL places a considerable burden on the teacher; however, when it is successfully implemented, it has been found to greatly improve L2 acquisition. Based on Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado & Luque Agulló's summary (2005, p. 199), the principal assets of this learner-centred approach are now presented:

- The cooperative classroom encourages acquisition through improved input, output and context: these become more comprehensible, developmentally appropriate, functional, communicative and rich.
- CLL fosters motivation, positive attitudes, and an increase in self-esteem.
- It can be used for a great variety of tasks and types of syllabus material.

- It promotes learner autonomy, allowing pupils to act as resources for each other.
- CLL aids the development of critical thinking skills, cognitive strategy use and metacognitive awareness.
- It develops cross-cultural understanding.

Despite having been extensively evaluated and generally praised by many, CLL's shortcomings are no less considerable. The problems typically associated to this teaching approach include its inadequate use, limited input, excessive teacher workload, pupils' unwillingness to cooperate or their constant recourse to their mother tongue (ibid. 2005, p. 44). Other drawbacks such as CLL's limited development of problem-solving abilities or its reduced effectivity to teach more gifted students are usually mentioned as well.

2.11.2. The Lexical Approach

The Lexical Approach is conspicuous for the centre-stage role played by vocabulary and lexical items in foreign language learning and teaching. It maintains that chunks or multiword lexical units are central to language structure and are learned and used as single items. These word combinations, considered "the ideal unit which can be exploited for language learning" (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, p. 1), have also been termed "holophrases" by Corder (1973), "prefabricated patterns" by Hakuta (1974), "gambits" by Keller (1979), "speech formulae" by Peters (1983), or "lexicalized stems" by Pawley and Syder (1983) (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 132).

In the Lexical Approach, the aforementioned items, and not grammar, functions or notions, are viewed as the building blocks of language communication and language learning. Therefore, supporters of this approach like Nattinger (1980, p. 341) claim language teaching should be moulded by the assumption that producing language involves "piecing together the ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation and that comprehension relies on knowing which of these patterns to predict in these

situations". The most salient features of the Lexical Approach were summarized by Lewis (1997), its chief proponent. According to this author, grammar and vocabulary are intrinsically linked and collocations play an important organising role; he regards language as "grammaticalized-lexis, not lexicalized grammar" (Lewis, 1997, p. 23). Lastly, in this approach, successful language learning goes beyond the concept of accuracy and the traditional Present-Practice-Produce paradigm is substituted by a new Observe-Hypothesise-Experiment cycle.

Several approaches have been advanced which share this belief in the centrality of speech formulae, including *The Lexical Syllabus* by Willis (1990), *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching* by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) and *The Lexical Approach* by Lewis (1993). The former proposal (Willis 1990) crystallised in the ambitious, though not very successful, *Collins COBUILD English Course* (1989), a syllabus with accompanying materials based on the 700 most frequent words in English. In turn, the implementation of Lewis' *Lexical Approach* (1993) has been described by the author himself as involving "a big change in the teacher's understanding of language, but only small, consistent changes in the classroom" (Lewis, 1997, p. 13). He then provides a checklist of the content and methodology changes involved, concretely, paying less attention to grammar at sentence level and to decontextualised lexical items, and avoiding indiscriminate use of L2 with the pretext of following communicative practices. On the contrary, a greater focus should be given to the following elements:

- Lexis – different kinds of multi-word chunks
- Specific language areas not previously standard in many EFL texts
- Listening (at lower levels) and reading (at higher levels)
- Activities based on L1/L2 comparisons and translation
- The use of the dictionary as a resource for active learning
- Probable rather than possible English
- Organising learners' notebooks to reveal patterns and aid retrieval
- The language which learners may meet outside the classroom
- Preparing learners to get maximum benefit from text (Lewis, 1997, p. 15)

Many features of the Lexical Approach have been linked to the key principles of other proposals such as the Grammar-Translation, Krashen's Natural Approach, Audiolingualism, or Communicative Language Teaching. Even CLIL draws on the Lexical Approach to some extent, as it encourages pupils to notice language while reading. Finally, it should be noted that, despite having had its status enhanced by recent theoretical improvements and work in corpus analysis, reputed scholars like Richards and Rodgers claim the Lexical Approach lacks a "full characterisation" and its application "remains to be convincingly demonstrated" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 138).

2.11.3. Neurolinguistic Programming

Another very popular post-method approach is Neurolinguistic Programming (henceforth NLP). First and foremost, it must be taken into account that NLP is not a language teaching method but a humanistic philosophy and a set of beliefs and suggestions based on popular psychology (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 130). NLP was conceived in the 1970s by Richard Bandler (psychologist) and John Grindler (professor of linguistics) by observing how successful people think, act and interact in order to discover the similarities underlying those behaviours. Their aim was to create a system of techniques to teach others how to improve themselves and achieve that success. Revell and Norman (1997, in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 125) see NLP as "a collection of techniques, patterns and strategies for assisting effective communication, personal growth and change, and learning" or as "a means of achieving intra-personal and inter-personal excellence".

The name Neurolinguistic Programming may seem misleading since NLP has nothing to do with neurolinguistic theory or the field of linguistics. *Neuro* refers only to beliefs about how the brain functions and *linguistic* has to do with a particular theory of communication. As for the *programming* part of the term, it implies flexibility and change. NLP claims it is possible to reprogramme our brains' usual responses by

manipulating the inner pictures, voices and feelings involved in all decision-making (Norman, 2004, p. 441). NLP “heightens self-awareness and sensitises its user to some of the complexity of other people, to their conscious and unconscious wishes, to their ways of seeing and knowing the world, to many things they may not even consciously know about themselves”, according to Baker and Rinvoluceri (2005, p. 4).

Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 127) mention four principal tenets of NLP theory, namely, *outcomes* (the belief that knowing our goals helps us achieve them), *rapport* (the empathy that allows successful communication), *sensory acuity* (a careful observation of what others are communicating) and *flexibility* (being able to choose from a range of skills and techniques can benefit the way we act). However, in order to paint a fuller picture of Neurolinguistic Programming, we must specify the different presuppositions that guide this philosophy regardless of the teaching method particular teachers may choose. Revell and Norman (1997, in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 127) list the following assumptions of NLP:

- 1) Mind and body are interconnected; they are part of the same system, and each affects the other.
- 2) The map is not the territory: we all have different maps of the world.
- 3) There is no failure, only feedback and a renewed opportunity for success.
- 4) The map becomes the territory: what you believe to be true either is true or becomes true.
- 5) Knowing what you want helps you get it.
- 6) The resources we need are within us.
- 7) Communication is non- verbal as well as verbal.
- 8) The non-conscious mind is benevolent.
- 9) Communication is unconscious as well as conscious.
- 10) All behavior has a positive intention.
- 11) The meaning of my communication is the response I get.
- 12) Modeling excellent behavior leads to excellence.
- 13) In any system, the element with the greatest flexibility will have the most influence on that system.

(Revell & Norman, 1997, in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 127)

Finally, it should be highlighted that, although NLP was not developed with language teaching in mind, its humanistic principles are in line with many person-centred views of language teaching. It has direct relevance and can be beneficial in various aspects because, by focusing on the intentionality behind words, it adds other dimensions to FL learning. The approach makes instructors aware of the variegated learning styles in the classroom, allowing them to suit a wider range of students, and the personal improvement aspect present in NLP can enhance teaching skills in general. Also, certain activities specific to NLP can teach students communicative skills and how to learn more effectively; for instance, with the NLP spelling technique which involves visualising words (Norman, 2004, p. 442).

2.11.4. Multiple Intelligence Theory

Differently from the FL methods illustrated so far, the theory characterised under this new heading would revolutionise the way we understand intelligence and how we approach education. Multiple Intelligences (MI) is a theory by psychologist Howard Gardner, who wrote in 1983 his book entitled *Frames of Mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. MI is a “learner-based philosophy that characterises human intelligence as having multiple dimensions that must be acknowledged and developed in education” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 115). Initially conceived as a contribution to cognitive science, the notion of intelligence as a cluster of mental abilities (in lieu of the traditional single-dimensioned inborn capacity) has become increasingly appealing to educators in the past few years. Put differently, Gardner's pioneering research demonstrates that "there is no such thing as a simple unitary mental capability that can be called intelligence", but there is rather a "broader spectrum of human capabilities" beyond the linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences typically measured by IQ tests (Puchta, 2005, p. 5). Gardner's eight intelligences can be characterised as follows (Tanner, 2001; Tejada-Molina, Pérez Cañado & Luque Agulló, 2005; Puchta, 2005):

1. *Intrapersonal intelligence* focuses inward and involves self-knowledge and the capacity of understanding our own feelings. It also enables us to reflect on and learn from our experiences. Individuals who are strong in this intelligence may seem absent-minded but are generally involved in deep thinking. They tend to be regarded as introverts since they need their alone-time, periods of certain inactivity and do not enjoy excessive socialisation.
2. *Interpersonal intelligence* implies sensitivity to the feelings, moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions of others. People-smart individuals, as they are commonly known, are very skillful at working with others and listening effectively.
3. *Logical-Mathematical intelligence* is the capability of recognising, sorting and analysing logical or numerical patterns. This scientific thinking is employed in the analytical part of problem-solving, to establish connections and relationships between separate pieces of information.
4. *Linguistic intelligence* has been associated with the creative use and appreciation of language. It is intimately related to form and has to do with being sensitive to sounds, rhythms, and meanings of words. Literature, engaging in conversations or linguistic jokes, for instance, can be a source of pleasure for language-smart individuals.
5. *Musical intelligence* is about having a good ear for music. It is the ability to perceive, appreciate, and produce rhythm, tone, pitch, volume, intensity, and direction of sound.
6. *Spatial intelligence* means having a three-dimensional relational sense, i.e., good perception of space, visual capacity and sense of orientation. It enables those who have highly developed spatial awareness to think in pictures and to see things in relationship to others.
7. *Bodily-Kinaesthetic intelligence* involves having good coordination and the ability to move our body and handle objects with precision in highly differentiated and expressive ways. There is a set of often unconscious skills that allow certain people like athletes, dancers or artisans to excel at sports, physical expression or crafts.
8. *Naturalist intelligence* refers to the ability of certain people to be connected to nature, its rhythms and changes, and having the capacity to understand, organise and categorise the natural world.

MI theory fosters teachers' awareness of the distinct intelligences present in classroom settings so they are taken into account in lesson planning and teaching. It is believed that catering to the diversity of intelligences among their learners will help them reach their full potential. To this intent, authors like Christison (1997, p. 7-8) offer tables with examples of classroom activities that tap into each particular type of intelligence. Here is a selection of examples for some of the mental abilities:

- Linguistic intelligence: Wordgames, books, storytelling, debates.
- Logical/Mathematical intelligence: Logic problems and puzzles, calculations.
- Spatial intelligence: Maps, diagrams, visualization, graphic organizers.
- Bodily/Kinesthetic intelligence: Creative movement, mime, cooking.
- Musical intelligence: Playing recorded or live music, singing.
- Interpersonal intelligence: Cooperative groups, peer teaching, pair work.
- Intrapersonal intelligence: Independent student work and projects, reflective learning.

There are no goals stated for Multiple Intelligence teaching in linguistic terms and no syllabus as such, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 118). Far from being prescriptive, this increasingly popular approach aims at giving instructors "a complex mental model from which to construct curriculum and improve themselves as educators" (Campbell, 1997, p. 19). When our concept of intelligence goes beyond that of a single general ability, this translates into better adapting lessons to the learners by catering for the naturally present diversity of intelligences in the classroom.

2.11.5. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

In the last few decades, information and communications technology (ICT) has become an important part of our lives and this has not only affected the way we work, study or use our leisure time, but has also changed the way we communicate with others and understand the world. Foreign language teaching too has embraced technology in the

form of an approach termed Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). This approach to language teaching and learning uses computer technology "as an aid to the presentation, reinforcement and assessment of material to be learned, usually including a substantial interactive element" (Davies, 2004, p. 90).

The history of CALL dates back to the early 1960s and it has been divided by Warschauer (1996) into three main stages, as described in detail by Pérez-Gutiérrez and Pérez-Torres (2005). Below we offer a brief summary of the mentioned periods in the history of CALL:

1. *Behaviourist CALL*: The early days of CALL were linked to the Audiolingual Approach and behaviourist theories and, consequently, the programmes and activities developed were of the *drill and practice* type. The mainframe computer, which supported hundreds of terminals using the system simultaneously, could only be afforded by universities at the time. The programs consisted of grammar and vocabulary tutorials together with activities centred on form and repetition and corrected by the computer, which acted as a mechanical tutor.
2. *Communicative CALL*: In the 1980s, the access to personal computers changed the scenario completely. Simultaneously, cognitivist theories replaced behaviourism, emphasising the importance of mental processes; this was linked to the relevance of interactive and dynamic communicative methods. Programs thus became more interactive and varied. Word processors, spellcheckers, text reconstruction, concordancing or simulation programs are good examples of this phase.
3. *Integrative CALL*: This last stage emerged in the 1990s. The term integrative CALL refers to how new advances in multimedia and the Internet allow the integration of different skills (e.g. listening or reading) and of authentic communication. The pedagogical theories underlying this phase come from sociocognitivism and constructivism, stressing the importance of the learning process and communicative interaction.

Due to its technological nature, CALL is an ever-changing approach and, by the same token, a challenging one for teachers in terms of keeping up-to-date with the latest trends. However, as O'Dell puts it, "our professional armoury is strengthened by its techniques, just as it has been strengthened by the best techniques of all the approaches that have informed language teaching in the past" (2004, p. 6). All in all, it cannot be denied that CALL appears to very much motivate learners and ameliorate teaching, since technology already plays a central role in the lives of the new generations.

2.12. Conclusion

Throughout Chapter 2 we have attempted to characterise in some detail the main FL teaching methods and post-method approaches that have shaped the teaching of languages from the days of the Grammar-Translation method to the present. By canvassing the evolution of the history of FL teaching and learning, we have come closer to what constitutes our main focus of attention: the birth of Content and Language Integrated Learning.

Resuming the initial controversy about the best way to teach a language, the rise and fall of the many methods described should, at least, cast some doubt about the suitability of following a single method. Education is now process-oriented and, therefore, it is considered much more than training. In this post-method era, knowledge does not belong to a teacher acting as a mere disseminator or sender, but to the students as well, who have evolved from passive receivers to critical thinkers (Shakouri-Masouleh, 2012). New pedagogies advocate for dynamic approaches to language teaching and depart from static principles or fixed frameworks. For Brown (2002, p. 11), "the interaction between one's approach and classroom practice is a key to dynamic teaching".

According to Salmani-Nodousha (2006), the concept of a good or bad method per se is misguided, as is the search for an inherently best method. In this vein, Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló (2005, p. 190) express that SLA research and past experiences have taught us enough “so as to practice a cautious eclecticism or integrated approach”, which is key, given that “language teaching cannot be satisfactorily conceptualized in terms of teaching method alone” (Stern 1983, p. 474).

For post-methodologists, the notion of method has thus become obsolete due to four key reasons: methods cannot be followed in their purest form in the classroom, they are very limited and never applied universally, the types of activities and techniques employed are prescribed or pre-planned, and finally the teacher role is marginalized when s/he submits herself or himself to the method (Akbari, 2008). Stern (1983, p. 75) ultimately encourages self-reflection to “explore to what extent our second language teaching has been influenced by our own language learning and language teaching experience”. By so doing, teachers should be able to know which methods, in plural, fit better in each particular classroom context.

CHAPTER 3

CLIL ORIGINS AND CHARACTERISATION

3.1. Origins of CLIL: Bilingual Approaches Preceding CLIL

Following our revision of key foreign language teaching methods, Chapter 3 will begin with a reflection on bilingualism, followed by a focus on relevant bilingual education models preceding and influencing the birth of Content and Language Integrated Learning. The term CLIL is exceedingly flexible and encompasses over a dozen educational approaches (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008), including partial and total immersion, bilingual and multilingual education, language showers or enriched language programmes, among many others. A detailed examination of them all, however, would be beyond the scope of the present dissertation and, therefore, we will focus mainly on immersion programmes in Canada and the diverse models of bilingual education in the United States as the main predecessors of CLIL instruction. After framing CLIL against the backdrop of the aforementioned models, an in-depth characterisation of CLIL will be provided. Chapter 3 will address the current controversy around the definition of this term and will delve into its rationale, main traits, assets and pitfalls.

3.1.1 Definition of Bilingual Education, Bilingualism and Plurilingualism

The term Bilingual Education (BE) has a wide range of meanings, according to Baker (2004a, p. 79), but is most commonly employed “where two languages are used to transmit the curriculum”. In turn, Navés (2009, p. 4) defines bilingual education as “any use of two languages in school – by teachers or students or both – for a variety of social and pedagogical purposes”. Language methodology in bilingual education is thus varied and, according to Baker (2004a, p. 79), it “concerns the way in which languages are kept separate (e.g. by subject, person and time allocations) or are integrated (e.g. concurrent use of both languages in a lesson)”. There are multifarious classifications of bilingual education models, but before describing them or focusing on any particular implementation, we must first attempt to define what bilingualism is.

With respect to bilingualism, we are plagued with a plethora of definitions, and thus, characterising bilingualism is no easy task. For instance, Bloomfield's definition of bilinguals as "those who have native-like competence in both languages" is disputed by Baker, who considers that it is "too restrictive and fails to reflect the reality of language life in bilinguals", since balanced bilinguals are rare (Baker, 2004b, p. 82). Lam's definition, in contrast, is more general and open. For him, bilingualism "refers to the phenomenon of competence and communication in two languages" (2001, p. 93). But how are we to delimit what competence means or involves? Not all bilinguals are equally proficient in both languages; in fact, their classifications are manifold, according to Tejada-Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque-Agulló (2005, p. 204). Where bilingualism is considered as a continuum of abilities, *balanced bilinguals* are those who have the same competence in both languages, while *dominant bilinguals* are more skilled in one of them. Regarding their use, *coordinated bilinguals* can use both languages in the same situations, whereas *compound bilinguals* associate each language to a different context. In addition, there are *early* and *late* and *simultaneous* and *consecutive bilinguals*, depending on when and in which order they learn each language. With respect to socio-cultural factors, if in the process of becoming a bilingual the individual develops negative attitudes towards her/his L1, s/he becomes a *subtractive bilingual*. However, if those attitudes are positive, then s/he can be denominated an *additive bilingual*.

From such a complex characterisation, it transpires that underpinning bilingual education with a single definition would prove an impossible task (Horwitz, 2005). Nevertheless, one thing is clear: there exists an overwhelming amount of research confirming that "literacy-related skills transfer across languages as bilingual development progresses through the school years". Furthermore, scholars have coined terms such as plurilingualism and translanguaging to refer to "the dynamic nature of bilingual and multilingual cognitive processing" (Cummins, 2007, p. 112). In other words, the notion of languages as separate compartments in the learners' minds is undoubtedly outdated, since it was challenged as early as 1978 by Cummins' language interdependence hypothesis (see section 3.2.4.3 on the role of language). Moreover, in

2001, the Council of Europe put forward the construct of plurilingualism to point out the "dynamically integrated and intersecting nature of bilingual and plurilingual individuals' linguistic repertoires, which include unevenly developed competencies in a variety of languages, dialects, and registers" (2001, p. 601).

In this sense, research has proved that certain factors associated to the first and second language of the pupils have a bearing on additional language learning, a key issue to consider given the multilingual setting of the present investigation, which includes students' attainment in the mother tongue, the regional language and the foreign language (Spanish, Valencian and English). Among the influencing factors most frequently listed are the pupils' mastery of their mother tongue and L2 (prior bilingualism), their proficiency in the additional language (in our study L3 or FL), the linguistic distance between those languages (crosslinguistic similarities have mostly positive consequences), the minority or majority status of the pupils' L1 in the community and societal attitudes towards it (San Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2018; Jarvis, 2015). Such transfer of L1 and L2 literacy skills to the development of an additional language, according to San Isidro & Lasagabaster (2018), has been well-documented with regards to the acquisition of vocabulary, phonology, grammatical competence, reading and speaking by research studies like those conducted by Proctor et al. (2006), Harrison and Kroll (2007), MacWhinney (2002), Lindsey, Manis and Bailey (2003) or Nakamoto, Lindsey and Manis (2008), respectively.

Moreover, Jarvis (2015) asserts that plurilingual students exhibit enhanced metalinguistic awareness or sensitivity towards the inner workings of language as a system; a prior knowledge that opens their mind and helps them in their selection of more fitting learning strategies when faced with the challenges of additional language learning:

(T)he acquisition of two or more languages appears to result in a number of enhanced cognitive abilities that are either directly or indirectly beneficial to later language learning. These abilities include attentional control, processing efficiency, language awareness (including an

awareness of crosslinguistic similarities), and, generally speaking, the ability to solve problems creatively and flexibly. (Jarvis, 2015, p. 73)

3.1.2 Bilingual Education in Canada

Now that the concept of bilingualism has been broached, we are ready to begin our revision of the main bilingual education models influencing the birth of CLIL, starting with the case of Canada. Canada is considered the pioneer of immersion programmes, starting with the St. Lambert experiment in the mid-1960s. The experiment initiated a trend of "carefully controlled and well-analysed immersion education" (Baker, 1988, p. 93) that would soon expand to other parts of Canada and to Europe. The early methodological lessons brought about by the Canadian experience with immersion programmes proved extremely influential for the European CLIL approach a few years later. These Canadian schemes have been portrayed by authors like Genesee as "the most interesting and effective innovation in second language education during the last three decades" (1994, p. 1). Furthermore, Navés (2009, p. 22) qualifies the above-mentioned Canadian experience as "the most highly acclaimed" and the programmes as "extremely efficient and successful".

Immersion in bilingual Canada started as a reaction to traditional courses, among other factors, and endeavoured to provide English-speaking middle-class children with high-level proficiency in French, required for high societal positions (Järvinen, 2006). The general aims and methods of immersion education reviewed by Baker (1988, p. 96) can be summarised as follows:

- Immersion education is not compulsory but optional.
- All or most school subjects are taught in the L2.
- L1 use is allowed for up to one year and a half in the classroom and is not discouraged in other school areas.

- Teachers are bilingual but initially appear unable to speak the L1.
- Immersion and non-immersion students experience the same syllabus.
- Classroom communication in the L2 must be meaningful, authentic, as opposed to contrived. Mirroring L1 acquisition, the focus is placed on content with an apparently incidental L2 learning.
- The stress is placed on comprehension skills (listening with understanding) before production skills (speaking with understanding).
- Learners start the immersion programme with equal lack of competency in the L2.

From a legislative perspective, the *Official Languages Act* endorses the aforementioned immersion movement. This Canadian law awards English and French equal status as official languages. It came into force in 1969 and, after some amendments in 1988, the Official Languages Act remains the fundamental law of Canada's official bilingualism. Beaty (1989, as cited in Burnaby 2008) reviewed the chief programmes supporting the above-mentioned act as encouraging “a more general climate of respect and support for Canada's official languages in other jurisdictions and in Canadian society as a whole” by:

1. Supporting minority groups [English in Québec and French elsewhere] in their attempts to achieve provincial recognition of their legal rights and their special linguistic needs.
2. Fostering and helping to finance minority language education.
3. Giving similar financial encouragement to the effective learning of English and French as a second language country-wide.
4. Supporting the efforts of national, private and voluntary organizations to develop their own capacity to do business in both official languages. (ibid. 2008, p. 333)

Canadian French immersion was thus developed with the aim of strengthening bilingualism in the country and its popularity can be attributed to a “simultaneous grassroots and top-down pressure” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 7), i.e., the failure of traditional French language programmes and the Prime Minister's target of preserving national unity between French and English speakers. Hence “immersion in

schools served as a pragmatic response to a linguistic and cultural problem” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 8).

Regarding the actual implementation of the immersion model, it should be noted that the distribution of languages in these early programmes was based on trial and error. The weekly hours of target language teaching (French) were gradually increased until the objective was met with half of the curriculum being taught in French (Järvinen 2006). The following figures characterise the distribution of immersion types and their intensity (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007, p. 4):

| Age of first French instruction | |
|--|--|
| Immersion type | Age of first French instruction |
| Early | 5-6 years old |
| Delayed or middle | 9-10 years old |
| Late | 11-14 years old |

Table 1. Age of first French instruction (Canadian Immersion)

| Immersion Type | First 3 years | Subsequent years |
|-----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| Total | 100% | Decrease from 80% to 40% |
| Partial | 50% | 50% |

Table 2. Intensity of French instruction (Canadian Immersion)

The effectiveness of this variety of approaches (early partial, early total, delayed and late immersion) was reviewed by Baker (1988, pp. 103-104). According to this scholar, immersion programmes did not have a detrimental effect on L1 or on content subjects learnt through L2 and, although it is true that early partial and late immersion pupils might temporarily fall behind, this lag was rectifiable. When intensity and immersion types were considered, it was revealed that early immersion pupils typically outstripped late immersion students, and total immersion groups obtained better results than partial immersion ones, thus suggesting that the intensity variable may be more relevant than length of exposure. Finally, the author highlights that native-like bilingualism did not result from these schemes, although immersion students were superior to pupils following ‘drip-fed’ or ‘core’ programmes in terms of the L2 proficiency attained.

From the immersion experience, the main lesson we have learnt “is that second language instruction that is integrated with instruction in academic or other content matter is a more effective approach to teaching second languages than methods that teach the second language in isolation”, as stated by Genesee (1994, p. 2). This author affirms there is consistent research showing that the functional proficiency in French of immersion students surpasses that of students following all other forms of second language instruction. In this integrated approach, language teaching is rooted in a context where the goal is not faultless grammar but meaningful communication geared at academic success, a fact that makes language learning especially motivating and purposeful. Krashen’s (1985) *Input Hypothesis*, which claims that rich comprehensible input is the main requirement for language acquisition to occur, is considered a cornerstone in the theoretical background of immersion (cf. section 2.7). In this vein, according to Järvinen (2006), immersion contexts constitute optimal learning environments for testing this hypothesis. Here, students are surrounded by copious amounts of input that match and in part exceed their competence level, something necessary for new learning to take place. Furthermore, in this case, input has meaningful content, as it is drawn from school subjects’ syllabi (Järvinen, 2006, p. 4).

Nevertheless, despite the widespread acceptance of the Input Hypothesis, its shortcomings were soon criticised by Swain. This Canadian researcher pinpointed a number of general deficiencies of immersion (1990, pp. 69-76), which are summarised below:

- Development of production skills is not fostered: Content teaching does not require complex production on the part of the learner (short and simple answers are generally accepted).
- It lacks focus on form: Content teaching only concentrates on meaning and does not allow for pedagogic intervention regarding form. This is rooted on the assumption that, if learners receive relevant and meaningful input, learning will naturally ensue.
- It is functionally restricted: Certain uses of the language may not be practised naturally due to contextual limitations, of place and interlocutors.
- Selective listening may occur, since processing of form is not encouraged and the focus is only placed on meaning. When selective listening happens, pupils do not analyse forms or functions, which tends to restrict their learning.

The first weakness listed above acquires a particularly sharp relief considering the available evidence. It has been suggested that in immersion, productive skills, specifically at intermediate level, develop less successfully than do comprehension skills, and errors tend to fossilise. In other words, receptive language may adequately develop with rich input, but it appears that accurate language production requires more explicit instruction (Järvinen 2006). As a reaction to such a conspicuous fault, Swain formulated the *Output Hypothesis* in the 1980s to highlight the weaknesses of a teaching methodology that exclusively provides input without requiring complex verbal production. In this line, Järvinen (2006, p.5) explains that “demanding spoken activities challenge and stretch the speaker’s limits of language ability and force the learner’s interlingua to develop”.

Although it is true that the specific socio-pedagogical circumstances of Canadian schools may hinder the application of this type of instruction in other contexts, there are

definitely some lessons to be learnt from Canada. According to Baker (1988, p.111), transporting immersion education across continents would entail considering various constraints. The main elements which, according to this author, may condition its success or failure include the teachers' commitment to immersion as a key to form a multicultural and multilingual society; in this sense, the child's home language must be respected (not merely tolerated) and allowed in the classroom until natural communication in the L2 is achieved. The successful completion of this goal depends on the teaching methodology followed (which should be carefully planned and challenge traditional practices of formal teaching) and requires groups of pupils with homogenous L2 skills. Lastly, Baker (1988, p. 111) underscores the importance of research and innovation to keep all participants informed and points out that these programmes should not be compulsory but optional, since the stakeholders' opinions play a role in the learner's motivation and attainment.

3.1.3 Evolution of Bilingual Education in North America (CBI)

While Canadian immersion programmes originated from a necessity to strengthen the national unity by promoting a bilingual country, North American bilingual education has traditionally been geared at transforming a multilingual society into a monoglot one. Historically, regarding multilingualism, the United States has been a willing receptacle of immigration and has welcomed peoples of varied origins (Polish, Spanish, German, French, Italian, Irish, Dutch, Greek, Japanese). Up until World War I, linguistic diversity was respected and encouraged through religion, the media and schools; however, between the two World Wars there would be a shift to American Nationalism (Sánchez-Torres, 2014).

In the early 20th century, according to Baker (2011), attitudes towards linguistic minorities changed and diversity was discouraged. He points at different factors like the steady rise of immigrants enrolled in public schools, which called for their integration and assimilation. Soon, the 1906 Nationality Act would require immigrants to be able to

speak English in order to be naturalised as US citizens. In his overview of the origins of bilingual education in this country, Baker (1988, pp. 79-81) mentions how in 1919, the Americanization Division, Bureau of Education (Department of the Interior) requested every state to prescribe that all public and private schools use only instruction in English at Elementary level. As President Roosevelt himself said in 1917: “It would be not merely a misfortune but a crime to perpetuate differences of language in this country (...)” (Roosevelt, 1917, p. 73). Likely causes for this shift from multilingualism to linguistic intolerance are the start of World War I in 1917 and the spread of the anti-German feeling it brought about. The dream of a unitary and homogeneous America with common aims, attitudes and values transformed that previous willing receptacle of immigration into a melting pot and, thus, acculturation and assimilation ensued. It was believed that a common language was not only a way to unite society, but the first step towards a healthy nation with shared ideals.

In the mid-20th century, a lively debate was generated, spurred on by the success of the Russian space programme, about the American educational system and the ability of the US to compete in the new international context. Alternative viewpoints started to develop, fuelled by the Civil Rights movement, its concern about disadvantaged groups and interest in linguistic minorities. Consequently, in 1963, Bilingual Education was restored in the US with the creation of the first modern school following a Two-way or *Dual Language Immersion* programme in Dade County, South Florida (Coral Way Elementary School), with the aim of maintaining the mother tongue of a group of Cuban exiles.

Soon, another landmark was achieved: the passing of the *Bilingual Education Act* (Title VII of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act*) in 1968, a national policy that would support transitional bilingual education for 34 years (Crawford, 2002). The Act received much support and funding from the central government and was seen as remedial attention to disadvantaged groups. However, the use of minorities’ home language was not perceived as an end in itself, a language worthy of being maintained, but as a mere tool to secure a transition to majority language education.

In 1970, a lawsuit brought about another milestone in US bilingual education. A group of Chinese students sued the San Francisco School District on the grounds that non-English-speaking students did not receive the same educational opportunities in monolingual English classroom settings as native speakers, since they were instructed in a language they could not understand. Although initially rejected at a federal level, the Supreme Court would later accept the lawsuit. Its verdict found English submersion programmes unlawful, and their failure to provide BE, a violation of the students' right for equal educational opportunities. A need was acknowledged to broaden the aims of BE in order to cater for the needs of students with limited proficiency in English, which resulted in the nationwide *Lau remedies*. These remedies attracted a fair amount of funding and advanced the use of minority languages in schools, although generally in the weak form of transitional bilingual education.

In the 1980s, BE in the US appeared to take a step back as several movements against minority language education such as *English First* or *US English* gained momentum. During the Reagan administration in 1984 and 1988, there was a widespread view that BE supported “separatism, divisions in society and minority group political and economic self-interest” (Baker, 1988, p. 81). The resulting policy changes would reverse the advances in BE that took place in the previous two decades. Proposals for the revision of the Lau remedies were withdrawn, regulations to help their implementation were cancelled and there were severe funding cuts. Instead, the Reagan and Bush Senior administrations fostered traditional monolingual education, submersion and weak forms of transitional bilingual education.

A relevant change in legislation occurred in the 1990s, when several laws in favour of BE were passed: *Goals 2000*, *Educate America Act* and *Improving America Act* (1994). The latter has been regarded as a reauthorisation of Title VII (1968) and it included an additional provision of funds for groups of students with limited English proficiency or LEP (generally immigrants). It is acknowledged that these students must be provided with a more appealing and challenging curriculum with suitable instruction strategies in order for them to achieve high academic standards. This translates into a broader view

of BE, from a narrow language-focused perspective to one that questions standards and the quality of education offered to linguistic minorities. These amendments resulted in greater economic support for Two-way bilingual programmes. In the following years, however, BE became very unpopular and attracted much criticism from politicians, the media and the general public. There was a great deal of pressure to restrict BE and in 1998, when *Proposition 227* in California was passed (soon followed by Arizona and Massachusetts), it came close to extinction. Funds were drastically reduced and BE was substituted with *Structured English Immersion (SEI)* or *Sheltered English* programmes (Sánchez-Torres, 2014).

In 2001 came the new federal legislation *No Child Left Behind (NCLB)*, a large school reform measure that would further deteriorate the state of BE in the country. With the new law, instruction takes place mainly in English and LEP students become a competency of their state, district and school. NCLB does not contemplate bilingualism or the maintenance or development of the students' home language.

Today, foreign language instruction in the United States is still not compulsory either at elementary or secondary levels, and adult needs for BE are weak in this sense as well, since few American corporations demand foreign language use. Consequently, and as evinced by the historical evolution of BE summarised above, this country has been more concerned with the influx of non-English-speaking immigrants and the assimilation of their children into an English-only educational system than with the promotion of true bilingualism. In other words, the reality targeted by most Bilingual Education programmes in the US is the special language needs of LEP students and not the development of foreign language skills in English natives.

This brief review evinces the constant ups and downs of BE implementation in the US. Every step forward in the evolution of this controversial subject appears to have been followed by a major step back. Several authors have tried to explain the political, social and cultural ideologies that continue to undermine BE in this country. In Crawford's view:

English-only agitation has made bilingual schooling a lightning rod for political attacks from those concerned about immigration policy, cultural change, and the expansion of minority rights. Debating the best way to teach English to children becomes a form of shadow boxing that has less to do with pedagogical issues than with questions of social status and political power. (Crawford, 2001, p. 19)

The anti-bilingual education cause started as a combination of popular misunderstandings about bilingualism and highly misleading and erroneous research evidence, according to May (2008). This scholar mentions two particularly flawed US government-sponsored studies in the 1970s and 1980s (May, 2008, pp. 26-29) which called into question the effectiveness of BE and exerted enormous influence on subsequent federal US policy. The first of these major studies was an evaluation of BE programmes by the American Institutes for Research (AIR), commissioned by the United States Office of Education in 1970s. It offered an overview of US federally-funded bilingual programmes and found that these did enhance native-like proficiency but had no significant impact on educational achievement in English language. Baker and de Kanter (1983), in another US federally-commissioned research study, came broadly to the same conclusions. Their literature review established that pupils in bilingual programmes showed no clear educational advantages when compared to those in English-only programmes (May, 2008). This programme was much criticised for being methodologically flawed. For instance, Baker and de Kanter (1983) rejected the use of all data gathered and failed to account for the fact that most students of the English-only strand had previously been in bilingual programmes. Willig (1987) confirmed the general inadequacy of this study via subsequent meta-analyses of its data, controlling for up to 183 variables that Baker and de Kanter had not taken into account. Furthermore, as May (2008, pp. 26-29) explains, both reports simply accumulate all results without distinguishing between the wide array of BE approaches. Consequently, the less effective early-exit bilingual programmes (the vast majority) inevitably subsumed the typically better educational results obtained by the late-exit programmes. On the other hand, two subsequent major longitudinal BE research studies did support the effectiveness of BE in additive bilingual contexts. Ramírez, Yuen and Ramey (1991), and Thomas and Collier (2002) factored in the pertinent variables and

differentiated between the variegated approaches of BE. The former compared English-only programmes with early-exit and late-exit bilingual programmes, over the course of four years. Their data showed that students in late-exit bilingual programmes with consistent L1 development made the greatest progress. The former analysed the long-term academic achievement of BE students over the course of five years. The bilingual programmes examined included five types: full immersion programmes, Two-way programmes, transitional bilingual education programmes, ESL, and mainstream submersion programmes. Thomas and Collier (2002) found that the most effective programmes led to higher attainment levels for bilingual students than those obtained in mainstream classes by the monolingual cohorts. These researchers ascertained that “the strongest predictor of student achievement in L2 was the amount of formal L1 schooling they experienced. (...) Only One-way and Two-way or Dual Immersion programmes—strong bilingual/ immersion programmes in effect—achieved these results” (Thomas & Collier 2002, p. 7).

Other notorious advocates for BE like Krashen (2006) or Greene (1998) underscore the fact that politicians and the general public tend to underestimate how BE can accelerate English language development. Greene carried out a statistical combination of 11 studies of bilingual programmes in 13 different states. The researcher found that LEP students instructed “using at least some of their native language perform significantly better on standardized tests than similar children who are taught only in English” (Greene, 1998, p. 1). In this vein, Cazabón, Nicoladis and Lambert (1998) analysed eight years of the *Amigos* Two-way immersion programme, a bilingual-bicultural experience in Massachusetts. They concluded that “immigrant students can better learn and master English if they are simultaneously permitted to develop or maintain a high degree of literacy in their native language” (1998, p. 18).

Some years later, Krashen and McField (2005) performed a meta-analysis on the research literature on the topic obtaining stable results. The study showed that pupils in bilingual programmes typically perform better in English reading assessments than those in all-English programmes. Krashen explains that BE helps English in two ways:

First, teaching subject matter in the child's first language provides knowledge, which helps the child understand instruction when it is presented in English. (...) The second way bilingual education accelerates English is by providing literacy development in the first language, which is a short cut to English literacy. (...) The ability to read transfers rapidly across languages. (Krashen, 2006, p. 1)

It is evident that valid scientific studies for bilingual education clearly outweigh research evidence against it. Pérez-Cañado (2012, p. 3) confirms their abundance and claims that they “attest to the success of these programmes at the linguistic, subject content, cognitive and attitudinal levels”.

3.1.4. A Taxonomy of Content-Based Instruction

As has just been ascertained, Canada and the United States, despite being neighbouring countries, possess divergent philosophies regarding language and culture. Immersion in Canada seeks to celebrate and encourage its bilingual and multicultural language heritage by creating bilinguals from monoglot pupils (Baker, 1988, p. 108). Although greatly influenced by successful Canadian programmes, the US has traditionally regarded BE more as a transitional step towards the assimilation of language minorities into monoglot English education, the aim being the search of common goals and values, not plurality.

These alternative forms of bilingual education can be generally encompassed within the paradigm of Content-Based Instruction (CBI). In this line, CBI “is commonly perceived as a flexible operational framework for language instruction, with a heterogeneity of prototype models and application options available for different contexts and pedagogical needs” (Dueñas, 2004, p. 75). More concretely, the term CBI has been defined as a second language teaching approach where “teaching is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 204). CBI is not a completely new approach, as this meaning-focused paradigm has proponents as early as St.

Augustine back in the Middle Ages: "Once things are known, knowledge of words follows [...] we cannot hope to learn words we do not know unless we have grasped their meaning. This is not achieved by listening to the words, but by getting to know the things signified" (St. Augustine, 60, XI as cited in Kelly, 1969, p. 36).

In all CBI programmes, approaches and models, pupils engage in some way with content by means of a non-native language, according to Met (1999, p. 4). This author places these instructional approaches on a useful continuum after breaking down the main characteristics of content-driven and language-driven experiences:

| Content-Driven | Language-Driven |
|--|---|
| - Content is taught in L2. | -Content is used to learn L2 |
| - Content learning is priority | -Language learning is priority |
| - Language learning is Secondary | -Content learning is incidental |
| - Content objectives determined by course goals or curriculum. | -Language objectives determined by L2 course goals or curriculum. |
| - Teachers must select language objectives. | -Students evaluated on content to be integrated. |
| - Students evaluated on content mastery. | -Students evaluated on language skills/proficiency. |

Table 3. Content-driven and language-driven experiences (Met, 1999, pp. 2-4)

| Content-Driven | | | Language-Driven | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------|---------------------|---|
| Total Immersion | Partial Immersion | Sheltered Courses | Adjunct Model | Theme-Based Courses | Frequent use of content for language practice |

Table 4. A continuum of content and language integration (Met, 1999, pp. 2-4)

Authors like Cenoz (2015, p. 8) have expressed that, despite their differences, Content-Based Instruction and CLIL "share the same essential properties". Therefore, the following sections will aim to delve deeper into this precursor of CLIL through the presentation and classification of the most relevant approaches to CBI found in the US context. This taxonomy is based on the use each method makes of the languages involved. More specifically, we will distinguish between models that use only the majority language, those that promote the two languages, language-driven methods and finally, two of the most recent approaches to CBI.

3.1.4.1. English-only Instruction

The programmes subsumed within this subsection pay little to no attention to the mother tongue of the learners: the models expounded on promote the use of English as the only language in the classroom. In *Submersion*, *Structured English Immersion (SEI)* and *Sheltered Instruction*, the content of the curriculum is therefore taught entirely in English, leaving the development of bilingual skills to the pupils themselves and to their families.

3.1.4.1.1. Submersion

Often referred to as the ‘sink or swim’ method, Submersion has been widely criticised by bilingual educators. The term Submersion, often used pejoratively, refers to a method which places minority language students in an ordinary monolingual classroom and provides all academic instruction in English with no modifications. These pupils receive no kind of assistance and are left to their own devices among native English speakers. Using a swimming-pool metaphor, Baker (2011, p. 211) states that “language minority students are thrown into the deep end and expected to learn to swim as quickly as possible without the help of floats or special swimming lessons”. The Supreme Court

found these types of programmes unlawful in 1974 and its verdict resulted in the previously mentioned Lau remedies.

3.1.4.1.2. Structured English Immersion (SEI)

Structured English Immersion (SEI) is a language learning model outlined by Baker and de Kanter in 1983. Differently from submersion, SEI allows language minority children to use their home language to address their peers and the instructor. The teacher, despite being proficient in both languages, will use only English to answer the pupils and to introduce all subject content.

As Baker and de Kanter themselves explain, SEI structures its syllabus so that English and content are learnt simultaneously. Their model bolsters a simplified use of English since it does not assume prior knowledge of the L2 (Baker & de Kanter, 1983, p. 34). This approach is tolerant towards the pupils' need to resort to their home language, but its main goal is the rapid attainment of English proficiency and not the development or maintenance of their L1.

3.1.4.1.3. Sheltered Instruction

In Sheltered Instruction, also known as Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English or SDAIE, courses are taught to groups of intermediate to advanced ESL learners “who have been segregated or ‘sheltered’ from native speakers” (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989, p. 15). These are content-driven subject courses taught in the L2 where language learning is secondary and students are evaluated in terms of subject content mastery. Nevertheless, the teacher is required to use “linguistically sensitive teaching strategies” to make the curriculum accessible to ESL students (Met, 1999, p. 5). The instructor, a content area specialist, is expected to select the resources and to adjust the course requirements to a suitable difficulty level for the students (Richards &

Rodgers, 2001, p. 216). In Sheltered Instruction, presenting the content in a comprehensible manner is deemed vital for the academic achievement of ESL pupils, the final goal being the transition to mainstream teaching (Clark, 2009). This makes Sheltered Instruction “one of the most content-driven paradigms within the general framework of CBI” (Dueñas, 2004, p. 10).

In 2009, Gerdes developed the so-called *Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol* or SIOP. Such a protocol was created as a measurement tool for sheltered instruction and to aid lesson planning. In other words, it gives teachers the specific tools they need to put it into practice.

3.1.4.2. Models providing additional instruction in first languages

The following educational models use and promote two languages in varying degrees, depending on the language skills of the students and the immediate background in which the approaches are implemented. Cazabón, Lambert and Nicoladis (1998, p. 19) mention three paradigms that focus on the native language of the learners in addition to English as a foreign language: *Transitional Bilingual Education*, *Maintenance Bilingual Education* and *Two-way programmes*.

3.1.4.2.1. Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE)

In Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE), language minority children are placed in a group and taught in their mother tongue until they become proficient enough to take part in a mainstream classroom. Although literacy in the minority language may be included in the school curriculum, the ultimate goal of TBE “is for the use of the home language to decrease in direct proportion to increasing use of English” (Baker, 1988, p. 82). In this manner, the approach aims to establish pupils’ skill in English as fast as possible to guarantee they do not fall behind their English native peers in other subject areas. The main target of TBE is successful English acquisition, with transition to

monolingual English classrooms expected to occur in a limited amount of time, usually no more than three years (Horwitz, 2005).

3.1.4.2.2. Maintenance Bilingual Education

Maintenance Bilingual Education is also referred to as *Developmental Bilingual Education* and it seeks to promote the minority language in the pupil together with the associated culture and identity (Baker, 2011, p. 207). This approach supports instruction in both the home language and English to ensure a continuous progress that leads to bilingual academic competence (Horwitz, 2005). Authors like Otheguy and Otto (1980) have further categorised this approach and distinguish between *static maintenance* and *developmental maintenance*, depending on whether the aim is to maintain L1 skills at the level they are or to build them to full proficiency and biliteracy.

3.1.4.2.3. Two-way Programmes

Two-way Bilingual Programmes in the US, also termed *Two-way Immersion*, *Dual Language Education*, *Bilingual Immersion*, *Double Immersion* and *Interlocking Education*, have yielded considerably positive results. In fact, Cazabon, Lambert and Nicoladis (1998, p. 3) state that “research on the most effective forms of bilingual education (...) suggests that two-way programs may be the best”.

In this non-segregational approach, mastery of English and the minority language is the main objective. Consequently, both languages are used simultaneously throughout the programme to achieve high degrees of literacy in the students’ L1 and L2.

Factors behind the students’ success in Two-way bilingual programmes are reported on by the above-mentioned authors (ibid. 1998, p. 3), who claim that linguistic minority students are given the chance to assume strong peer leadership roles. In addition, grade-

level academic instruction in both languages with a multicultural syllabus is stressed, and finally non-English-speaking parents are given the chance to form close partnerships with the rest of stakeholders involved.

3.1.4.3. Language-driven Bilingual Education

In this section, we will outline two different frameworks included in Met's *Continuum of Content and Language Integration* (cf. 3.1.4). These possess language-oriented objectives: *Adjunct courses*, which lie at the centre of the continuum, and *Theme-based courses*, to the right.

3.1.4.3.1. Adjunct Courses

This model can be found mainly at University levels and it seeks to integrate content and language skills via two linked courses. As Dueñas (2004, p. 83) highlights: “adjunct classes are not implemented on their own but aim at assisting an existing regular subject-matter class”.

Adjunct courses aim to provide support for students who lack the necessary language competence to successfully complete a particular content course. Frequently, the reasons adduced for the positive results of such courses are directly linked to the fact that language classes meet the “immediate academic needs” of the students by equipping them with strategies to cope with subject content (Dueñas, 2004, p. 83).

However, implementing this model, where two courses complement each other, places great demands on teachers and institutions. A great deal of coordination is required to guarantee that both language and content syllabi are interlocking (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 217).

3.1.4.3.2. Theme-based Courses

This model lies close to the language-driven end of Met's continuum. Theme-based courses have explicit language aims, while content goals take a back seat. Moreover, this model has been considered one of the weakest representations of content-based instruction (Met, 1999, p. 84). One of the keys of Theme-based courses, as opposed to Adjunct courses, is probably their high degree of autonomy and resulting flexibility regarding content selection, curricular organization and procedural application (Dueñas 2004, p. 84). The instructors, who are language teaching specialists, select topics of interest to students for Theme-based courses to promote real communication. According to Met (1999, p. 10), "language is used to explore content, and language growth emerges as students need to comprehend or produce language related to content". Therefore, in these models, the syllabus is organised around a general theme and several sub-units coherently sequenced to generate a wide "range of opportunities to explore both content and language" (Dueñas, 2004, p. 84).

3.1.4.4. Recent Content-based ESL Models

Within this last section, two content-based approaches are going to be presented. These paradigms are considered to be among the most recent models in this educational context and can be placed near the most content-driven end of the spectrum: the Push-in and Pull-out programmes.

3.1.4.4.1. Push-in

In *Push-in* programmes, minority language students have two instructors -an ESL teacher and a content specialist- and they stay most of their school day in mainstream classes. Reynolds, Nolin-Smith and Groshek (2012) distinguish different implementations of the Push-In model: the co-teaching and assisting variants. In co-

teaching, both instructors collaborate on all aspects and are equally responsible for delivery of instruction, assessment and the totality of children in the group.

In the second variant, however, there is no such level of collaborative partnership. While the general educator does the teaching, the ESL teacher assists the English language learners by offering extra language support, like providing clarification and explanations. The ESL teacher is seen as an educational assistant with a different level of responsibility, which can be regarded as a disadvantage, according to Reynolds, Nolin-Smith and Groshek (2012). Benefits of the Push-in model include greater opportunities for interaction with English native peers. In addition, the fact that it is a non-segregational model makes it both socially and academically positive. As Mabbott and Strohl (1992, p. 29) put it, “The strongest argument for the Pull-in [Push-in] model is that, when properly implemented, it does the most to integrate LEP students into the mainstream while still giving them the support they need”.

3.1.4.4.2. Pull-out

In Pull-out models, ESL students are withdrawn from mainstream classes to a separate location, for one or two periods per day, to receive specific language instruction in smaller groups with resembling FL skills. In this model, “teachers can provide concentrated instruction according to students’ needs”, and it also “provides an environment away from the native English-speaking children where ESL students can feel comfortable taking risks with their new language and asking questions” (Mabbott & Strohl, 1992, p. 22). However, Ovando et al. (2003, as cited in Baker, 2011, p. 214) claim that the Pull-out method is not always effective:

Problems with this model are lost time in students’ access to the full curriculum, lack of curriculum articulation with grade-level (mainstream) classroom teachers, and no access to primary language schooling to keep up with grade-level academic work while learning English. The social assumption is that the language the child speaks is a problem to be remediated, and

students often feel that they are stigmatized by attending what is perceived as a remedial class. (Ovando et al., 2003, as cited in Baker, 2011, p. 214)

In this line, Jingjing, O'Brian and Reynolds (2012) sought to measure the effectiveness of Push-in and Pull-out methods in their mixed-methods research study. These scholars unveiled notable flaws in both models and proposed a blended model as a way to solve the inherent problems they present.

3.2. CLIL Characterisation

In the previous sections we have analysed, against the Canadian and American backdrop, how second or foreign languages have been used as a medium of instruction either to cater for the needs of a social group or to foster cultural, linguistic and national conformity. This revision of the predecessors of CLIL has brought us to a new section in the present investigation which delves deeper into the features of the specific approach under study, namely, CLIL.

Today, being educated in a language other than our mother tongue can hardly be considered a novelty, since there is proof that multifarious forms of bilingual education have been around for several millennia. Jessner-Schmid and Kramch (2015, p. 10) go as far as to say that current multilingualism “is part of a general revolution against monolingualism and what it stands for, namely: social and political centralization, social stratification [and] academic gate-keeping”. Europe, with its Content and Language Integrated Learning approach to bilingual education, is no exception. In the subsections below, we will further characterise this specifically European model by focusing on its background, definition, rationale, traits, benefits and challenges.

3.2.1. CLIL Background: European Policies

Renowned scholars such as Marsh (2006) or Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) attribute the advent of CLIL to the influx of globalization, European unification, the knowledge age and socioeconomic and technological changes taking place after 1990. By then, life in a mixed global society was placing greater demands on mainstream education (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 10) and necessarily affecting how we taught and learned languages. Adequate foreign and second language teaching was viewed as paramount to the success of the new European Union (EU) single market, and all member states resolved to seek improvements in the quality and diversity of language teaching and learning throughout the EU (Grenfell, 2002, p. 23). Consequently, the miscellaneous European education systems felt the urgency to respond to this need and to cater accordingly for their young citizens, attaching importance to higher levels of language proficiency and greater cultural awareness: the backbone of the construction of Europe. Content and Language Integrated Learning thus arose as “the European label for Bilingual Education” (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 28).

The term CLIL emerged under the auspices of the European Council and was first launched in 1994 after a long period of analysis and negotiation (Ruiz de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán, 2009, vii). The name was proposed for primary and secondary education, coexisting with Content-Based Instruction (CBI), while the term Integrated Content and Language (ICL) was mainly used to refer to tertiary education (Wilkinson, Zegers & Van Leeuwen, 2006). In Spanish, three main translations of the term CLIL have been proposed, namely *Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lengua Extranjera* (AICLE), *Enfoque integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras* (EICLE) and *Semi-Inmersión*, according to Pérez-Vidal (2008).

The “umbrella” term CLIL (Ruiz de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán, 2009, p. vii; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 12) has been embraced as a generic expression to comprise all those methodologies that include teaching subject matter in another language. In Coyle, Hood and Marsh’s words (2010, p. 3), the term CLIL “was adopted [...] within

the European context to describe and further design good practice as achieved in different types of school environment where teaching and learning take place in an additional language”.

European institutions began to herald change in the domain of language education by formulating and funding strategies towards multilingualism. For instance, the *White Paper on Education and Training* (1995) stated that EU citizens should be functionally proficient in their mother tongue and in two other European languages. The paper recommended specific policies to member states and encompassed key factors like ‘interdisciplinarity’ and ‘intensity of exposure’. The White Paper’s general objectives (European Commission, 1995, pp. 1-45) can be condensed as follows:

1. To encourage the acquisition of new knowledge via the recognition of skills, mobility and multimedia educational software.
2. To bring schools and business closer together through apprenticeship/ trainee schemes and vocational training.
3. To combat exclusion via second chance schools and European voluntary service.
4. To achieve proficiency in three community languages by introducing assessment systems, adopting a European Quality Label for schools promoting language learning, supporting the exchange of language teaching materials and promoting the early teaching of European Community languages.
5. To treat capital investment and investment in training in an equitable manner.

Additionally, the Council of Europe presented the European Community with further instruments for the promotion of the highest levels of language education: the European Language Portfolio or ELP (2001) and the Common European Framework of Reference or CEFR (2001). The European Language Portfolio was developed by the Language Policy Unit of the Council of Europe. Its main objective was the development of learner plurilingualism, autonomy and intercultural awareness and competence. The ELP enables users to record their achievements (e.g. officially awarded recognitions), reflecting on their experiences in the area of language learning, and has three main

components: a Language Passport, a Language Biography and a Dossier. According to the Council of Europe:

(...) The recognition and assessment of knowledge and skills should be such as to take account of the circumstances and experiences through which these competences and skills are developed. The development of a European Language Portfolio (ELP) enabling an individual to record and present different aspects of his or her language biography represents a step in this direction. (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 175)

The CEFR is directed to the educational community and lays the foundations required to elaborate language syllabi, curriculum guidelines, teaching and learning materials, and to assess linguistic competence in foreign language learners. The scheme describes foreign language proficiency at six levels: A1 and A2, B1 and B2, C1 and C2 in addition to three 'plus' levels (A2+, B1+, B2+). These guidelines are used in other continents apart from Europe and allow the educational community to bring into comparison language tests and qualifications at supranational level. The Framework offers representative 'can do' descriptors in language proficiency scales, accompanied by a detailed analysis of communicative contexts, themes, tasks and purposes. In this document, the Council of Europe stresses the need for careful interpretation and adjustment of the CEFR's descriptive apparatus and proficiency levels to particular contexts and their requirements; the CEFR is not a ready-made solution but a set of criteria (Council of Europe, 2001). Its latest update, the CEFR Companion Volume (Council of Europe, 2017), is the result of a three-year project of the Education Policy Division (Language Policy Programme) of the Council of Europe. The Companion Volume provides new descriptor scales for younger learners regarding several aspects of mediating text, concepts and communication, plurilingual/pluricultural competence and online interaction. Furthermore, the original 2001 scales have been supplemented with a short rationale and with improved descriptors, especially at beginner (A1) and C levels.

Resuming our description of European measures for the promotion of languages, in 2003, the *European Commission's Action Plan for 2004-2006* ensued. The plan was aimed at the Council, the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. It stated recommendations of multilingual policies promoting language learning and linguistic diversity communication by focusing on life-long language learning, improving language teaching and building language-friendly environments.

Subsequently, the CLIL approach began to take shape in the hands of the educational community through a number of varied experiments exploring alternative paths, influenced by the practice and research carried out in Canada and the United States. Therefore, the notion of CLIL emerged within a large number of Commission-funded projects like *Distance In-service Education for Enhancing Second Language Learning* (DIESeLL), *Advanced Level Programme for Multilingual Education* (ALPME), *Teacher Initial Education- CLIL* (TIE-CLIL), *Curriculum Development at Initial and Intermediate Level for Bilingual Teaching* (CDI-BIT), the *VocTalk* project, the *CLIL Compendium*, the *Thematic Network in Bilingual Education*, the Spanish *Técnicas de la información y de la comunicación combinadas con contenidos en el aprendizaje de lenguas* (TICCAL) and networks such as the *CLIL Cascade*, to name but a few. Furthermore, a number of institutions such as the Centre for Modern Languages in Graz, the European Council in Strasbourg, or the European Language Council/Conseil Européen pour les Langues (ELC/CEL) and a trans-national association of universities (1997) served as the point of departure of the above-mentioned projects. In this sense, it can be said that CLIL arose as a “European solution to a European need” (Marsh 2002, p. 5).

Pérez-Vidal (2009) reflects on the far-reaching use of CLIL and describes its multifaceted nature and timely emergence. She then offers a clear outline of the curricular, socio-cultural and psycholinguistic dimensions on which CLIL rests and specifies the three factors central to CLIL pedagogy that have moved the communicative paradigm forward, namely:

- The European Union's political project and increasing globalisation and mobility, which the Union's policies themselves promote.
- The new pedagogical insights such as the key role played by individual differences and in particular attitude and motivation in the development of autonomy in language learning.
- Technological progress. (Pérez-Vidal, 2009, p.6)

Since its appearance, multiple European countries have adopted CLIL as an instrument towards their goal of multilingualism. For Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014, p. 214), "CLIL is European in the sense that it has been energized by European language policy and ideology and has in turn energized implementations of these policies at local or regional levels". In this vein, Lorenzo (2007, p. 27) claims that "the time when it has appeared, the places where it has been adopted and the learning theory behind it, turns CLIL into a successful attempt at language and social change in 21st century Europe". In unison with Lorenzo, Pérez Cañado (2011) delves in the uniqueness of CLIL claiming it is not a replication or replacement of existing models (like immersion or CBI). In her words, it "merits attention in its own right, as it is no longer considered a mere offshoot of other types of bilingual programs, but an increasingly acknowledged trend in foreign language (FL) teaching" (Pérez Cañado, 2012, pp. 318-319).

3.2.2. CLIL Definition

Consistent with our earlier discussion in the section devoted to the origins of CLIL, it can be said that this is clearly a strongly European-oriented educational approach. According to Wolf (2005, p. 11), CLIL is "based on the assumption that foreign languages are best learnt by focusing in the classroom not so much on language – its form and structure – but on the content which is transmitted through language". Numerous definitions of CLIL have been offered since the term was coined, such as the following one by Coyle, Holmes and King (2009, p. 6):

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) describes a pedagogic approach in which language and subject area content are learnt in combination. The generic term CLIL describes any

learning activity where language is used as a tool to develop new learning from a subject area or theme. (ibid. 2009, p. 6)

However, given that CLIL is so heterogeneous both in its practical implementations and as a concept, providing a thorough definition can be challenging. The following subsections will accordingly be devoted to further categorising CLIL in terms of five contrasting variables: dual focus on content and language, innovative teaching methodology, naturalness and communication, cognition and culture, and vehicular language learning.

3.2.2.1. Dual Focus: Content and language

Numerous scholars have described CLIL as a "dual-focused" approach (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 1; Ruiz de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán, 2009, p. vii; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 9; Marsh & Langé, 2000, p. 6) in which language carries a special role alongside the learning of any specific subject content.

Differently from other educational approaches we have described in previous sections, CLIL is considered to be content-driven (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 1). However, the essence of CLIL is integration: it interweaves both content and language. This concept entails that, in the CLIL class, there are two main targets: one related to the subject and one linked to the language (Marsh & Langé, 2000, p. 6). The rationale behind such practice is that “students are likely to learn more if they are not simply learning language for language’s sake, but using language to accomplish complete tasks and learn new content” (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 11).

Regarding actual CLIL implementation, it is plain to see that it does not always pay attention to content and to language in the same proportion; a subject that still sparks debate on what qualifies as CLIL and what does not. In Marsh’s words:

CLIL is an approach which is essentially methodological, and is easily misunderstood. Changing the medium of instruction from one language to another in an educational context does not automatically qualify as an example. It requires use of dual-focused language-sensitive methodologies alongside changing the vehicular language. (Marsh, 2006, p. 33)

Different modalities of CLIL in relation with the real focus of instruction in the classroom have been suggested. In particular, Pérez-Vidal and Campanale (2006, p. 29) explain three possible strands with examples:

| a. CONTENT FOCUS | b. LANGUAGE FOCUS | c. CONTENT AND LANGUAGE FOCUS |
|---|---|---|
| <p>(1) Language competence is given for granted. Students are tested on content.</p> | <p>Language competence is in focus. Students are tested on content. It usually requires involvement from both content and teachers.</p> | <p>Curriculum and syllabus planning includes explicit content objectives and explicit language objectives. Students are tested on content with an explicit language component (often vocabulary).</p> |
| <p><i>Example: Content teaching in Modern Language departments.</i></p> | <p><i>Example: Revision modules to introduce terminology in a different language in a specific subject.</i></p> | <p>It usually requires a school programme. Teachers are language specialists. There is often peer teaching with a content teacher. <i>Example: CLIL taught in primary education.</i></p> |
| <p>2) Language content is catered for in extracurricular classes. Students are tested on content.</p> | <p>Themes are a way to develop language competence with meaningful activities. Students are tested on language.</p> | <p>Curriculum and syllabus planning includes explicit content objectives and implicit language objectives. Students are tested on content with a language component.</p> |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| <i>Example: International schools with language support units for new arrivals.</i> | <i>Example: Content modules in English language classrooms.</i> | It usually requires a school programme. Teachers are content specialists. <i>Example: CLIL programmes.</i> |
|---|---|---|

Table 5. CLIL strands (Pérez-Vidal & Campanale, 2006, p. 29)

From our perspective, an ideal CLIL programme would have a dual focus in which both content and language would be tested and included in curriculum planning. Such a programme would add hours of target language exposure to the already existing foreign language lessons. As for the instructor, it would either be a language specialist well-versed in the content subject or a subject matter specialist with high levels of competence in the TL (ideally after some suitable training in the CLIL approach).

3.2.2.2. An Innovative form of education

It is necessary to highlight that CLIL is neither a new form of language education nor a new form of subject education (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 1), but rather stands as an innovative fusion of both.

In this integrated world, as Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, pp. 10-11) claim, integrating learning is increasingly becoming a modern form of educational delivery conceived to even better equip the student with knowledge and a set of skills appropriate for the global age. The generations now in classrooms, they consider, are known as the Cyber Generation (those born after 2001). They have had an early, hands-on and more personal experience with integrated technologies, and identify with the immediacy of the "learn as you use, use as you learn" motto. CLIL, as argued by Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 11), has emerged as one innovative methodology

to cater to this new age. In turn, Van de Craen et al. (2007), in their outline for a CLIL theory, present six tenets that exemplify how CLIL is not just a simple language learning method. They understand CLIL research from an overarching perspective, addressing subject matter knowledge, the learning of languages, attitudinal and motivational approaches, brain research and cognitive development, concluding that “CLIL has implications for the learning process as a whole and is as such an innovative way of looking at (language) education” (Van de Craen et al., 2007, p. 74).

Lastly, and to finish this heading, we offer below an interesting reflection by Lorenzo (2007) on the value of CLIL as an innovative and fitting initiative in its European context:

(It) may bring authenticity by using languages for the instrumental uses they are most appreciated for in an academic context: learning subject area content. This is in exact alignment with a new European language ideology: one that highlights the instrumental values of tongues as a means to succeed in intercultural communication even with partial language competences, and to develop multiple identities. (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 35)

3.2.2.3. Cognition and Culture

From the variables studied so far, it transpires that communication and integration play a crucial role in a CLIL environment. However, learners are exposed not only to content and language, but also to different essential features that make CLIL unique, namely, culture and cognition. Pavlović and Marković (2012, p. 85) list as one of the main aims of CLIL to “improve not only students’ competence in the target language, but also inculcate a positive attitude to other languages and cultures”.

Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) reflect on these additional features that differentiate CLIL from other well-established methods and approaches to BE. Such features include “the planned pedagogic integration of contextualized content, cognition, communication

and culture into teaching and learning practice” (Coyle, 2002, p. 45). This holistic view of CLIL is represented in the ‘4Cs Framework’, illustrated below:

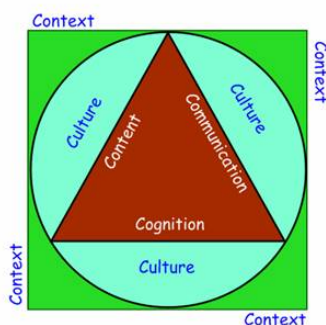


Figure 1. 4Cs Framework. (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 41)

The Framework combines four contextualised elements acknowledging the symbiotic relationship between those building blocks. Effective CLIL takes place when the following are integrated: content (the non-linguistic subject matter), cognition (the thinking and learning processes), communication (language learning and using) and culture (global citizenship and intercultural understanding). In other words, effective CLIL results from:

- Progression in knowledge, skills and understanding of the content;
- Engagement in associated cognitive processing
- Interaction in the communicative context
- Development of appropriate language knowledge and skills;
- The acquisition of a deepening intercultural awareness, which is in turn brought about by the positioning of self and ‘otherness’. (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 41)

Culture plays a fundamental role in promoting the learners’ self-awareness and otherness. As Coyle (2006, p. 4) underscores, “studying through a foreign language is fundamental to fostering international understanding. *Otherness* is a vital concept and holds the key for discovering self”. For this reason, when planning a CLIL lesson,

culture should not appear as a postscript but rather be regarded as “a thread which weaves its way throughout the topic” (ibid., p. 6).

3.2.2.4. Communication

As has been mentioned in heading 2.9, the birth of CLIL was heavily influenced by the educational techniques of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), a method that builds on the idea that languages are best learnt when in a communicative context. CLIL has therefore been considered an offshoot of CLT; Graddol (2006, p. 86), for instance, considers CLIL “the ultimate communicative methodology”.

Other educationists and scholars, however, perceive CLIL to have a high level of naturalness and an authenticity of purpose that appears to be absent within CLT. This is true in the sense that CLIL classroom practice involves making students use the FL naturally, in such a way that they soon forget about the language and only focus on the learning topic (Marsh & Langé, 2000, pp. 3-6). The learners become active participants in developing their potential for acquiring knowledge and skills (Coyle, 2010, p. 5).

As explained by Furlong (2005, p. 27), there are students who find traditional FL learning difficult and fruitless: “the cognitive effort associated with the subject language is perceived to be too costly and does not yield the expected returns in terms of meaningful application opportunities”. Immediate relevance outside of the subject language is thus needed to transform classroom practice into meaningful communicative activities. This is the case with CLIL, since the “CLIL environment demands a level of talking and interaction that is different to that of the traditional language classroom” (Coyle, 2006, p. 11). The content facet of CLIL sets up a specific learning environment that furthers authentic communication, and in this sense the CLIL classroom is connected with the reality of the world outside, substituting the fictional world of the language classroom (Wolf, 2005, p. 15). Moreover, CLIL learners acquire

linguistic competencies that go beyond communicative competence and can be even linked to FL use in their future professional life (Wolf, 2005, p. 16).

In conclusion, it has been contended that CLIL provides a more relevant and holistic learning experience, as it “involves use of language-sensitive methodology which simultaneously develops message, medium and socially-oriented communication” (Marsh, 2006, p. 33).

3.2.2.5. Vehicular Language Learning

In CLIL-type education, language acts as the vehicle through which content is taught. Even though a great variety of languages are used in CLIL instruction, current indicators in Europe show that English is the most commonly adopted vehicular language (Eurydice, 2017). Put differently, although not quite a monopoly, English has unmistakably become the prevailing target language for CLIL implementation in the continent.

As early as in the 1990s, due to various social pressures arising from political union and globalisation, English became the most commonly reported vehicular language for CLIL experimentation and practice (Marsh, 2012, p. 407). This fact created an adverse reaction to English from those who thought its expansion would endanger the learning or even the survival of other languages (Skuttnab-Kangas, 2008). Nevertheless, there is still a considerable demand for CLIL provision for minority, regional and heritage languages across the world. A good example would be those CLIL initiatives adapted to suit educational policies within bilingual autonomous regions of Spain aimed at developing specific languages (Marsh, 2012, p. 399). Regarding the prevalence of English as the most popular vehicular language, Marsh (2006, p. 29) documents that “because of the need to have a shared linguistic medium, English has assured its place as the language of communication within the new linguistic global order”.

The main objective of this section was to better delineate and understand the concept of CLIL, reflecting on five contrasting variables. To conclude our section and before we address CLIL rationale, it becomes indispensable to offer a more comprehensive definition of this approach, like the one set forth by Marsh in 2002:

CLIL is an umbrella term adopted by the European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners (EUROCLIC) in the mid 1990's. It encompasses any activity in which a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and subject have a joint role. (Marsh, 2002, p. 58)

3.2.3. CLIL Rationale

Prior to the detailed picture of Content and Language Integrated Learning offered in section 3.2.4 (traits), let us turn to a provision of explanations as to why CLIL emerged on the European scene. The first landmark initiative to improve foreign language learning in Europe took place in 1978. It promoted teaching through a medium of more than one language in a bid to boost levels of FL proficiency, and thus acted as a catalyst for the development of CLIL across the continent (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 8). From then on, as outlined in our section devoted to the origins of CLIL (cf. heading 3.1), a range of European-funded projects ensued. Europe's highest bodies issued a variety of language programmes and recommended a set of policies to advance skills and principles conducive to multilingualism and multiculturalism in the Union. CLIL became "increasingly prioritised within the European Union as a major educational initiative (Eurydice 2006), culminating in the 2005 European Council recommendations that CLIL should be adopted throughout the entire European Union (European Commission 2005)". Eurydice (2006) was the first statistical study to gauge the momentum gathered by CLIL across countries.

This drive behind the emphasis on foreign language competence appears to stem from four proactive forces, as Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 8) claim. In brief:

- The families' wishes for their children to master at least one foreign language.
- Governments' anticipation for socioeconomic gains.
- The European Commission's aim to consolidate integration and economic power at supranational level.
- Language specialists' positive prospects regarding the combination of language and content.

In turn, Lorenzo (2007, pp. 29-30) explains that the motives behind the widespread start-up of CLIL are a result of three pivotal elements within the European language learning philosophy. The following paragraphs offer an outline of these three reasons:

- The first factor addresses Europe's ethnical and national identities, typically linked to national language competence, and how a European identity should surpass these. In other words, the aspiration for every individual to accomplish the mother tongue+2 principle: to possess the ability to communicate in two foreign languages in addition to their mother tongue.
- The second main pillar of European language ideology, as pinpointed by Lorenzo (op.cit), concerns intercultural competence among citizens to encourage mobility within member countries. Language competence is presented as a fundamental channel for intercultural communication and cooperation: a must for all those willing to take part in European mobility. In addition, Lorenzo highlights the need to change our attitudes to language, particularly to demystify nativeness and language purism in favour of a truly multilingual outlook (all languages are valuable). This mindset for mutual understanding is the one bilingual programmes were set out to build.
- The third and more general motive relates to comprehensive improvement in language learning to be able to obtain benefits. Lorenzo claims that investing in bilingual education can be considered money well spent, since studies show that, while the added cost is relatively small, it involves a high return rate.

Similarly, Pérez-Vidal and Campanale (2006, pp. 20-26) describe a CLIL rationale based on three main tenets: a socio-cultural dimension, an educational-content

dimension, and a linguistic dimension. From their perspective, the inherent values of a CLIL approach can help us enhance or regenerate the standards of education in the EU. More concretely, CLIL is a useful tool to enhance European citizenship and lay the foundations for the construction of Europe, i.e., the integration of its citizens in a multilingual and multicultural environment. CLIL renews content teaching by highlighting the importance of critical thinking, responsibility, independent learning and fostering creativity. Last but not least, Pérez-Vidal and Campanale (op.cit) comment on how CLIL augments exposure time to the target language and adds meaningfulness to the actual teaching, ameliorating current FL programmes.

Having expounded on the motivation behind the appearance of CLIL, the following sub-sections will further characterise this pedagogic approach. Concretely, they will seek to provide enlightenment on the various contexts in which CLIL is implemented and its different features, along with its main stakeholders, evaluative and methodological bearings and chief assets and pitfalls.

3.2.4. CLIL Traits

The features of CLIL programmes can be identified within two different categories: the core features summarised in the preceding sections (which ensue from a CLIL educational approach and rationale) and variable features (Johnson & Swain, 1997). The latter identify the specific programmes developed by each individual school or institution, and are conditioned by local circumstances. Thus, the actual models and practices encompassed by the term CLIL cover a wide range of curricular realities, often reflecting subtly different context-dependent implementations, a fact that hinders our ability to define the exact goals pursued by CLIL. Stakeholders regularly formulate aims such as increasing language and intercultural competences, and increasing practice and exposure to the FL, together with cognitive and content aims. Below is the list of goals that was formulated in the CLIL Compendium:

- Develop intercultural communication skills.
- Prepare for internationalisation.
- Provide opportunities to study content through different perspectives.
- Access subject-specific target language terminology.
- Improve overall target language competence.
- Develop oral communication skills.
- Diversify methods & forms of classroom practice.
- Increase learner motivation. (Dalton-Puffer, 2008, p. 3)

For Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit, “what characterizes CLIL more than anything is the remarkable variety of practices that can be found under its umbrella” (2010, p. 2). CLIL entails a multitude of models throughout many countries that cater for learners’ diverse situations and contexts, consequently making our revision of CLIL characteristics a laborious task. Pérez-Vidal (2008, p. 13) elaborates on the variable features that, in her view, differentiate and define CLIL programmes. These include CLIL programme and curriculum planning (involving students and staff), the continuity of the programme, teacher training, requirements and support for students. Other essential variable features would be financial and material resources, institutional and political support as well as the social support provided by families and, finally, the status of the TL.

In fact, the range of curricular realities is such that Coyle (2007) has been able to document the existence of 216 types of CLIL programmes, considering variables like onset age, intensity, compulsory status, duration or starting linguistic level (as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 319). Observing this diversity of CLIL scenarios and modalities, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 14) assert that “one size does not fit all”. Hence, in order to fully understand the multifarious implementations of CLIL, a clear-cut categorization of CLIL contexts, participants, class requirements, methodology and evaluation, goals and other significant variables is subsequently elaborated on.

3.2.4.1. Context

Because CLIL covers such a vast scope of potential learning scenarios, for some authors it is still far from being a consolidated educational model. For Wolff (2005, p. 11) “CLIL as an educational concept is not homogenous; a rather large number of different variants can be distinguished”. This section of our literature review condensates multiple sources about the educational contexts in which CLIL can be materialised, discussing ten main variables.

3.2.4.1.1. Interpretation of Content and Language

In this dual-focused form of instruction, attention is given to both content and language, but its heterogeneous realisations cannot be overlooked:

Variation can be represented on a scale which reaches from pure foreign language teaching on the one end to a form of content teaching in which the focus on language is almost non-existent, and the foreign language is predominantly used as a working language. The former interpretation could also be called a language-learning, the latter a content-learning interpretation. (Wolff, 2005, p. 13)

The readings are manifold. For instance, authors like Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010, p. 2) regard CLIL classrooms as subject-content driven learning environments where “it is the curriculum of the content-subject that is delivered in the foreign language while language goals may be high but remain implicit”. However, other scholars like Stoller (2004, p. 261) make a clear distinction between language-driven and content-driven programmes. According to Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 14), the ways in which content and language are integrated will impact decision-making on how each one is handled within the model. Moreover, the extent to which content and language are linked constitutes a decision that is made by each particular educational institution.

3.2.4.1.2. Content subjects

The curriculum subjects offered to be taught in the vehicular language vary greatly depending on the learning community where CLIL is implemented, so this is another highly inconsistent factor. There exists an ample range of content subjects available in CLIL curricula all over Europe: from History, Citizenship or Maths to Physical Education (PE) and Arts and Music, among many others. Wolff (2005) states that the most adequate subjects are those related to humanities, as they encourage intercultural skills:

[S]ubjects belonging to the Humanities are more suitable when it comes to the promotion of interculturality, as they are characterised by culture-specific features which by contrast lead to consciousness-raising with respect to the cultural particularities of the target language culture. (Wolff, 2005, p. 13)

In turn, Marsh claims that the chosen subjects for CLIL have traditionally been those considered “less academic”, although a current trend “argues that subjects, or themes within subjects, should link into the true contexts of the world in terms of language and non-language topics” (Marsh, 2012, p. 161). Moreover, this scholar claims it is “obvious that certain subjects, and themes within subjects, are more conducive to successful impact than others” (op. cit, 205).

3.2.4.1.3. Languages available in CLIL

The language used as the medium of content teaching is guided by certain factors we should consider. Pavesi et al. (2001, p. 83) highlight the following variables affecting language choice: “where the school is located, the degree of similarity between the foreign language and the students’ mother tongue [and] the subjects to be taught through the foreign language local resources”.

From its origins in the 1990s, CLIL provision has dealt with foreign languages, but it is also adopted for teaching regional, minority and heritage languages all over the world (Marsh, 2012). Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson (2008) are active advocates of biocultural diversity and have reported how often “seriously endangered languages disappear with little trace, at the same time as other not-yet-endangered languages, though official, are undergoing domain loss in high-status areas when English is being extensively used in research, universities, businesses, media, etc.” (2008, p. 9). However, as has been pinpointed previously, the CLIL educational approach is by no means restricted to English despite it being the most commonly adopted vehicular language in Europe, followed by French, German and, to a lesser extent, Spanish and Italian (Eurydice, 2017). Furthermore, the complex linguistic situation of European countries is among the most influential parameters contributing to the development of diverse variants of CLIL, according to Wolff (2005), who mentions the following three scenarios:

- Two or more official languages are spoken in a particular political unit (Belgium: Flemish, French and German, Finland: Finnish and Swedish).
- Official and officially recognised minority languages are spoken in a particular political unit (Britain: English and Welsh).
- Official and not officially recognised minority languages are spoken in a particular political unit (Germany: German and Turkish). (Wolff, 2005, p. 14)

The EU, as claimed by this author, is thus characterised by linguistic variation within its boundaries but also within member states themselves, a fact that visibly affects their different choices of CLIL language.

3.2.4.1.4. Educational level

The stages of education, namely primary, secondary and tertiary, constitute another key factor for CLIL variation. A CLIL approach varies according to the type of institution where it takes place, something described by Wolff (2005) as a typologically induced

variant. This scholar expounds on the main kinds of CLIL approaches typically adopted in each educational level, which we now proceed to synthesise:

- *Primary education:* Here, one of the most predominant approaches is a combination of additive and maintenance BE, by means of which learners maintain their family language while acquiring a higher language competence in the society in which they live. These types of schools are often located in bilingual border regions like Southern Tyrol or Alsace. Purely additive BE is frequently used as well at primary level: in this case the target language is neither the learners' mother tongue nor the language spoken in the country. This is true, for instance, with CLIL programmes in some Spanish primary schools (public and private), where certain content subjects are taught in English.
- *Secondary education:* CLIL implementations in European secondary schools have been heterogeneous; however, a survey by Marsh, Maljers and Hartiala (2001) found a number of similarities concerning organisational and structural aspects of CLIL. Broadly speaking, CLIL schools teach one or more curricular subjects (generally, History, Geography and Social Sciences) and the languages most frequently chosen are English, French and German, in that specific order.
- *Tertiary education:* It is no easy task to determine the impact of CLIL programmes in this stage of education due to the scarcity of research (Fortanet-Gómez & Ruiz-Garrido, 2009). Wolff (2005) mentions mainly vocational schools (which offer different subjects from secondary schools, like Economics, Business Studies or Mechanics), some management or professional schools (which offer their entire curriculum in a foreign language) and finally colleges and universities, where consistent use of CLIL is relatively rare outside teacher training programmes.

3.2.4.1.5. Exposure to the target language

CLIL programmes often differ in the amount of foreign language exposure they offer. They may be short-term or long-term, ranging from a series of lessons spanning a few

weeks to whole school-years or even entire school-careers (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010, p. 2). Furthermore, the intensity of exposure to the target language during the time allocated to CLIL instruction is a crucial variable and it depends on what percentage of the lesson is taught in the foreign language. Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 15) assess the scale of CLIL programmes and differentiate between extensive and partial instruction through the vehicular language. Although both are characterised by a triple focus on content, language and cognition, in extensive instruction at least 50% of the curriculum is taught through CLIL, while in partial instruction it can be as little as 5%.

3.2.4.1.6. Teacher availability

Teacher availability is listed by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 14) among the operating factors affecting the development of any particular CLIL model; moreover, it is often the starting point for the design of such model. It makes sense that CLIL grassroots initiatives such as those developed by individual schools are strongly dependent on staffing issues. Teachers' proficiency level and their availability to work individually or as a team clearly affect CLIL implementation and planning. As Frigols (2008, p. 6) mentions referring to the Valencian CLIL model, "it is a school-based decision concerning which subjects are taught through CLIL, usually depending on the availability of English-speaking teachers".

3.2.4.1.7. Assessment processes

Due to the fact that CLIL has a dual focus, assessment should include evaluation of language competences and evaluation of content knowledge and, thus, "account for the goals and objectives of two different subjects, including knowledge, competences, skills, attitudes, and behaviour, for both language and content" (Massler, 2010, p. 115).

Along the same line, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) point out that certain issues associated with assessment processes (formative and summative) and their focus do influence CLIL model design. In their view, this variable is key “to define the level of content-language integration, because, ultimately, no matter what is taught and how it is taught, the mode of assessment determines how the learners perceive the teacher’s intention and, of course, also shapes performance data” (2010, p. 15). In this vein, it is unmistakable that “effective assessment contributes to success in CLIL and to effectiveness of a CLIL lesson” (Savić, 2012, p. 41), a theme we will develop further in our section devoted to assessment issues in CLIL (cf. heading 3.2.4.7).

3.2.4.1.8. Governmental Support

Scholars like Marsh (2012, p. 174) highlight that “the driving force for CLIL/EMILE is often at the grassroots and with socio-economic stakeholders”. Similarly, Dalton-Puffer (2008, p. 1) states that “countless initiatives of individual teachers or schools have generally been the actual starting point for implementing CLIL in concrete local educational contexts, initiatives to which regional or national authorities have frequently been slow to answer”. This being true, governmental support will also be acknowledged here as a very important aspect influencing CLIL success.

We agree with Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) that it is necessary to establish identical objectives envisaged by both top-down and bottom-up initiatives. Moreover, admission criteria and to what degree the community is decentralised, allowing superior control of concerns, are further matters which need to be taken into account (Pérez Cañado, 2012). As exemplified by Marsh (2012, p. 210), a country where autonomy is low and curricula are heavily centralized would hardly be able to introduce CLIL as a bottom-up movement.

3.2.4.2. Class requirements

3.2.4.2.1. *The role of materials*

Teaching materials have been regarded as a central tool in setting the stage for CLIL success. Mehisto (2012) defines learning materials in educational contexts as “information and knowledge that are represented in a variety of media and formats, and that support the achievement of intended learning outcomes” (2012, p. 15).

Despite the numerous efforts that have been made in the past few years to design CLIL resources, many authors, like Ludbrook (2008, p. 21) and Meyer (2010, p. 11), voice the lack of suitable teaching materials. Undoubtedly, the practical implementation of CLIL programmes is often challenged by the lack of adequate CLIL resources. As Steiert and Massler (2010, p. 99) point out, when available, these teaching materials are usually based on curricula and contexts different to one’s own, which tends to leave the time-consuming development of resources to the individual teacher.

It is therefore vital to paint a clear picture of what quality CLIL resources look like. To this end, Mehisto (2012, pp. 17-25) has proposed ten criteria for the development of quality CLIL materials bearing in mind the added challenges posed by a complex approach that seeks to maintain a dual focus on content and language. A brief summary of each specific criterion is offered below:

1. *Quality CLIL materials make the learning intentions (language, content, learning skills) and process visible to students.* Following Gardner (1985) and MacIntyre (2002), Mehisto argues that visible and realistic but challenging goals are key to building and maintaining learner motivation. Accordingly, he suggests incorporating short and long-term language, content and learning skills outcomes into learning materials.
2. *Quality CLIL materials systematically foster academic language proficiency.* Developing academic language proficiency requires several years and a systematic

effort on the part of educators and students. Quality materials are those that draw attention to the component parts of academic language and their use, acting as a scaffold for content teachers to identify and teach the language of their subject. Given that academic language tends to be decontextualized, CLIL materials can provide additional contextual information to help learners process the language.

3. *Quality CLIL materials foster learning skills development and learner autonomy.* Mehisto addresses the need to help learners analyse their thinking processes, since studies (Veenman et al., 2002) have shown that meta-cognitive skills determine student achievement even more than intellectual ability. Materials can include learning skills tips or ask students to speculate, enquire, choose, share, or brainstorm to foster autonomy-supportive instruction.
4. *Quality CLIL materials include self-, peer and other types of formative assessment.* Materials should promote reflection on and assessment of achievements regarding content and language planned outcomes. Constructive formative assessment is pivotal for learning, and materials that do not include it decrease the probability that assessment will be properly used to this end. Furthermore, it is generally agreed that assessment for learning helps to improve teaching practice, student attitudes and engagement in learning.
5. *Quality CLIL materials help create a safe learning environment.* The interdependence between cognition and emotion has been stressed on numerous occasions. Positive environments enhance learning while fear and anxiety have shown to reduce analytical capacity (Bruner, 1996). CLIL materials should provide fitting scaffolding and navigation support to avoid cognitive overload. In addition, they should foster inclusion, promote meta-affective awareness and suggest coping strategies to ensure a safe learning environment is created.
6. *Quality CLIL materials foster cooperative learning.* Quality materials should help learners engage in group work, inasmuch as the latter has been shown to promote positive interdependence, individual and group accountability, face-to-face interaction, interpersonal skills and group processing (Johnson et al., 1998). In a CLIL context, peer cooperative work can be structured through learning material

that provides students with the terminology required to manage group work, enquire, express their critical thinking or assess group work results.

7. *Quality CLIL materials seek ways of incorporating authentic language and authentic language use.* Choosing authentic materials broadens the range of language introduced in the classroom, which can have a positive effect on language acquisition according to Krashen's (1991, p. 409) Input Hypothesis. However, genuine materials per se do not necessarily lead to authentic opportunities of language use. Particularly, materials must seek to personalise the content and make connections with the student's world (Van Lier, 1996; Legenhausen, 2009).
8. *Quality CLIL materials foster critical thinking.* CLIL materials ought to support critical thinking with regards to content, language and learning skills. To this end, quality materials give students questions and assignments that make them analyse, apply, evaluate and create rather than having them report back on facts. Intellectually challenging learning experiences are more significant and likely to be recalled by students than easy ones (Baddeley, 2004; Cummins, 2007; Lindholm-Leary, 2001).
9. *Quality CLIL materials foster cognitive fluency through scaffolding of content, language and learning skills development, helping students to reach well beyond what they could do on their own.* CLIL students face the additional challenge of learning content through an L2 and therefore need additional scaffolding in order to avoid cognitive overload (Walqui, 2006). For instance, language can be scaffolded through repetition of new nouns, inserting synonyms in parentheses, providing explanations of key expressions in the margins, or presenting information in boxes using two different registers. Content can be scaffolded with an introductory paragraph, by connecting the topic to students' lives, underlining key ideas or facts, or using plenty of subheadings. Finally, learning skills may be scaffolded by providing a sample correct answer at the start of an exercise or a commented sample of a poor one, including planning, monitoring and evaluation tasks.
10. *Quality CLIL materials help to make learning meaningful.* These materials aim to make cross-curricular links and to tie intended learning with students' lives, attitudes, current knowledge and interests. They connect with previous knowledge

and seek to deepen it. To make learning meaningful, it is also vital that materials offer students choice and some power over their learning process.

3.2.4.2.2. Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)

The new-late generations of students are constantly surrounded by and interacting with computers, smart phones, MP3 players, tablets and consoles. They are, after all, digital natives. For Custodio Espinar (2012), it is time to develop learning strategies that take account of these technologies. In her view, *Information and Communication Technology* (ICT) constitute an ideal platform in bilingual education scenarios to develop “interactive strategies and methodologies that help to promote independent learning, peer interaction and language use for real communicative purposes” (2012, p. 1).

Fostering ICT in education, according to UNESCO (2016), can "facilitate universal access to education, bridge learning divides, support the development of teachers, enhance the quality and relevance of learning, strengthen inclusion, and improve education administration and governance". Comfort and Tierney (2007) also comment on the benefits of using ICT in education:

It can: be a powerful motivator; add variety and interaction to a lesson; provide stimulating visuals to support understanding of language; help create attractive and professional resources; provide teachers with linguistic support; be a rich source of cultural awareness; allow students to work collaboratively or independently. (ibid. 2007, as cited in Wojtowicz et al 2009, p. 2)

Despite having been around for many years now, ICT use and on-line learning materials are still not fully capitalised on in education, according to Scott and Beadle (2014, p. 1). In their report for the European Commission, they describe how Member States have recently identified certain problems in the domains of ICT use in language education, the low quality of on-line teaching material and the lack of adequate training for teachers. Studies like that of Wojtowicz et al. (2009) delve into this issue. More

concretely, these researchers intend to examine how Information and Communication Technologies can enhance the process of learning both language and subject content in CLIL, as well as identifying the potential problems faced by teachers implementing the approach. Their survey was conducted among 238 CLIL teachers in over 30 European countries and found that, although ICT and game-based learning are widely used in this area, many educators identified a number of key barriers hindering the adoption of such technologies. Issues were mostly related to pedagogical, organisational, technical and financial difficulties, but teachers especially highlighted a scarcity of ICT resources designed according to specific CLIL requirements.

Using ICT as a teaching resource in CLIL programmes is one of the 29 competences included in *The CLIL Teacher's Competences Grid* (Bertaux et al, 2010). The grid strives to map competences that can foster successful CLIL implementation in a wide variety of contexts. It is divided in two sections (underpinning CLIL and setting CLIL in motion), intended “to serve as a framework for developing pre-service and / or professional development training courses for CLIL teachers” (Bertaux et al, 2010, p. 1). The following indicators of teacher competence regarding ICT are catalogued in the grid:

- Can search for and download authentic material for use in the classroom
- Can help students develop media literacy
- Can guide students in using ICT in ways that are new for them and that enhance learning
- Can guide students in maintaining an appropriate balance between the use of electronic and non-electronic sources
- Can articulate ethical and safety issues surrounding the use of ICT
- Can use ICT with learners to establish interregional and /or international exchanges.

(Bertaux et al, 2010, p. 9)

Furthermore, recent investigations such as Nieto Moreno de Diezmas' (in press for 2018) have confirmed that CLIL contributes to the acquisition of digital competence. In her study at primary level, the CLIL group performed significantly better in two dimensions of digital competence, namely, communicating and participating in

collaborative networks and searching, collecting and processing digital information. It was also found that many skills fostered by CLIL schemes (communicative abilities, participation, higher order thinking skills, critical thinking and collaborative learning) can be transferred to digital environments (cf. 4.2.2.5).

It seems appropriate to finish this heading by reiterating the importance of developing the digital literacy of both educators and learners. For Custodio Espinar (2012, p. 2), combining “CLIL and ICT in the classroom can result in a process of symbiosis highly intuitive for the student, and strongly rewarding for the teacher” and may aid “to start reducing the anachronism between education and actual educational needs of individuals”.

3.2.4.3. The role of language

Much has been said about the essential role of language in the CLIL context. The manner in which this indispensable element is employed will determine the successful implementation of the approach. However, and despite its relevance, language is not the predominant component of CLIL; language in CLIL is a means to an end rather than an end in itself (Deller, 2005, p. 29). Furthermore, for Savic, “a CLIL lesson is not a language lesson neither is it a subject lesson transmitted in a foreign language. (...) In the CLIL curriculum, it is the subject matter which determines the language needed to learn” (2012, p. 57).

When comparing CLIL to traditional EFL settings, it is Harrop's view that “the key difference is the provision of a meaningful context and the use of the foreign language as a tool to explore and construct meaning” (2012, p. 66). In this line, Muñoz (2007, pp. 21-23) looks into some weaknesses of traditional language teaching and how they are overcome by CLIL. She signposts the main issues with regards to input in traditional programmes which include limited FL exposure due to timetable constraints. Furthermore, this author explains that language is typically treated as an object to be

analysed and, thus, it may lack authenticity; consequently, learners do not feel the need or motivation to process input that is not communicative and real. Muñoz (2007, p. 21) also indicates that, in non-communicative lessons, the processing of form is realized through explicit instruction and the input is functionally restricted to that provided by the textbook or the typical functions of the classroom. Lastly, given that the formal elements are devoid of meaning, the learners are not motivated to consolidate and incorporate them into their linguistic system, which results in a limited student output that lacks deep processing.

After listing the main drawbacks of EFL instruction, Muñoz (2007) then concentrates on its advantages and presents CLIL as an alternative that, in her words:

- a) provides plenty of input beyond the limits of the language class
- b) provides real and relevant input for the learner, that is input with reference to the content that the teacher and materials are presenting and explaining as well as the language for classroom management (...)
- c) motivates the processing of meaning, because it is interesting in itself, given that it is required in order to understand a History lesson, or Maths, or to carry out the required activities in a P.E. class. (Muñoz, 2007, p. 23)

In a similar vein, Marsh (2012) regards the FL class as an artificial environment focused on language learning, and raises the issue of authenticity and relevance in these contexts. In contrast, teaching through CLIL, according to this author, means "working in rich communicative environments that require performative action engages the individual, and helps develop holistic language awareness"(Marsh, 2008, p. 300).

Various investigators advocate that a move be made towards a focus on form, based on the evidence stemming from immersion experiences. Research shows that increased exposure to comprehensible input and a communicative focus per se do not guarantee improved accuracy. It has been highlighted that, "although the integration of a focus on form is not a defining characteristic of CLIL teaching, it is viewed as a highly desirable characteristic of all communicative lessons, including CLIL" (Muñoz, 2007, p. 23). In

turn, Järvinen (2006) particularly defends a more explicit negotiation of form in CLIL lessons: “focused feedback, opportunities for extended and challenging oral output and interaction, authentic content and language integrating tasks with a metacognitive component” (2006, p.10).

Analysing language and establishing a relationship between language objectives and content objectives is deemed necessary by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, pp. 36-37) who proposed the “Language Triptych”: a conceptual representation of this connection (cf. Figure 2).

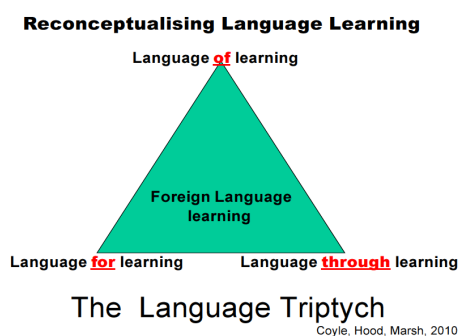


Figure 2. The Language Triptych (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010, pp. 36-37)

The Triptych analyses CLIL vehicular language from three interrelated points of view:

- *Language of Learning*: It refers to the language that students need in order to “access basic concepts and skills relating to the subject theme or topic” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010, p. 37). An example would be using the past tense in a Science CLIL class in a meaningful way.
- *Language for Learning*: It is the kind of language students need to learn, understand and use to operate effectively in a foreign language. They need to develop skills to work collaboratively, enquire, or debate and develop a set of content-related speech acts (such as describing or drawing conclusions) to carry out tasks effectively.

- *Language through Learning*: It is the emerging language that needs to be strategically developed by teachers to advance the students' thinking processes. This view is based on the idea that, when the FL is used to promote higher order thinking, a deeper and more effective type of learning takes place.

A supplementary viewpoint worthy of mentioning regarding the role of language is Cummins' BICS and CALP distinction and the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979). The presence of the *Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills* (BICS) and *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency* (CALP) dichotomy is of great importance in the CLIL classroom. BICS comprises skills necessary for everyday social situations or language for communicative purposes, like face-to-face conversations. CALP embodies the capacity of using language of a formal or more academic status and is developed in certain reduced contexts like classrooms (Cummins, 2000, 2008). Both types of communicative competences should be taken into account by teachers in their planning and developed in the CLIL class, because, "while BICS may develop as a result of general classroom discourse, CALP will need specific attention" (Clegg, 2007, p. 120).

In closing this section, it should be underlined that the level of competence already acquired in the L1 can have an enormous impact on FL learning success as well. Cummins (1979) acknowledged the critical function of the mother tongue in second language acquisition through the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis. According to this theory, the students may transfer the system of meanings they possess in their L1 to the foreign language being learnt and vice versa (cf. 3.1.1).

3.2.4.4. The role of the teacher

The responsibilities of CLIL teachers, according to Massler et al. (2010), are considerably more demanding than those of their non-CLIL colleagues; in addition to the general skills expected of any good teacher, they must be able to foster mastery of

the subject content and L2 development simultaneously. This entails the use of specific techniques of two subjects, merging them “in such a way that the result will be more than the sum of its parts” (Massler, 2010, p. 67). That is why the figure of the teacher and his/her input in the CLIL class is pivotal to attain positive results in this area. Furthermore, referring to educators’ use of language, Marsh (2006, p. 33) claims “all teachers take responsibility for nurturing its development in the classroom. This is because successful learning depends on the amount, quality and richness of the input”.

It is clear from the prior quotations that the importance of the teacher’s input in CLIL is generally recognised. There is, however, a lack of agreement regarding the minimum level of L2 proficiency necessary for effective CLIL implementation. Concerning this controversial issue, a vast spectrum of opinions have been reported. For instance, Finnish Education authorities require a C2 level of proficiency, while a British teacher-training provider for CLIL in primary requires a B2 level and an Italian project for teaching Mathematics in English requires at least a B1 level (Ludbrook, 2008, p. 23). In addition to this, it should be noted that not all CLIL teachers have the same qualifications, so the types of teachers implementing the approach in different European countries are highly variegated. In some countries, schoolteachers have qualifications in more than one subject. CLIL teachers in Germany, for instance, may be trained in both the target language and the content subject (Ludbrook, 2008). This, however, is not as plausible from a legal perspective in many other countries, like Spain, where teachers typically have only one subject specialisation.

Comenius and many other European initiatives have provided much-needed in-service teacher training and offered schools the financial support required to launch their CLIL programmes. Pavón and Ellison (2013, p. 75) mention numerous publications from the Council of Europe aimed at preparing CLIL teachers for their job, such as *Teacher Education for CLIL across Contexts: From Scaffolding Framework to Teacher Portfolio for Content and Language Integrated Learning* (Hansen-Pauly et al., 2009), *The European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education* (Frigols et al., 2011), *The CLIL Teacher’s Competences Grid* (Bertaux et al., 2010) or *The European Profile for*

Language Teacher Education: A Framework of Reference (Kelly et al., 2004). Conjointly, European educational authorities have allocated a great amount of funds in the past two decades to the continuous upgrading of L2 proficiency and CLIL methodological knowledge of CLIL teachers. Nevertheless, in recent research studies on CLIL training, severe deficiencies have transpired that negatively affect teacher efficiency and confidence (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador, 2017; Durán-Martínez et al, 2016; Navés, 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2016b; Pladevall Ballester, 2015; Rubio Mostacero, 2009)

No teacher is an island, especially in an area as challenging as CLIL, where collaboration between content subject teachers and language specialists becomes a must. Marsh (2006, p. 32) attests that “integration of subject matter invites alternative teaching and learning paths. The traditional profile of the teacher as a ‘lone rider’ doing his or her subject in isolation from others is clearly under threat”. Cooperation can alleviate the greater workload typically associated to CLIL teaching and result in a stress-relieving, time-saving and rewarding experience for those involved (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008, p. 22). Muñoz (2007) further reflects on this necessary teacher alliance:

Collaboration between the content teacher, who incorporates a second language in the content lessons, and the language teacher can be particularly fruitful since the latter can provide the linguistic explanations and suitable practice in their lessons, so that they will not be empty of content or lacking in purpose. (Muñoz, 2007, p. 24)

3.2.4.5. The role of the learner

Now that we have reflected on the role played by CLIL teachers, let us turn to the main partaker involved in any CLIL scheme: the student. The role of the foreign language learner has changed considerably in the past few decades. Until relatively recently, Spain followed a traditional teacher-centred approach in which students had a rather passive role and language learning was compartmentalised and exam-oriented. Usually,

decontextualised information about the language was transmitted by the teacher and committed to memory by the individual student, with very few opportunities for meaningful peer interaction.

Fortunately, attention to student individuality has resulted in important changes in the classroom. Numerous authors have studied the characteristics of the students and the conditions necessary for successful language teaching (Bazo, 1996), the factors affecting language learning (Lightbown & Spada, 2000), learner-centred instruction (Brown, 2001), individual learner factors (Omaggio, 2000) or even personality factors (Brown, 1987). Research like that conducted by the above-mentioned authors has brought educationists a step closer to successful language teaching by informing the creation of different strategies and tools to counteract those variables known to negatively affect FL learning. Already in 1998, Harmer was able to outline the ideal language student profile by observing the characteristics shared by those students who are most engaged in the learning process: good classroom learners share a willingness to listen and to experiment, they are naturally inquisitive, accept corrections and reflect on how to improve their own learning skills (Harmer, 1998, p. 10).

Within the CLIL environment, students can be considered the major stakeholders, since they are the central agents of the learning process. The eminently communicative and cross-curricular nature of the approach certainly places high demands on students, as “CLIL learners need to discuss, debate, justify and explain using more complex language and different sorts of language than would be practised in the regular foreign language lessons” (Coyle 2006, p. 10). Nevertheless, adopting such a different and active role within the classroom may prove challenging for some students. To Deller (2005, p. 2), “if it is a subject for which they have very little understanding, liking or empathy, and (...) if they are being taught in a language they find difficult, then learning anything is going to be a miracle”. To rectify this situation, this scholar advocates the use of activities and processes to make the lessons more interesting and active, and therefore more motivating. A more positive view on the matter is expressed by scholars like Coyle (2006, p. 1), who stresses the fact that CLIL learners are not expected to

attain bilingual status and substantiates that CLIL represents “a more holistic educational experience for the learner”.

3.2.4.6. The role of parents

Successful CLIL programmes require the joint effort of all stakeholders concerned, and thus parental involvement proves crucial: “family participation is twice as predictive of academic learning as is the family’s socioeconomic status. Parents who feel welcome in schools are a powerful resource that can better their children’s education” (Montemayor, 2004, p. 1). Furthermore, Navés (2009, p. 30) highlights that some of the most successful BE and immersion programmes were introduced as a bottom-up movement; in other words, these “were initially established because of strong parental interest in giving their children enriched language and culture education” (Navés 2009, p. 30).

As is the case with education in general, parents should offer support to their children by becoming involved in the school CLIL project and by taking an active interest throughout the whole process. Moreover, a correlation between academic achievement and parental involvement was demonstrated by Jeynes (2005) in his meta-analysis of 41 studies on urban elementary schools. More recently, Jeynes (2012) performed a broader meta-analysis of 51 studies on parental involvement programmes (particular sets of activities organised by schools to increase parents’ engagement in their children’s education). This author makes various recommendations for schools to enhance the efficacy of parental involvement programmes. School leaders should offer advice to parents on essential factors such as setting high expectations, encouraging their engagement in checking homework and shared reading activities, and on adopting parenting styles associated with student achievement.

The proactive involvement of families is of utmost importance for the successful implementation of the CLIL scheme. Nevertheless, it must be underlined that,

especially at the beginning, a new approach like CLIL can sometimes make families feel frustrated or worried about how their children are going to cope with it and what they can do to help. In this respect, Marsh lists some questions frequently asked by parents and addresses them:

- Could learning in the additional language hurt the child's first language?
- Will my child learn the main content as well as if (s)he studies only in the first language?
- What if my child is not as good at languages as the other children in the classroom?
- Should my children already have a background in the additional language [...]?
- Is it likely that my child will have to do more work, and possibly face more stress if (s)he joins CLIL?
- Is it important that the parent can also speak in the CLIL language?
- What if I cannot help my child with his/her homework?
- Will I have to spend more money on materials if my child goes into a CLIL class?

(Marsh, 2000, pp. 11-13)

Feeling this initial anxiety about what and how their children are going to be taught is perfectly normal, but research shows that, as time goes by, participants involved become familiarised with the various aspects of CLIL programme implementation and soon become aware of its many benefits. In his two-year study of six German primary schools, Massler (2012, p. 40) assessed all stakeholder-groups' perspectives and concluded that "the majority of parents reported being convinced of the value of studying a content subject module through an additional language". In this line, an extremely recent study by Raez Padilla (2018) provides evidence on parents' positive assessment of their children's FL development, participation and motivation towards the CLIL subject, mirroring the outcomes of previous investigations. Families also expressed their satisfaction in relation to the methodologies and types of assessment employed and pointed at homework, mobility and school-home communication as the main areas for improvement in the CLIL programme.

3.2.4.7. CLIL methodology and evaluation

“Embracing the CLIL approach does not automatically lead to successful teaching and learning. To truly realize the added value of CLIL, teachers need to embrace a new paradigm of teaching and learning” (Meyer, 2010, p. 13). CLIL should be a flexible teaching practice that tries to facilitate content and context understanding and, in this sense, teachers must “work to create a climate that fosters continuous language growth” (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 30). It has already been stressed that the existence of meaningful learning and greater use of language and interaction are some of the main features of CLIL, and that these are enabled by a “(...) constant and meaningful contextualisation of content in lessons” (Coyle, 2006, p. 11). An important shift must take place from instructional to participative classes; teaching the same content in the same way but with another language simply would not be effective (Pavón & Ellison, 2013, p. 72).

The limited practical guidance and methodological resources available for teachers have been criticised. Meyer (2010) puts forward several quality principles and strategies necessary to plan and teach with a multiple focus, a paramount aspect for the successful integration of content and language. He then introduces his CLIL-Pyramid as a tool for planning lessons and building quality materials. It incorporates six principles and strategies and was designed based on the tenets of the 4Cs Framework. The author’s well-documented reflection on CLIL methodology hinges on up-to-date CLIL and SLA research, teaching methodology, extensive classroom observation, cognitive psychology and critical insights into his personal teaching experience. Below is an overview of the aforementioned principles (Meyer, 2010, pp. 13-25):

1. *Rich input*: Adequate classroom materials should be authentic, meaningful and challenging. These should focus on global problems and at the same time connect with students’ everyday lives and their main interests. Meyer mentions Krashen’s monitor hypothesis and the latest neurolinguistic studies to stress the importance of motivation on language learning. Interactive materials in the FL such as webquests,

video-clips or podcasts are motivating and offer authentic language input. This source of challenging tasks can foster creative thinking, self-directed differentiated learning and meaningful language output.

2. *Scaffolding learning*: Students should be given adequate support to cope with authentic materials so that as much input as possible can successfully become intake. Scaffolding serves several purposes: it helps learners understand the language and the content, hence reducing the cognitive and linguistic load; it provides some appropriate, supportive structuring, enabling students to accomplish a given task; and it supports language production (pushed output) by providing phrases and the specific vocabulary students need to verbalize their thoughts, thus boosting Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency. Meaningful and systematic practice (training) of efficient learning skills and strategies in CLIL lessons promotes language as well as higher order and critical thinking skills.
3. *Rich interaction and pushed output*: TBLT should be an integral part of CLIL programmes due to the fact that tasks trigger student interaction and output. Long's Interaction Hypothesis emphasises the importance of interaction to facilitate language acquisition. He suggests that interlanguage is promoted by feedback obtained during conversational interaction as it "connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (Long, 1996, p. 152). In turn, Swain asserts that "learners need to be pushed to make use of their resources; they need to have their linguistic abilities stretched to their fullest; they need to reflect on their output and consider ways of modifying it to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness and accuracy" (Swain, 1993, p. 160). When languages are used with communicative purposes in meaningful social situations is when they are acquired most successfully and this is precisely what TBLT does: it helps bring that authenticity into the classroom.
4. *Adding the (inter-)cultural dimension*: The promotion of higher levels of language proficiency and greater cultural awareness has been regarded as the backbone of the construction of Europe. In this globalised world, students need to learn about other countries for successful intercultural communication; this will enable our students to work in teams across national and cultural borders. Intercultural communicative

competence lies at the heart of CLIL teaching, as it looks at topics from different cultural angles, respecting other values and beliefs, and observing hidden cultural codes and the appropriate linguistic (and non-linguistic) strategies for successful communication. Research comparing different textbooks, however, has shown that there is room for improvement concerning this aspect, in the sense that the cultural dimension is yet to be properly exploited in CLIL.

5. *Higher order thinking skills (HOTS)*: These appear to be the way forward in the Information Age; however, the preference for factual knowledge (the lowest level of thinking) in teaching still cannot be denied at present. A comparative study of CLIL classrooms by Vollmer (2008) reports major deficits in the academic language use of CLIL students both in the foreign language and in their mother tongue. Two main methodological consequences regarding CLIL transpire from these data. The first would be that effective teaching equals triggering various cognitive activities to keep students engaged and challenged by balancing input, tasks, output and scaffolding in CLIL lessons. A powerful tool for successful differentiation in CLIL, as demonstrated by Pohl (2006), is combining Gardner's concept of multiple intelligences with Bloom's revised taxonomy. The second would be that academic thinking skills need systematic instruction both in the L1 and L2 because they are not acquired naturally: students should be taught how to express complex thought processes. According to Zwiers (2006), academic discourse functions can be readily incorporated into our teaching routine and be fostered through diverse activities.
6. *Sustainable learning*: Learning is sustainable when new knowledge is effectively rooted in the students' long-term memory. It is an active knowledge that can be deliberately retrieved to complete tasks or to solve problems. This concept is key in a dual-focused approach like CLIL. Summarising Meyer's words (2010, p. 22), to ensure learning is sustainable, the CLIL instructor should connect with the learner's experiences and interests; promote cooperative student-centered activities; provide a clear structure, making the process of learning transparent; and encourage autonomous learning. In addition, the teacher must use the L1 strategically to support learning, embrace the Lexical Approach (cf. section 2.11.2) and emphasise spiral learning, study and learning skills.

In addition to all the features explained above, it is worth mentioning that CLIL methodology is equally based on some premises pursued by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Lorenzo (2007, pp. 31-32) points out that these analogous intentions are anchored in the increase of communicative competence, the inclusion of task-based approaches, student concentration on text production, and the exploitation of a systematic functional approach, in which the focal point is meaning, rather than a system of rules.

Assessment and evaluation are also key factors to be taken into account in a CLIL framework. The numerous problems found in CLIL assessment and its heterogeneous implementations have resulted in some authors voicing the sparsity of publications and research on this issue (Hönig, 2009; Vollmer, 2001). Thus, Hönig claims that assessment in CLIL is often referred to as a difficult, problematic or unexplored field. The contrast between CLIL evaluation and other types of assessment rests on the difficulty of integrating the evaluation of students' achievement in the subject-matter and in the foreign language. Vollmer (2001, in Hönig, 2009) signposts teachers' tendency to concentrate on the evaluation of content while neglecting the target language. However, there is a strong case for both the L1 and the L2 to be evaluated, as EU-funded projects like the CLIL Compendium recommend the inclusion of language in assessment, but it is also true that the extent to which each one is valued is entirely dependent upon school procedure (Wolf, 2005).

The types of assessment, as Coyle, Holmes and King (2009) underscore, vary according to the instructor teaching the course and to the CLIL programme's contribution to the overall curriculum. Consequently, the researchers assert that "usually the methods used to assess learning outcomes in CLIL tend to depend exclusively on local decisions within schools" (2009, p. 20). Thus, teachers distinguish several forms of evaluating students' achievements. In this sense, instructors try to combine formal assessment, which includes tests and exams to evaluate learners' knowledge or ability, and informal assessment, which refers to a collection of information by means of observation,

students' participation and discussion within the classroom (Rowntree 1981, in Hönig, 2009).

In her study of assessment in a secondary school, Hönig (2009, p. 2) criticises CLIL teachers' propensity to not communicate their assessment practices to their peers and calls for an "open and intense" debate among the instructors involved in the CLIL process in order to tackle this controversial matter and progress satisfactorily in this area. In other words, "making intended learning outcomes and the component parts of academic language visible are central to formative assessment, the fostering of critical thinking about the learning process, and the building of learner autonomy and motivation" (Mehisto, 2012, p. 30).

3.2.5. CLIL assets

Closely related to the above-mentioned aims are the benefits brought about by CLIL, which contrast with those of traditional teaching practices. Firstly, it is manifest that students involved in CLIL schemes become extensively prepared and skilled to cope with their studies and future working life beyond their national boundaries. Put differently, CLIL provides our young society with manifold opportunities for future studies and jobs by giving them the necessary competences. In this vein, Marsh (2000, p. 10) documents: "CLIL offers one additional means by which to give our youngsters the opportunities to develop their capacity to use language and to reap the benefits in their present and future lives". Hence, CLIL is a unique opportunity to prepare students for global citizenship and, as Harrop (2012, p. 67) aptly puts it, "with the growing need for a genuinely global sense of citizenship, this dimension of CLIL programmes is probably its most valuable asset and one that cannot afford to come second to the more practical aims of enhancing linguistic proficiency". Marsh (2000, p. 10) also elaborates on this issue by claiming: "being able to frame their thoughts in more than one language can give advantages to a youngster in terms of thinking and studying".

These skills which students develop are mainly generated by the naturalistic environment and meaningful contexts that CLIL teachers seek to create for them. As expounded on earlier in our characterisation of CLIL, the approach typically presents situations in which naturalistic conditions and meaningful learning with real communication take place, and although the stress is put on content, a purpose for language learning exists (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Navés, 2009). CLIL advocates claim it increases linguistic proficiency in several ways by providing increased exposure to comprehensible input and particularly to context-embedded, cognitively challenging tasks that improve both content knowledge and language skills (Greenfell, 2002; Cummins & Swain, 1986). Furthermore, with the creation of such authentic and meaningful communicative context, the approach provides a naturalistic environment where the FL can be more readily acquired while the focus is on meaning (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Similarly, Navés (2009) observes that with this more acquisition-based instruction focused on negotiation of meaning, CLIL guarantees enhanced exposure to the target language. CLIL fosters acquisition over conscious learning, according to Darn (2006, p. 4), “since language acquisition is a cyclical rather than linear process, the thematic nature of CLIL facilitates the creation of a functional-notional syllabus, adding new language whilst recycling pre-existing knowledge”.

Along with the aforementioned upgrade of overall linguistic competence, deeper subject-matter knowledge is also acquired. When students are provided with opportunities to study content in a language different from their mother tongue, a more sophisticated mental agility and cognitive abilities are generated. In this sense, Coyle (1997, as cited in Marsh, 2002, p. 69) states that “We have evidence that it develops their analytic, reflective, and hypothesizing skills and all that encourages them to become much greater risk-takers in terms of their linguistic self-confidence”. CLIL helps students develop their Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, which encompasses the specialised language skills necessary to make the expected progress in subject learning. These take typically much longer to develop than Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills. CALP takes learners beyond BICS and is advanced by discussing subject concepts and processes in the CLIL classroom, both in L1 or L2

(Massler, 2010). As Vázquez (2007, p. 100) explains, “the contents, the basic principles and the emphasis on cognitive processes implicit in CLIL encourage the recognition of diverse ways of interpreting the world”.

One of the main assets of CLIL is its documented increase of learner motivation. CLIL is inherently meaningful in the sense that it fosters a purposeful use of the L2 as a means towards an end (content) in a non-threatening learning environment. Ramírez Verdugo (2010, p. 18) explains that CLIL is content-oriented and it emphasises communication-focused language learning. According to this author, these features, in juxtaposition with the enhanced opportunities for classroom interaction, promote “individual learning strategies and interactive methodologies and lead(s) to increased learner motivation, bringing additional benefits for learning”. In turn, Darn (2006) elaborates on the idea of CLIL learners’ motivation and asserts:

Natural use of language can boost a learner’s motivation towards learning languages. In CLIL, language is a means not an end, and when learners are interested in a topic they will be motivated to acquire language to communicate. Language is learnt more successfully when the learner has the opportunity to gain subject knowledge at the same time. (Darn, 2006, p. 4)

From these reflections it follows that, in such prolific learning environments, students witness a rapid progress and become more self-confident and motivated as a result. Furthermore, it is not only among CLIL students that motivation appears to increase; Coyle (2006, p. 11) states that “one of the most powerful findings of CLIL groups centres on increased motivation in both learners and teachers”. Heightened motivation in teachers is also a result of the opportunity to update their knowledge and skills by participating in life-long learning schemes. Moreover, teacher motivation can also be boosted by collaboration between instructors, which not only helps them update and improve their knowledge and skills, but also leads to the creation of a strong learning community where each individual has a role to play. Communities of practice involve cooperation and partnerships for learning, networks of CLIL teachers and stakeholders, and an important joint effort of content and language trainers. Coyle (2006, p. 12) insists that, for CLIL pedagogy to be useful, it needs to be “owned by the community,

developed through classroom exploration and understood *in situ*- a theory of practice developed for practice and through practice. CLIL is not THE answer but it offers an alternative to be explored by learners, teachers and trainers.”

3.2.6. CLIL pitfalls

A considerable body of research attests to CLIL success, but, as is the case with all educational programmes, CLIL is not exempt from drawbacks either. This section aims to portray a clear picture of the chief limitations of CLIL after having discussed its inherent features and considerable potential.

At the beginning, CLIL was painted in an almost exclusively positive light and it was “embraced quickly and enthusiastically by stakeholders: Parents, students, language/educational policy-makers all over the world, but especially in Europe” (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2016, p. 110). However, the appearance of what is known as the “pendulum effect” in the CLIL research arena has recently been put forward by Pérez Cañado (2016d). She claims that, initially, CLIL had an exponential uptake, but in the past five years “the pendulum has swung to the other extreme” (2016d, p. 3). Authors like Paran (2013), Bruton (2011b, 2013, and 2015), Cabezas Cabello (2010) or Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013) among others, have begun to challenge different aspects of CLIL characterisation, investigation and implementation.

CLIL has been strongly criticised for being terminologically unclear; for instance, Bruton mentioned its “convenient vagueness” (2013, p. 588) and Paran alluded to its “ill-defined nature” (2013, p. 318). As a result, for many years, “the prevalent tendency was to distill the core features which differentiate CLIL from other types of immersion approaches and which make it a foreign language teaching trend in its own right” (Pérez Cañado, 2016c, p. 5). However, this practice is now considered reductionist and many authors like Somers and Surmont (2010), Cenoz, Genesee, and Gorter (2013), Hüttner and Smit (2014), Cenoz (2015), and Cenoz and Ruiz de Zarobe (2015) have a more

inclusive stance of the approach and avoid giving “a detailed, theoretically ‘tight’ definition of what is (not) CLIL” (Hüttner & Smit, 2014, p. 164).

Other publications focus on the considerable structural difficulties surrounding CLIL implementation. As stated by Mehisto (2008), “from a lack of sustainable teacher supply and insufficient pre- or in-service training, to the difficulties in sourcing teaching materials and overcoming parental reluctance, the road to CLIL is not straightforward even for the most committed” (as cited in Harrop, 2012, p. 58). It appears then that CLIL disadvantages chiefly affect teachers, whereas assets are predominantly allied to students (Pérez Cañado, 2012).

On the teacher front, shortage of staff and materials, together with a greater workload, are listed by Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 20) as common potential barriers on the road to good practice in CLIL. They go on to acknowledge that CLIL has outpaced teacher education provision. A European macro-study by Pérez Cañado (2016a) on the training needs of in-service teachers evinces the paucity of training, particularly on the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL and professional development. The study leaves the reader with the overriding impression that a great number of instructors are still ill-equipped to teach through CLIL successfully, and that considerable strides need to be taken in this respect. Certainly, when an innovative programme rapidly expands from one education level to another, teacher-training institutions often fail to catch up with the increasing demand, which results in a shortage of instructors specifically trained for it, as it appears to be the case with CLIL. Moreover, the CLIL subjects offered by schools are heavily dependent on teacher availability; therefore, a shortage of instructors can provoke inconsistencies or even discontinuity of CLIL programmes. Some steps have been taken to address the issue, but “the growing body of research in this area has evinced, however, that these actions have been insufficient to prepare practitioners to step up confidently to the CLIL challenge” (Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015, p. 7).

Far from being a revitalising force, CLIL can prove overwhelming for many teachers, especially if they have been compelled in one way or another to adopt the approach. Not

all teachers are equally prepared to devote the time and energy demanded by CLIL: a constant upgrade of their language competence, extra preparation time for lessons, fully understanding and embracing CLIL pedagogies, developing CLIL resources, cooperating with other instructors, or striving for educational success. For instance, cooperating with colleagues is paramount to CLIL success, but it can lead to frustration and conflict when instructors do not see eye-to-eye regarding the implementation of major programme goals. Some practitioners simply lack adequate training and feel uncertain on how to proceed, so they “make few alterations to their teaching apart from the change of the language of instruction” (Järvinen, 2006, p. 2), which can be, in our view, a recipe for disaster. Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013, p. 70) further delve into the issue and highlight that “unfortunately, many content teachers are unsure about the way they should perform in the CLIL/bilingual class because they are not aware of the methodological changes required in these contexts”. Darn (2006, p. 7) goes as far as to suggest that “the majority of teachers working on bilingual programmes may be ill-equipped to do the job adequately”.

In addition to this, we should consider that untrained staff and misinformed stakeholders might fail to grasp the CLIL concept altogether. A major obstacle is the negative attitude of many adults, who find the whole idea somewhat “counterintuitive” and proclaim that “common sense seems to say that students studying a second language cannot possibly learn the same amount of content as studying in the first language” (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 20). People unfamiliar with the approach often come from educational backgrounds alien to the principle of transversality, and believe that the curriculum ought to be organised in neatly separated subjects.

Other controversies surrounding CLIL are that it interferes with normal L1 development and with content acquisition or that it is an elitist approach suitable only for academically gifted learners. A possible discriminatory effect of CLIL transpires from some publications, which affirm there is disguised selectivity in this approach. In this sense, Bruton (2013, p. 594) claims that “structural selectivity of CLIL appears to have a greater impact on student achievement than CLIL itself has on student achievement”.

In turn, Paran (2013, p. 326) contends that “the issue of self-selection is likely to mean higher initial competence as well as higher motivation”. However, a considerable amount of research carried out on these aspects is very positive and shows students from a wide spectrum of abilities and backgrounds making good progress both in L2 and subject content knowledge, with L1 development generally unaffected. Still, results are mixed and authors like Pérez Cañado (2012) and Bruton (2011a, 2011b, 2013, 2015) consistently point out frequent methodological flaws in many pro-CLIL studies, which may have skewed results.

Concretely, Bruton (2011b) criticises CLIL studies that show overwhelmingly positive results by calling attention to their consensual lack of initial scores when comparing CLIL and non-CLIL group results (Admiraal, Westhoff & de Bot, 2006; Alonso, Grisaleña & Campo, 2008; Villarreal-Olaizola & García-Mayo, 2009; San Isidro, 2010). Also, the inability of some studies to take into account variables like attitude (Hüttner & Rieder-Bünemann; 2007, Navés & Victori, 2010) or extra exposure to the target language in certain groups (Villarreal-Olaizola & García-Mayo, 2009) has been foregrounded. For research to have credibility, the existing diversity of CLIL implementation and contexts needs to be acknowledged as well: “cross-study evaluations need to remain particularly careful not to disregard the different education specificities the respective CLIL studies are taken from” (Hüttner & Smit, 2014, p. 163). In the light of observations like these, the validity of much research on CLIL benefits appears to be disputable even for those initially endorsing its great potential, since its widespread implementation appears to have outpaced sound empirical evidence of its success (Darn, 2006). Pérez Cañado (2016c) echoes the current CLIL controversy in her accurate description of its evolution:

Its hard-and-fast appearance in the field of language education, its swift uptake across the continent (and even beyond it), and the phenomenal amount of attention it has attracted have caused a vibrant research scene to burgeon around it, leading from what we could term an initial CLIL craze to a period of CLIL critique and, at present, to a CLIL conundrum. (Pérez Cañado, 2016c, p. 21)

It is our hope that the present study will contribute to shed some light on this matter, since “neither optimistic nor alarming viewpoints should be accepted unless they are supported by empirical evidence. Therefore, the more research data there is available, the more theoretically sound the decisions made will be” (Lasagabaster, 2008, p. 40).

CHAPTER 4

CLIL RESEARCH AND IMPLEMENTATION

4.1 CLIL in Europe

We have expounded on the origins of CLIL and how it has evolved, provided an array of possible definitions of this term and reviewed its traits, chief assets and pitfalls. Now, to finish our depiction of CLIL, it becomes necessary to examine the existing literature in order to offer a thorough revision of this approach at both national and European levels in terms of implementation and research.

As has been ascertained previously, CLIL implementations are expectedly diverse throughout the continent; hence, solid substantiation through empirical investigation is necessary to gauge the effects exerted by this heterogeneous CLIL implementation. Most EU countries offer some CLIL provision, either within mainstream primary, secondary or tertiary education or as part of experimental project or pilot studies, as Fortanet-Gómez and Ruiz-Garrido (2009, p. 53) claim. It appears that CLIL has become much “more than a trendy acronym” (Ullmann, 1999, p. 104), since over 30 European countries are involved with CLIL programmes according to the 2006 Eurydice survey *CLIL at School in Europe*. Widespread CLIL is thus consolidated, or as Lorenzo puts it: “multilingualism is seizing schools and the CLIL scheme has grown stronger as a solution” (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 29).

Next, a comprehensive inspection of noteworthy studies conducted by the most prominent figures in the field is provided. The examination of such an ample selection will further contextualise our study providing us with a trustworthy depiction of CLIL practice within the European backdrop. In addition, the relevant conclusions drawn from scientific enquiry will reveal the exact current scope of CLIL in Europe.

4.1.1 Northern Europe

The most prominent European countries with regards to CLIL provision and research will now be grouped according to geographical proximity, following Pérez Cañado

(2012). The chief elements around which CLIL investigations have typically been articulated involve its effects on FL acquisition, the mother tongue, content subject knowledge, and the qualitative evaluation of CLIL programmes by students and their teachers (Wolff, 2005).

In Northern Europe, four countries stand out for their research into the effects of CLIL on foreign language and L1 competence, content learning, and participant stances: Finland, Norway, Sweden and Estonia. The most acclaimed scholar in Finland is David Marsh, who is one of the most prevalent CLIL figures in the world. Despite not being renowned for his research, Marsh has notably enriched the European CLIL scene by leading the creation of numerous networks of CLIL practitioners and scholars across the continent, organising conferences and seminars, conceiving the CLIL Consortium, creating CLIL resources and amply theorising on the approach (Fortanet-Gómez & Ruiz-Garrido, 2009).

Järvinen, also in Finland, has conducted relevant empirical research to address the question of CLIL effects on L2 development. Järvinen (1999, 2005) evaluates the syntax acquired by English Medium Instruction students (EMI) and by monolingual ones asserting the existence of statistically significant differences in favour of the bilingual cohort. However, it should be noted that neither of these studies guarantees the homogeneity of the groups. Other scholars like Bergroth (2006) focus not only on L2 but also on the mother tongue, L3 development and on content knowledge. In this quantitative study into the effects of a Swedish CLIL scheme in secondary education, the author claims that CLIL has no negative effects on L1 and subject learning. Moreover, in this investigation the bilingual cohort superseded the EFL stream regarding L2 and L3 skills.

Jäppinen (2006) also corroborates the successful outcomes in content learning of CLIL programmes. The scholar studied the thinking and learning processes of over 600 students in Mathematics and Science courses taught through a FL, finding that CLIL

environments, although initially more challenging, do create favourable conditions for successful subject matter acquisition (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2014, p. 54).

In turn, Merisuo-Storm (2006, 2007) makes a strong case in favour of CLIL in her study at primary education level. She measures the impact of CLIL on literacy skills development; more concretely, the researcher compares CLIL and regular streams in terms of the literacy skills exhibited by learners in their mother tongue. The study not only revealed that students enrolled in a CLIL programme adopt more positive attitudes towards FL learning, but it also evinced that CLIL had no negative effects on the L1. The interest of this investigation lies in its longitudinal nature and in the fact that it factors in the intervening variables of gender and school readiness.

Similarly, Seikkula-Leino's study (2007) looks into the effects of CLIL on the L1 and gauges the students' self-concept and motivation to learn. Her study included 217 subjects coming from ten different class groups: 101 following a traditional EFL programme and 217 learning Mathematics through CLIL. Results showed no statistically significant differences in achievement regarding the pupils' performance in their mother tongue nor in the content subject. The researcher, however, points out that the number of overachievers in the CLIL group is lower and argues that "learning in CLIL can be so challenging that the maximal outcome of content learning is not always reached" (Seikkula-Leino, 2007, p. 338). Lastly, the outcomes of her analysis of affective factors show that, although there were no statistically significant differences in self-esteem between cohorts, the CLIL strand considered themselves weaker FL learners. Nevertheless, these students exhibited a strong motivation towards the FL and learning in general.

Finally, there are two further studies worth mentioning here that have contributed to characterising Finnish CLIL from a qualitative viewpoint. Both Romu and Sjöberg-Heino (1999) and Södegård's (2006) inquiries have gauged students' perspectives at primary level with promising results: overall satisfaction with the programme, positive attitudes and increased confidence in the students (Pérez Cañado, 2012).

Moving on to Sweden, Airey (2004) comments on the scarcity of CLIL research and highlights there are only two main studies, those by Knight (1990) and by Washburn (1997), that assess FL competence. Outcomes show no significant differences between the CLIL and the non-CLIL cohorts, even after matching the groups for intelligence, motivation and sociocultural status (in Lasagabaster 2008, p. 33). Differences, however, did emerge in a later Swedish study of CLIL in secondary by Sylvén (2004). The incidental vocabulary acquisition of CLIL and traditional groups was tested throughout two years and data showed that the bilingual strands consistently outperformed their non-CLIL peers. Sylvén (2004) ascribed this superiority to the increased extramural exposure to reading in the FL on the part of the CLIL cohort. However, as Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 322) points out, since the author failed to factor in the necessary intervening variables and did not perform discriminant analysis, Sylvén's "claim remains empirically unsubstantiated". A subsequent study by the same author in 2006 further delves into the issue, correlating extramural exposure to self-assessment in secondary education. This time Sylvén (2006) found there was a relationship between the amount of contact with English outside the classroom and the students' level of self-assessment. Sundqvist and Sylvén (2011) understood the need to further investigate the impact of this matter on performance so they studied a cohort of Swedish fifth-grade CLIL students. They measured the effects that FL extramural exposure (particularly the Internet, computer games, music, television and films) had on English language skills. Their outcomes stress the importance of making researchers and stakeholders aware of the consequences of extra-curricular FL exposure, a key variable we have decided to include in our quantitative research.

More recently, Sundqvist and Sylvén (2015) delve deeper into this topic and confirm the existence of certain similarities between FL learning in formal CLIL contexts and informal extramural contact with the L2. Their study seeks to establish a relationship between extramural activities and the learning outcomes in school of non-CLIL secondary school learners of English. The investigation, which was carried out over the course of a semester in Sweden with 102 fifth-grade students (aged between 11 and 12), used a variety of data-gathering tools. Pupils had to fill out an FL diary recording every

contact they had had with English outside the classroom for a full week. In addition, their general language proficiency was measured through the mandatory national test of English (which evaluated the four skills) and the size of their vocabulary was assessed by an especially designed test based on both recognition and production.

Outcomes confirmed that L2 English learning is positively influenced by extramural English, where content and language are learned in combination in an informal context (mapping out a parallel to CLIL). It was found that the most popular activity was playing computer games, followed by watching TV and listening to music, all effective ways to trigger pupils' motivation towards English. In addition, strong and statistically significant correlations were found between obtaining higher marks in the language tests and devoting more hours per week to extramural activities in English (particularly those related to the use of the Internet and gaming). The scholars conclude that in both CLIL and non-CLIL learning environments it becomes paramount for teachers to be aware of the extramural habits of their pupils, and they call for further investigations regarding the role of extramural exposure in the reinforcement of FL proficiency, a rather under-researched field.

In this line, a year later Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016) published a book that combines the latest research about the effects of extramural exposure on English teaching and learning with theory and practice. The scholars build on the outcomes of previous empirical studies to conclude that extramural activities (contact with English in informal out-of-school contexts) can help pupils to develop their foreign language skills. The authors particularly acknowledge the great potential of digital gaming, one of the most influential fields in current research. According to Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016), these free time activities can be employed by teachers at primary and secondary levels as tools for language learning, and therefore, their 2016 volume seeks to shed some light on extramural English and to promote this underutilised resource.

Turning now to Norway, Hellekjaer (2004) explored the FL proficiency students have acquired by the end of upper secondary education and whether they have been

adequately prepared to face CLIL courses in higher education (universities in Norway generally lack English for academic purposes subjects). CLIL and monolingual strands sat the IELTS Reading for Academic Purposes Module Test, obtaining very different scores: three quarters of the CLIL cohort scored satisfactorily, whereas only one third of EFL students did. Hellekjaer concludes his investigation by extolling the virtues of CLIL as a solution to the problems often presented by traditional FL teaching, albeit acknowledging the need for similar studies measuring all skills and not only reading.

There exist two interesting CLIL studies at tertiary level worth reviewing here: Airey and Linder (2006) in Sweden and Hellekjaer (2010) in Norway. Both studies assess the level of comprehension in CLIL university lectures taught through English. The Swedish study observed and analysed a series of lectures attended by a small cohort of university-level students, while the investigation in Norway surveyed a much larger sample to gauge their experiences with English-medium lectures. Their findings confirm that lectures in the FL were considerably harder to follow. Major obstacles encompassed note-taking, classroom interaction, a need for compensation and intensified preparatory strategies and problems understanding explanations, pronunciation and/or vocabulary. Authors advanced different solutions like increased attention to course design and reinforcing lecturing techniques of university professors, as reported by Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 322).

Concluding with the Scandinavian setting, researchers from Estonia Mehisto and Asser (2007) offer a qualitative overview of CLIL practice through the use of lesson observation, questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with all participants involved. Results document CLIL success in almost all counts: enhanced learning, satisfaction, engagement and commitment registered for all the informants. Pitfalls affect mainly teachers and parents, who expressed their need for greater support, training and cooperation among themselves.

4.1.2. Central Europe

Pertaining to Central Europe, the cases of The Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland, and Austria will now be discussed. The Netherlands is conspicuous for its robust research in the field of CLIL, carried out by leading scholars at the University of Utrecht (Admiraal, Westhoff, De Graaff) and the research group led by Wilkinson in Maastricht, which has chiefly directed its efforts towards tertiary Education. Admiraal, Westhoff and de Bot (2006) present a commendable four-year longitudinal study implemented in five CLIL secondary schools that measured FL, L1 and subject matter proficiency using a sample of 1,305 participants. Outcomes unveiled accentuated FL proficiency in the CLIL strand, with better reading comprehension and oral proficiency than monolingual groups. No negative effects of CLIL on subject matter or L1 were found and no significant differences were observed with regards to the receptive vocabulary knowledge of the cohorts. Although the scholars considered certain intervening variables (gender, motivation, entry ability level, L1, extramural exposure, and motivation), they acknowledge that conclusions stemming from their data cannot be generalised due to a number of limitations in the study, namely the absence of initial matching of the streams and of necessary statistical analyses (Admiraal et al. 2006, p. 91).

A subsequent study by the same academics (De Graaff, Koopman, & Westhoff, 2007; De Graaff et al., 2007) was geared at supplementing their previous piece of research from a qualitative perspective. They recorded CLIL lessons in three Dutch schools and analysed them by means of an originally designed observation tool termed *SLA pentapie*. The instrument was based on five key assumptions on the effectiveness of CLIL pedagogy: teachers are a source of challenging input, there is form-focused and meaning-orientated processing, and the circumstances lead to student output and strategic language use. After close inspection of the videotaped lessons, researchers found that the mentioned teaching performance indicators were all present in Dutch CLIL teaching, deeming it an example of effective CLIL practice.

Close to the Netherlands, in a Dutch-speaking part of Belgium, Surmont et al (2016) investigated the effects of a CLIL environment on subject content knowledge. A total of 170 first year CSE pupils (35 CLIL and 72 non-CLIL) entered the study. Participants sat three mathematical tests: one at the beginning of the school year, one after three months and one last exam ten months later. The initial mathematical scores showed no significant difference, but after only three months the mathematical performance of the CLIL students was considerably superior, confirming prior studies indicating that CLIL enhances content acquisition as well as language learning. The authors hypothesise that CLIL possibly improves pupils' metalinguistic awareness, which could have eased students into the abstract language of Math. Nevertheless, they acknowledge that the aforementioned increase in metalinguistic awareness could not be directly proven in their study.

Next, research in Germany and the remaining two Central European countries is less prolific than that of the Netherlands with regards to language outcomes (Wolff, 2002) although there are interesting content-focused studies. Wode's investigation in 1999 is one of the earliest in Germany. The author administered tests to 700 participants in order to investigate FL gains in CLIL treatment and comparison groups. Language gains were reported in terms of vocabulary and subject matter development for the CLIL stream. Two decades later, a study by Zydati (2007) came to corroborate those positive results employing a sound statistical methodology. This project examined the grammar, lexis, communicative competence and subject matter literacy of a sample of 180 students in upper secondary. The CLIL strand exhibited a marked superiority, significantly outstripping the non-CLIL cohort on accuracy, grammar and vocabulary range, propositional richness and syntactic maturity (Prez Caado, 2012, p. 324).

Two recent content-oriented investigations particularly come to the fore in Germany as they call into question the superiority of CLIL schemes. In 2016, Piesche et al. presented a randomised controlled field experiment on the impact of CLIL instruction on students' content learning in Physics. A total of 722 secondary students with no prior CLIL experience were randomly designated to study a unit in the Physics subject taught

either in their L1 or in English and their L1, and evaluated at three points in time. For this study, content tests were designed and variables such as students' demographic background, general cognitive ability, physics pre-knowledge, English ability, motivation and instructional quality were controlled for. It was found that the monolingual participants performed better than the bilingually educated pupils both at the post-test (immediately after the intervention) and at follow-up six weeks later. In other words, the learning gains of CLIL-instructed participants were objectively smaller than those of their peers, pointing to possible negative effects of CLIL on content learning in pupils who lack CLIL experience.

That same year, Dallinger et al. (2016) analysed the development of FL skills and subject content knowledge of CLIL and non-CLIL secondary students. A considerable number of variables were factored in: pupils' general abilities, prior achievement, motivation, classroom composition, demographics, quality of instruction and teacher characteristics. Attainment was assessed through a general English skills and a specifically designed History test. Dallinger et al. (2016), attribute the significant differences found between the CLIL and monolingual groups to selection processes present in CLIL programmes. Their findings document CLIL students' better prior achievement and motivation in the FL, as well as the higher socioeconomic status (SES) and superior cognitive abilities of this cohort. Listening comprehension gains were considerably higher in CLIL groups; however, in terms of general English skills and subject content knowledge in History, no significant differences were detected. The scholars' conclusions suggest that the pace of CLIL instruction may be slower, as CLIL groups require a larger amount of instruction to achieve the same level of content knowledge than non-CLIL classrooms, thereby calling into question the suitability of CLIL programmes.

To finish our overview of CLIL research in Germany, Rumlich's (2017) empirical study should be mentioned. His large-scale evaluation (2017) analysed the EFL proficiency of CLIL pupils in German schools at secondary level. A total of 1.000 students enrolled in high-intensity CLIL programmes (with up to three subjects taught in the TL) made up

the sample of his quasi-experimental longitudinal study. The author incorporated relevant variables in his investigation, such as prior knowledge, interest in the EFL subject, EFL self-concept, verbal intelligence and exposure to the target language.

According to Rumlich's results, the majority of the beneficial effects observed could not be attributable to the CLIL programme, with the exception of the improved self-concept of the learners. The scholar calls for further longitudinal investigations that consider class composition, selection and preparation variables resulting from the implementation of CLIL programmes. In his words, "the observable differences with regard to general EFL proficiency cannot be attributed to CLIL, however. Rather, they are a direct consequence of CLIL-related selection, preparation, and class composition intended to help students master the challenges of CLIL" (Rumlich, 2017, p. 128).

A different panorama can be identified in Switzerland, a country that has chiefly focused on the impact of CLIL on spoken proficiency. Thus, Stotz and Meuter (2003) explored CLIL effects on listening and speaking skills in English via classroom observation, questionnaires and receptive and productive tests in a Swiss primary school. The analysis of the lessons observed revealed reduced opportunities for student-produced output. Although overall test results show the CLIL group outperformed their mainstream counterparts with respect to oral competence, the outcomes for language production and interaction appear to be more inconclusive.

A similar study on oral skills was carried out in Geneva by Gassner and Maillat (2006) within a late immersion CLIL programme in upper secondary. They used audio and video recordings of a Biology course and student interviews to analyse three main aspects: pragmatic and discursive competence, pragmatic effect and the teaching environment. The outcomes that transpired- considerable improvement of productive skills, especially pragmatic and discursive competence- do not collate with those reported by Stotz and Meuter (2003), as Pérez Cañado (2012) claims.

Lastly, two investigations in Switzerland with divergent outcomes should be incorporated into in this review: those conducted by Serra (2007) and Stehler (2006). The latter found no significant differences between CLIL students and their peers on the acquisition of subject matter knowledge, thus revealing that CLIL has neither a positive nor a negative influence. Nonetheless, Serra (2007) analysed the same component a year later via a longitudinal study in which the CLIL strand did outstrip the control group, therefore concluding that such competence is favourably affected by CLIL implementation.

Austrian researchers have focused their interests on lexical proficiency and narrative competence, conducting credible investigations with concurring results. Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 325) attests to their worth, yet goes on to highlight certain procedural flaws afflicting these Austrian studies, more concretely their insufficient statistical distinctions and lack of homogeneity between experimental and control groups.

Ackerl (2007) tested the essay-writing abilities of a small sample (10) of 17-year-old students in their final year examinations. Ackerl (2007) compares the production of CLIL and mainstream learners by applying a form of error analysis to the two sets of data. The scholar discovered that the number of errors did not differ significantly, while the nature of the errors did. Regarding verb tenses, for instance, the CLIL cohort's essays presented a wide variety of forms, whereas the texts by the control group kept largely to simple present and past forms. The ratio of verbs relative to the number of different verbs was also calculated and again the difference was notable: CLIL 57% vs. mainstream 29%, suggesting that CLIL learners make a similar amount of mistakes but overall they are able to write at a more sophisticated level than their non-CLIL counterparts.

In her state of the art, Pérez Cañado (2012) reports on three other studies in Austria that accredit Ackerl's (2007) standpoint: Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010), Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann (2007, 2010) and Seregély (2008). Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann (2007, 2010) found that CLIL pupils displayed a superior command of linguistic

cohesion and thematic coherence. Furthermore, the outcomes obtained by Seregély (2008) are in line with the previous investigation and conclude that CLIL has a beneficial influence on students' lexical competence. In a like manner, Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer's study (2010) spawned encouraging results, unveiling a foreign language competence in CLIL learners well above that of their mainstream peers in general language ability and written skills.

4.1.3 Eastern Europe

Eastern European researchers have embarked on several research projects of a chiefly qualitative nature, where the most prominent CLIL schemes in each country are identified and described. Examples of this expository type of studies have been offered by Luczywek (2009) in Poland, Novotná and Hofmannová (2007) in The Czech Republic, and by Kovács (2005) in Hungary. In Poland, a qualitative study by Czura, Papaja and Urbaniak (2009) known as the *Profile Project* is worthy of mention. It probed CLIL programme results in 19 schools throughout the country, employing classroom observation and interviews with students and staff. Although harmonious results derived from questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation, informants called for improved teacher training and support, and greater collaboration between stakeholders as well as with schools abroad. Stakeholders complained about unsystematic code-switching and shortcomings regarding materials, curriculum and ICTs.

To finish our brief outline of CLIL research in Eastern Europe it is necessary to allude to Bognár's early contribution (1999) within the Hungarian scenario. This author offers another qualitative appraisal of CLIL schemes, in which she reports satisfying results on the completion of five-year programmes. Prestigious universities award extra points to CLIL students and allow 65-100% of them to enter higher education thus recognising the value of bilingual programmes, as Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 326) highlights.

A more recent study in Greece (South-eastern Europe) should serve as a bridge to our next section on Southern Europe. Mattheoudakis, Alexiou and Laskaridou's (2014) work assessed Greece's first attempt to introduce CLIL in public primary schools. It examined the language competence in English and content (subject) knowledge in Geography of a small sample of primary students after one year of CLIL instruction. The authors employed different research tools, concretely three Geography tests and an English language test that focused on receptive skills. Research outcomes support the continuation and extension of CLIL programmes to other primary schools in Greece, as they indicated both content and language gains for the CLIL students involved. Moreover, the fact that CLIL pupils did better in two out of the three Geography tests confirms that content knowledge was not negatively affected by the use of English as a medium of instruction. Regarding linguistic gains, no statistically significant differences were found between the students' performance in both language tests for either group, although both groups' scores improved from the first to the second language test.

4.1.4 Southern and Western Europe

Turning now to the South of Europe, the cases of Italy and Spain will be reviewed; Italian research will be expounded on here while Section 4.2. will be entirely devoted to CLIL in Spain to further contextualise this dissertation. The situation of Italy in terms of CLIL provision and research particularly stands out since CLIL started as a decentralised initiative and its outcomes have never been systematically monitored from a quantitative perspective (Infante et al. 2008). The studies that there are focus mainly on teachers' perceptions and use qualitative instruments like questionnaires and interviews. In this country, Coonan (2007) and Infante, Benvenuto and Lastrucci (2008, 2009) evince rather uniform findings concerning the effects of CLIL. The overall results which emerge are once again positive: improved content learning, augmented concentration and motivation, better developed thinking skills, implementation of cooperative techniques and a higher degree of engagement and active participation in

lessons, while the detected pitfalls cover increased workload and lack of adequate materials.

Lastly, and to finish this overview of CLIL research in our continent, the special situation of the United Kingdom (UK) in Western Europe will be considered. This country can be characterised by its atypical standpoint regarding foreign languages. Despite being a plurilingual society (Scotland and Wales) and speaking the most widely adopted language for CLIL implementation (English), the UK appears to be at the tail end of Europe concerning the approach. It has been reported that “educational policies do little to promote the learning of two or more languages: human capital does not extend to linguistic priorities in these contexts despite warnings of being left behind” (Nuffield Languages Enquiry, 2000, p. 14, in Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 155) and that bilingual education is “almost unheard of in the United Kingdom” (Ullman, 1999, p. 103), existing only as modular courses with partial exposure to the FL. In addition, it is commonly believed that the campaign and the results of the ‘Brexit’ referendum (2016) in favour of leaving the European Union have not exactly fostered positive attitudes towards multiculturalism or multilingualism and that time will tell how this decision will affect foreign language teachers and learners in the years to come.

Stemming from this apparent disinterest in foreign languages, CLIL provision in the UK is sparse and so is quantitative research on the inner workings of CLIL programmes, a surprising reality given that the country has world-class CLIL specialists like Do Coyle. The existing studies rely on classroom observation and basic interviews to offer a qualitative description of CLIL programmes. A project by Ullmann (1999) interviewed students involved in a French CLIL programme in a secondary school, generating remarkably positive results. Among the motivating aspects listed by the learners were greater knowledge of subject content and an improved focus in class. Informants even admitted to a preference of tests in the foreign language.

In 2009, Wiesemes provides another qualitative account of CLIL provision in line with the above-mentioned study. He assessed the *Content and Language Integrated Project* (CLIP) in eight British schools, in conjunction with the National Languages Centre and the University of Nottingham. The outcomes that transpired are extensively positive: CLIL is presented as a beneficial influence on FL teaching that fosters interdepartmental cooperation and pedagogical innovation, improves students' thinking skills, oral production and learner achievement, with no detrimental effects on the mother tongue. The study, however, presents considerable flaws in research methodology that fail to substantiate such strong claims, as Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 323) observes, who goes on to suggest a quantitative control/experimental group design with cohort matching as a methodological improvement.

Taking stock of the most outstanding research carried out in Europe hitherto allows us to confirm that the majority of studies have generated unmistakably positive results regarding CLIL. Undoubtedly, this approach has grown exponentially in the past two decades, as is made evident by the sizeable literature available, the widespread provision of CLIL schemes throughout the continent and the numerous debates it has spurred. The majority of the investigations conducted lend credence to the success of CLIL in several or most of the aspects under scrutiny, reporting the supremacy of CLIL tuition over language-driven instruction (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 329).

In their state of the art, scholars Dalton-Puffer (2008) and Ruiz de Zarobe (2008) delve deeper into the impact CLIL has on target language learning. More concretely, with respect to outcomes, Dalton-Puffer (2008, p. 5) stresses a fact of outmost importance: within the CLIL environment, not all aspects of language competence are developed to the same extent as others. This scholar contrasts areas of communicative competence where clear linguistic gains have been witnessed with areas where they have not. The aspects which are favourably affected in most students learning through CLIL are: a) receptive skills; b) vocabulary; c) morphology; d) fluency; e) creativity, risk-taking, fluency, quantity; and f) emotive-affective factors. Conversely, those skills which are either unaltered or for which research has been inconclusive are: a) syntax; b) writing;

c) informal/non-technical language; d) pronunciation; and e) pragmatics. Therefore, as reported by this academic, CLIL schemes contribute to the passive language skills by increasing the number of possible interlocutors with which learners are confronted and by offering increased opportunities for reading. Turning to productive skills, it has been reported that CLIL pupils often display the higher risk-taking characteristics usually associated with successful language learners, as well as greater fluency and creativity in their speech. This is likely to be associated with the positive affective effects often reported by CLIL studies.

Evidence has shown that gains are particularly great in the lexicon: CLIL learners possess larger vocabularies of technical terms and possibly improve their general academic language proficiency as a result of studying content subjects in the FL. Lexical gains, however, are mostly restricted to technical language, while the general and informal registers do not profit at all or do so to a lesser extent (Sylvén, 2004). Certain areas, however, either seem unaffected by the extra exposure to the FL that characterise CLIL programmes, have been examined with inconclusive results or are still to be investigated. For instance, at first sight, the pronunciation of CLIL learners does not seem to be particularly different from that of their non-CLIL counterparts. In addition, issues such as to what extent CLIL learners differ or do not differ from mainstream students in terms of pragmatic learning needs to be addressed. Generally, CLIL students do not tend to outstrip their peers with regards to the syntactic complexity of their output; a consequence of the conditions of language use in the CLIL classroom where focus is mainly on content and not on form. One last skill that remains largely unaffected by CLIL is writing. In Dalton-Puffer's view (2008), such deficiencies in academic literacy stem from the fact that the general writing competence of the pupils (in their mother tongue) needs to be further developed.

Nevertheless, results should be interpreted with caution, as most of these studies present significant methodological defects. Such variegated flaws can be rectified through the implementation of new projects with homogeneous samples, controlled use of variables and valid statistical analyses, according to Pérez Cañado (2012). This scholar calls

attention to the sparsity of solid empirical studies and comments on how a number of key figures like Coyle in the UK, Marsh in Finland, Mehisto in Estonia or Dalton-Puffer in Austria have mainly “engaged in extensive theorizing on CLIL, its principles and models, recommendations for its implementation, or reviews of the research conducted on it” (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 329).

We clearly are in dire need of solid empirical evidence in the form of substantial quantitative studies, which is exactly what this thesis seeks to provide. As stated by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 149): “What is certain is that despite the recent surge in evaluative reports, there is much, much more still to investigate”.

4.2. CLIL in Spain

In the South of Europe, special mention should be made to the particular case of Spain, a country that is "rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research" (Coyle 2010, viii). This section aims to offer a detailed description of the fast development of CLIL in the Spanish scenario in order to frame our study against the backdrop of prior investigations in the country.

Spain exhibits a great diversity of multilingual models resulting from our decentralised educational system and the existence of monolingual and bilingual regions. The fact that our country is divided in many regions makes gathering reliable data on the whole country a very difficult task. Nevertheless, it has been acknowledged that CLIL is "a field of major growth in Spanish education", thus confirming the approach is “alive and prospering in Spain” (Brüning & Purrmann, 2014, p. 324). The legislative frameworks guiding the Spanish education system are the Spanish Constitution (1978) and the Organic Act on the Right to Education (LODE, 1978) plus there have been three law reforms: the Organic Law of Educational Quality (LOCE), the Organic Law of Education (LOE) and the Organic Law for the Improvement of Educational Quality

(LOMCE) (BOE 2002, 2006 and 2013 respectively). Although the law offers the core frame necessary to provide and assure the right to education for the whole country, at national level, the different autonomous communities have the right make their own decisions and to adapt the law to their territories. This freedom to make independent regulations empowers local governments to administer the educational system to fit the particular characteristics found within each region.

Because of this heterogeneity, “there are as many models as regions and no single blueprint exists to take root across the country”, as Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010, ix) underscore. Spain’s flexible legislation, rich linguistic and cultural diversity are behind the manifold realisations of CLIL programmes. The mentioned variegated policies and practices provide us with useful instances of CLIL in different stages of development relevant to contexts within and beyond our borders.

This diversity of CLIL programme realisations is implemented in our monolingual and bilingual regions with English holding a hegemonic position as the preferred FL for CLIL implementation. We find bilingual regions particularly interesting because here CLIL coexists with well-established regional immersion programmes that promote minority languages such as Catalan, Valencian, Basque and Galician. These schemes have been operating since the 80s, when they were granted official status and thus found their place in our educational system. In other words, regional languages have been considered co-official and taught alongside Spanish at all levels of compulsory education for over 25 years. The tradition of bilingual regions in second language teaching has given them an advantage for the implementation of CLIL.

Support granted to regional languages has had an important influence on education since bilingual regions’ knowhow is an asset from which monolingual communities can benefit as well. The expertise which the former have gathered after years of using an additional (regional) language as the medium of instruction has set an excellent example for the design and implementation of CLIL schemes both in bilingual and monolingual communities. Moreover, in the Spanish context, moving from regional to foreign

languages has proved to be the best approach to incorporate new languages and a natural way to generalise their use as the medium of instruction. As a result, CLIL has been given growing priority as the best way to further multilingualism and language diversity, some of the aims of European policies in the last decade (Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010). Especially in bilingual communities, where the regional language is taught as a subject, CLIL stands as an ideal solution for incrementing exposure to the foreign language in an already packed curriculum.

A considerable amount of research supports immersion programmes in the different Spanish regions, as we will review in the following section. However, many CLIL programmes in Spain are still experimental; therefore, longitudinal studies that provide solid empirical data are urgently needed (Lasagabaster, 2009). As will be explained in the following paragraphs, not all the autonomous regions have implemented CLIL-type provision models in the same way. Nevertheless, due to the scope of this thesis, it is not possible to analyse all 17 autonomous communities in detail and, thus, the most representative examples of monolingual and bilingual communities involved in CLIL programmes will be dealt with.

4.2.1. Bilingual Regions

4.2.1.1. The Basque Country

The Basque Autonomous Community (hereinafter BAC) has one of the longest and most fruitful histories of bilingual teaching and research in our country. Similarly to other Spanish regions, bilingual education started in the 80s, after the Basic Law for the Normalisation of the Use of Basque was passed in 1982. Today, in addition to Spanish and Basque, a compulsory first foreign language plus another optional language in secondary is included in the curriculum (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010).

Almost two decades ago, the Department of Education, Universities and Research of the Basque Government decided to invest in multilingual policies. As a result, several CLIL pilot projects of great importance were set up, such as the *Early Start to English* (pre-primary), introduced as early as 1996; *INEBI* (primary) and *BHINEBI* (secondary education); and, in post-compulsory education, the *Plurilingual Experience* from 2003 to 2005 (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008). In addition, the private sector particularly stands out for its well-established tradition in multilingual education. The Basque-Medium schools (Ikastolas) that are taking part in the *Elenitz Project* since 1991 follow an integrated multilingual school model. Its aim is to ensure that learners attain an optimum level of communicative competence in the two co-official languages, Spanish and Basque, plus two foreign languages- English and French (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010)- by the end of their compulsory education.

Numerous studies in the past few years have attempted to describe the outcomes of some of these CLIL experiences in the BAC. In this sense, the high-profile group REAL (Research in English Applied Linguistics), formed by eminent scholars like Cenoz Iragui, García Lecumberri, García Mayo, Lasagabaster, Ruiz de Zarobe and Sierra, deserves special consideration for its contribution to the comprehension and fulfilment of CLIL in the BAC. More specifically, this research group has confirmed the success of CLIL in the improvement of general language skills and the acquisition of subject content, which has in turn promoted positive attitudes towards trilingualism (Pérez Cañado, 2012). The main studies by the REAL group focused on linguistic outcomes of CLIL will be outlined first, followed by some projects dealing with CLIL effects on subject content learning and the L1. Finally, relevant investigations on affective factors regarding CLIL in the BAC will be reviewed.

In her longitudinal investigation, Ruiz de Zarobe (2008) compared the oral and written competence of different CLIL and EFL streams in their 3rd and 4th year of secondary education and again at post-compulsory level. The 89 participants were divided into 3 groups: a non-CLIL group (following an EFL programme and attending no extra-curricular English lessons), CLIL group 1 (receiving EFL instruction plus one CLIL

subject) and CLIL group 2 (attending two CLIL subjects plus their regular EFL lessons). Speech was scored using the categories of grammar, vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation and content. The results were compared via the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test, unveiling significant differences for all three independent groups. The overall evaluation of spoken competence showed a positive correspondence between the amount of CLIL instruction and improved test results. The students' written competence was measured as well, in this case through the ESL Composition Profile. The researcher analysed the compositions attending to content, vocabulary, organisation, language use and mechanics, and demonstrated that, in most categories analysed, the CLIL groups still outstripped their non-CLIL counterparts, albeit not as significantly as in the speech production test. Outcomes seem to evince differences between productive skills, as Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster 2010 underline, suggesting that CLIL has a clearer impact on spoken communicative competence. In order to test if CLIL groups' positive results were simply due to their increased exposure to English, Ruiz de Zarobe compared CLIL group 2 with a three-year-older EFL group that had received similar hours of instruction. Despite the age difference, the younger group performed better in the written test, showing that the positive results were not due to greater exposure to the target language but to CLIL's effectiveness.

Lasagabaster (2008) developed a similar study with 198 participants in which he compared CLIL and EFL groups to assess their overall competence in English. The sample came from four different secondary schools and students were grouped as follows: an EFL group in their 4th year of secondary education, a group with the same age that had been involved in a CLIL programme for two years and finally a younger group which had received one year of CLIL instruction. Participants sat a battery of tests (listening, speaking, writing and grammar) and Z-scores were employed in order to compare the different evaluation scales used. Outcomes evinced that the CLIL group in their 4th year of secondary education consistently outperformed the mainstream students of the same age in all the aforementioned skills. Lasagabaster then compared the 3rd year of secondary group with the older EFL stream in a like manner to Ruiz de Zarobe's study. Results showed that the younger CLIL students outperformed the mainstream

group in all categories but one (listening), which bore out his hypothesis that the CLIL group would not only catch up with the older stream but that they would surpass them.

The next three research studies are geared at determining the impact of CLIL on syntax (Martínez-Adrián & Gutiérrez-Mangado, 2009), pronunciation (Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez-Lacabex & García-Lecumberri, 2009) and morphology (Villarreal-Olaizola & García-Mayo, 2011). Regarding research on English syntax, Martínez-Adrián and Gutiérrez-Mangado (2009) employed the narration of a story as an instrument to measure morphosyntactic aspects of CLIL students' production. Although no statistically significant differences were found, CLIL students surpassed the control group in one particular aspect: their use of placeholders. Consequently, the authors advocate for the implementation of new longitudinal studies in this respect that will allow the scientific community to ascertain whether success in students is caused by the CLIL learning process or by a mere increase in the amount of exposure to the TL.

A research study conducted by Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez-Lacabex and García-Lecumberri (2009) dealing with English pronunciation found that after a one-year intervention programme, CLIL students did not demonstrate an ability to speak with more accurate pronunciation than their EFL counterparts. The scholars (2009) explain the absence of progress in this area as a direct consequence of unreliable input from the non-native EFL or content subject teacher. Still, interesting results transpired concerning intelligibility and irritation in oral expression: CLIL learners were perceived as more intelligible and less irritating in oral expression than students taking part in traditional English lessons.

Villarreal Olaizola and García Mayo's contribution (2011) is in line with the previous study, although they evaluate oral production from a different outlook. They analysed the oral output of both CLIL and mainstream students in their last year of CSE, concentrating on morpheme omission and error frequency. The result was that CLIL participants produced more accurate and target-like language outperforming their non-CLIL counterparts; however, the cross-sectional nature of these studies has been

criticised. Furthermore, Bruton (2011b) highlights their consensual lack of initial scores when comparing CLIL and non-CLIL groups, and points out the fact that some CLIL groups received extra English classes.

This last investigation regarding CLIL impact on FL proficiency will act as a bridge between this part of our review in the BAC and the next one, since it focuses on subject matter mastery as well. Alonso and her team (Alonso, Grisaleña & Campo, 2008) selected six schools in the BAC that took part in the Plurilingual Experience (PE) and tested a total of 229 students, including seven small control groups, in their 1st and 3rd year of CSE and in 1st grade of post-compulsory level. The study combined qualitative data obtained from diverse questionnaires and interviews, with quantitative results from a battery of Cambridge ESOL tests (Flyers, KET, PET, FCE). Data on the level of knowledge acquired in the subjects taught in English were collected from the teachers of the different departments through a questionnaire. According to the teachers, the participation and level of subject content mastery of the CLIL cohorts was in all cases superior or at least equal to the levels attained by those studying in their first language. Regarding English language competence, the difference in global performance between the control group and the experimental group was calculated and results showed the latter outperformed the control group consistently in both CSE cycles and at post-compulsory level.

These overwhelmingly positive results should, however, be approached with caution because, as Alonso et al. (2008) observe, they are likely to be affected by prior selection and by the high motivation of the CLIL students and their families. Nonetheless, we find this study particularly valuable for its use of data triangulation and the fact that the variables of gender ratio, student motivation and academic achievement were factored in. The investigations outlined above are paramount to our present project, as Lasagabaster (2008) and Alonso et al. (2008) focus on the homogeneity of the groups compared and take into account key variables. They offer “the sole two studies in the entire Spanish panorama that work in these aspects of validity and reliability” (Pérez Cañado, 2015a, p.4)

There are other prior studies focused on content learning which validate the multilingual experiences in the BAC and are also worth mentioning, like the 2003 study undertaken by the Ikastolen Elkartea network of private schools and the ISEI-IVEI 2007 report. In the Ikastolen Elkartea study (2003), the sample was made up of 476 students from private schools in their 3rd year of CSE and was divided into experimental and control groups who completed a Social Sciences test in Basque. The groups forming the CLIL strand were all studying Social Sciences in English, although with considerably different degrees of exposure to the language. In addition to this, it must be noted that teachers in the CLIL cohorts had different qualifications, extra methodological support in the form of resources and specialised training. Given these circumstances, it could be argued that the experimental and control groups in this study were not really comparable (Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010). Nevertheless, when compared to the control groups, the experimental cohorts showed a better command of the subject matter. Therefore, in spite of the aforementioned flaws, outcomes are relevant in that they confirmed a positive linguistic transfer in trilingual educational contexts.

The ISEI-IVEI 2007 report, which was completed by the Basque Institute for Evaluation and Research in Education, shows a longitudinal study involving six schools taking part in the Plurilingual Experience programme in the BAC. One of the main objectives of this project was to ascertain whether CLIL instruction was detrimental to content learning. Researchers worked with students from three different levels (1st and 2nd year of CSE and 1st grade of post-compulsory secondary education), divided into experimental and control groups. In order to assess the linguistic competence of both strands, researchers used A2 to B2 Cambridge ESOL competence tests: Flyers, KET, PET and FCE. Results of subject content taught in English were evaluated and compared to the level attained by the control group studying content in their first language. Students were tested again after two years and results confirmed that overall CLIL students obtained better results, with differences between strands increasing after those two years of plurilingual experience. Outcomes suggested an improvement of the CLIL cohort's linguistic and communicative competence, and similar content results to those of the control group (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010).

Research about CLIL impact on the learning of Basque and Spanish has been carried out in the BAC, mainly by Egiguren (2006) and Grisaleña, Alonso and Campo (2009), as cited in Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010). The former compared two groups of students: learners taking part in an early implementation EFL programme and a group who started learning English four years later but attended CLIL lessons twice a week. This study measures the participants' proficiency in Spanish and Basque to examine whether the type of approach to FL (L3) teaching they followed exerted any influence on the normal development of L1 and L2 (Spanish and Basque). This investigation, together with the one carried out by the aforementioned authors Grisaleña et al. (2009), reports on commendable findings concluding that CLIL, as a learning approach, in no way hampers the ability to learn and progress in the two official languages present in the curriculum.

Moving now to research on language attitudes, Lasagabaster's studies are especially noteworthy. In 2009, Lasagabaster conducted a study involving 277 students in secondary education in which he approached multilingualism as a whole. The author was able to confirm the hypothesis that CLIL promotes positive outlooks on trilingualism and the language learning process. In an analogous study, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), probed attitudes towards the three languages (English, Spanish and Basque) in the BAC. These were examined independently through traditional questionnaires. According to their findings, language environment and methodology were at the core of students' attitudes towards the FL, as well as towards Spanish and Basque. Finally, these investigators also claim that CLIL may be a very useful tool to counteract the attitudinal decline often observed in EFL groups and to keep students interested in the learning of English and languages in general.

In this line, two years later, Lasagabaster (2011) developed a study on motivation and language achievement in CLIL with the aim of identifying any existing correlations between them. The project, which involved 191 participants, tested groups of CLIL and mainstream students in grammar, speaking, listening and writing tests. Lasagabaster's initial hypothesis was confirmed when the CLIL cohort exhibited a more enthusiastic

attitude than its EFL peers, with this higher motivation resulting in increased achievement.

More recently, in 2015, Heras and Lasagabaster have delved deeper into the issue, assessing the impact of CLIL on affective factors, additionally examining CLIL's alleged effectiveness in reducing gender differences in vocabulary learning. The sample of this study comprised 46 students attending 4th grade of secondary education: 25 of them were studying PE through CLIL and 21 were EFL learners. Heras and Lasagabaster administered a motivation and self-esteem questionnaire, a background questionnaire, and a vocabulary test, for which a pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test design was used. Data did not show significant differences between the two groups regarding affective factors, an outcome they attribute to the low-middle intensity of the CLIL programme and the small size of the sample. With respect to the vocabulary uptake hypothesis, the authors did not find significant gender-related differences, results that overall seem to contradict previous findings, proving that the authentic communication and meaningful learning inherent in CLIL can diminish the effects of the gender variable. Further lines of research would include comparable longitudinal studies, projects with a bigger sample that employ methodological triangulation and studies integrating oral production tests.

4.2.1.2. Catalonia

After the BAC, Catalonia is the next most prominently positioned bilingual region regarding CLIL. This autonomous community has been implementing successful Catalan immersion programmes for approximately 30 years. However, the introduction of CLIL, as Navés and Victori (2010) highlight, has not been as systematic as the aforesaid Basque schemes.

The first innovative CLIL programmes started to be implemented in the 90s, when the Department of Education in Catalonia allocated funding for practitioners willing to

cooperate and develop content-based materials. Consequently, several groups of content teachers and also FL teachers were formed in public secondary schools, like those coordinated by Navés in Barcelona in 1999. CLIL soon emerged in schools when public initiatives like the *Foreign Language Experimental Plan* (PELE) and *Orator* were created with the objective of improving the students' competence. The number of schools that include a CLIL programme in their curriculum has, since then, grown exponentially in Catalonia. The local authorities have invested as well in teacher training for those schools interested in launching or already having a CLIL programme. Before 2008, in Catalonia, this kind of training was "mainly provided by external university consultants from the UK" (Navés & Victori, 2010, p. 32), but ever since then, there has been greater collaboration between the administration practitioners of secondary and tertiary education. This is evidenced by the *Llicències d'estudis* or grants for paid leave, as Navés and Victori (2010) underscore, aimed at primary or secondary teachers for the development of CLIL materials or research projects under the supervision of university professors.

In Catalonia, despite the aforementioned advances, research remains sparse and is nowhere near that of the BAC. However, a number of key figures have contributed to shedding some light on how CLIL is playing out in this bilingual autonomous community. The following research groups particularly come to the fore: the Language Acquisition Research Group (GRAL) led by Muñoz and the Language Acquisition from Multilingual Catalonia (ALLEN CAM), with high-profile researchers like Pérez-Vidal, Navés and Victori from Universitat Pompeu Fabra, both in Barcelona. Furthermore, CLIL is becoming increasingly popular in the region, as evidenced by the numerous symposiums and seminars on the subject organised by the main Catalan universities in the last few years, such as the International GRAL CLIL seminar, the International Round Table on CLIL at the UAB or the ALLEN CAM Seminars at Universitat Pompeu Fabra and the DEAI A Spring Institute at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili in Tarragona, to mention only a few.

In this autonomous region, varied lines of CLIL research have been pursued. *The Barcelona Age Factor project* (BAF) by Muñoz (2006), centred on the effects of age of onset on English language acquisition, stands out as the first research study carried out by the GRAL research team. This cross-sectional and longitudinal project showed that in the foreign language learning context, an early start does not necessarily result in higher proficiency. Contrary to typical outcomes in naturalistic settings, late starters superseded the younger cohort in this study and in a subsequent investigation by Navés (2006), demonstrating that increased exposure within a traditional EFL programme may not translate in a significant improvement of language skills.

Two complementary research studies followed, also by the GRAL group (Navés & Victori, 2010, pp. 30-54). These were outcome-oriented projects, one canvassing general language competence and the second measuring writing skills, with samples of 837 and 695 participants, respectively. Data were obtained through a battery of tests sat by CLIL and mainstream learners attending different courses in primary and secondary education. In the first study, CLIL learners superseded their EFL counterparts in all four years examined. The second investigation presented generally positive though more varied results. This time, the CLIL strand was superior in fluency, accuracy and syntactic and lexical complexity. When compared to older students, it also transpired that the level of CLIL students matched that of EFL learners one or two years ahead. Nonetheless, an important pitfall identified by Navés and Victori (2010) is that the number of hours of the groups' CLIL instruction was not kept constant.

A great number of papers revolve around students' classroom interaction and written production. For instance, Escobar and Nussbaum (2008) selected a 3rd grade of CSE mixed ability class studying Science through CLIL and focused on the characteristics and the role of interactive tasks. The data collected evinced various complex collaborative structures and a reinterpretation of the tasks by the participants to adapt these to their learning needs. In the same line, Moore's project (2009) at tertiary level observed the mechanisms employed by a group of students enrolled in a Psychology module in English. Results showed that code-switching was the main cognitive resource

deployed by the participants in order to construct knowledge, manage tasks during the lessons and improve their FL proficiency.

Within the studies centred on written production, the Codó et al. (2007) project is worth mentioning, as it sought to assess CLIL learners' knowledge and understanding of subject content at tertiary level. The researchers compared the responses of two groups (CLIL and non-CLIL) to three written assignments using the Structure of Observed Learning Outcomes (SOLO) taxonomy by Biggs and Collis (1982). Both cohorts produced responses evincing similar levels of understanding and ability for critical reflection; however, the group instructed in their mother tongue produced a greater number of more argumentative extended-abstract responses. Thus, the benefits generally ascribed to CLIL implementation could not be proved in this case, but the authors were able to show that CLIL did not hinder content subject mastery either.

In this region, other scholars have focused on the classroom, concretely on discourse patterns and the use of different methodologies. Escobar Urmeneta and Sánchez Sola (2009) have studied the use of student-centred approaches in CLIL lessons. They examined the implementation of cooperative learning methodology in the context of CLIL Science lessons for 3rd and 4th year of CSE students. Outcomes showed considerable progress in fluency and increased lexical repertoire of the CLIL learners (Pérez Cañado, 2015a, p. 6).

In turn, Pérez-Vidal (2007) looked into the incidence and relevance of focus on form in a small sample of CLIL lessons in this autonomous community. A total of three CLIL lessons were video recorded: a Geometry lesson in primary and Physics and Biology classes in secondary. In order to process these data, Pérez-Vidal (2007) employed an adaptation of the categorization used by Bernhardt's (1992) study of Canadian immersion programmes. Once teacher input was examined, results documented that there was a significant concern for meaning but that virtually no focus on form could be found in their interactions with CLIL learners. She calls for further empirically driven research in this area and advocates the introduction of a focus on form to improve current CLIL practice.

Lastly, Marsol's study (2008) paid special attention to interactional features and discourse patterns of CLIL versus EFL groups. This investigation at primary education level established a comparison between interactional activities within a regular ELT class and those carried out with CLIL. Results evinced that the major differences between the two settings resided in the types of exchanges, questions and in the feedback provided (in Navés & Victori, 2010).

Moving on to research into gains in content and language acquisition, the first investigations that have been conducted are those provided by Codó et al. (2007), Victori and Vallbona (2008) and Coral (2009). Collectively, these studies coincide to a certain extent in their claim that CLIL is no hindrance to content or FL learning; however, some studies like those by Codó et al. (2007) fail to provide sound evidence of the benefits of CLIL. The latter focused on subject content learning in the CLIL classroom by using the SOLO. The researchers compared the responses provided by two groups of students at tertiary level to assess learners' knowledge and understanding of course content with the aforementioned outcomes.

In 2008, Victori and Vallbona examine the impact of CLIL in terms of language proficiency gains with inconclusive results. The productive and receptive skills of CLIL and non-CLIL students attending a semi-private primary and a secondary school were examined through a battery of tests and questionnaires. It was found that, in the CLIL cohort, students' writing skills were better and CLIL was enthusiastically endorsed by all stakeholders involved, although negative outcomes were obtained, pointing at insufficient teacher training and language proficiency, and a lack of time and resources.

Coral (2009) too pays attention to language proficiency gains in CLIL. In particular, the oral and vocabulary improvements of a group of 30 CSE students learning Physical Education through CLIL were gauged. She used a pre-test/post-test design and followed a mixed methods approach collecting her data via questionnaires, group discussion, a listening test and a lexical test. Outcomes showed better results in listening comprehension, which the author attributes to the teaching methodology heavily

influenced by Total Physical Response instruction and other practices that appear to favour the development of this receptive skill.

In a like manner, Pérez-Vidal and Roquet (2015) elaborate a comprehensive evaluation of the effects of CLIL on receptive and productive skills from a Catalan perspective. Their main hypothesis is that CLIL implementation favours receptive skills while productive skills progress to a lesser extent. This prediction is made on the basis of Tedick and Wesely's conclusions (2015) regarding students in immersion programmes (these learners develop near native-like levels of reading and listening, while speaking and writing appear to be less accurate and considerably less advanced). Pérez-Vidal and Roquet (2015) present mixed results: CLIL had, to a certain extent, a positive effect on receptive skills; however, the scholars declared inconsistent findings concerning listening skills, lexical gains, cohesion, coherence and pronunciation, concluding that the superiority of CLIL cannot be confirmed. The two groups studied evinced progress on all aspects measured with the exception of fluency; however, only accuracy in the CLIL group was significantly higher, coinciding with some prior research on writing skills (Jexenflicker & Dalton-Puffer, 2010).

The superiority of CLIL still could not be proved in a more recent study by Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona (2016). These scholars conducted a longitudinal study at primary school level of pupils' receptive skills in a minimal CLIL input context. Over a period of two academic years they assessed the skills of 287 participants coming from four state-funded private schools. Results vis-à-vis the achievement and development of reading and listening skills show substantial progress in both CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts between the first and the last test. Nevertheless, despite the fact that the CLIL students had had one extra hour of contact with the FL per week, the EFL group outperformed the CLIL strand in relation to listening skills, while the reading facet did not generate any statistically significant differences between them.

Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona (2016, p. 37) explain that the lack of remarkable results of CLIL students could be due to various factors: the CLIL scheme was

implemented for the first time in the schools and, therefore, the primary learners needed time to adjust to the new methodology and the instructors also needed a period of adaptation. Bearing these circumstances in mind, the researchers indicate that better results may be more tangible over time: "findings seem to suggest that more promising CLIL learning outcomes might only be observable in the long run with more intensive exposure" (ibid. 2016, p. 37).

In the Catalan region, there are also some examples of qualitative research aimed at measuring the perceptions of CLIL teachers and students, such as the study by Feixas et al. (2009) at tertiary level. The university students and professors consulted expressed very positive opinions on linguistic outcomes and motivation of the participants involved in the CLIL experience. With regards to difficulties, students found it challenging to express subject content in the foreign language due to their low proficiency level.

One final instance of qualitative research is the 2015 study by Pladevall-Ballester. This author analysed stakeholders' perceptions on CLIL implementation at primary level through opinion-based questionnaires and interviews in five schools in Catalonia. Results showed that most students were satisfied with the experience in general terms, while parents' perceptions were rather unrealistic in the sense that they were too enthusiastic or feared possible negative effects of CLIL on their children's L1 or content learning. Teachers' viewpoints were the most realistic, as they combined general satisfaction with an acknowledgement of their frustrations, mainly concerning excessive workload and lack of adequate support.

At present, CLIL approaches in Catalonia appear to offer all the conditions necessary for their correct implementation; however, results are not always satisfactory, as Navés and Victori (2010) observe. One of the main reasons they provide is success being frequently hindered by lack of continuity and stability of the CLIL programmes. These authors, after offering a brief overview of the CLIL panorama in Catalonia, advocate for further research focused on both content and language acquisition in the CLIL context,

since the most important projects so far have revolved around starting age in CLIL programmes.

4.2.1.3. Galicia

Similarly to the other bilingual communities, Galicia's educational policies in the last three decades have aimed to protect and promote the minority co-official language in the region. In this autonomous community, the Decree 124/2007 (Xunta de Galicia, 2007) states that at least 50% of the school curriculum must be taught in Galician following a well-established bilingual immersion programme. This type of experience, as San Isidro (2010) mentions, has been a good foundation for the development of European educational policies based on multilingualism in recent years. According to this author, 100% of schools in Galicia teach English as a foreign language in infant education since 2009 and CLIL is becoming increasingly popular within the educational community, changing educational parameters in the region.

CLIL experiences in Galicia started as a pilot project in 1990, but today's model has been in force since 2007. San Isidro (2010) describes the current CLIL model as progressive; the content subjects are taught in a bilingual basis (foreign language plus Spanish or Galician), increasing the use of the additional language as students make progress. The regional government has taken several actions aimed at fostering CLIL, such as the CUALE (an after-school teaching programme), summer immersion programmes, a CLIL network of teachers and schools and the *PALE* (Programa de Aprendizaje de lenguas Extranjeras) or *PIALE* (Programa Integral de Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras) teacher training programmes.

Some research studies on CLIL effectiveness have been carried out in Galicia; for instance, San Isidro's pioneer study (2010) at 4th CSE level. This project tested 287 students' language competence in ten secondary schools across Galicia contemplating the variables of gender and school type (rural and urban). San Isidro's was the first

study of these characteristics in Galicia that measured linguistic competence in a contrastive way. His main hypotheses were that CLIL students would outperform the EFL groups in a global FL skills test after two years of instruction, that CLIL students' results would show no significant gender differences and that the same would happen with the rural/urban divide. Regarding the instruments of the study, a set of specifically designed tests were used to evaluate all four language skills. In addition, students' previous attainment in the EFL subject was recorded. The findings of this quantitative study confirm the first two hypotheses formulated by San Isidro. However, outcomes showed significant differences in favour of urban students, thereby refuting the last hypothesis. The author attributed this result to the greater access to different resources and extra-curricular exposure to the foreign language characteristic of urban settings. Finally, San Isidro (2010) admitted that the degree of motivation and FL competence of the CLIL groups might have been higher in the first place, as they enrolled in the CLIL programme voluntarily, a reality that prompts us to observe such encouraging results with prudence.

Finally, in a 2018 longitudinal study, San Isidro and Lasagabaster analysed a CLIL programme in Galicia from a quantitative and qualitative perspective. They sought to measure stakeholders' attitudes towards FL learning and CLIL, and to gather qualitative information regarding the students' competence in Galician, Spanish, English and in relation to content learning. The CLIL cohort's scores evinced greater motivation and satisfaction with the programme and were sustained over time for all stakeholders (students, teachers and parents). Outcomes pertaining to the three curricular languages were positive for CLIL as well: CLIL students outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in English and it was confirmed that CLIL had no detrimental effects on the regional language and Spanish. In addition, empirical evidence revealed no statistically significant differences between CLIL and mainstream students' learning of content. Despite working with a relatively small sample (20 CLIL and 24 non-CLIL students, 44 parents and 6 teachers), this research study is worthy of praise. Thanks to his thorough multifaceted analysis, the authors are able to provide a much-needed in-

depth picture of the implementation of a CLIL model in a particular educational context: Galicia.

4.2.1.4. The Balearic Islands and Valencian Community

CLIL research and implementation in these two autonomous communities will be outlined in the same section, as both regions take dialectal variants of Catalan as second official languages. In the past few years, the regional governments in the Valencian Community and the Balearic Islands have been applying European multilingual policies while ensuring that the existing decrees regulating the use of Balearic Catalan and Valencian are observed.

In the isles, the *Linguistic Normalization Law* was passed in 1986 to regulate the use of Catalan. Since then, several initiatives have also promoted the implementation and expansion of CLIL, especially the *European Sections Programme*, launched in 2004-2005. In the current model, European Sections must teach a non-linguistic subject in the foreign language for a minimum of one hour per week and students may have up to two extra foreign language lessons a week if deemed necessary (Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2010). As for CLIL teachers, they need to accredit a B2 CEFR level or above and can access in-service training programmes offered by the Education Department, like the *Quadriennial Plan 2008-2012*, with an increasing focus on FL learning and CLIL.

The case of our region, the Valencian Community bears much resemblance to the above-mentioned territory. Since 1983, there is a law to regulate the use and teaching of Valencian (*Llei d'Ús i Ensenyament del Valencià*) through the provision of several linguistic streams with different degrees of Valencian use. These range from Valencian as a compulsory subject to progressive incorporation to the minority language and full immersion and are named the *Basic Programme*, *PIP* (Programa d'Incorporació Progresiva), *PEV* (Programa d'Ensenyament en Valencià) and *PIL* (Programa d'Immersion Lingüística) programmes (Diari Oficial de la Generalitat Valenciana).

Regarding foreign languages, an enriched bilingual education programme, the *PEBE* plan (Programa d'Educació Bilingüe Enriquit), was initiated in 1998. This scheme allowed for the early introduction of English as a foreign language at the start of primary education and it was launched for schools to adopt on a voluntary basis, in other words, with no extra funds allocated. The *PEBE* plan makes some methodological recommendations and observations to CLIL teachers, as reported by Frigols-Martín (2008, p. 227):

- The *PEBE* will aim at getting pupils to acquire competence in communication in Spanish, Valencian, and in a foreign language.
- Integration of co-official and foreign languages as media of instruction will be core to the teaching and learning process.
- The foreign language will be introduced in the initial stages as a means to revising content matter already taught through Spanish and/or Valencian.
- Co-operative and peer work will be promoted in the classroom.
- Pupils will be encouraged to produce output, and teachers will aim at creating communicative situations which respond to pupils' needs and interests.
- The foreign language will also be used as medium of instruction in cross-curricular modular projects.
- Teachers are expected and encouraged to make use of mimicry and visual aids, take into account different learning styles, promote activities for the practice of lower and higher order thinking skills, and encourage teacher- pupil, pupil-teacher, and pupil-pupil interaction.
- Action, communication and understanding will be core to all activities and tasks.
- Teachers will co-ordinate and agree on the methodological approach to be used, the content to be taught, and the metalinguistics necessary at each stage. (ibid. 2008, p. 227)

Further regulations and experimental programmes in 2008 and 2009 have additionally promoted plurilingualism in primary and infant education (Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2010). Frigols-Martín (2008) summarises the current Valencian model for CLIL in primary education. The number of hours of CLIL in the first and second cycles is 1.5 hours per week, whereas in the 3rd cycle it is reduced to one hour per week. As for the balance between language and content, it goes from a focus on language in the first cycle to a slight bias toward content in the third cycle.

Regarding teacher education at university, future instructors may opt for a combined specialisation, but no specific CLIL training is usually provided, most CLIL teacher education being currently in-service (Frigols-Martín, 2008). In 2007, the National Ministry and the Autonomous Boards of Education presented the *PALE* programme (*Plan de Apoyo al Aprendizaje de las Lenguas*), a scheme to support foreign language learning including methodology courses both nationally and in the UK. The Board of Education provides these in-service courses through the Teacher Training Centres (CEFIRES) and the Department of Valencian Language Teaching. Frigols-Martín (2008) remarks there are now more funds available for schools and teachers developing research projects related to the design and implementation of CLIL courses, as well as teaching materials. Furthermore, the *Lifelong Learning Programme* (LLP) encourages instructors, especially CLIL teachers, to participate in language training courses in English-speaking countries (Frigols-Martín, 2008). With the exception of Science (which must be taught in Valencian), it is the schools' decision what subjects in the curriculum are taught via CLIL, a choice frequently based on the availability of their staff. Finally, the author points out that, in Valencian CLIL at primary levels, content and language are assessed separately. The foreign language teacher evaluates students' language skills and the content teacher assesses subject matter learning.

This picture, however, is about to change with the new *Decree of Plurilingualism* passed in January 2017 by the Valencian educational authorities (Decret 9/2017, de 27 de gener). This new legislation will be implemented at the primary stage from the year 2018 and is expected to reach Baccalaureate by the year 2023. The new model goes beyond the traditional choice between Spanish and Valencian streams and includes different options and levels of CLIL provision in three instructional languages: Spanish, Valencian and English. This law, however, has received a great amount of criticism from Spanish-speaking families for the increased presence of the Valencian language in the curriculum and the fact that it has been linked to English instruction. In other words, students will necessarily have to learn more subjects through Valencian in order to access the ones taught in English and the language certificates awarded upon completion of their studies. In the present academic year, all students at primary level

are following plurilingual programmes, while the number of secondary schools offering them was 223 at the time of our study.

Moving on to research in the Valencian and Balearic regions, two groups particularly come to the fore: researchers from University of Balearic Islands (UIB) with their joint study with Pompeu Fabra University (PFU) called the SALA-COLE project and other investigations, and a study by the ELA group at Jaume I University, Castelló. Their investigations are particularly relevant to inform the present research study not only due to the geographical proximity of the samples they selected, but especially because of the contextual similarities and comparable situation of their L1, L2 and L3.

The SALA-COLE project intends to measure the benefits of two foreign language learning contexts (Study Abroad and CLIL) on Catalan/Spanish bilingual students at secondary and tertiary level. Researchers worked with qualitative and quantitative data to explore the effects of different contexts (ranging from formal instruction to natural immersion) on students' learning outcomes and perceptions (Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2010). This research study certifies that CLIL schemes improve oral skills and, above all, fluency. Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2010, p. 132) express their hopes that CLIL implementation and research in these autonomous communities will soon generate substantial results and make a plea for more “top-down foreign language multilingual policies”. There have been several research studies in the Balearic community in the last few years with participants from the COLE project pool. Here, we summarise the main CLIL studies carried out on receptive skills, productive skills and affective factors.

In their three-year longitudinal study, Prieto-Arranz et al. (2015) seek to confirm the CLIL-boosting effect to the receptive skills often reported in the available literature. Participants in their study came from six of the state-run secondary schools that were part of the SALA-COLE project, and were divided in two cohorts: a CLIL stream of 50 pupils learning Science or Social Science through English and a stream of 37 pupils studying in an EFL setting. In order to ensure the comparability of the two cohorts, students were selected according to their sociolinguistic background and extramural

exposure to English on the basis of the data provided by a language profile questionnaire completed by the learners for the COLE project. The receptive skills of both cohorts were measured by means of two already existing tests: two listening comprehension and two reading comprehension tests. After sitting the tests, outliers were excluded from the sample to further ensure the comparability of the groups. Test scores yielded positive results for all learners since, overall, both cohorts evince linguistic gains. The CLIL learners outstripped their mainstream peers, although not in all the tests.

Two main investigations provide relevant insights into the productive skills of CLIL pupils in the Balearic Islands. The project by Gené-Gil, Juan-Garau, and Salazar-Noguera (2015) concentrates on the longitudinal impact of CLIL in FL writing development. A group of 30 CLIL learners and a comparable control group of 15 non-CLIL learners from three public secondary schools conform their sample. All students had been exposed to three hours a week of EFL instruction, but the bilingual group received three extra hours of CLIL instruction (Science or Social Science) weekly. Participants had to write a timed composition at four research times. Intra-group and inter-group analyses were applied, quantitative analytical procedures were employed to measure complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF), and CLIL and mainstream students from different years were compared according to their hours of FL exposure. Concerning the longitudinal development of written complexity, accuracy and fluency, it was found that both streams produced increasingly more accurate writings over time, but that it was the CLIL branch who eventually wrote more complex and fluent compositions in the three-year span considered. Participants' written performance was also evaluated by means of inter-group comparisons keeping hours of exposure constant, showing that CLIL students tend to outperform the mainstream strand on every item, confirming the greater effectiveness of the CLIL approach, although the researchers revealed that the differences found were not always statistically significant.

Student FL production, this time with a focus on oral skills, was also analysed in this context by Rallo-Fabra and Jacob (2015). A total of 43 students from state-run

secondary schools in Majorca participated in the study. The first group comprised 21 students who received CLIL instruction in English (Social Science) in addition to the compulsory three hours a week EFL classes, whereas the second group made up of 22 pupils exclusively followed the EFL approach. The main goal of the study was to assess the effects of CLIL on the learners' oral skills at two points in time: at the onset and after two years into the programme. Special attention was paid to students' fluency and the number of vowel errors in English. Rallo-Fabra and Jacob (2015) measured several features of speech through two different tasks that had been previously piloted with a small number of pupils: a reading aloud guided task and a second task consisting in telling a story about a bank robbery. A FL native speaker made a phonemic transcription of the vowel sounds and pauses in the tasks recorded and EFL and CLIL learners' performances were statistically analysed by means of two-way ANOVAs. The results obtained indicate that learners' pronunciation of English vowels was unaffected by CLIL instruction and that no significant improvement was made over the two-year period. CLIL learners' overall pronunciation was not significantly better than their EFL peers' and no significant differences were found in fluency either. The authors disclose some limitations of their research study and speculate that fluency outcomes might have been affected by task-type. Rallo-Fabra and Jacob (2015, p. 174) conclude that the "uniformity of both learner groups in terms of pronunciation achievement seriously questions the effectiveness of CLIL to enhance learners' oral skills" and suggest that the quantity and quality of the spoken input pupils receive needs to be stepped up, for instance by fostering students' use of the English media to broaden their learning scope.

To finish this outline of the CLIL research panorama in the Balearic community, two investigations on affective factors should be reviewed: Amengual-Pizarro and Prieto-Arranz's (2015) and Menezes and Juan-Garau's (2015). The former explored affective factors in L3 learning, while the latter concentrate on FL students' willingness to communicate in CLIL contexts. Amengual-Pizarro and Prieto-Arranz (2015) aim at examining the possible effects of CLIL on affectivity in secondary education. To this end, CLIL and non-CLIL students were asked to complete a questionnaire in their mother tongue at the beginning of year 2 and at the end of year 3 of CSE. This

qualitative instrument that tapped into affective factors such as attitudes, beliefs and motivation was adapted from another questionnaire used by the SALA-COLE group. Researchers used Cronbach Alpha to measure the questionnaire's internal consistency. Moreover, the pupils' age, gender and language profile variables were considered, with a view to measuring their possible impact on attitudes. Data showed that CLIL appears to have a beneficial effect in the development of positive attitudes and beliefs, but the differences found between treatment and mainstream groups were not significant. Secondly, motivation grows over time for both CLIL and non-CLIL informants, although levels are higher among the CLIL students from the onset so there seems to be less room for improvement. Lastly, the overall attitude of female students was considerably more positive, although no statistically significant gender-based differences were found within the CLIL cohort (Amengual-Pizarro & Prieto-Arranz, 2015).

Willingness to communicate (WTC) is the focus of the next and last study to be reviewed in the context of the Balearic region. Menezes and Juan-Garau (2015) signal WTC is an essential factor in SLA in that it "brings together psychological, linguistic, educational and communicative approaches to the investigation of L2 learning and can be conceived as a factor of individual differentiation that facilitates the acquisition of an L2" (op. cit 2015, p. 221). The sample of their study is made up of 185 second year CSE students enrolled in three semi-private schools in Mallorca divided in two groups: the non-treatment EFL group and the CLIL cohort, in which students receive Social Science instruction in English. Records of student achievement obtained from the school, in addition to two questionnaires, were used to gather the necessary data: the Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTCS) adapted from McCroskey and Baer's scale (1985) by Díaz-Pinto (2009) and the WTC-Meter. The first tool included ten 'yes or no' questions for the pupils to answer, and the second tool used a visual simulation of a thermometer; both instruments obtained high Cronbach Alpha coefficients. With the data obtained, inter and intra-subject analyses were carried out using the SPSS programme. Outcomes revealed that the CLIL experience seems to foster CLIL participants' WTC and communicative learning both in the CLIL classroom and in the

EFL context. This information is in keeping with previous findings confirming the potential of communicative approaches like CLIL to generate WTC and, therefore, acquisition of the FL. This investigation also found an interesting correlation between WTC and achievement: pupils with better achievement grades (both in the CLIL subject and in EFL lessons) were usually those presenting higher WTC in the FL. Thus, these results enabled Menezes and Juan-Garau (2015) to corroborate that CLIL schemes significantly contribute towards learners' WTC and their achievement in the FL.

In the Valencian community, the ELA research group in Jaume I University (UJI) in Castellón particularly comes to the fore. In 2003, this university started a two-year pilot project at tertiary level for the introduction of English as the third language of tuition. The main aim of the study was to measure teachers' training needs and their level of involvement. The study informed the design of a teacher training programme at UJI that was established when the project finished and has been successfully taught by the English Studies Department for several years now. Two years later, in 2005, Safont examined Spanish/Valencian/English trilingualism, not to assess the implementation of a concrete CLIL programme as is the case with the present investigation, but with the aim of bridging the gap between interlanguage pragmatics and third language acquisition (Fortanet-Gómez, 2010).

Third language acquisition and multilingualism have been the centre of attention of the ELA research group at Jaume I University; however, no published research on the effects of CLIL in this context can be located to date (Pérez Cañado, 2015a). Ruiz-Garrido and Fortanet-Gómez (2009) chart the need for conducting a strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis with all stakeholders involved in the CLIL approach, thereby substantiating one of the aims of our dissertation. These authors advocate for the use of triangulation by employing questionnaires, interviews and observation and recommend including specific items for each stakeholder, such as questions on language mastery, methodology, collaboration, and materials for the teachers, and content, motivation, methodology, language and attitude for the students. These suggestions have been included in our qualitative instrument design.

It is plain to see that overall, CLIL research projects in the Balearic community, and especially in the Valencian region, are scarce in comparison to those carried out in other Spanish areas like Andalusia, Madrid, Catalonia or the BAC. Hence, the present study seeks to contribute towards the robustness of CLIL research in our autonomous community.

4.2.2. Monolingual regions

4.2.2.1. Madrid

The Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid (CAM) is a monolingual autonomous region that entered the CLIL scene in the late 1990s, some years after the foregoing bilingual regions did. There are two main programmes currently in place: the *MEC/British Council Project* and the *CAM Bilingual Project*.

The MEC/British Council Project was an agreement signed in 1996 by the Spanish Ministry of Education and the British Council. It is a content and language integrated initiative that combines the Spanish and the English National Curricula and, from its onset, is becoming increasingly popular. Apart from the Madrid region, it is now being applied in most autonomous communities: Aragón, Asturias, the Balearic Islands, Cantabria, Castile and León, Castile la Mancha, Ceuta, Extremadura, Melilla, Murcia and Navarra. Llinares and Dafouz (2010) offer a summary of its main characteristics, namely, the early exposure to natural language and authentic materials focusing on the development of literacy skills, joint effort of language and content teachers, twin-school networks with the UK, native language assistants and extensive pre- and in-service teacher training. The programme has positively influenced the FL skills of the students and certain affective aspects, although these are self-reported claims.

As for the CAM Bilingual Project, it began in 2004 and involves almost 500 public schools in the Madrid region. The schools follow the Spanish Curriculum and must offer between 30% and 50% of the syllabus in English. The foreign language can be used as the medium of instruction in any subject except for Mathematics and Spanish, which must be taught in L1. Llinares and Dafouz (2010) identify the four main features of this programme, specifically: native language assistants, national and international teacher training, greater funding for reference materials and ICT equipment and twinning with schools in the UK. The CAM bilingual project has been reported to increment motivation and boost self-esteem and confidence amongst all stakeholders involved.

At university level, however, there are only two institutions (the Carlos III and Rey Juan Carlos Universities) that offer bilingual degrees, whereas various pilot courses are available at the Universidad Complutense, Universidad Autónoma, Alcalá de Henares, and Universidad Politécnica de Madrid (Llinares & Dafouz, 2010). Nevertheless, with regards to investigation, there has been a steady increase in recent times of CLIL research in the Madrid area aimed at measuring the effects of these bilingual programmes. For instance, the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid Learner English Corpus (UAMLESC) began to record pre-primary lessons in 1998 ensuing the implementation of the *MEC/British Council Project*. Llinares-García's analysis of the data (2006, 2007) showed the relevance of quality over quantity of exposure (in Llinares & Dafouz, 2010).

The UAM-CLIL project directed by Llinares and Whittaker also arose from the need to assess the MEC/British programme's performance, to identify good CLIL practice and to describe language features of CLIL students. This research group focused on 1st year secondary students in two public schools that followed the programme. Llinares and Whittaker (2006 and 2010) studied CLIL learners' lexico-grammatical development and functional realisations, use of modality and interactional competences by analysing their spoken interactions, writings and oral interviews. The outcomes were very positive,

with CLIL cohorts producing written texts comparable to those of much older EFL students (Pérez Cañado, 2015a, p. 9).

At the Universidad de Alcalá de Henares, the UAH CLIL project led by Halbach follows a qualitative approach and is centred on teachers' perception of CLIL, their motivations and concerns. A data-gathering process involving questionnaires and interviews took place in four different public schools. The target was to perform a needs analysis to inform teacher training courses improving methodology and materials. Outcomes revealed instructors had important training deficits, although in general they were highly motivated and communicated extremely positive opinions on the CAM Project. A follow-up study was presented in 2008 by Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo, with the objective of broadening the abovementioned study through the use of two new questionnaires that analysed teachers' stances on bilingual education, the implementation of their CLIL scheme and their perceived needs. Comparable results transpired: motivated and committed teachers still insecure about bilingual methodology and their command of English. These authors conclude by stating the need of targeted training, especially at pre-service level.

Halbach (2010) addresses this need by creating a CLIL track in the *UAH's Teacher Training Master Course*, which constitutes a good example of research successfully informing CLIL implementation. Before developing the aforementioned master's programme, Halbach and her team analysed the existing teacher training programmes and realised that specific training for working in CLIL environments was almost completely absent. Hence, they used the outcomes of the previous research on teachers' needs and teachers' conceptualisation of bilingual teaching to inform the design of the UAH's master programme. The main areas they addressed were: FL proficiency (with a focus on oral skills), the integration of content and language teaching, classroom management, teaching literacy in the foreign language and the development of materials and resources. In order to assure this course met the trainee teachers' needs, Halbach and her team included 300 hours of Teaching Practice for new teachers and an Action Research Project for in-service teachers to improve a particular aspect of their current

practice. With positive feedback from the first cohorts and enrolment numbers rising steadily, the implementation of this first master with a CLIL track in our country has been, in Halbach's view, a success (Halbach, 2010).

The *UCM-CLUE project*, directed by Dafouz-Milne in connection with the CLIL approach in higher education, deserves some consideration. This study is centred on the characteristics of teacher discourse in university CLIL lessons, particularly on Spanish native lecturers teaching Aeronautical Engineering through English at Universidad Politécnica de Madrid (UPM). This group have also studied teacher and student views on CLIL implementation both at the UPM and the UCM (Universidad Complutense de Madrid) and conclude that attitudes towards CLIL are generally positive. Nonetheless, adjustments regarding a minor reduction of content, materials adaptation and slowing down the pace have to be made (Pérez Cañado, 2015a, p. 9).

Another study in the CAM worth mentioning is the European research Comenius project *PROCLIL* (Providing Guidelines for CLIL Implementation), which records examples of CLIL implementation and reflects on methodological practice (Ramírez-Verdugo, 2008). This investigation concerned with pedagogical practice, cross-curricular and linguistic principles, video recorded a number of lessons. It also employed a set of questionnaires and interviews to gather qualitative data from 147 primary schools and over 300 teaching professionals at infant and primary school levels. The findings of this investigation proved valuable in shedding some light on current CLIL methodological practices, such as teachers' focus on content (especially in assessment), their input in the FL or their stress on listening above the rest of skills. Outcomes also allowed the researchers to identify good practice and potential problems, providing clear guidelines to in-service and pre-service teachers.

Regarding the impact of bilingual instruction in the academic achievement of primary students in the L1, the FL and content subjects, Sotoca Sienes' (2014) quasi-experimental study particularly stands out. The researcher worked with a large sample of 2,153 students from CLIL and non-CLIL public schools. In order to measure the

academic achievement of the pupils, Sotoca Sienes (2014) employed the end-of-year qualifications provided by the schools for English, Spanish, Mathematics and Science or Environmental Studies (the CLIL Science subject) as well as two external examinations (the Diagnosis Test and CDI Test) that tested students' abilities in Spanish Language and in Mathematics.

The outcomes of the external tests showed the CLIL schools outperformed the non-CLIL ones in Spanish language and Mathematics, although differences were not always significant. However, when the final grades of the schools were considered, the non-bilingual schools obtained better results than the bilingual ones in Environmental Studies and English. Regarding these conflicting results, the author gives stronger credibility to the external examinations that point to the good progress of the CLIL strand, which are in line with previous investigations (Consejo Escolar Comunidad de Madrid, 2010). She suggests that the lower marks detected in the CLIL subject and the FL could be due to the teachers' typically higher expectations placed on the subjects directly affected by bilingual programmes (content and FL attainment). The author alludes to the young age of the participants to explain the lack of statistically significant differences between cohorts and mentions several studies which affirm that primary CLIL students catch up with their non-CLIL peers over time.

Lastly, the findings of a 2016 landmark study addressing subject content learning as well as L2 development in the CAM should be expounded on here. The study by Anghel, Cabrales and Carro (2016) compares the exam results of sixth grade primary level pupils in 25 schools before and after they entered the bilingual programme, with a control group of non-CLIL schools. In order to measure the outcome of primary education, a standardised test was sat by all students on the skills considered indispensable at their age. The exam consisted of two parts: the first part included dictation, language, reading and General Knowledge tests and a second one comprised Mathematics exercises. The contents of the General Knowledge exam are similar to the Science subject which includes all teaching of Science, History, and Geography and is taught in the FL in the bilingual schools. It should be noted that the tests were

conducted in Spanish for all pupils, regardless of school type. Anghel, Cabrales and Carro's results (2016) clearly indicate that the programme has negative effects in terms of content, although not on mathematical skills and on reading in Spanish. Students in bilingual schools obtained statistically significantly lower means than the control group in General Knowledge (the subject taught in the FL) after following the programme. Moreover, the size of this effect is especially substantial for children whose parents had a lower socioeconomic status.

4.2.2.2. La Rioja

This monolingual autonomous community is situated in the North of Spain and is one of the smallest in our country, both with regards to its territory and the number of inhabitants. Nonetheless, La Rioja stands out for its CLIL efforts in recent years and is thus worth including in our overview of the Spanish CLIL panorama. Before reviewing the existing research studies in this area, we will focus on CLIL implementation, concretely the two main CLIL initiatives: the *PILC* or *Proyectos de Innovación Lingüística en Centros* (School Language Innovation Projects) and the *Bilingual Sections*.

The PILC projects were created in 2004 to promote foreign language learning in public and state-funded schools in La Rioja region. It is aimed at non-university content teachers who hold at least a CEFR B1 level or Intermediate EOI (Spanish Official Language School) level in the foreign language and who implement a CLIL initiative. Teachers' participation in the scheme has been a great success in spite of La Rioja's later start in CLIL. Fernández-Fontecha (2010) describes two types of CLIL currently developed in the region: type A, in which foreign language is used mainly for routines, instructions and frequent words; and type B, where content teachers use the foreign language for part of the subject. Some measures have been taken to facilitate the establishment of CLIL; for instance, Type B CLIL teachers may request a reduction of

their workload and schools taking part in the project can apply for a native FL teaching assistant.

In 2008 the regional government passed a law establishing the procedures to develop a Bilingual Section. This initiative, as the previous one, was aimed at public and state-funded centres at non-university levels. Students in bilingual sections can have up to 50% of their curriculum hours in the foreign language and receive one additional language lesson per week as reinforcement (Fernández-Fontecha, 2010). In addition, students and teachers can rely on the language skills of the teaching assistant assigned to each Bilingual Section by the regional Ministry of Education. In Bilingual Sections teachers can be either content specialists or foreign language teachers and, similarly to the PILC teachers, they can apply for a reduction in their workload. Nevertheless, Bilingual section teachers have many responsibilities, for instance the elaboration of schemes of work, annual reports, preparation of teaching materials, attending weekly meetings, or taking part in teacher training programmes. These in-service training programmes are available since the academic year 2008-2009 and contain different actions aimed at CLIL teachers, such as methodology courses, language immersion courses abroad, conversation workshops and language immersion stays (Fernández-Fontecha, 2010). In this sense, there is also a European project worth mentioning: eCLILT, an innovative e-training in CLIL that started in 2009.

As was mentioned previously, CLIL programmes in La Rioja started to be implemented much later than in other autonomous communities in Spain; therefore, it could be argued that empirical research in La Rioja is still in its infancy. The bulk of research in this region has been carried out mainly by the *GLAUR* group (Grupo de Lingüística Aplicada de la Universidad de La Rioja), coordinated by Jiménez-Catalán, and has focused on vocabulary acquisition in CLIL. From the studies summarised below it transpires that vocabulary has been examined from different angles with heterogeneous and sometimes discrepant results.

In La Rioja, Agustín-Llach and Jiménez-Catalán (2007) studied the effects of CLIL and non-CLIL instruction types with a focus on vocabulary, more concretely, lexical reiteration. The authors found that content learners perform slightly better than mainstream ones in four aspects: language level, lexical variation and their use of general nouns and antonyms, as reported by Fernández-Fontecha (2010). A year later, Jiménez-Catalán and Ojeda-Alba (2008) measured the English vocabulary production of 86 students (44 CLIL and 42 non-CLIL learners) attending their last year of primary school in two semi-private schools in Logroño. Both cohorts had had the same exposure to English in the EFL subject; however, the CLIL group had studied in the foreign language for two years. A cloze test and a lexical availability task were administered and, contrary to expectations, the EFL strand obtained better results than the CLIL group in both tests. These results do not tally with the outcomes of the other vocabulary-centred studies mentioned in this overview that generally tend to favour CLIL learners.

Still regarding vocabulary, a group of relevant research studies particularly stands out. These were executed conjointly between La Rioja and the BAC and yielded positive results for CLIL, albeit presenting notable methodological pitfalls. Pérez Cañado (2015a, p. 5) points at the fact that these studies compare groups of extremely heterogeneous learners that have not been matched in any way; pupils from La Rioja study English as an L2, while this language is an L3 for BAC learners. The scholar mentions a second important flaw concerning their lack of factor or discriminant analyses and agrees with the researchers that these shortcomings prevent the outcomes from being reliably ascribed to the effects of CLIL.

One example of these joint studies between the two regions would be that by Jiménez-Catalán and Ruiz de Zarobe (2009). The scholars worked with a sample of female students from CLIL and traditional EFL streams, in Bilbao and La Rioja, respectively. A total of three language tests were sat by the participants and data revealed slightly higher scores for the CLIL students' receptive vocabulary. Although both groups came from similar sociolinguistic backgrounds, it has been argued that they are not truly

comparable since the learners' contact with the FL outside the school was not taken into account. The researchers themselves acknowledge this important limitation and advocate for more studies in this area to ascertain whether CLIL schemes are really responsible for the differential outcomes.

The same year, Ojeda-Alba (2009) conducted a study that compared general vocabulary use in CLIL and non-CLIL streams, obtaining inconclusive results. She analysed several lexical fields including sports, food, school, or family and found very similar number of tokens and types in both cohorts. The non-CLIL branch presented in many cases more varied vocabulary choices in their compositions, implying higher lexical richness; however, the output produced by the CLIL stream included more abstract terms, demonstrating more developed linguistic skills.

More recently, Jiménez-Catalán and Fernández-Fontecha (2015) have published a new study, another joint research project between La Rioja and The Basque Country. The study focuses on the use of lexical phrases in written compositions by CLIL and non-CLIL students. These range from formulaic expressions to semi-rigid structures that work as lexical units, and are of special interest to ascertain the learners' language level, since their use has been linked to fluency and proficiency. The sample comprised a total of 60 female students attending their last year of primary education: 30 CLIL students from the Basque country and 30 non-CLIL students from La Rioja. Data were gathered through a language level test consisting of an eight-point cloze and a written composition. The researchers identified and quantified the lexical phrases used by the participants and performed statistical analyses. As predicted, the authors found a strong positive correlation between the number of lexical phrases and the language level in both groups, although overall CLIL and non-CLIL groups made a scarce use of these expressions. Language level in the CLIL stream was significantly higher; however, the researchers claim this could be explained by the increased exposure to English and not necessarily by the CLIL methodology, since they consider these two variables cannot be separated. The authors conclude that the main factor explaining the participants'

production of lexical phrases in their writings seems to be their language level rather than having received CLIL or EFL instruction.

To finish our characterisation of CLIL in La Rioja, there is a study worthy of mention that departs from the vocabulary-oriented ones reviewed so far. Agustín-Llach (2009) carried out a quantitative and qualitative investigation that aimed to analyse the influence of the mother tongue or L1 on the writing of CLIL and EFL learners. Notable differences were found comparing lexical transfer in the letters and compositions produced by both cohorts. Outcomes showed a higher percentage of language transfer in mainstream learners, who made more L1-oriented lexical errors and resorted to ‘borrowings’ from Spanish more frequently than their CLIL counterparts.

4.2.2.3. Andalusia

The first point often mentioned by authors reviewing the case of Andalusia is its impressive network of over 1,000 bilingual schools that provides CLIL instruction to almost 300,000 students. It is evident why this large Spanish region once characterised by its “monoglot mentality” (Lorenzo, 2010, p. 3) is now being described as “the clearest example of the introduction of Bilingual Sections” (Madrid & Hughes, 2011, p. 12). It is safe to affirm that, today, Andalusia is clearly ahead of the game in CLIL implementation and research.

A multi-million language policy, the *Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism* (henceforth *APPP*), approved by the Andalusian government, was successfully applied in the region in 2005 and, from 2017, the new *PEDLA (Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía)* will seek to consolidate the many accomplishments of the *APPP*. The former scheme began investing European funds in human and technical resources, mobility, teacher training and the design of innovative curricula over a decade ago. There are five subprogrammes distinguished in the *APPP*, namely, The Bilingual Schools Programme, the Official Language School

Programme, the Teachers and the Plurilingual Programme, the Plurilingualism and Society Programme and the Plurilingualism and Cross-Culturalism Programme. Overall the APPP included 74 actions of which 13 act as general goals:

1. An increase in the number of hours of language study in the school curriculum and Official Language Schools.
2. An expansion of the network of the Official Language Schools where foreign languages will be used to teach subjects and areas of the curriculum.
3. The bringing forward of the L2 to infant education and the first cycle of primary education.
4. Progressive implementation of flexible school timetables in order to allow Secondary pupils contact hours with the foreign language every school day.
5. Adaptation of the curriculum for pupils with special education needs.
6. Reform and expansion of distance language learning.
7. Promotion of the participation of schools in European Programmes.
8. Promotion of exchange visits by pupils and teachers.
9. Extension of the Language and Youth Programmes.
10. An increase in the number of summer camps.
11. Promotion of twinning between schools in different countries.
12. Creation of a new Integrated Language Curriculum.
13. The implementation of the English Language Portfolio within the classroom.

(Junta de Andalucía, 2005, p. 25)

The initial resources of the Plan included the hiring of 600 native language assistants, the creation of 50 permanent centres to monitor and improve teachers' language competences, in-service training for over 50,000 teachers and European mobility programmes for 30,000 students.

The magnitude of the unprecedented investment in multilingual education called for a comprehensive evaluation of the Plan. Lorenzo (2010) and his colleagues were commissioned a language assessment and a formal evaluation of the new bilingual school network by the Consejería de Educación of the Junta de Andalucía. The outcomes were presented in the main report *The Effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning in European Education: Key Findings from the Andalusian*

Bilingual Sections Evaluation Project (Lorenzo, Casal & Moore, 2009), plus two academic studies (Casal & Moore 2009) centred on the methodology and operational foundations of the project, and also a summary focused on its sociological importance (Lorenzo & Moore, 2009). This investigation was the first empirical study on the effects of the APPP and had a considerable impact and dissemination, as Pérez Cañado (2011) underscores.

Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2009) randomly selected 61 schools in the region and collected data following a mixed methods approach. For the quantitative part of the study, they administered skills-based language tests to students in the English, French and German CLIL sections at 2nd-grade secondary and 4th-grade primary levels. The qualitative data were obtained from some of the stakeholders via interviews (with coordinators) and questionnaires (for students, teachers and parents). The study yielded very positive outcomes in terms of language competence, as students from CLIL sections significantly outstripped their EFL counterparts both at primary and secondary levels. The teachers' views reflected by the questionnaires define the CLIL experience as positive or very positive overall, with teacher training and resources as possible points for improvement, and similar positive outlooks were offered by the students and families polled. The coordinators interviewed provided a more critical vision identifying weaknesses and threats to the APPP, such as the workload, instability and insufficient teacher training, time reductions, materials and information among others (Lorenzo, Casal & Moore, 2009). The benefits of the programme, however, appear to outweigh its disadvantages and the CLIL experience is praised once more.

CLIL specialists like Pérez Cañado have questioned the almost exclusively positive results reported by Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2009). In her words, "the reader is left with the impression that there is little room for improvement in the implementation of CLIL in Andalusia" (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 395). This scholar points at several important shortcomings in Lorenzo's study, in brief:

- Homogeneity between control and experimental groups is not always controlled for.

- Results for English, French and German sections are analysed together despite their different characteristics.
- CLIL effects on L1 and content subjects are not empirically examined and methodological triangulation is not used.
- Intervening variables should have been factored in or discriminant analyses performed in order to ascribe the CLIL strands' superior results to a certain cause.

Some of these deficiencies were later overcome by Madrid and Hughes' quantitative (2011) study, where only English sections in different types of schools were analysed. This project aimed to shed some light on the effects of CLIL on L1, L2 and content learning in 6th year primary and 4th year secondary levels in private, semi-private and public schools in Andalusia. English, Spanish and content subject tests were designed, piloted and subsequently applied to a casual non-probabilistic cross section of 312 learners, as Roa, Madrid & Sanz (2011) report. The study coordinated by Madrid shows that private bilingual groups outperformed the rest at primary and secondary levels. In addition, both public and private bilingual schools outstripped the rest in L1 performance. This evinced that bilingual education did not have a detrimental effect on Spanish even in schools with up to 50% exposure to the FL; in fact, it was the public monolingual school that showed the lowest levels in all domains analysed. Madrid's investigation supersedes some of the lacunae mentioned in previous studies; however, the sample analysed is very small, still does not offer a longitudinal view, groups are not matched before data collection, no intervening variables have been considered and, like in Lorenzo's study, no statistical analyses have been performed to determine if the superior outcomes obtained are ascribable to the CLIL programme (Pérez Cañado, 2011).

A similar recent study by Pavón Vázquez (2018) supersedes many of the mentioned deficiencies and focuses on student performance in the foreign language, the mother tongue and in the subjects taught through CLIL. This scholar's investigation is framed within the state-funded Mon-CLIL project, as is the case of the following four studies

reviewed below (Madrid & Barrios, 2018; Rascón Moreno & Bretones Calleja, 2018; Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018 and Pérez Cañado, 2018a).

Pavón Vázquez (2018) assessed the learning outcomes of CLIL programmes at primary and secondary levels taking into account psycho-affective factors (verbal reasoning, anxiety, motivation, indifference and self-demand), the role of extramural exposure and school environment (rural vs. urban schools). In order to search for empirical evidence, the researcher employed two main types of instruments: FL competence tests and oral interviews (grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening, and speaking), and student questionnaires (to measure psycho-affective variables and extramural exposure), all specifically designed and validated. To complement this information, the end of year grades for the Spanish language subject and the CLIL subjects (Science) were collected.

Taken generally, Pavón Vázquez's outcomes (2018) evince that, although urban groups tend to perform slightly better in certain aspects analysed, the existing differences are not statistically significant. Regarding FL proficiency, the initial differences detected in favour of urban groups in the primary stage are reduced in the long term, with very few remaining at the end of secondary education. Specifically, vis-à-vis learners' attainment in the L1, no substantial differences were found between settings at either stage, while the rural group outperformed the urban one in the Science subject at secondary level.

In relation to the role of psycho-affective factors, no significant differences could be located between the primary groups, while secondary rural pupils exhibited significantly less willingness to learn than their urban counterparts. Such results, however, appear to be related to the level of the students and not to the rural-urban divide, as the author suggests. Finally, regarding the amount and quality of extramural exposure, Pavón Vázquez's findings (2018) were inconclusive because no significant headway was made by either of the groups. The scholar concludes that the divergent results of the urban and rural groups are due to a "mixture of factors in the teaching and learning process but cannot be solely accredited to the characteristics of the two distinct school settings" (Pavón Vázquez, 2018, p. 9).

In this line, Madrid and Barrios (2018) and Rascón Moreno and Bretones Calleja (2018) also focus on the impact of CLIL on L1, FL and content considering various intervening variables in two recent investigations that bear some resemblance to ours. Madrid and Barrios' study at primary and secondary level addressed the academic achievement of 720 students in relation to programme (CLIL and EFL) and school type (one private, three semi-private and 13 public schools). Its research design matched pupils in terms of verbal intelligence and motivation at a preliminary stage. Later, extramural exposure to the target language and socioeconomic status, in addition to their performance in the mother tongue (Spanish), FL (English) and CLIL subjects, were factored in.

Verbal intelligence and motivation were tested with the same instruments to be used in the present investigation: the motivation test by Pelechano (1994) and the EFAI or verbal intelligence test by Santamaría, Arribas, Pereña and Seisdedos (2014). Next, students' extramural exposure to the target language was measured through Sundqvist and Sylvén's questionnaire from 2014 while, for socioeconomic status, the parents' educational background was taken as a proxy. The students' end-of-year grades were used to measure of their performance in L1 and content, while the FL subject was assessed through a set of use of English, vocabulary, listening, reading and speaking tests designed by Madrid, Bueno & Ráez (2018).

Statistically significant differences between the CLIL and the EFL programme and between school types were found and discriminant analyses were performed to ascertain which factors could account for the differences found between CLIL and mainstream groups. Consistent with the outcomes obtained across CLIL contexts in our continent, Madrid and Barrios (2018) confirmed that the academic achievement of CLIL pupils in Spanish had not suffered a negative impact when compared to that of the mainstream students. Regarding content subject grades, mixed results transpired. CLIL students outperformed the non-CLIL cohort at primary level but exactly the opposite trend was found for secondary. Next, when public CLIL and non-CLIL strands were compared, the primary CLIL pupils obtained better grades in content, while results in secondary showed a similar level of academic achievement. One final comparison, this time

between semi-private and public CLIL schools, evinced statistically significant differences in favour of the former in secondary but not in primary, while private school students outstripped the rest in all aspects tested.

As for English attainment, the CLIL students outstripped the non-CLIL ones both in primary and secondary. Results were particularly outstanding for the speaking skill in favour of the CLIL cohort at both levels and most remarkably in primary students. When CLIL groups and EFL semi-private groups were compared, the former obtained higher means. Differences in favour of CLIL were statistically significant across the board, with the exception of the speaking test in secondary. Finally, the successive discriminant analyses carried out established that the CLIL scheme, and not the potentially intervening variables controlled for, was responsible for the differences found between CLIL and non-CLIL groups.

In turn, Rascón Moreno and Bretones Calleja's (2018) investigation is a quantitative research study on the effects of socioeconomic status on CLIL and non-CLIL students' language and content attainment. Researchers worked with a sample of 348 students from eight primary and secondary education institutions in Andalusia. Parents' educational level (high, medium or low) was obtained via a validated questionnaire and taken as a proxy to calculate socioeconomic status. In addition, the moderating variables of verbal intelligence, motivation and extramural exposure were controlled for, and English language competence (grammar, vocabulary and the four skills), Spanish language competence and content knowledge were analysed.

The scholars calculated the effects of SES on the L1 and FL level of bilingual groups in primary education and CSE in comparison to those of the non-CLIL groups. They detected that, in mainstream groups, there were significant differences in performance in favour of higher SES pupils. In CLIL students, however, the differences in SES did not exert any substantial effect on the level they attained in English or Spanish. Next, the relationship between SES and the pupils' verbal intelligence, motivation and extramural exposure was analysed, but it did not generate significant differences.

Lastly, a discriminant analysis was performed to ascertain which of the variables considered accounted for the variance in FL, L1 and content learning results. It was found that, in primary, none of the variables explained the competence differential, while in the case of CSE it was students' attainment in FL, L1 and content that accounted for the greatest amount of variance, in addition to extramural exposure.

For Rascón Moreno and Bretones Calleja's (2018), the reduced effects of the SES variable unveiled in CLIL contexts may have pedagogical implications. In this sense, they encourage parents of any socioeconomic background to enroll their children in CLIL streams, and they support the Andalusian education authorities in their initiative to upgrade from a CLIL sections system to a CLIL schools one.

Another Andalusian CLIL study with a particular focus on intervening variables is Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez's (2018) investigation, where the researchers analysed affective factors and their relation to foreign language attainment. To this end, they measured and compared the achievement levels of primary and secondary Andalusian CLIL and non-CLIL learners in English and in motivation tests. Pupils were initially matched in terms of verbal intelligence and motivation and the instruments employed include a battery of FL tests (use of English, vocabulary, listening, speaking, and reading) originally designed and validated for the study, and a 35-item motivation test by Pelechano (1994) on four key motivational aspects: desire to work and self-esteem, realistic personal self-demand, anxiety in the face of exams and lack of interest in learning.

Results were analysed to measure achievement levels of CLIL and non-CLIL learners and the interaction between language attainment and motivation. Substantial differences were found between the achievement levels of CLIL and EFL learners, invariably favouring the bilingual stream, especially in the long run (at secondary level). Turning to affective factors, outcomes mirror prior studies that tend to assign higher levels of motivation to CLIL strands (Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Lagasabaster, 2009, 2011 and 2014). The authors also report that the effects of motivational variables are statistically

significant and that these have a considerable impact on the language attainment of CLIL groups. However, the authors suggest that motivational variables be considered covariates as they clearly influence results, but they highlight that other variables like the type of instruction might be more decisive in predicting FL attainment (Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018, p. 87).

This same year, Pérez Cañado (2018a) has published a longitudinal macro-study centred on the effects of CLIL on L2 achievement that we also consider of special interest in the context of this dissertation for its similarities with our investigation in terms of research questions, instruments and variables. The scholar worked with a large sample of 1,033 CLIL students and 991 EFL pupils from public, semi-private and private schools in Andalusia, The Canary Islands and Extremadura in Spain. All the learners, who were either completing 6th grade of primary education or finishing the 4th grade of CSE, were matched at a pre-test stage in terms of FL proficiency (data provided by the schools), motivation and verbal intelligence, thus guaranteeing the homogeneity of the treatment and comparison groups.

Various tools were employed for information-gathering: verbal intelligence tests (part of the EFAI battery by Santamaría, Arribas, Pereña and Seisdedos, 2014), motivation tests (MA tests by Pelechano, 1994) and a set of English language tests (cf. Madrid, Bueno, & Ráez, 2018) on use of English, vocabulary and the four skills. In addition, the pupils were administered an initial questionnaire to elicit biographical information about themselves and their parents to be taken as a proxy for socioeconomic status. In order to trace the FL evolution of the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts, these were administered post- and delayed post-tests after which inter- and intra-group comparisons were made. To finish, successive discriminant analyses were performed (considering the intervening variables of motivation, verbal intelligence, extramural exposure to English, setting, and socioeconomic status) in order to determine whether CLIL is truly responsible for the differences ascertained or whether other variables account for a greater proportion of the variance.

Results confirmed the superior linguistic competence (grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, and speaking) achieved by the experimental group at both educational stages. The linguistic competence differential between cohorts was especially marked at secondary education level, where the CLIL strand invariably outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts on all aspects studied. In relation to the durability of the effects of CLIL, outcomes evinced that these pervaded six months after the programmes were discontinued. Nevertheless, no statistically significant differences were found between the EFL semi-private stream and the CLIL groups (public and private) in 1st year of Baccalaureate. In this sense, Pérez Cañado (2018a, p. 68) advocates for maintaining CLIL programmes so the FL competence differential is sustained.

Outcomes pertaining to the evolution of the experimental and control groups between their post- and delayed post-tests are in line with those obtained by Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona (2016), who also report more positive effects of CLIL on productive rather than receptive skills. To finish, the competence differential between the treatment and comparison groups is studied by means of a discriminant analysis. Pérez Cañado's (2018a) findings allow her to firmly state that the CLIL programme is the variable accountable for the differences found between groups. In other words, the differences are truly ascribable to CLIL, especially in secondary education.

One last investigation on the effects of CLIL on FL should be included in our review. In 2017, Pérez Cañado and Lancaster published a longitudinal, quantitative, quasi-experimental case study on oral comprehension and production in Andalusia. Their investigation had two focal areas: determining whether the pupils following a particular CLIL scheme developed greater oral comprehension and production skills than their non-CLIL counterparts, and establishing whether the possible differential effects of CLIL pervaded after the CSE CLIL programme was discontinued. The researchers worked with a small homogenous sample of 24 secondary students who sat two FL competence tests specifically designed and validated to measure their oral comprehension and production skills and an initial pre-test guaranteed the homogeneity of the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts in terms of English language proficiency.

Results attest to the superior English oral comprehension and production skills achieved by the CLIL students when compared to those of the EFL control group. Moreover, the differential effects in FL performance pervaded six months after the end of the CSE CLIL programme, but in the case of oral production only. In other words, outcomes evinced that gains in listening gradually peter out while CLIL students continue to make substantial headway in speaking six months later.

Before moving on to the Andalusian qualitative studies on stakeholder perspectives, it is necessary to include here one of the few recent investigations that focus on the effects of CLIL on L1 and content. In this quantitative investigation, Pérez Cañado (2017a) worked with a sample of 991 CLIL and 1.033 traditional EFL primary and secondary education students from three monolingual provinces in Spain (Andalusia, Extremadura and The Canary Islands). This study endeavours to overcome the main lacunae of previous related studies regarding sample size, homogeneity, variables and statistical methodology.

The study is an instance of applied, primary, quasi-experimental research, with a pre-test/post-test control group design. It guaranteed the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups in terms of verbal intelligence, motivation and English level; and factored in the intervening variables of setting (rural and urban), type of school (public, private and semi-private), setting and socioeconomic status. Moreover, the study used statistical methodology and carried out successive discriminant analyses with a view to ascertaining which variables account for a greater proportion of the variance. Moreover, several tried-and-tested instruments were used for information-gathering: a verbal intelligence test, a motivation test, Spanish Language and subject content tests and an initial questionnaire to elicit personal data of students and their parents (to calculate socioeconomic status). Pérez Cañado's (2017a) findings allowed her to affirm that neither the level of L1 (Spanish) nor the content subject knowledge (Natural Science) acquired by the CLIL group had been negatively affected by CLIL instruction when compared to the EFL strand. In fact, pupils enrolled in bilingual programmes

outperformed their monolingual counterparts in Spanish at both primary and secondary stages, although the effects on content were more noticeable in secondary.

Concomitantly, it was found that the type of school and SES variables exerted a modulating effect on these results, as CLIL students from public and private environments consistently outperformed the rest, while non-CLIL public students lagged behind. The weight of the SES variable is of considerable importance and may explain why there were no substantial differences between the experimental group and the monolingual pupils from semi-private schools with generally more privileged backgrounds (mirroring Madrid and Hughes' 2011 study). Regarding the rural-urban divide, significant differences were only found between non-CLIL learners, suggesting that the CLIL programme can be successful in both contexts and that it may have minimised the effects of this variable. Pérez Cañado's (2017a) findings on the potential of CLIL have important pedagogical implications, since her initial results on the promising effects of CLIL on L1 and content were later statistically confirmed by the successive discriminant analyses performed.

As we mentioned earlier, we can find several noteworthy qualitative studies in this same autonomous community. We will begin our overview with the ones focused solely on teacher perspectives and continue with studies that include the other main stakeholders: students and parents. Back in 2009, Rubio Mostacero conducted a needs analysis consisting in a series of teacher interviews in four secondary schools with the aim of designing a teacher training course for non-linguistic area teachers (NLAs). The data she gathered showed teachers' main concerns but also revealed an overall positive perspective of the instructors, who saw CLIL as a challenge. Rubio Mostacero's findings, as explained by Pérez Cañado (2011, p. 397), also included insufficient knowledge and information about CLIL, low FL proficiency in teachers and negative stances of families. Moreover, important APPP implementation problems surfaced, such as economic issues, lack of support from stakeholders and a plea for improved ICT resources and teacher training. All in all, it should be noted that despite some shortcomings in this research, including the small size of the sample and lack of

methodological and data triangulation, it was one of the earliest investigations about APPP implementation and, therefore, it must be acknowledged as a valuable contribution.

A plethora of qualitative investigations on the inner workings and stakeholders' perspectives of the APPP ensued. For instance, a year later, Cabezas Cabello (2010) carried out a SWOT analysis of the APPP in 30 primary and secondary schools in Andalusia by interviewing 30 coordinators and 100 teachers. His aim was to contrast the everyday reality of schools taking part in the APPP, a grassroots view, with the expectations created by top-down educational policies (Cabezas Cabello, 2010). Among the strengths reported by the stakeholders interviewed is the motivation and involvement of the school community in the Plan, perks such as travelling abroad, more ICTs and other resources, conversation assistants, teacher training, cross-curricular topics, creativity and integration. The weaknesses identified by the researcher, however, clearly outnumber the strengths mentioned above. Instructors complain about improvisation, lack of coordination guidelines and support of educational authorities resulting in a huge and widening gap between policies and everyday reality in schools. In addition, they have voiced the disadvantaged position of those content teachers with very limited foreign language proficiency that are in dire need of proper linguistic and methodological training. The Plan appears to be too demanding for many students, 10% of whom attempt to abandon it, and some parents have expressed feelings of powerlessness as they can no longer help their children with homework.

Fortunately, in the opportunities section, Cabezas Cabello (2010) offers constructive ideas for improvement which involve an early start, efforts towards the standardisation and continuity of the APPP. The author suggests catering for the real training needs of teachers and their motivation and a greater involvement of families in the APPP. Regarding the educational authorities, there is a need to conduct external assessments of the APPP and to devise a global strategy for its continuous improvement. In addition, authorities should offer detailed guidelines to inform the functioning of APPP schools and laws to regulate their organisational chart. One of the major threats of the Plan is

eloquently foregrounded by Cabezas Cabello (2010, p. 89): “The APPP may die of *fictitious* success, as papers are published from the inside extolling the virtues and achievements of the plan”. Finally, it could be argued that, despite the manifold methodological flaws of this study (for instance lack of triangulation and insufficient explanation of its design or procedure), it “deserves praise if only for being the first endeavour to orchestrate a balance between the grassroots and top-down implementation of the APPP and to trace its inconsistencies” (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 399).

A central study focused on teacher training and CLIL methodology and materials will now be expounded on. Ruiz Gómez (2015) looks into a project carried out by the Educational Administration of Andalusia between 2010 and 2011; a general assessment process geared at evaluating the effectiveness of the APPP’s ambitious measures four years after the law was passed. Aspects such as staff coordination, schedules, materials, methodology, use of language and CLIL and non-CLIL students’ final linguistic competence were assessed in order to offer adequate support for CLIL practitioners. Extensive disparity in overall FL competence between CLIL and mainstream pupils materialized, with the CLIL students generally coming out on top. However, highly heterogeneous outcomes transpired when the bilingual schools were thoroughly compared, which suggested a great variety of CLIL implementations: some highly effective, others rather inefficient. The main shortcomings identified included four aspects: the activities proposed resulted in very limited improvement of the L2, there was a great heterogeneity in the language adaptation of materials, the practice of the four language skills in the CLIL classroom was unsystematic and the various language functions were not adequately represented in the CLIL materials.

Virtually all CLIL instructors polled perceived their methodological approach as appropriate, but the heterogeneous levels of pupils’ FL proficiency together with the methodological inconsistencies evinced by the assessment seem to point otherwise. As a result, a group of 20 CLIL specialists (both prestigious researchers and renowned teaching professionals) was formed with the firm intention to aid bilingual teachers. The

working group successfully agreed on a detailed methodological model for CLIL; offered practical guidelines for practitioners to design materials that coherently merge the two integral components of CLIL: content and language; and, finally, created a resource bank of new CLIL materials at primary and secondary levels which teachers can access.

The qualitative study with the greatest geographical scope, however, is the one by Pérez Cañado (2014, 2016a). This Andalusian scholar carried out an analysis of pre- and in-service training needs across Europe. To this intent, a questionnaire was completed by a total of 706 informants, concretely teachers, coordinators, trainee teachers, and teacher trainers working at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, 546 of which were from Spain. The ultimate goal of this large-scale multifaceted project was to inform teacher training schemes and future courses and MAs with empirically sound data. Concretely, the investigation sought to determine the main training needs vis-à-vis linguistic and intercultural competence, the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL, methodological aspects and ongoing professional development, taking into account the intervening variables of age, gender, nationality, type of teacher, administrative situation, teaching experience, type of school, setting and language level. In addition, multiple triangulation was employed, more specifically data triangulation, investigator triangulation and location triangulation.

Overall, results from all five thematic blocks in Pérez Cañado's study revealed considerable deficits in training, especially in relation to the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL and ongoing professional development. The ANOVA and t-tests employed evinced statistically significant differences across all cohorts but particularly between in-service and pre-service groups, proving that the former assumed a fairly optimistic stance on CLIL schemes while the latter were vocal about their greater need for enhanced training. The in-service teacher cohort presented the greatest variability concerning nationality, with European teachers showing the greatest confidence in their skills and Spanish instructors verbalising their limitations and requesting further

training opportunities on linguistic competence, ongoing professional development and the elaboration of materials and resources.

Other relevant findings of the study concern language level and expose that the greatest training needs are those acknowledged by teachers currently holding a B1 level in the foreign language, an outcome which Pérez Cañado (2016a, p. 15) attributes, at least in Andalusia, to the B2 level requirement to partake in CLIL schemes. Lastly, this research study confirmed that the universities in Spain and other Southern European countries manifested the greatest training needs, whereas those in Eastern and Central European countries presented the lowest.

These noteworthy efforts to canvass the main training needs of CLIL teachers across Europe served many purposes; one of them was informing the proposal of the first specific CLIL Master's in the Andalusian region (Pérez Cañado, 2015b). This traditionally monolingual autonomous community is well-known in the CLIL international arena for its swift uptake of the approach thanks to its ambitious *Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism* or APPP. Moreover, the region has won the European Language Label Award for the role that CLIL implementation has had in the promotion of multilingualism. It is an uncontested fact, however, that much still needs to be done from a methodological point of view. As stated by Pérez Cañado (2015b, p. 169), "the teacher training actions for CLIL developed in this community have clearly been deficient until now and no Masters on this specific topic exist, so that there is a well-documented need for a proposal such as the present one".

Thereby, a sound plan in terms of pedagogical methodology for professionals teaching through the FL has been devised: a 60 ECTS credits Master's. The main lacunae the mentioned Master's will seek to address are based on recent qualitative research on teacher training needs. Areas in dire need of further attention would be the lack of adequate linguistic proficiency and materials, the need to learn the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL and practical student-centred methodologies, and, finally, the insufficient coordination, teamwork or collaboration among teachers. Accordingly, the

structure of the proposed Master's includes a practicum, an end of master's project and four modules offering a theoretical grounding on CLIL (origins, policy frameworks and APPP), instrumental English, CLIL pedagogical principles, material design and lifelong learning skills. This original Master's proposal has been approved by the Junta de Andalucía in 2017 and has just been accredited by the *Dirección de Evaluación y Acreditación de la Agencia Andaluza del Conocimiento* (DEVA) for its official start in September 2018.

A year earlier, Sánchez-Torres (2014) presented in Seville a relevant longitudinal and qualitative study involving the teaching assistants' and coordinators' (teachers) experience in the APPP, including their functions, their views on team teaching and the opinions they hold about the specific strengths and weaknesses of the scheme. Although smaller in scope than the above study, Sánchez-Torres' solid investigation represents a valuable contribution towards the understanding of how the APPP has played itself out until now and the organisational aspects that need to be addressed and improved according to the main instructors involved. This study presents data and methodological triangulation through the use of semi-structured individual and group interviews, plus the participation of multiple informants, namely teaching assistants, teachers, coordinators, teacher training school representatives and regional and provincial educational authorities.

In a like manner to Sánchez-Torres, Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013) also discuss the role of teaching assistants in the Andalusian context. This longitudinal multiple case-study project focused on the promotion of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) in the L2 within the APPP. A total of seven informants from different locations, socioeconomic status and backgrounds were interviewed on the distribution of their assigned working hours, the cultural element of their TA duties and on the practicalities of the integration of the cultural topics. The data obtained identified some areas for improvement mainly relating to the adequate integration of the culture and interaction components, and to the presence of a second teacher in the classroom. The authors concluded there was a need for greater understanding of successful co-teaching

techniques (roles and relationships) and of the programme's teaching goals. In addition, it was deemed that the quantity and quality of culturally appropriate interactions necessary to benefit pupils in the long run was highly dependent on the support that TAs received from coordinators and classroom teachers.

There are more recent studies that focus on teachers' view as well, such as the one carried out this year (2018) by Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa in four Andalusian provinces. The main objective of their large-scale longitudinal investigation is to offer a detailed diagnosis of the APPP implementation from the viewpoint of the teachers and to ascertain whether there are any within-group differences. To this end, the scholars surveyed a total of 101 non-linguistic area teachers, English teachers and language assistants and employed four types of triangulation (data, methodological, investigator, and location) to guarantee reliability. A series of identification or subject variables were examined for these stakeholders, including type of school, age and gender, nationality, the type of teacher and their administrative situation, overall and CLIL teaching experience, FL level and subjects taught through English.

The study's findings in terms of needs analysis reveal teachers' satisfaction with the FL attainment of their students in CLIL classes and with the range of different methodologies and materials used in lessons, with the exception of certain ICT resources and the lack of homework with guidelines in Spanish for parents to help their children (which was much criticised). Teachers employ different types of assessment, although they admit that the oral component is seldom evaluated, a weakness already reported by Lancaster (2016) in a previous study. In addition, and despite the increasing availability of teacher training possibilities, many still fail to cater for the CLIL teachers' needs. Finally, three identification variables were found to exert the greatest influence of teacher responses: type of teacher, the teachers' FL level and bilingual coordinators. Outcomes revealed that EFL teachers, coordinators and those with higher FL proficiency had a generally more optimistic outlook than content teachers and those with lower FL levels.

Lastly, a very recent Andalusian study by Ráez Padilla (2018) should be included here. The scholar provides us with one of the latest outlooks on CLIL program development from a parent perspective in Andalusia. An example of primary research, this investigation surveyed a total of 237 parents of CLIL pupils, 152 of whom studied at secondary level while the remaining 85 participants were at the primary stage.

The study, which is framed within the Mon-CLIL project, used self-administered questionnaires to canvass parents' opinions regarding FL competence, methodology, materials and resources, evaluation, training and information, mobility, improvement and motivation towards English and their overall appraisal of bilingual programmes. It also offered a within-cohort comparison taking into consideration the possible effects exerted by five intervening variables, namely, the parents' age, gender, nationality, their level of completed studies and the education level of their children (primary or secondary). Three sets of questionnaires (for the student, parent and teacher cohorts) were specifically designed and validated in Spanish and the FL for the Mon-CLIL project. These underwent a double-fold pilot procedure and their internal consistency was guaranteed by the use of Cronbach Alpha (cf. Pérez Cañado, 2016d). This specific part of the study reported by Ráez Padilla (2018) worked with data obtained on the parent questionnaire and employed statistical methodology for its analysis (SPSS programme, version 21.0).

Results provide evidence of parents' positive assessment of their offspring's L2 development, participation and motivation towards the CLIL subject/s. Families are also optimistic in relation to the varied methodologies and types of assessment employed. Still positive but clearly less enthusiastic were their stances on materials and resources, particularly regarding homework, an area in which they demand further support in the form of guidelines in Spanish. Next, and in line with previous studies, Ráez Padilla's (2018) results unveiled a clear contrast between the families' theoretical appraisal of the importance of mobility and the actual number of cases in which their children took advantage of mobility opportunities, a mismatch worthy of further research.

Evidence from the questionnaires also documents there is room for improvement in how schools get parents involved in the CLIL scheme. As has been already mentioned, families conveyed they struggle to support their children with their assignments. In addition, parents consider they would benefit from a more fluid communication with the teachers about their offspring's progress and they demand more information on the regional plurilingual plan (the APPP) and on the principles of CLIL. On a positive note, parents highly valued the teaching skills of the instructors and expressed their satisfaction with their children's increased motivation and FL development.

The remaining qualitative studies subsumed within this section concurrently analyse the viewpoints of the main stakeholders involved in CLIL schemes. We will begin with the investigations put forward by Lancaster (2016) and Gálvez-Gómez (2013), both in the context of the Jaén province. The main goal of the former was identifying student and teacher attitudes towards the scheme. Lancaster (2016) designed, validated and administered two sets of questionnaires to a sample of 745 informants (692 students and 53 teachers) in eight secondary schools in Jaén so as to gain an insight into the general outlook of stakeholders on CLIL at this level. Results overall provided unequivocal support for the CLIL route with both teachers and students revealing their satisfaction towards the APPP programme in general. Gálvez-Gómez's contribution (2013) was materialised in a SWOT analysis of CLIL implementation at primary level also in Jaén. The instruments employed were a set of questionnaires based on the ones designed by Lancaster (2016) and were administered to 156 participants: 89 students, 64 parents and three teachers. Results coincide to a great extent with the aforementioned investigation (Lancaster 2016): all three cohorts transmitted an optimistic frame of mind with regards to the APPP.

Five years later, Pérez Cañado (2018b) continued to probe the opinions of the different cohorts involved in bilingual sections, but this time on a larger scale. The scholar carried out a multifaceted CLIL evaluation of stakeholder stances on CLIL programmes in three monolingual regions in Spain: Extremadura, The Canary Islands and Andalusia. In particular, the study canvasses learner, teacher and parent perceptions à propos CLIL

methodology, materials, and evaluation, offering detailed within- and across-cohort comparisons. Pérez Cañado (2018b) worked with a large sample of 2,633 participants: 1,763 students (the most representative cohort), 563 parents and 307 teachers coming from state-funded (88.9%) and private (11.1%) bilingual schools. Within the student cohort, 60.9% were in their 4th year of CSE while the remaining 39.1% were in their last year of primary education.

This survey research employed three sets of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews (specifically designed and validated for the study) and made use of both qualitative and statistical techniques. In addition, it incorporated four types of triangulation (data, methodological, investigator and location triangulation) and contemplated a series of identification variables for all three stakeholders. Questionnaires for the students, teachers and parents were designed and validated in Spanish and English. Their questions, which were matched to allow for a comprehensive comparison of the cohorts, elicit biographical information and opinions from the respondents. In order to edit and validate the mentioned tools, a double-fold pilot procedure was adopted and Cronbach Alpha was calculated to ensure their reliability or internal consistency. The semi-structured interview protocols contained questions that correspond to those included in the questionnaires for the sake of comparability. After the data were obtained, they were statistically analysed by means of the SPSS programme (version 21.0) and Grounded Theory analysis was used with the open-response data in the semi-structured interviews.

Overall, Pérez Cañado's findings (2018b) reveal very optimistic outlooks on the part of all three stakeholders surveyed. Informants attested to the variegated teaching methodologies and types of assessment employed. Clear progress has been made in the area of materials, with the use of more interesting and innovative resources usually created or adapted by the instructors; nevertheless, there is still room for improvement regarding the exploitation of new technologies. All these advances appear to have positively affected students' motivation and active participation in the CLIL classroom. In turn, teachers report improvements vis-à-vis transversality, multidisciplinary and collaboration among themselves.

However, certain issues continue to afflict successful CLIL implementation. In Pérez Cañado's view, these "affect catering to diversity, increased parental support and empowerment, and enhanced training for non-linguistic area teachers" (Pérez Cañado, 2018b, p. 16). The author concludes that, although CLIL pedagogical innovation is a reality in the monolingual contexts analysed, the detected problems need to be promptly addressed and dealt with to avoid endangering the successful development of CLIL schemes.

4.2.2.4. Castile-La Mancha and Extremadura

Extremadura and Castile-La Mancha, situated in Western and Central Spain respectively, have been grouped together due to the similar processes these autonomous communities have undergone in their establishment of CLIL provision. In both regions, CLIL implementation was conducted via the MEC - British Council Project in 1996-1997 and was supported ten years later through the *Proyectos de Sección Bilingüe* in Extremadura and the *Secciones Europeas* in Castile-La Mancha, put in motion by the local educational authorities (Pérez Cañado, 2015a).

Since the European Sections were introduced in Castile-La Mancha by means of Order 07/02/2005 and its amendments (Order 13/03/2008), approximately 13 years ago, over 300 educational establishments have adopted and are currently running CLIL programmes. The considerable advances in CLIL programme implementation, however, have not been accompanied by comparable strides in terms of research in the region. Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) reports the lack of empirical investigations on student outcomes in this autonomous community and seeks to fill this niche with her 2016 and 2018 contributions.

Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) carried out a macro study on the acquisition of English language competences (reading, writing, listening and spoken production and interaction) in CLIL and non-CLIL students in Castile-La Mancha. The participants

were the whole census of 4th year primary students in the region (almost 20,000 pupils) divided into two cohorts: the CLIL students enrolled in European Sections, and the non-CLIL control group which was almost ten times larger. Both CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts studied English in infant and primary education, with the CLIL group also receiving extra FL exposure to English through CLIL subjects since the first year of primary school. The data for this study were obtained during a three-year Diagnostic Assessment of the Educational System of the aforementioned region. The tests carried out evaluated the skill of writing in the first year, oral production and interaction in the following year and reading and writing in the third year. Statistical analysis of data was carried out by using the statistical package for social science (SPSS) and the high internal consistency and reliability of the tests was confirmed.

Results showed there was not a substantial difference when the performances of CLIL and non-CLIL learners were examined and contrasted. Spoken production and interaction were the only communicative competence in which differences in favour of CLIL students were statistically significant. Regarding reading and writing, the CLIL strand outperformed their non-CLIL partners, albeit not to a significant extent. Lastly, the non-CLIL students outperformed the experimental group in the listening test, although these findings were not statistically significant. The authors argue that the effectiveness of CLIL in the acquisition of the English language may not be too evident for three main reasons: the fact that the extra exposure to the FL is still limited at 4th year primary level, the relatively undeveloped cognitive strategies of the young learners and the absence of any selection process for CLIL learners. They suggest that older learners may be better equipped to capitalise on the advantages of CLIL methodology, which would significantly improve outcomes in all language competences.

This same author has another extremely recent study (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, in press for 2018) at primary level on the impact of CLIL on the acquisition of digital competence. In line with the recommendations of the European Parliament and the Council on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning (EC 2006), the main objective of compulsory education should be the development of the eight key competences,

including digital competence. Nieto Moreno de Diezmas' study (2018) evaluates the performance of CLIL and non-CLIL students in the following dimensions of digital competence: "communicate and participate in collaborative networks" and "search, collect and process digital information".

The study sample included all the CLIL and non-CLIL students enrolled in 4th year of primary education and the data was collected during the Diagnostic Assessment of the Educational System of the Castile-La Mancha region. The scholar confirmed that CLIL contributes towards the acquisition of digital competence in primary education since the experimental group performed significantly better in the two dimensions analysed. In this line, the author concludes that CLIL learning environments appear to be especially adequate for the integration of all key competences, due to the teaching innovations that this methodology demands. Moreover, the skills fostered by these dual-focus education programmes, namely, communicative abilities, higher order thinking skills, participation, critical thinking and collaborative learning, can be transferred to digital environments (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2018).

In the case of Extremadura, the expansion of CLIL has been slower than in Castile-La Mancha. The local educational authority in Extremadura (Consejería de Educación, Dirección de Calidad y Equidad Educativa) officially set up the aforementioned *Proyectos de Sección Bilingüe* in the academic year 2004-2005. Initially elective, the schools had to apply for these projects to the local authorities, but since 2009-2010 any new primary schools opening in Extremadura are required by law to have a bilingual section (Alejo González & Piquer Píriz, 2010). The *Linguaex 2009-2015* was launched by the Extremaduran government (Junta de Extremadura, 2008) to further consolidate their bilingual policies. This global plan endeavoured to further FL learning and linguistic awareness by promoting the learning of more than one foreign language, in line with the mother tongue+2 European policy. Finally, other top-down initiatives include promoting partnered primary-secondary schools to avoid the interruption of CLIL programmes when pupils start the new stage or explicitly promoting Portuguese to strengthen the links with the neighbouring country.

Regarding CLIL research in the region, Manzano Vázquez (2015) reports that the uptake of bilingual programmes in Extremadura is not paralleled by empirical studies on the outcomes of these initiatives. The most relevant studies include a 2014 investigation by the Extremaduran educational authorities on FL proficiency, Alejo González and Piquer Píriz's studies on the rural/urban divide (2016b) and on the assessment of productive vocabulary (2016a) and lastly, Lancaster's (2018) recent contribution on the effects of extramural exposure in a CLIL context.

The former investigation (Gobierno de Extremadura, 2014) constituted the first attempt of the local government to take stock of CLIL student progress at both primary and secondary levels. With regards to the level of foreign language proficiency attained by the pupils, very positive outcomes were found: by the end of the primary stage most students had achieved an A2 level, whereas learners at the end of secondary education reached a B1 level on average. The results of this study, however, unveiled a shortage of qualified teachers and the subsequent need for further teacher training opportunities.

In turn, Alejo González and Piquer Píriz (2016b) analysed the influence of social milieu (urban/rural divide) on two groups of CLIL learners by measuring the exposure to English input, motivation and language attainment of the pupils. The sample of the study (n 48) was made up of two groups of 3rd year of CSE students from public CLIL schools located in a rural and in an urban context in the Extremaduran region. Both schools had identical curricula and implemented the same provisions for CLIL offering their students the same exposure to EFL and CLIL subjects.

In order to collect the necessary data on the pupils' socio-educational characteristics, Alejo and Piquer-Píriz (2016b) used a variety of instruments: an especially designed 15-item questionnaire on L2 contact, a 25-item motivation questionnaire (on attitudes towards the learning experience, ideal self, integrativeness, anxiety, instrumentality and intended effort) and three language tests (grammatical, passive knowledge, productive vocabulary). In addition, information on the pupils' academic performance in the CLIL, EFL and remaining subjects was collected from the schools.

Results unveiled that the urban students received more support (mainly in the form of private English lessons), had an earlier start and outstripped the rural group in all the linguistic measures used (passive vocabulary, productive vocabulary, grammar and EFL marks at school), while the motivation and informal extramural exposure to the TL was comparable in both groups. The rural/urban divide, employed in the study as a proxy of socioeconomic status or SES, was therefore the factor which explained most of the variance in FL attainment outcomes.

That same year, Alejo González and Piquer Píriz (2016a) sought to evaluate the adequacy of a vocabulary testing tool called Lex30 in a CLIL context: more precisely, they measured its reliability and correlation with general language proficiency, to ascertain whether it measures vocabulary growth over time and to determine its sensitivity to the possible influence exerted by the context of learning on productive vocabulary. The sample of the study was made up of 48 individuals coming from two secondary schools in Extremadura and data was gathered at two different moments in time; when pupils were in their 3rd and 4th year following a programme with three CLIL subjects. Data on the pupils' productive vocabulary, receptive vocabulary and other language variables such as grammatical knowledge were collected via pre-existing tests adapted for the study. In addition, data concerning the academic performance of the pupils in the FL and the other subjects of the curriculum were provided by the schools.

The researchers were able to confirm this tool appears to be a reliable instrument to measure young learners' productive vocabulary in the L2, although the reliability scores obtained were not very high. In addition, their findings evinced significant, albeit moderate, correlations between the pupils' scores for Lex30 and the other FL proficiency measures, in line with prior studies that link productive vocabulary to language proficiency. Lastly, the authors conclude that Lex30 could be an adequate tool to assess secondary school students but call for a cautious interpretation of results in special contexts like CLIL, where Lex30 scores can appear inflated due to its typical focus on technical, low frequency vocabulary.

The latest addition to the body of research on Extremaduran CLIL is Lancaster's study (2018). Her quantitative investigation is an example of applied, primary, quasi-experimental research that analyses the effects of CLIL and extramural exposure to English on FL attainment. The study worked with a sample of 318 primary and secondary students from public and semi-private schools who were matched in terms of motivation, verbal intelligence and FL proficiency to guarantee the homogeneity of the sample. Students sat two tests that measured verbal intelligence and motivation and were administered a questionnaire on their personal background to determine extramural exposure and socioeconomic status. In addition, data on the FL attainment of each pupil were obtained from the schools. The instruments employed were tried-and-tested tools from the field of psychology and language teaching research. In addition, two batteries of FL tests (six for each educational stage) were originally designed and validated.

Considering both levels of education as a whole, the researcher's findings suggest that CLIL instruction encourages more extramural exposure to English than traditional EFL settings. This is still the case when the two stages are explored separately; however, differences between cohorts did not reach statistical significance in primary. It was only CLIL secondary students who had substantially more extramural exposure in comparison to non-CLIL students.

Relating to extra foreign instruction outside the school, Lancaster (2018) finds statistically significant differences between CLIL pupils with no extra afterschool English lessons and non-CLIL students receiving them. Data confirms the superior FL attainment of bilingual learners in most of the skills analysed, indicating that CLIL programmes have positive effects not superseded by students from more privileged semi-private school environments. Lancaster's (2018) discriminant analyses confirmed which variables account for the greatest proportion of the variance in FL attainment: differences in younger students were primarily ascribed to SES and the independent variable (the CLIL programme), whereas in secondary education it was the CLIL scheme and extramural exposure.

4.2.2.5 Principality of Asturias

The introduction of bilingual education in the northern autonomous community of Asturias is similar to that of the regions described above. Asturian CLIL has its origins in the agreement signed between the British Council and the Ministry of Education and Science of Spain in 1996 by virtue of which content and language integrated curriculum programmes began to be implemented in a number of schools in Spain, two of them in Asturias (Ventanielles and Atalía primary schools).

Stemming from this positive experience, the local government in the Principality of Asturias proposed in 2004 a mainstream bilingual education programme for the region. The pilot programme, which would last four years, initially focused on the secondary stage and was subsequently broadened to be implemented in primary education as well. Since then, CLIL methodology has experienced a swift uptake across the region and well over 200 primary and secondary schools currently follow the bilingual programme. Despite having one of the highest proportions of CLIL students in our country (close to 50%), efforts to canvass the outcomes of the bilingual programme so far in this community have been scarce.

A 2016 study by the Asturian government constitutes the main large-scale evaluation of the bilingual programme hitherto (Consejería de Educación y Cultura del Gobierno del Principado de Asturias, 2016). This investigation was based on data pertaining to the 31,101 primary and secondary students learning through CLIL during the academic year 2014-2015 in the region. It was made up of four different studies: an in-depth inspection of a random sample of 109 schools that included a teacher questionnaire, a parent survey, an analysis of the overall academic achievement of CLIL pupils and their performance in an external examination.

The overall findings were positive, although the study unveiled some areas in need of improvement. Stemming from the first study, the main strengths of the CLIL initiative include the priority given to oral communication, improved student attitudes and results,

the use of ICT and the role played by teaching assistants. The bilingual programme also brought about better coordination among teachers, their methodological update and cross-curricular innovations. Among the pitfalls listed, there are doubts about the continuity of the programme at the end of the primary stage, timetable constraints, teacher overload and the difficulties of special needs students.

The second study focused on stakeholder perspectives. A total of 13,357 parents of primary and secondary students answered a brief questionnaire on their satisfaction with the programme. It was found that three out of four families were favourably impressed with the scheme, would recommend it to other families and were content with the information received about the plurilingual programme. Finally, the main drawbacks reported were the difficulties encountered by parents when helping their children with their homework and the expenses of complementary activities such as trips or exchanges.

Next, the academic achievements of the bilingual and monolingual cohorts were contrasted. Outcomes evinced that CLIL students had higher promotion rates at both stages but especially at secondary level, where their success rate was 11.5% higher than that of their mainstream peers. Furthermore, this pattern was replicated when subjects were analysed separately. Finally, the fourth study compared the performance of a total of 15,717 CLIL and non-CLIL learners in the *Evaluación de Diagnóstico* or ED, an external examination that assesses pupils' Mathematics, Science and English language skills in their 4th year of primary and 2nd year of secondary education. Results attest to the superiority of the CLIL cohort in all the aspects analysed. Their advantage, however, is not solely attributable to the bilingual programme, since external factors such as their higher SES, attitudes and motivation play an essential role in their success. Nevertheless, when these variables were taken out of the equation, the impact of the CLIL programme was still found to be statistically significant.

Another relevant investigation should be included in our overview of CLIL in this autonomous community: a recent study by Fernández-Sanjurjo, Fernández-Costales and

Arias-Blanco (2017). These scholars look into CLIL students' competence in Science and factor in the type of school and students' socioeconomic status as variables. Within a sample of 709 primary students, the researchers compare the performance of pupils following CLIL approaches with those enrolled in mainstream schools to ascertain whether learning Science through a FL has an effect on content acquisition. To assess participants, a Science test was designed and a context questionnaire was also created to measure students' socioeconomic status.

The main finding regarding students' performance by type of school (CLIL vs. non-CLIL) is an unexpected decrease in pupils' performance in the subject taught through CLIL, while students learning contents in their mother tongue obtain better results. These outcomes depart from prior research, where no substantial differences could be detected between CLIL and mainstream groups (Admiraal, Westhoff & de Bot, 2006; Bergroth, 2006; Stehler, 2006). Moreover, pupils from less privileged backgrounds obtained significantly lower scores than participants with higher or medium socioeconomic status in both CLIL and non-CLIL groups.

To finish, in view of these results, Fernández-Sanjurjo, Fernández-Costales and Arias-Blanco (2017) underscore the need for new measures to improve CLIL results in content acquisition and make suggestions with regard to re-designing the curriculum of CLIL subjects, to increasing the teaching hours in bilingual streams and concerning teacher training.

4.2.2.6 The Canary Islands

The next monolingual Spanish autonomous community to be canvassed here is the Canary Islands archipelago in the Atlantic Ocean; one of the eight outermost regions in the European Union. CLIL provision in the Canaries is among the best English CLIL programmes in Spain, but, at the same time, this monolingual region is conspicuous for its paucity of published empirical studies on its bilingual programme (Oxbrow, 2018).

CLIL programme implementation began in the academic year 2004-2005 when the Canarian autonomous government set up the *Active Foreign Language Learning*. It was an experimental project to introduce dual focus education at primary level. A total of nine public schools implemented a variety of CLIL approaches that year and in 2005-2006 the initiative expanded to secondary stage. Since then, the implementation of CLIL methodology in the public-school system has grown exponentially and there are currently over 500 primary and secondary centres involved (Frigols-Martín & Marsh, 2014). It should be noted that bilingual programmes in primary education involve all pupils, whereas, for many years, secondary students have participated in CLIL schemes on a voluntary basis. Nevertheless, since the last academic year (2016-2017), all secondary students without exception must follow this type of programme in the schools with CLIL provision (Resolution 31/08/2016, Consejería de Educación y Universidades. Gobierno de Canarias).

As has been mentioned earlier in this section, there have been very few appraisals of CLIL programmes in the Canary Islands. Arnaiz Castro (2017) offers one of the first insights into CLIL learning in the autonomous community since the beginning of its implementation in 2004-2005. The key focal areas of this preliminary study involve comparing CLIL and non-CLIL learners' performance in the English test in the University Admission Examination and examining the variety and the number of content-subjects taught through the medium of English the participants had had.

The sample was composed of 178 first-year university learners from three different degrees, 89 of whom had been enrolled in CLIL courses during their years in primary and secondary education. Students were asked to complete a questionnaire designed ad hoc in order to gather the necessary data. The first question this study addressed was whether learners who had received CLIL instruction performed better in English in the University Admission Examination than mainstream EFL learners. Statistically significant differences arose between the two cohorts under scrutiny, with CLIL learners invariably coming out on top. The next question concerned the content-subjects which had become part of the CLIL programmes in the different schools, while the third

and last research question investigated the number of academic years in which pupils received CLIL instruction. It was ascertained that Environmental Science, Maths and Social Science were the three most frequently taught subjects in primary education and that, although there was wide variation, the majority of participants in the experimental group had followed a total of four academic years with CLIL instruction.

Stakeholder perceptions in this region have been recently canvassed by Oxbrow (2018). Her quantitative study (2018) offers a large-scale programme evaluation into students' perspectives on the development of CLIL schemes at primary and secondary levels. To this end, the study worked with selected data gathered within the Mon-CLIL project, obtained through a carefully designed and validated 48-item questionnaire (Pérez Cañado, 2016b). The questionnaires were administered to a cohort of 221 primary (75%) and secondary (25%) students participating in bilingual programmes in Gran Canaria. A total of 91.4% studied in public schools, while only 8.6% were enrolled in private schools and came from either urban (83.3%) or rural (16.7%) settings.

First, the data gathered through the questionnaires was subsumed and discussed within its seven thematic blocks, concretely students' use, competence and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources; evaluation; teacher's use, competence and development of English in class; mobility; and finally, improvement and motivation towards learning English. Later, within-cohort comparisons were conducted, factoring in the variables of gender, educational stage, setting (rural or urban), number of years learning English, and number of subjects received in English.

Outcomes evinced an overarching optimistic outlook of the pupils in terms of their satisfaction with the programme, the teachers and their own linguistic development. Moreover, participants appeared to be highly motivated towards both with content subject and English language learning. Their generally positive opinions, however, intertwined with occasional problem areas cropping up, mainly in the domain of materials and the preparation of their CLIL teachers. When the intervening variables were factored in, it was revealed that school setting and the amount of experience as

CLIL learners were responsible for the different sentiments of the informants. Specifically, Oxbrow's analysis (2018) revealed certain shortcomings in the rural areas in some aspects related to methodology, materials and mobility in line with earlier studies (Peña Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2014, 2016b) and found that more experienced CLIL learners displayed greater intercultural competence and metacognitive awareness.

4.2.2.7 Castile and León

To finish this section, a brief overview of CLIL implementation and research in the monolingual region of Castile and León will be offered here. As is the case with many of the regions described so far, Castile and León's model stems from the mentioned British Council/MEC agreement from 1996. In the academic year 2006-2007, the local education authorities passed the first law (Order EDU/6/2006) to implement bilingual sections in Castile and León and a group of 74 primary schools were authorised. Since then, implementation has spread to secondary education and the number of schools offering CLIL provision has grown steadily, reaching a total of 647 in 2017.

It is safe to affirm that research on content and language integrated learning in the region is still in its infancy and is seldom represented in the literature. The bulk of research carried out in Castile and León is oriented towards stakeholder views, with a special focus on teachers. For instance, Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador's (2015) quantitative study seeks to gauge CLIL teachers' sentiments à propos primary and secondary bilingual sections in Castile and León's schools after seven years of implementation.

The researchers adapted a questionnaire from a prior study in the Madrid region. The instrument, which contained Likert Scale (1/5) question types and an open question at the end of each section, focused on three dimensions: training, teaching resources, and impact of the bilingual initiative. A total of 151 teachers from primary and secondary

state-run and semi-private schools in rural and urban areas of Castile and León filled out the questionnaire. A SPSS (21.0) tool for Descriptive Statistics was employed to map the data and help synthesize the answers of the CLIL instructors.

It was found that these in-service teachers expressed a high degree of satisfaction with the initial training they received, but at the same time voiced their need for continuous professional development. For the majority of the instructors polled, their top priority was reaching a proficient FL level with regards to content and classroom English and, once this goal was achieved, their focus turned to methodological training. Participants expressed their concerns regarding the insufficient number of teaching assistants and especially the shortage of adequate materials. Resources appropriate to their specific contexts and the needs of their students are called for. Teachers were particularly vocal about how time-consuming the design or adaptation of ICT and other materials are, and demanded the help of support staff or at least some time within their timetable for that purpose. In addition, greater collaboration between teachers and between institutions at local, regional and especially at international levels was requested. Finally, and despite acknowledging the limited regional administrative support, most teachers surveyed harboured positive feelings towards the bilingual project, with 92% of them finding the bilingual sections a beneficial or very beneficial educational initiative for the community. This study is worthy of mention as it offered the first summary report on CLIL teachers' views for the autonomous community of Castile and León.

A year later, Durán-Martínez et al (2016) carried out a contrastive analysis of novice and expert CLIL teachers' perceptions of school bilingual sections. They employed the data obtained in the previous study (Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2015). From the 151 CLIL teachers that completed the questionnaire, three groups were made according to their degree of experience: novice (with up to two years-experience), experienced (between two and four years) and expert (five or more years).

The study reports on the value ascribed to the bilingual programme by comparing the viewpoints of the instructors on four seminal areas of inquiry, namely: the competencies

required (linguistic, subject knowledge, methodological and content and language integration), the published course materials, the organization and their general assessment of the project. Results showed that the experience factor was of outmost importance in shaping the perceptions of the CLIL teachers. Expert instructors valued FL proficiency and subject knowledge, but clearly prioritised methodological competencies and the integration of language and content. Since expert teachers are often in charge of adapting or elaborating their own material, they tend to be more critical with the published resources at their disposal (they considered these could be more innovative) and are more aware of the value of teamwork and cooperation between CLIL instructors. Expert teachers openly acknowledge the many challenges posed by CLIL, but are also more acquainted with the benefits of bilingual programmes than novice and experienced teachers.

Durán-Martínez, Beltrán-Llavador and Martínez-Abad (2016) explain that expert teachers have grasped the concept of CLIL and the commitment it entails: the methodological shifts required go well beyond changing the language of instruction and involve the entire educational community. With a view to promoting additional on-site training programmes, the authors suggest that the expertise of these instructors be capitalised on: they "should be accorded specific mentoring roles in the design, implementation and assessment of CLIL initiatives" (*ibid.* p. 752)

Finally, Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador's (2017) investigation seeks to broaden the scope of the previous two contributions by focusing on primary teachers' qualitative assessment of CLIL programmes. They worked with a sample of 97 in-service primary teachers working in bilingual sections who provided qualitative responses to the open questions included in the questionnaire (cf. Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2015). For analysis purposes, the variegated answers were classified into four thematic blocks (training, resources, organisation and assessment) and the eight most repeated categories within each area were ranked using a frequency analysis.

In relation to training needs, it was found that primary CLIL teachers prioritised foreign language proficiency (especially the help provided by native speakers) and continuing professional development (CPD) with a stress on CLIL methodology. In terms of materials and resources, teachers highlighted the scarcity of suitable published course materials and the dire need for support in creating their own. They also considered that school organisation could be improved if more time was allocated for coordination and for FL teaching at pre-primary level or if classes were divided in smaller groups. Despite the difficulties mentioned, the overall perception of the primary teachers polled was a positive one, in the sense that they highly appreciated the educational benefits of CLIL programmes for their students.

4.3. Conclusion

The investigations included in this overview of European and Spanish research on CLIL (Chapter 4) attest to the important strides that have been taken so far, but also to the many challenges ahead. Many CLIL figures in Spain have praised the upswing of this methodology and consider CLIL programmes in our country to be "on the right track" (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe 2010: 292), but agree that research has to be escalated both in quantity and in quality. Some critical voices, as Pérez Cañado and Ráez-Padilla (2015, p. 5) report, have pointed out systematic flaws in the research methodology of CLIL that affect the variables considered, research design and statistical methodology (e.g., Bruton, 2011, 2013; Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2012). The scholars list five ways of addressing the aforementioned caveats:

- More rigorous qualitative research should be carried out on CLIL as a heterogeneous and distinct methodology. The reality of the CLIL classroom needs to be observed and analysed so a clearer picture of the practicalities of CLIL can be painted.
- The accuracy of quantitative investigations needs to be reinforced. Research on the impact of CLIL on the L1 and L2 or FL should rely on validated instruments and

pre-, post- and delayed post-test designs. The use of non-CLIL control groups and the homogenisation of the sample are also crucial.

- There is a consensus about the importance of factor and discriminant analyses. The inclusion of dependent and moderating variables that may account for the differences between groups is essential to assess the real effects of CLIL programmes.
- The assessment of individual learner needs is an area that requires further research. Since the popularity of CLIL programmes is on the rise and implementation affects all kinds of students, learning how to cater for diversity becomes a must.
- Lastly, methodological triangulation (in the form of interviews, questionnaires and observation) in qualitative research has been recommended. Investigators must continue to scrutinise stakeholder stances on CLIL implementation and training needs.

This brings us to the end of the literature review section. Bearing the above suggestions in mind, we have approached the design of the present investigation. Next, in Chapter 5, a justification of the study and a detailed description of our methodology, objectives and metaconcerns will be provided.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN

In this chapter, the research questions and the method used to carry out the present study are described. The organisation of the chapter is as follows: section 5.1 presents the justification of the investigation and expected outcomes, section 5.2 deals with the objectives, so the research questions used to address this project are described. Next, in section 5.3, the method is offered and within it, the context and sample of the study, the variables incorporated and instruments used are explained in detail. Finally, the last part of Chapter 5 constitutes a thorough description of the quantitative and qualitative data collection processes and the statistical measures used to analyse the data.

5.1. Justification of the Investigation

The literature review presented in the preceding chapters has provided us with valuable insight into the rise of CLIL both in the European context and within the history of foreign language teaching. We have defined and characterised CLIL, traced its origins and followed its development from its antecedents, the Canadian and North American models, until the established approach it is today in our continent. We have subsequently canvassed the main research studies that have been conducted at different educational levels on the effects of CLIL programmes both in Spain and the rest of Europe. The vast majority of studies analysed yielded primarily positive findings, with CLIL cohorts often outstripping their non-CLIL counterparts regarding FL and content knowledge, indicating that CLIL has a beneficial influence on students (cf. heading 3.3). With most studies providing unequivocal support for the approach it is no wonder that CLIL has achieved such remarkable popularity.

Nevertheless, these results need to be interpreted with caution as several authors (cf. heading 3.2.6 and Chapter 4) have voiced the conspicuous paucity of truly reliable empirical CLIL research, especially that of quantitative nature: “(...) the unfortunate reality is that the vast majority of evaluations of bilingual programs are so methodologically flawed in their design that their results offer more noise than signal”

(Genesee, 1998, p. 10). The main lacunae presented by prior CLIL investigations include working with numerically and geographically reduced samples, failing to factor in important moderating variables, not including data triangulation, not grounding instrument design on recent research outcomes, or not validating such instruments to guarantee their reliability. Other chief methodological flaws involve not guaranteeing the homogeneity of the groups compared, not determining the existence of statistically significant differences between strands or failing to perform statistical analyses to determine if the improvements detected can truly be attributed to CLIL (Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015).

The main revelation of the research reviewed from the European countries where CLIL has been adopted is the pressing need for empirical evidence. New and reliable data will help us grasp CLIL's true potential and chief obstacles, which is the main step towards assuring its effectiveness. "There is not yet solid empirical evidence from EU countries on which to base definitive claims about the educational (or other) advantages of multilingual education" (Vez, 2009, p. 18). Therefore, our thesis strives to address the aforementioned issues by offering a rigorous monitoring of CLIL implementation and an analysis of a deeper nature, which, according to Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010), is key for a better understanding of the processes and outcomes of these courses. In Kiely's view, "any programme can be effective in promoting language learning. The key issues are how it has been made to work, and which factors and events have shaped success... Evaluation then becomes a set of strategies to document and understand the programme" (Kiely, 2009, p. 114).

As has been ascertained in this and the foregoing sections, there are ample reasons which justify the present study; among them is the well-documented paucity of empirically grounded research, especially evident in the Valencian region. Much research conducted into the effects of CLIL schemes in other environments cannot be extrapolated to our specific context. The region under scrutiny here has its own peculiar features, which impede the full application of general research results: a deep-rooted Valencian-Spanish bilingual model with heterogeneous implementations and results, a

tradition in teaching a minority language, experience with immersion programmes and a considerably smaller investment in CLIL, especially in comparison with other regions like Andalusia with its multi-million CLIL plan, the APPP. The very few empirical studies thus far conducted and published in our community were presented under heading 3.3.2.1.4. With the entirety of primary schools and over 200 secondary schools currently offering a plurilingual programme, it is striking how little evidence there is available on how CLIL is playing itself out in our region. It is safe to affirm that the Valencian region fares worse than most Spanish autonomous regions when implementation and CLIL research are compared. This is precisely the niche that the present dissertation seeks to fill.

Pérez Cañado (2011, p. 389) states that “in order to bolster the process of implementation of CLIL programs and to guarantee their success, we need to depart from solid evidence in which we are still sorely lacking”. In turn, Lasagabaster (2011, p. 15) corroborates the blatant gap of sound research studies and claims: “CLIL programmes are burgeoning all over Europe and this trend demands empirical evidence on which teachers, researchers and educational authorities can rely when decisions about its implementation have to be made”.

5.2. Objectives and Metaconcerns

The fundamental objective of this research project is to be able to sketch the inner workings of a particular CLIL programme in the context of the Valencian region. In order to do that, the study measures the differential linguistic gains achieved by three groups of participants at two different points in time. In addition, triangulation is used to compare perceptions between stakeholders with a view to determining the positive and negative aspects of the scheme, suggesting possible solutions for an improved CLIL experience.

More specifically, the study presented here examines the effects of CLIL from quantitative and qualitative perspectives. The quantitative part measures foreign language progress in 4th year of CSE students and strives to ascertain whether participants in the experimental group (CLIL) develop superior English language skills to those promoted by a traditional English as a Foreign Language (EFL) programme with students from the same school and level and students from a semi-private school (control groups). The study also aims to determine whether the possible differential effects exerted by the CLIL programme on English language skills pervade in the first year of Baccalaureate (six months after the CLIL programme is discontinued) or whether they gradually disappear.

This quantitative part is then complemented from a qualitative point of view via a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis on the satisfaction generated by the CLIL programme. Such inquiry is carried out through three different questionnaires for the main stakeholders (students, teachers, and parents) and via personal and focus-group interviews for the teachers and the CLIL students, respectively. Three main objectives drive our research project and serve as the benchmark for this investigation. They are presented and broken down into their component corollaries below:

1. Satisfaction generated by the CLIL scheme for the main stakeholders involved (students, teachers, parents) and identification of the main weaknesses, strengths, opportunities, and threats of the programme. All the curricular and organizational levels affected by the CLIL programme will be probed:

- Competencies
- Methods
- Materials and resources
- Evaluation
- Teacher training

- Mobility programmes
- Workload
- Coordination and organisation.

2. Development of students' English linguistic competence through the CLIL programme in an already bilingual region. Here, the impact of CLIL will be considered on:

- Grammar
- Vocabulary
- Receptive skills: reading and listening
- Productive skills: writing and speaking.

3. Performance in Spanish, in the regional language and in the content subject taught in the FL. The effects of CLIL will be considered for:

- Spanish Language and Literature
- Valencian Language and Literature
- Ethics: The subject implemented in English.

The above general objectives or concerns can be articulated more specifically into the following research questions, which the present dissertation will attempt to answer:

- *Metaconcern 1: STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS*

RQ1. What are the teachers', parents', and students' perceptions of the way in which the CLIL programme is functioning at all curricular and organisational levels in their school?

RQ2. Are there any statistically significant differences between the perceptions of the three stakeholders?

RQ3. Within the student cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (group, age, gender, socioeconomic status, time of exposure outside school)?

- Metaconcern 2: EFFECTS OF CLIL ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE SKILLS

RQ4. Do CLIL programmes implemented with 4th year CSE students (experimental group) develop superior linguistic competence (grammar, vocabulary, and the four skills) to that promoted by traditional EFL programmes with students from the same level (control group)?

RQ5. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the secondary students' English language competence by the following intervening variables: type of school (public, semi-private), gender, socioeconomic status and time of exposure to English outside of school?

RQ6. Considering the evolution of the experimental group from the post- to the delayed post-test phase, do the possible differential effects exerted by CLIL programmes on English language competence pervade at the end of the first term of Baccalaureate (six months after the CLIL programme is discontinued) or do they gradually disappear?

RQ7. What is the evolution of the EFL (control) group's (both jointly and in terms of type of school) English language competence from the post- to the delayed post-test phase?

- *Metaconcern 3: CLIL IMPACT ON SPANISH, VALENCIAN, AND CONTENT TAUGHT THROUGH ENGLISH*

RQ8. Does CLIL impact the acquisition of content in Ethics by the experimental group following this programme, in comparison to that achieved by the EFL control?

RQ9. Does CLIL impact the level of Spanish acquired by the experimental group following this programme, in comparison to that achieved by the EFL control groups?

RQ10. Does CLIL impact the level of Valencian acquired by the experimental group following this programme, in comparison to that achieved by the EFL control groups?

RQ11. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the 4th year CSE students' Spanish language competence, Valencian language competence and Ethics by the following intervening variables: type of school (public and semi-private), gender, sociocultural status and amount of exposure to English outside of school?

- *Metaconcern 4: APPRAISAL OF COMPETENCE DIFFERENTIAL. DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS.*

RQ12. If there is a competence differential between the treatment and comparison groups, is it truly ascribable to language learning based on academic content processing?

It should be stressed here that our general objectives and research questions are consistent with the four main tenets or principled approaches towards CLIL research identified by Van de Craen et al. (2007). In addition, they closely observe the strategic

recommendations advanced by Marsh (2002) as part of the Open Method Coordination effort to promote successful CLIL implementation, and respond directly to many of the central questions recurrent in current debates about plurilingual education.

5.3. Methodology

5.3.1. Research design

The current longitudinal investigation presents a mixed research design; it is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. The quantitative side of the study will comprise experimental (CLIL) and control (EFL) groups, while the qualitative one will incorporate various triangulation procedures. Several types of tests will be used as instruments for the quantitative part of the study and, in turn, questionnaires and semi-structured individual and focus-group interviews will be the tools employed for the qualitative investigation.

The quantitative side of the study is an instance of applied, primary, quasi-experimental research, with a post-test control group design, to which a delayed post-test has also been added. Our study meets the four necessary benchmarks for studies to be methodologically sound, as specified by Rossell & Baker (1996) and Cummins (1999) for research centred on the linguistic assessment of content/immersion learners (as cited in Lancaster 2015, p. 137):

1. Studies must compare students in bilingual programs to a control group of similar students.
2. The design must ensure that initial differences between treatment and control groups are controlled statistically.
3. Results must be based on standardized test scores.

4. Differences between the scores of treatment and control groups must be determined by means of appropriate statistical tests.

In turn, the qualitative part of the investigation can be characterised as a primary research, and as an instance of survey research as well (Brown 2001), because it includes interviews and questionnaires. In addition, three types of triangulation will be applied: data, methodological and location.

- Data triangulation: The study will draw on different sources of information to counteract biases or tendencies presented by participants with different roles in the CLIL programme: students, teachers and parents.
- Methodological triangulation: Various data-gathering procedures will be employed: questionnaires, semi-structured individual interviews and semi-structured focus-group interviews.
- Location triangulation: For the quantitative part of the study, language learning data will be collected from different data-gathering sites: a public secondary school and a semi-private school at different points in time.

5.3.2. Sample

5.3.2.1. Initial Sample

The project has worked with three different cohorts (students, parents and teachers) within the context of two educational institutions: a public school with CLIL and a non-CLIL streams, and a semi-private school with no CLIL provision in the province of Valencia. The final number of students who took part in our qualitative study amounts to 63, although our initial sample was made up of 198 individuals. A total of eight class groups of 4th year of CSE students attending semi-private and public schools were considered, concretely two CLIL and three non-CLIL groups from a public school and

three different classes from semi-private catholic schools following a traditional EFL syllabus.

In order to guarantee the comparability of the sample, the 198 pupils sat motivation and verbal intelligence tests (cf. heading 5.3.4.1) and then a statistical analysis was performed to select the classes which evinced greater homogeneity. P-values showed that CLIL group E and non-CLIL control groups A from IES Albal and group C from the semi-private school Jesús y María were the most homogenous classes, as illustrated in Tables 6, 7 and 8 below. In addition, the rare cases of participants obtaining significantly higher or poorer scores, the so-called outliers, were eliminated until there were no statistically significant differences between the groups.

| | Type of school | N | Mean | Std. deviation | P_value |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------|----|-------|----------------|---------|
| Verbal Intelligence | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 13,06 | 2,304 | ,795 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 13,30 | 3,323 | |
| Self-esteem and vain desire to work | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 4,12 | 2,446 | ,722 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 3,87 | 1,938 | |
| Anxiety | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 6,41 | 1,734 | ,682 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 6,13 | 2,380 | |
| Lack of interest | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 4,29 | 1,961 | ,427 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 4,83 | 2,146 | |
| Self-demand | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 1,24 | 1,091 | ,604 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 1,04 | 1,186 | |

Table 6. Initial Sample: Homogenisation of groups I

| | Type of school | N | Mean | Std. deviation | P_value |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|----|-------|----------------|---------|
| Verbal Intelligence | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 14,39 | 4,040 | ,305 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 13,30 | 3,323 | |
| Self-esteem and vain desire to work | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 4,75 | 1,735 | ,093 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 3,87 | 1,938 | |
| Anxiety | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 5,89 | 2,006 | ,700 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 6,13 | 2,380 | |
| Lack of interest | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 5,25 | 1,858 | ,453 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 4,83 | 2,146 | |
| Self-demand | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 1,79 | 1,873 | ,106 |
| | CLIL | 25 | 1,04 | 1,186 | |

Table 7. Initial Sample: Homogeneisation of groups II

| | Type of school | N | Mean | Std. deviation | P_value |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|----|-------|----------------|---------|
| Verbal Intelligence | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 13,06 | 2,304 | ,221 |
| | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 14,39 | 4,040 | |
| Self-esteem and vain desire to work | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 4,12 | 2,446 | ,316 |
| | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 4,75 | 1,735 | |
| Anxiety | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 6,41 | 1,734 | ,382 |
| | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 5,89 | 2,006 | |
| Lack of interest | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 4,29 | 1,961 | ,109 |
| | Semi-private non-CLIL | 28 | 5,25 | 1,858 | |
| Self-demand | Public non-CLIL | 17 | 1,24 | 1,091 | ,220 |

| | | | |
|--------------|----|------|-------|
| Semi-private | 28 | 1,79 | 1,873 |
| non-CLIL | | | |

Table 8. Initial Sample: Homogeneisation of groups III

5.3.2.2. Final Sample

5.3.2.2.1. Quantitative sample

The final sample of our longitudinal quantitative study involved a total of 63 participants, all Spanish nationals: the above-mentioned CLIL stream E with 25 students, the non-CLIL cohort A with 14 students (both belonging to the same public secondary school: IES Albal) and, finally, a 24-student group from the mainstream semi-private school Jesús y María. When students were re-tested six months later on the delayed post-test, our sample was inevitably reduced to 46 (21 CLIL and 25 non-CLIL pupils). The following graphs break down the post-test sample in terms of centre and type of teaching (cf. Figures 3 and 4).

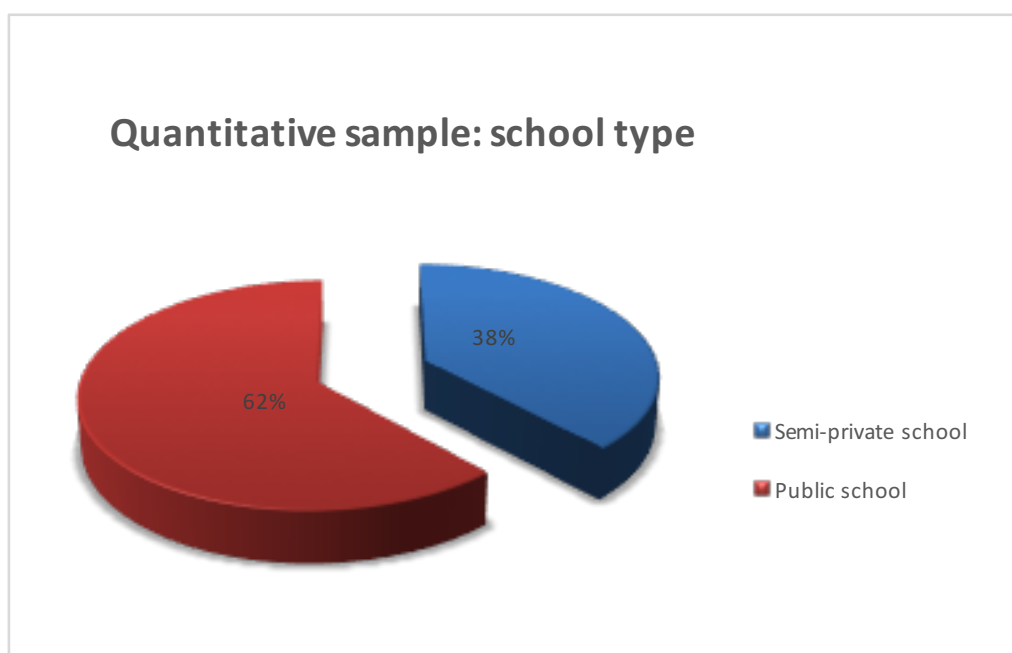


Figure 3. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to school type

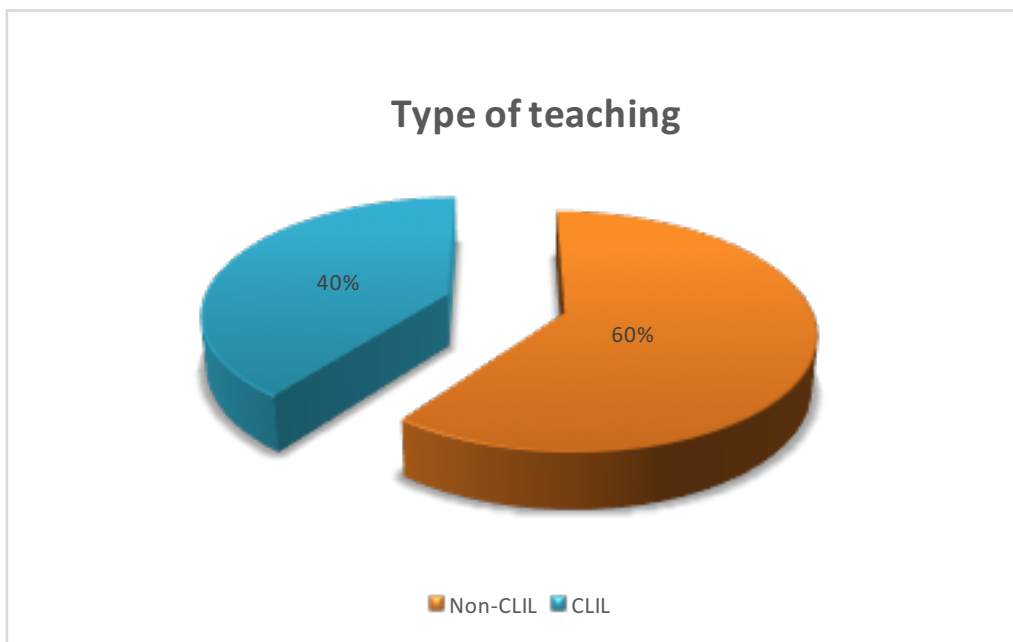


Figure 4. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to type of teaching

With regards to the gender, a slightly higher percentage of female students make up the quantitative sample (52.4 %), as compared to male students (47.6%) (cf. Figure 5).

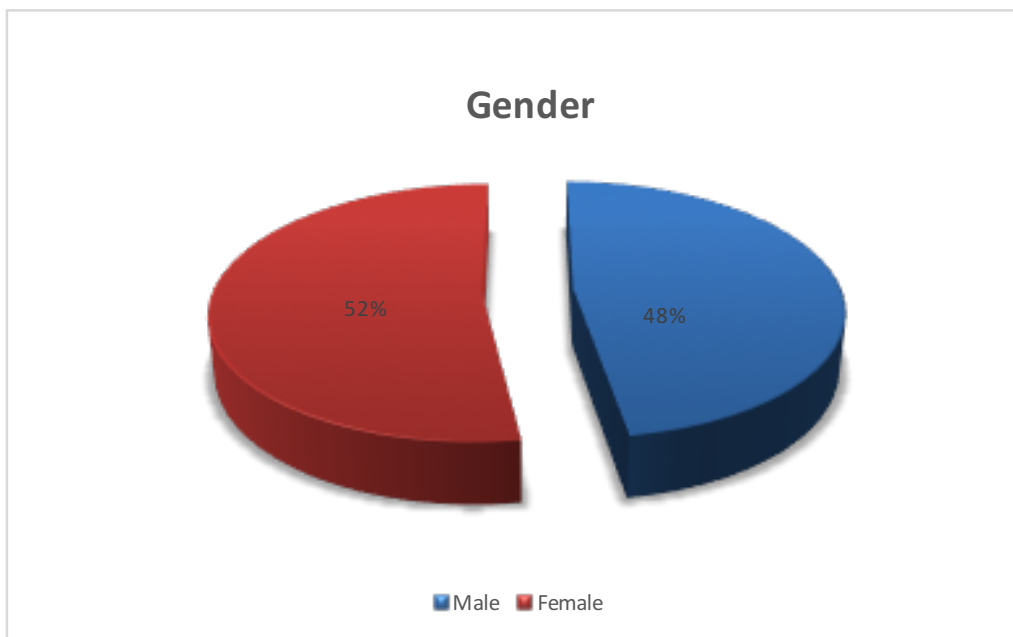


Figure 5. Breakdown of the quantitative student sample in relation to gender

The moderating variable of socioeconomic status (SES) has been factored in by including items in the student questionnaire about the level of their parents' studies (6 levels). The data analysed with regards to socioeconomic status have evinced that a small number of parents have no studies (4.8% of mothers and 3.2% of fathers) while many have school qualifications (19% and 20.6%) or a certificate of vocational studies (14.3%, 15.9%). Over a third are in possession of a university degree (20.6%, 25.4%) and approximately a fifth have a Baccalaureate certificate (20.6%, 15.9%), while very few have a PhD (9.5% and 6.3%) (cf. figures 6 and 7).

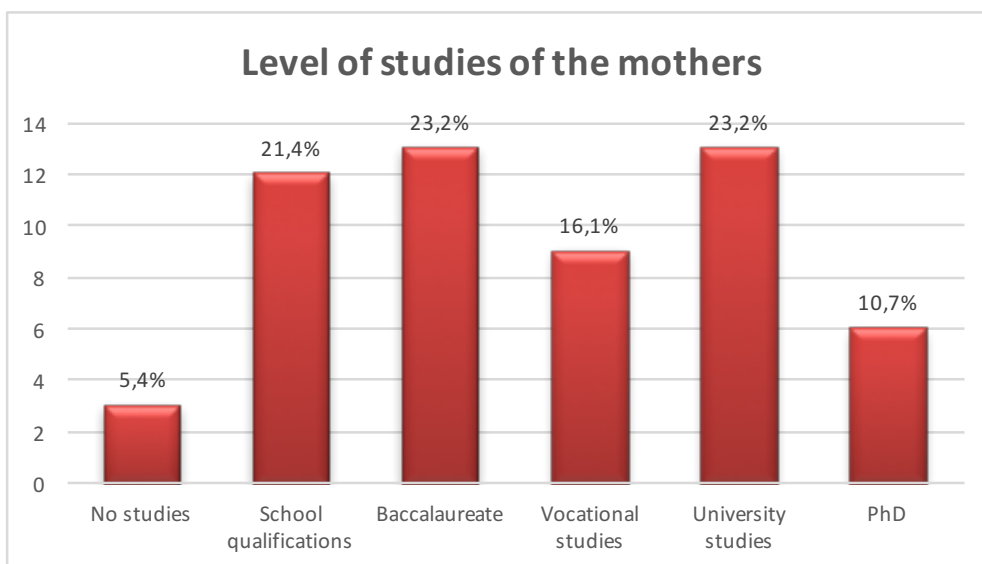


Figure 6. Level of studies of students' mothers according to students (quantitative)

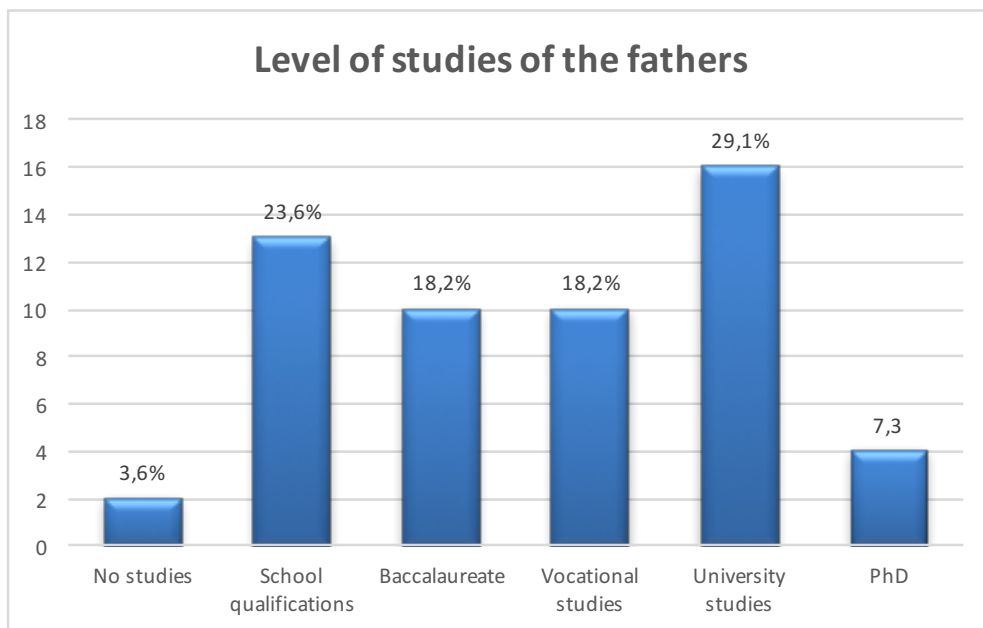


Figure 7. Level of studies of students' fathers according to students(quantitative)

All students from the CLIL cohorts in the public school IES Albal have followed the CLIL programme the same number of years (at the time of the study they were completing their fourth year) and they all have studied the same subjects in English. The reason behind this is straightforward: it is not possible to join the CLIL stream after the 1st year of CSE, although students would be able to quit the programme if their parents deemed it appropriate. We have been told by the Headteacher that very few have ever done so and that those isolated cases respond to a change of school.

Finally, with regards to extramural exposure to the FL, the vast majority of pupils claim to be exposed to English outside the classroom (84.1%) and only 15.9% claim they are not (cf. Figure 8). Students calculated the number of hours they devoted each week to certain activities in English. It was revealed that the most popular ones were listening to songs in English, browsing the internet for content in the FL (including social media) and playing videogames. Reading books and watching films in English, although still relevant, were the least popular activities among the teenagers polled (cf. Figure 9).

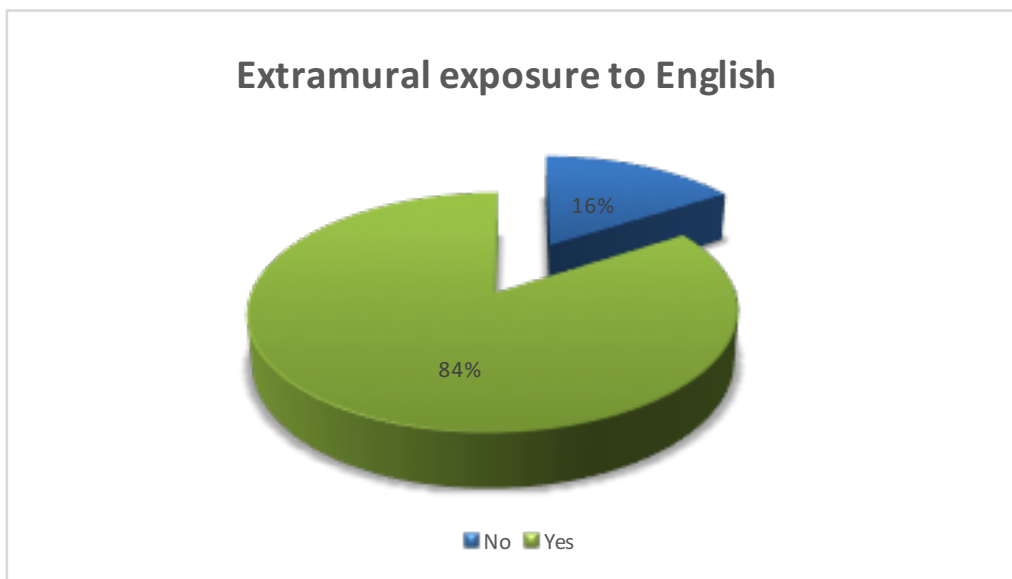


Figure 8. Students' extramural exposure to English

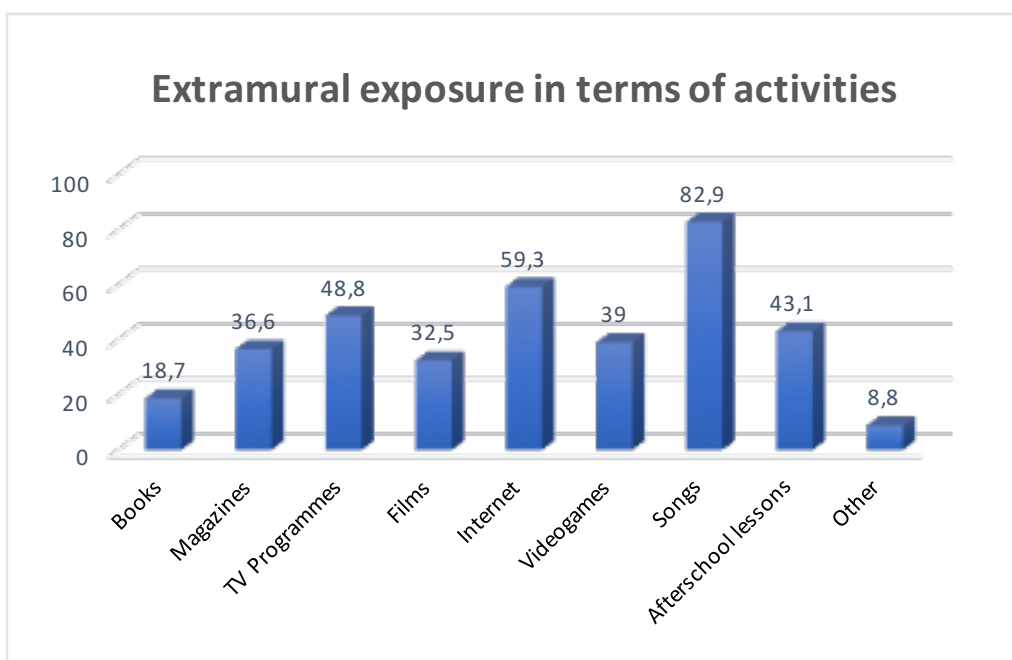


Figure 9. Breakdown of students' extramural exposure in terms of activities

5.3.2.2.2. Qualitative sample

In the qualitative part of the investigation, stakeholders directly or indirectly participating in the CLIL programme partake in the study (students, non-linguistic area

teachers and parents). Naturally, all students following a traditional EFL programme have been excluded from the qualitative study. With the objective of gauging the participants' satisfaction with the development of the CLIL scheme, their opinions have been probed via questionnaires, personal interviews, and focus-group sessions. Collating their views will allow us to measure the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats revealed.

A total of 68 informants will be considered for this part. When we unpack each of the participating cohorts, students represent over half of the sample (67.6%), parents make up a third (22.1%) and teachers only a tenth (10.3%), as the latter are typically being the minority when any school context is considered (cf. Figure 10).

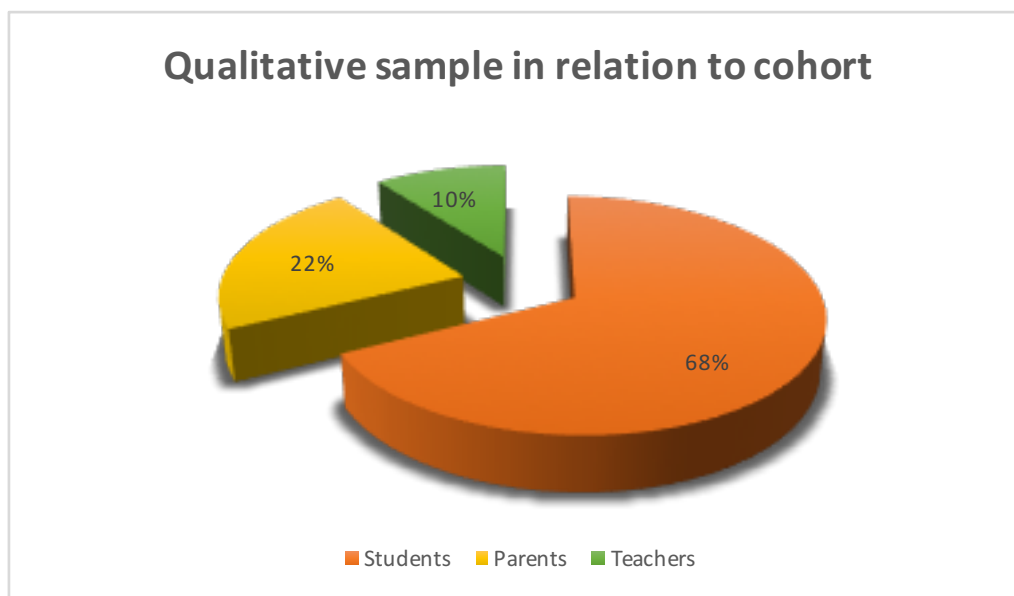


Figure 10. Breakdown of the qualitative sample in relation to cohort

A total of 46 students have taken part in this phase of the investigation. Figure 11 below shows the pupils studying in the CLIL stream at IES Albal, formed by two groups: D (22 students) and E (24 students).

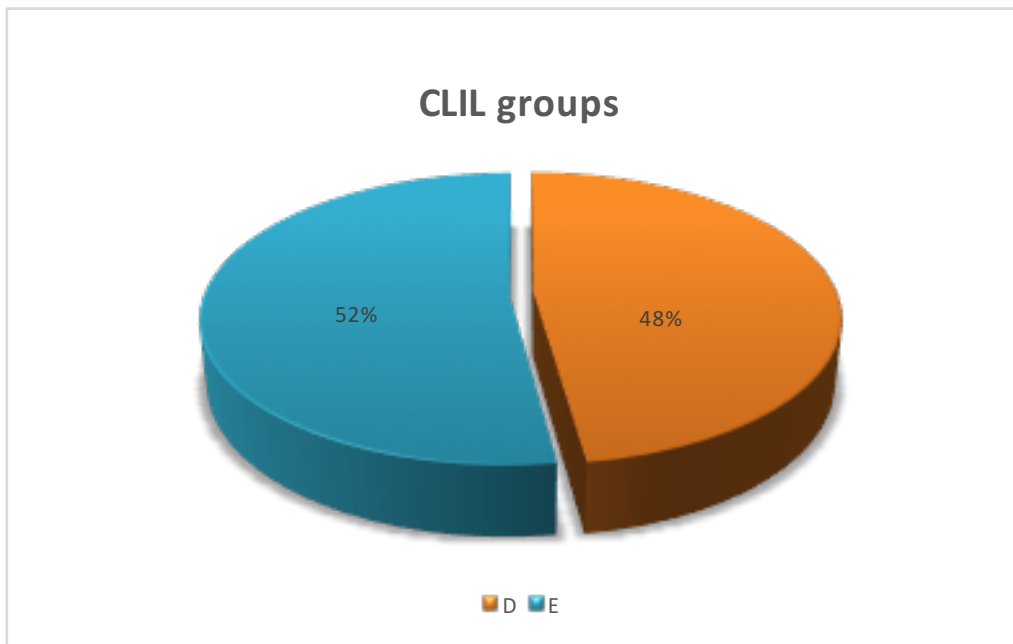


Figure 11. Breakdown of the qualitative student sample in relation to class

Taking gender into consideration, a much higher percentage of female (60.9%) than of male (39.1%) students have participated in the study (cf. Figure 12).

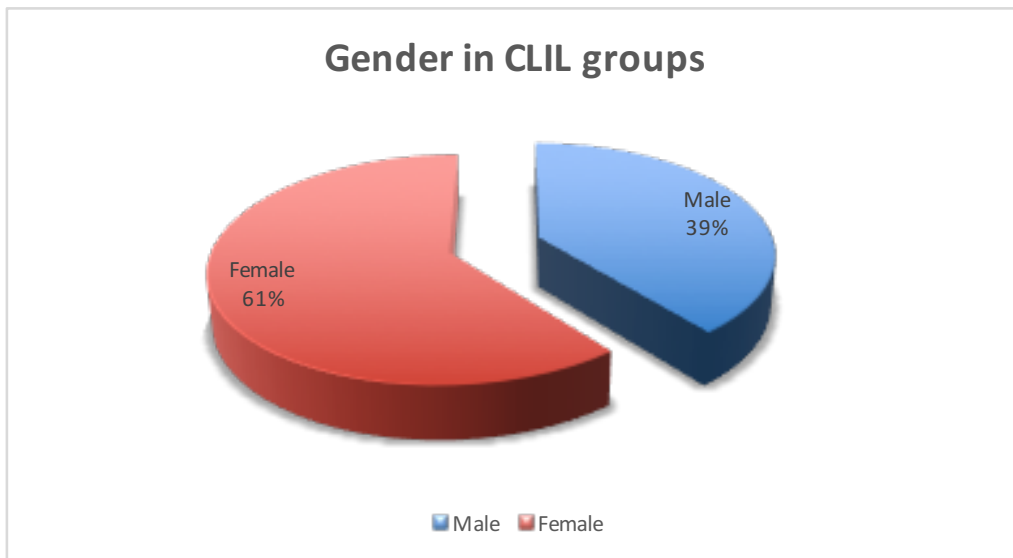


Figure 12. Breakdown of the qualitative student sample in relation to gender.

Next, a substantial variety of percentages are set forth in relation to the students' exposure to English within the CLIL classroom. The majority of participants stated that 80% of their lesson is taught in English. A total of 37% expressed that the TL is used up to 50% of the time in the CLIL class and almost 48% of pupils claim it ranges between 60 and 90% of the time. Surprisingly, a small representation of students (13%) felt unable to determine what percentage of their learning is taught in the foreign language (cf. Figure 13).

Exposure to English within the classroom

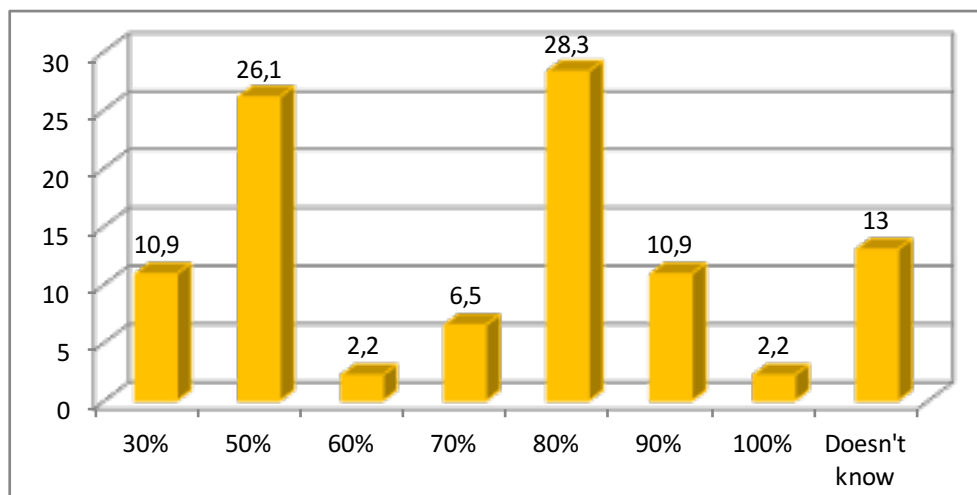


Figure 13. Students' exposure to English within the CLIL classroom

The next group considered in this study – that of secondary school teachers – is somewhat reduced (accounting for 10% of the sample) and thus it is not as representative as the remaining stakeholders. Over half of the respondents in this category are female (57.1%) and the rest are male (42.9%) (cf. Figure 14).

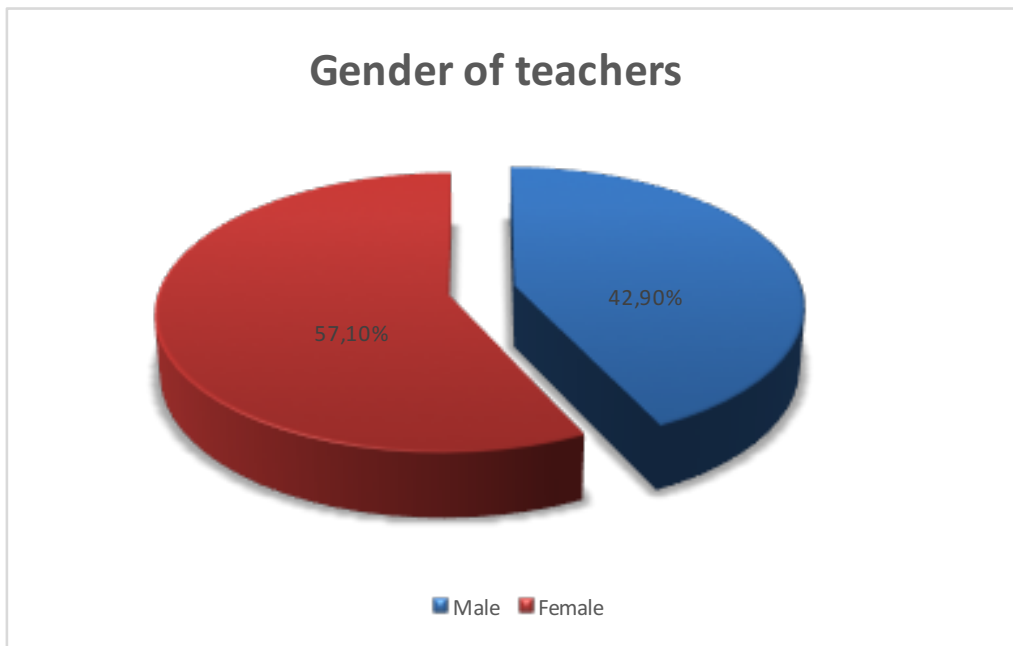


Figure 14. Breakdown of the teacher sample in terms of gender

Most teachers surveyed are over the age of 41 (57.1%), with a considerable but smaller percentage being 41 or younger (42.9%), as shown in Figure 15.

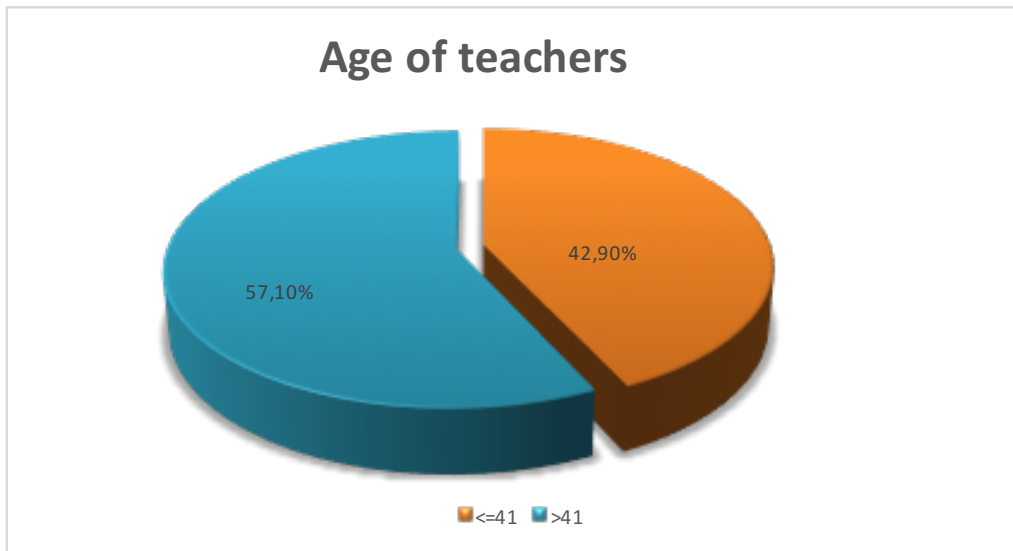


Figure 15. Breakdown of the teacher sample in terms of age

Teachers are all civil servants, the vast majority holding permanent posts (85.7%), with the exception of a teacher who is a civil servant with a temporary post (cf. Figure 16). None of them coordinates the CLIL programme and, in fact, the school informs us there is no CLIL coordinator as such.

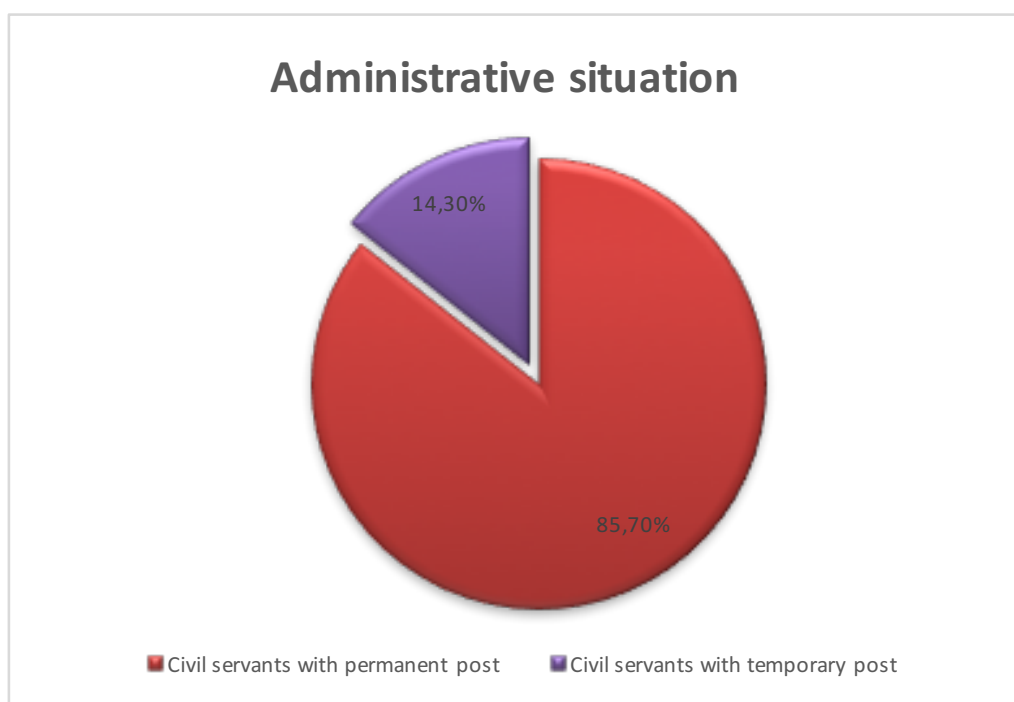


Figure 16. Administrative situation of teachers

The entirety of the teachers polled in our study are non-linguistic area teachers who have an English level equivalent to B2 or higher. More precisely, 85.7% have a B2 and 14.3% have a C1 (cf. Figure 17). In other words, according to this cohort, most teachers have an upper-intermediate level of English and some have reached an advanced level (C1).

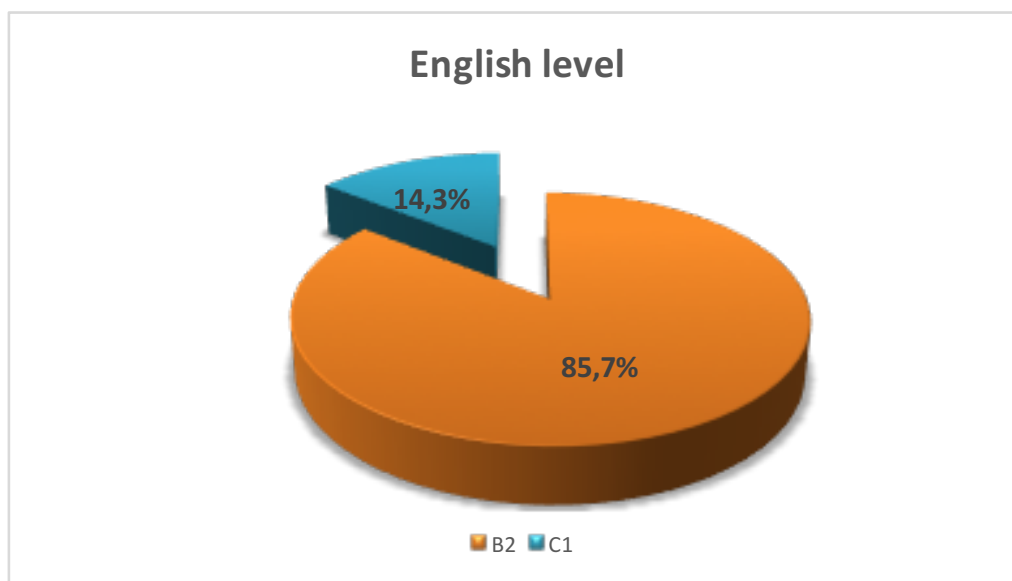


Figure 17. English level of teachers

A variety of subjects from both the fields of Science and Humanities are taught within this CLIL scheme throughout secondary education. By the time they reach 4th grade of CSE, all students in the CLIL stream have studied the same subjects through English, since only one is offered per year. CLIL in this school is normally subject to teacher availability; concretely, our cohort studied Natural Science in 1st grade of CSE, Mathematics in 2nd grade, Social Science in 3rd grade and Ethics in the 4th and final year. In the group of teachers polled, the main subject they have taught in English is Natural Science, followed by Physical Education, Music and Physics, Ethics and Chemistry, all taught to a lesser extent.

Concerning their overall teaching experience, a considerable percentage of teachers (57.1%) have been teaching between 21 and 30 years, while the remaining instructors (42.9%) have been active between 1 and 10 years (cf. Figure 18).

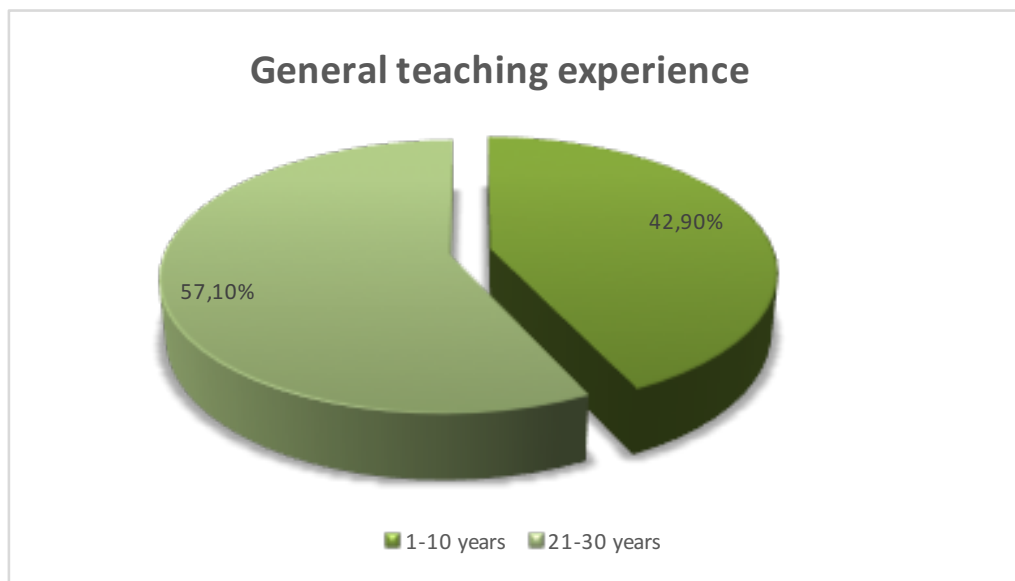


Figure 18. General teaching experience of instructors

To conclude our depiction of this cohort, we are going to address bilingual teaching experience within overall teaching experience. It should be noted that bilingual teaching experience was significantly more limited than the latter since the school has been implementing its plurilingual programme for less than ten years. Data indicate that an identical number of instructors have been teaching for 1-5 (42.9%) or 6-10 years (42.9%), whereas only 14.3% of them report under one year of bilingual teaching experience (cf. Figure 19).

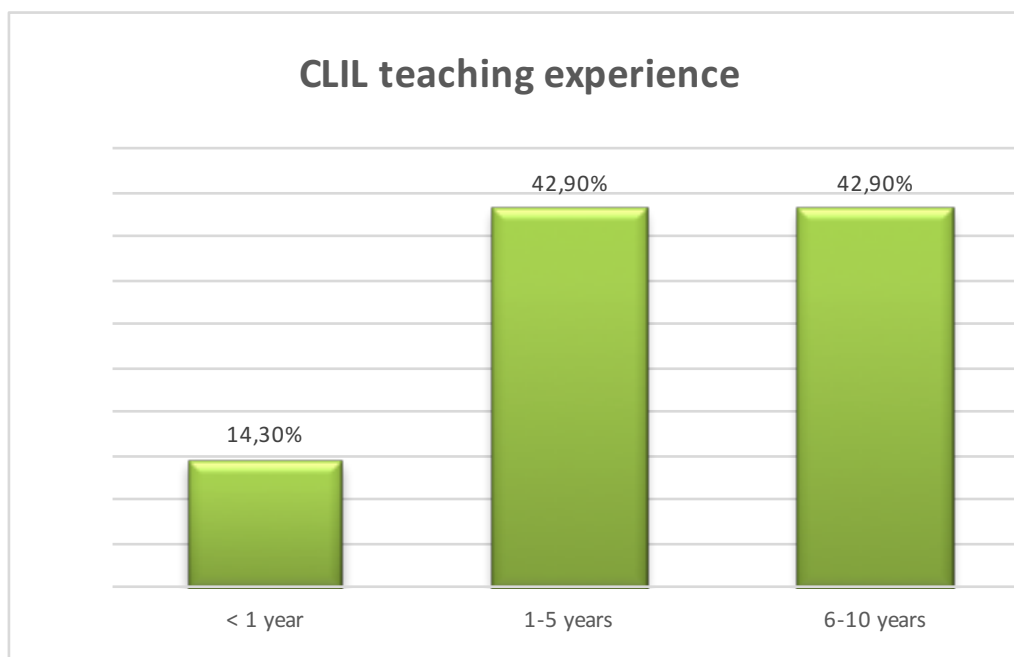


Figure 19. CLIL teaching experience of instructors

As we have discussed throughout our literature review, the successful implementation of any CLIL scheme requires a joint effort of all stakeholders concerned, and this certainly includes parents (cf. heading 3.2.4.6). Family involvement and their support of the programme play an essential role, and therefore the present study pays special attention to them and to their views.

In this heading, a separate breakdown of the parents' cohort, which conforms 22% of the qualitative sample, will be presented. In terms of gender, most of the subjects in this cohort were female; mothers filled in 86.7% of the questionnaires retrieved, while fathers only accounted for the other 13.3% (cf. Figure 20).

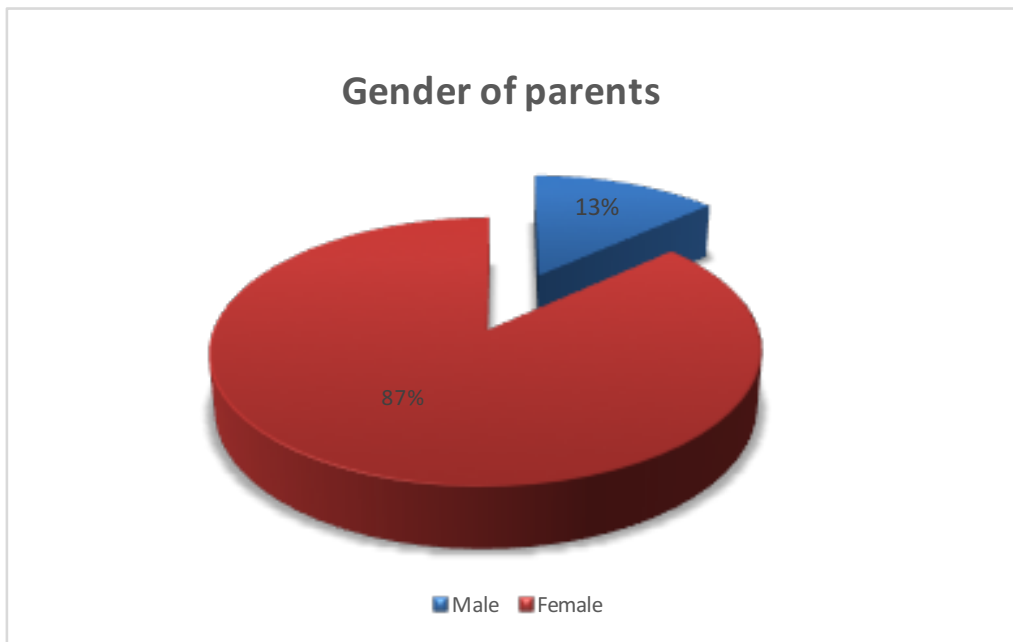


Figure 20. Gender of parent cohort

When exploring age, a significant homogeneity soon becomes apparent. The vast majority of parents are over 41 years old (73.3%) and only 6.7% are 41 years old or younger. A considerable percentage (20%) did not wish to reveal their age (cf. Figure 21).

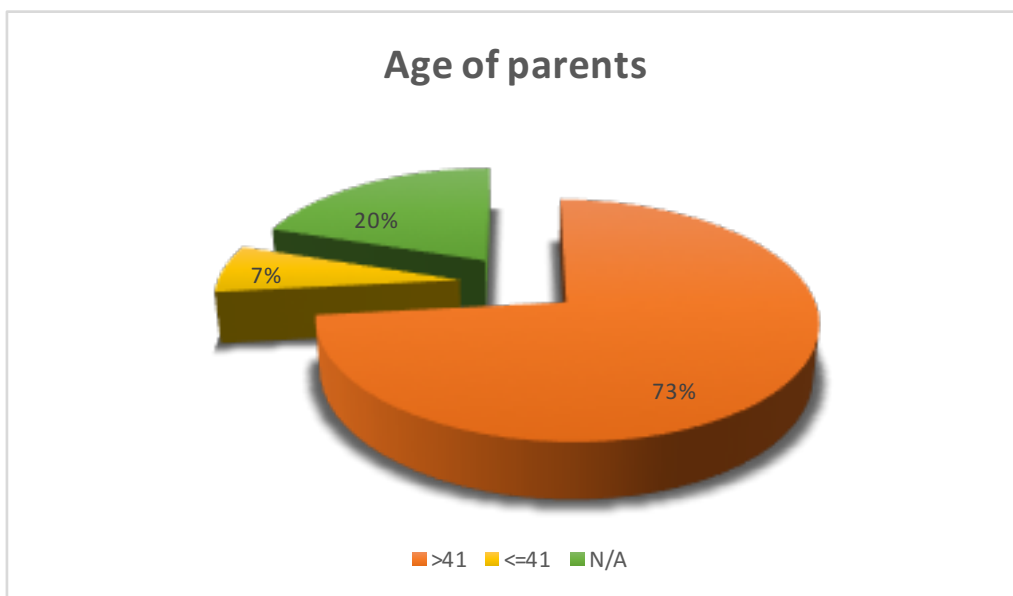


Figure 21. Age of parent cohort

Congruent with the student and teacher cohort, our data showed no diversity in nationality for parents, as 100% of the respondents to the parent questionnaire have a Spanish nationality. Data on the level of studies of parents have also been collected to further characterise this sample. From our survey, it transpires that over a third (35.7%) have school qualifications. A slightly lower percentage (28.6%) are in possession of a university degree, approximately a fifth claim to have a certificate of vocational studies (21.4%) and only 14.3% have studied at Baccalaureate level (cf. Figure 22). It should be taken into consideration that, regarding this item, the student and parent questionnaires may not be fully consistent. The latter were administered only to CLIL cohort parents, with a consequently lower return rate. Also, absent students were unable to collect the questionnaire on the administration day, and many failed to return their parents' questionnaires for us to analyse. This same item in the initial student questionnaire was answered by the entirety of participants from both CLIL and non-CLIL streams and, consequently, those are the data that will later be taken as a proxy for socioeconomic status in the quantitative study, rather than the information obtained from this item in the parent questionnaire.

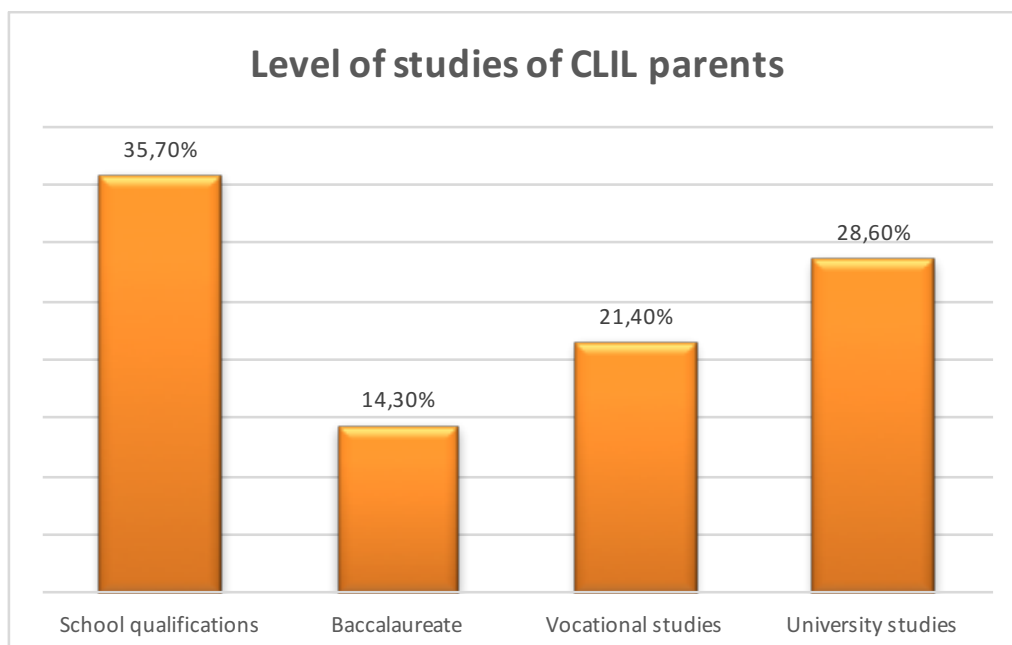


Figure 22. Level of studies of parent cohort according to parents

5.3.3. Variables

The present research study takes into consideration a group of variables which help us attain the objectives pursued.

The quantitative investigation incorporates three types of variables: *dependent*, *independent* and *moderating*.

The *dependent* variables encompass:

- The students' English language (FL) competence (grammar, vocabulary, and the four skills)
- The students' Spanish language competence
- The students' Valencian language competence
- The students' level of mastery of the contents of the subject implemented through CLIL (Ethics).

The *independent* variable corresponds to the CLIL scheme implemented in the public secondary school.

To finish, the following will be contemplated as *moderating variables*:

- Verbal intelligence
- Motivation
- Socioeconomic status (low, medium, high)
- Gender
- Type of school (public, semi-private)
- Exposure to English outside school (≤ 8 hours, > 8 hours)

The qualitative part of the study integrates a series of *identification (subject) variables*, elicited by a number of questions included in the first part of all three questionnaires. We intend to take into account a number of variables to analyse their possible effects on

the answers of the student cohort, namely: age, gender, group, sociocultural status, and time of exposure outside of school.

5.3.4 Instruments

The ensuing sub-sections will provide a general description of the different instruments used and a justification of their adequacy. In order to gather the necessary data for this thesis, we have employed different types of instruments in three main stages:

- *Homogenisation stage*: Initial questionnaire, verbal intelligence and motivation tests.
- *Qualitative stage*: Protocols for semi-structured interviews (both individual and focus group) and questionnaires (self-administered and group-administered), which Brown (2001) classifies as survey tools.
- *Quantitative stage*: English language competence tests (vocabulary, grammar and the four skills).

5.3.4.1 Homogenisation phase

This early stage was designed with the purpose of selecting our final sample for the study. We used different data-gathering procedures all written in Spanish: a motivation test, a verbal intelligence test, and a set of background questions to elicit personal information including extramural exposure (cf. Appendix I). These already-existing and validated instruments belonging to language teaching and psychology research areas are described below.

Before taking the actual tests, the students had to answer ten background questions, concretely their name, school, year, group, age, gender, nationality and finally the age and level of studies of each parent. These biographical data were key for both the

characterisation of our sample and to be factored in as variables; for instance, the level of studies of parents would be taken as a proxy for socioeconomic status.

The verbal intelligence test was part of the *Evaluación Factorial de las Aptitudes Intelectuales* or EFAI battery designed by Santamaría, Arribas, Pereña & Seisdedos (2016). The adapted version we have used for 4th year of CSE involved 23 multiple choice items that tested students' logic with association and elimination (odd-one-out) activities. The questions also tested their level of vocabulary in their mother tongue, including their use of antonyms and identification of word classes, e.g. (my translation):

His stance was _____, he had no _____ opinion about the ideas proposed by his team.

- a) positive- adequate
- b) neutral- defined
- c) ambiguous- uncertain
- d) subjective- personal

Next, the motivation and anxiety test (MA) used was created by the renowned psychologist V. Pelechano Barberá (1994). It is a reliable tried-and-tested instrument which comprises a total of 35 items and isolates four motivational factors of achievement and anxiety through yes-no answers, namely: self-esteem and vain desire to work (ten items), anxiety in the face of exams and inhibition (nine elements), lack of interest in studying (nine items) and self-demand in the face of work (seven elements).

This test rates the students' motivation and anxiety through first person statements about the students' perceptions of themselves, their studies and life. In the test, there is a list of 35 items which seek to elicit yes-no answers from the students, e.g. (my translation):

- I frequently start things I never finish. YES/ NO
- I normally study more than my classmates . YES/ NO
- I sometimes panic in the face of difficult exams . YES/ NO

The extramural exposure questionnaire has been adapted by the Mon-CLIL group from Sundqvist and Sylvén's study (2014). It asks students to reflect on the amount of contact they have with the FL outside the school and to give concrete examples. This questionnaire asks pupils to calculate the number of hours they devote to certain activities in English per week, namely. reading books, newspapers or magazines; listening to music; watching TV programmes or series; playing videogames; going to after-school lessons; surfing the internet; and using different social media to communicate in the target language.

5.3.4.2 Qualitative phase: questionnaires and interviews

In the following paragraphs, we will further characterise the design and validation of the survey tools used for the qualitative study. The present investigation has employed both self-administered and group-administered questionnaires, as well as interviews based on these instruments to complement and complete our data. The questionnaire was designed and validated within the state-funded *Mon-CLIL Project* (cf. Pérez Cañado, 2016d) in three different versions corresponding to each cohort (students, teachers and parents). It should be mentioned that these surveys underwent a double pilot process in which suggestions by external experts were introduced to refine the instruments. They were then piloted with a representative sample of 263 respondents similar to the target population of our study and extremely high Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for each of the surveys: 0.940 for the student one, 0.931 for the teacher equivalent, and 0.895 for the parent survey. Furthermore, in the three versions of the questionnaires most of the items were matched to allow for a comprehensive comparison of the cohorts (cf. Appendices III, IV and V).

These survey tools include two main question types: demographic or background questions to obtain biographical information for the identification variables of the study, and opinion or value questions to measure stakeholders' perceptions regarding the CLIL

scheme. The latter are in the form of alternative answer and Likert-scale question types from one to four in order to avoid the central tendency error.

Questionnaire contents are based on up-to-date research findings and have been organised in the following seven blocks:

- Block 1: Students' use, competence and development of English in class (14 items for all cohorts).
- Block 2: Methodology (four items for the student questionnaire, seven for teachers and three for parents).
- Block 3: Materials and resources and ICT (11 items for the teacher cohort, ten for students and eight for parents).
- Block 4: Evaluation (four items for teacher and student cohorts and five for parents).
- Block 5: Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (students) / Teacher training (teachers) / Training and information (parents) (ten items for students, 15 for teachers and six for parents).
- Block 6: Mobility (three items for students and parents and four for teachers).
- Block 7: Improvement and motivation towards English (students and parents) / Coordination and organisation (teachers) (four items for students, five for teachers and six for parents).

As we advanced in the previous paragraphs, a double-fold pilot procedure was adopted for the edition and validation of the Mon-CLIL questionnaires, making them a very reliable tool for studies like the present one. We administered the three questionnaires as they are, with only a small modification in the teacher survey: we have eliminated an item on the implementation of the *Currículo Integrado de las Lenguas* (CIL), an Andalusian initiative which does not apply to our context.

A supplementary survey tool has been employed with teachers and students in order to guarantee methodological triangulation: interview protocols. The main aim for conducting these interviews is to obtain further data for our SWOT analysis of the

curricular and organizational aspects of the CLIL programme in the school, as included in the questionnaires. These interview protocols belong to the Mon-CLIL project and were selected for our study for their reliability (Pérez Cañado, 2017). They incorporate the same topics of the questionnaires in the interest of comparability, underwent a very similar validation process and are also grounded on up-to-date research on CLIL.

These semi-structured interviews include clear-cut questions that at the same time allow the interviewees to further elaborate on details (cf. Appendices VI and VII). The questions that are comprised in the interviews reformulate the contents of the questionnaires and seek to complement and complete the data provided by them. The interview protocols for content teachers and students are divided in the following ten thematic blocks:

- Block 1: Use of the L2 in class
- Block 2: Development of the L2 in class: discursive functions
- Block 3: Development of competences in class
- Block 4: Methodology and types of groupings
- Block 5: Materials and resources
- Block 6: Coordination and organisation
- Block 7: Evaluation
- Block 8: Teacher training and mobility
- Block 9: Motivation and workload
- Block 10: Overall assessment

Individual 30-minute interviews have been carried out with the CLIL instructors of the school who teach the different groups in secondary. In turn, the interviews with the students have been 30-minute focus-group ones, with each of the two CLIL streams divided into smaller groups of 10-12 students. The interviews have been recorded and data have been coded, memoed, and analysed using the Grounded Theory approach and allowing us to seek opinions corresponding to possible strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the CLIL scheme under study.

5.3.4.3 Quantitative Phase: foreign language skills tests

Finally, English language competence has been evaluated in Phase III through six tests that have been designed and validated by scholars Madrid, Bueno and Ráez (2018) in the context of the aforementioned Mon-CLIL research project. This battery of tests includes a grammar test, a vocabulary test and reading, writing, listening and speaking tests corresponding to the level on which our study has centred: 4th grade of CSE (cf. Appendix II). These same instruments have been used again in the follow-up or delayed post-test phase, six months later.

The research group has subjected these tests to a double-fold pilot process for their validation. Similarly to the qualitative instruments described in the previous section, these were scrutinized by external experts and improved with their recommended modifications and were finally sat by a representative sample of students to guarantee these instruments met the main testing requirements. A rubric by the same authors containing the foreign language skills test assessment criteria was employed for our marking (cf. Appendix VIII).

In turn, the written and oral production of the student cohort has been marked with the help of a writing rubric (cf. Appendix X) elaborated by the Mon-CLIL group and a speaking rubric designed by Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017) (cf. Appendix XI). The researchers drew up a detailed marking scheme with an analytical scale to test the spoken abilities in English of 4th grade of CSE students. We decided to use this rubric because the range of scores provided enable the examiner to identify a wide coverage of sub-skills, maximising reliability. Furthermore, the foundations of this scoring tool are existing scales obtained from the CEFR, Cambridge English Language Assessment and Trinity College London examinations resources.

The authors assembled five distinct assessment criteria with the skills to be examined: grammatical range and accuracy, lexical range and accuracy, fluency and interaction, pronunciation, stress and intonation and task fulfilment/appropriacy of

response/communicative effectiveness. Each skill integrated five level descriptors with brief statements for each criterion and a score of 0.5 points, with a maximum of two points per individual skill. Following Luoma (2004), the authors have ensured these statements are independently comprehensible and promote positive language to explain what the student can do in lieu of what they cannot.

Lastly, it should be underlined that the FL assessment instruments used in the present investigation follow the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), the national Decrees, and the regional laws which establish the official curriculum for the 4th year of CSE stage. The foreign language tests employed were designed taking into consideration not only contents but also descriptors and evaluation strategies and concentrate on lexical, grammatical and skills-based aspects. For all the above reasons, the mentioned instruments were selected as valuable and reliable tools to gather the necessary data for the quantitative part of our study.

Finally, a more in-depth analysis of the students' written production has been carried out. After the careful transcription of all the writings collected in the post- and delayed post-test phases, a Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency (CAF) analysis has been performed following a rubric designed by the Mon-CLIL research group (cf. Appendix IX). Therefore, analysing the number of types, tokens, T-Units, sentences, clauses and errors present in each of the emails written by the students, and using the formulae in the mentioned rubric has allowed us to measure the fluency, accuracy, grammatical complexity and lexical complexity of the students' written output. Concretely, fluency has been determined by calculating the total number of words or tokens and T-Units per writing. In turn, the accuracy measures include the error-free T-Units per sentence ratio and number of errors per word ratio. In turn, grammatical complexity measures encompass the mean length of T-Unit and the number of clauses per T-Unit ratio. Lastly, for lexical complexity, the type-token ratio and D Value of each writing test has been calculated.

Only one modification has been made to the aforementioned rubric: the addition of an extra measure of lexical complexity. Being aware of the ongoing controversy surrounding the validity of the type-token ratio (TTR), we have added a second measure: the D Value. The D Value was developed by Malvern and Richards (2002) in their attempt to overcome the limitations of other lexical measures that are too dependent on sample size, as is the case with the TTR. The D value will be calculated by using the `vocd`, one of the analysis commands of the CLAN programme (MacWhinney, 2000). What makes this approach different and more reliable is that it uses a mathematical model to calculate the likelihood of "new vocabulary being introduced into longer and longer samples of speech or writing", as McKee, Malvern and Richards (2000, p. 324) claim. According to these authors, the main advantages of calculating the D Value are:

- (1) it is not a function of the number of words in the sample;
- (2) it uses all the data available;
- (3) it is more informative because, as opposed to a single value of TTR, it represents how the TTR varies over a range of token size for each speaker or writer. (ibid. 2000, p.324)

5.3.5. Data collection and statistical methodology

It could be said that the initial stage of the study began when we contacted the educational authorities and the schools to present our research project and to ask both for their permission and their collaboration. However, this phase was really set in motion after we obtained their consent and were granted access to the schools' facilities approximately six months later.

As advanced in heading 5.3.2.1, a total of 198 individuals took part in this early stage: eight class groups of 4th year CSE students from Valencia sat the verbal intelligence and motivation tests. These pupils attended semi-private schools Escolapios Micer Mascó (group A and B) and Jesús y María (group C) and an above-average sized public school called IES Albal, located 15 minutes south of the city of Valencia. The latter school was

chosen for our study because of its well-established CLIL scheme in the secondary stage and the stakeholders' willingness to contribute towards research in education. The main favouring circumstance, however, was the large number of students enrolled in the school, resulting in five classes per level in secondary: two CLIL streams (group D and E) and three non-CLIL strands (groups A, B and C).

The researcher and an assistant visited these educational institutions on five different dates within the same month (one day in each semi-private school and three days for the public school) to set and supervise the tests for all 198 participants. Each of the eight class groups received exactly the same instructions and were given the same amount of time to complete the tests: 45 minutes.

In turn, the administration of the questionnaires and the interviews for the qualitative part of our research took place mainly in the public secondary school IES Albal, with the exception of the self-administered parent and teacher questionnaire. It has been mentioned before that group E was deemed the most homogenous one for the quantitative study; however, for the qualitative side of our research both CLIL groups (D and E) were included as participants in the CLIL programme.

With regards to the student survey, the researcher and an assistant were allowed to group-administer the questionnaire to gather students' opinions without the presence of their teacher. All questionnaires were personally delivered to the centre and, as the collection of data was impossible to carry out in a single day due to timetable constraints, the administration to group D and E took place on two different days within the same week. Both groups were given exactly the same instructions and had the same amount of time to complete the questionnaire: 30 minutes. Following on from the collection of the completed questionnaires, students were handed out the parent questionnaire to take home and return to the school within a week.

The administration of the teacher counterpart however, was not as straightforward due to the busy schedule of the teachers and to the fact that surveys had to be individually

distributed and retrieved. Thus, self-administered questionnaires (teachers' and parents') implied a longer time period of retrieval and involved follow-up emails and phone calls which proved indispensable, given the limited sample with which we were working. A time period of approximately four weeks and numerous visits to the school were necessary to complete and collect all the student and teacher surveys delivered and for us to retrieve the greatest number possible of parent questionnaires. In the end, a total of 68 informants were polled.

To supplement the above-mentioned surveys, two semi-structured interview protocols were employed as a second qualitative tool. In the weeks following the collection of the questionnaires, the researcher performed the teacher and student interviews. These were all face-to-face and either individual (for teachers) or in focus groups (students). Subgroups of 10-12 students were formed from each CLIL class group (D and E), and were taken in turns to an adjacent room. As an introduction, the researcher presented each group with the objectives of the project and with clear instructions regarding participation and turn-taking. Then, the researcher began to ask students the questions comprised in the interview protocol section by section and proceeded with record-keeping in the form of personal notes and retention followed by storage of the data collected for later analysis using Grounded Theory. To conclude this outline of the qualitative data collection process, we should emphasise that these qualitative tools have allowed us to meet our main objective: using a truly reliable set of instruments to gather solid data on stakeholder perspectives to inform our dissertation.

The next phase of our data collection process incorporated the three most homogeneous groups of students resulting from our initial analysis: the selected CLIL cohort (group E) and non-CLIL control group (A) from the public school and the traditional EFL group from the semi-private school Jesús y María (C). In a three-week period in the 3rd trimester of the school year, the researcher and her assistant visited these educational centres a total of six times with the purpose of administering the different language skills tests. The written parts (Use of English, Vocabulary, Listening, Reading and Writing) were tested in the students' usual classrooms with only their tutor present (but

unobtrusive) in the three groups. After giving all the instructions and having answered any necessary questions, the researcher allowed 45 minutes for the completion of the tests. When time was up, all papers were collected for their subsequent marking and analysis.

One third of the students in each group were randomly selected to take part in the speaking test two weeks later. In an allocated office, the pupils sat the exam in pairs and for ten minutes were asked to do several conversational tasks and to answer individual questions. In this exam, only the researcher was present and she recorded the students' performance for careful assessment and analysis at a later stage.

Six months later we returned to the schools for the follow-up phase, when the students were finishing their 1st trimester in Baccalaureate. Inevitably, some pupils had left the school or had been moved to different class groups; however, the majority of our participants were ready to continue with the study. Also, this time only five visits to the schools were needed due to the fact that the semi-private school scheduled both speaking and written tests for the same day. We followed exactly the same procedure and instruments as in the post-test phase, so, for this follow-up stage, the remaining students re-sat the same tests in identical manner. The application of these instruments has indeed yielded a great variety of results from the different cohorts involved, leading us to the next stage: data analysis.

Vis-à-vis statistical methodology, the data obtained through the various tests and questionnaires has been analysed with the aid of the SPSS program in its 23.0 version. An account of the specific operations to be used in the analysis, in relation to both the qualitative and quantitative research questions of our study will now be provided.

The ANOVA, T-test and Mann–Whitney U test, together with either Tukey's HSD or the Bonferroni post hoc tests, have been used to determine the existence of statistically significant differences between groups and within groups, in terms of the moderating and identification variables considered. In addition, a series of successive discriminant

analysis have been used to establish which variables are truly responsible for the differences between groups, were they to exist. Congruent with the main objectives of the present dissertation, it is our interest to isolate those variables, as they can enrich the differences found between the experimental and control groups from a qualitative perspective.

Both quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques have been deployed when dealing with stakeholder perspectives. To analyse the interview protocols, Grounded Theory Analysis (Glaser & Strauss 1967) has been used for data coding, memoing and conclusion drawing. For the quantitative part, raw data, percentages, and graphical displays have been included when reporting on the results obtained. The data obtained on the questionnaires have been statistically analysed using the aforementioned programs and descriptive statistics have been employed to report on the outcomes. More specifically, central tendency measures (mean, median) and dispersion measures (range, low-high and standard deviation) have been calculated.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter number six presents the results of the statistical analyses performed on the basis of the design described in the previous chapter in order to answer the research questions formulated under heading 4.2. Thus, in this new chapter, both qualitative and quantitative results will be decoded and discussed resorting to the analyses mentioned above and reference will also be made to the specialised literature review in Chapters 3 and 4. The description of our findings has been organized into different sections and subsections congruent with our four metaconcerns and the research questions to be answered.

6.1. Qualitative Results

6.1.1. Global analysis of stakeholder perceptions

In the upcoming subsections, we will discuss the conclusions stemming from the qualitative phase of the study with a view to addressing our first metaconcern, expressed in the following research questions: **RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3**. Starting with our questionnaires, we will present student, teacher and parent perceptions of the CLIL scheme by inspection of the items within each of the seven thematic blocks explained in our research design. This will be complemented by the data obtained from the face-to-face interviews with the teachers and from the focus groups with the pupils. The information collected will be expounded on in order to support or refute questionnaire findings. Then, we will offer a comparison between the common survey items to identify any statistically significant differences among the perceptions of the three cohorts. To finish, the responses of the student cohort are analysed in terms of the identification variables considered (group, gender, time of exposure outside school).

6.1.1.1. Questionnaires

6.1.1.1.1. Students

The analysis of the students' perspectives will come first due to their relevance, since they conform the largest part of our qualitative sample and clearly outnumber the teachers and parents. Global outcomes will now be reported on through the use of descriptive statistics following the individual thematic blocks of the questionnaires.

The data from the first thematic block should shed light on *students' use, competence and development of English in class* (cf. Figure 23). Upon inspection of our outcomes, it becomes evident that the pupils polled have a self-complacent view of their own foreign language skills (items 12-13) and development of key competences (item 1) in the CLIL programme. Mirroring the outcomes of previous investigations in the Spanish context (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2009; Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018; Oxbrow, 2018; Rubio Mostacero, 2009), the majority of students report higher levels of self-confidence, interest in the subject and, to a lesser extent, participation in the lessons (items 8-10). Furthermore, the majority of pupils consider that their content knowledge in the CLIL subjects has also increased (item 5). These results coincide with the ones obtained in previous studies undertaken by Lorenzo et al. (2009) and Madrid and Hughes (2011), according to whom L2 skills improved as a result of studying in a bilingual programme.

For items 12 and 13, which correspond to the competence level of the pupils' receptive and productive skills, very high percentages are obtained, proving that nearly all the students are satisfied with the FL level achieved, in line with Lancaster (2016) and Gálvez Gómez (2013). Moreover, the two items obtain almost identical results, which could imply that the receptive and productive abilities are promoted equally in the CLIL class. Our respondents also appear to be satisfied in terms of sociocultural (item 14) and metalinguistic awareness (items 6 and 7); however, slightly contrasting attitudes arise in connection to the improvement of the L1 (item 4). In other words, a high percentage of

subjects report a better understanding of the links between English and Spanish, but few of them think their mother tongue has improved as a result of CLIL instruction. Lastly, most pupils convey they are content with the amount of English being used in the class and item 11 reveals that a high percentage would not look forward to an increase in the amount of English employed, in agreement with Lancaster (2016).

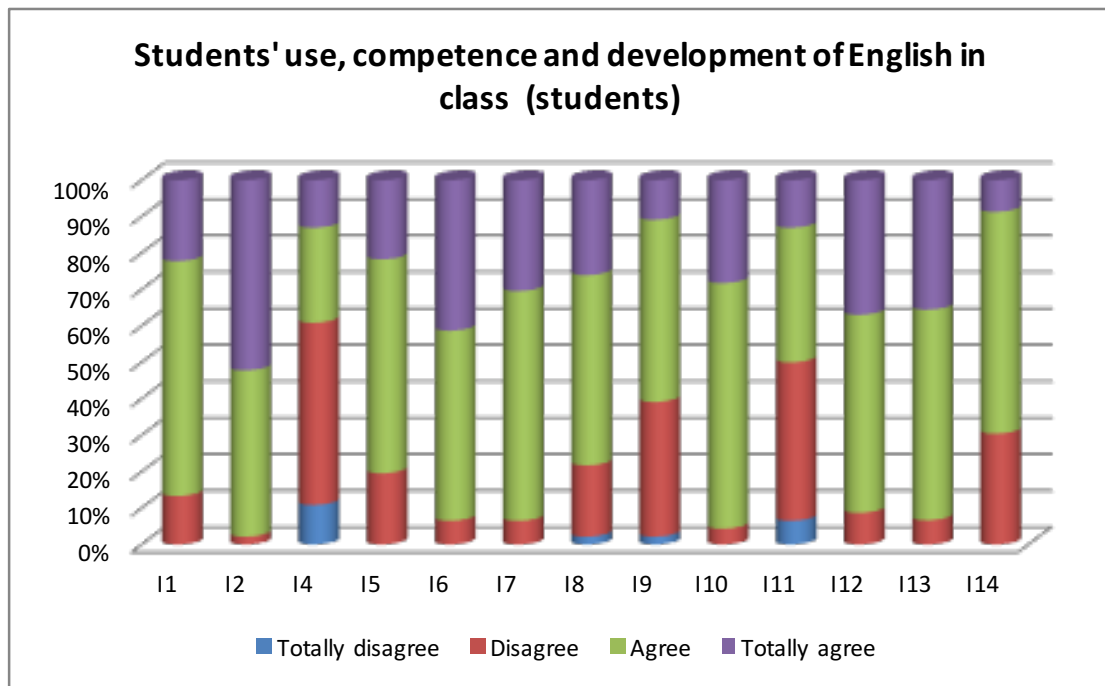


Figure 23. Block 1. Student questionnaire.

In turn, the items subsumed within the *methodology* block (cf. Figure 24) present optimistic outcomes and there appears to be a pleasing amount of harmony in the pupils' perceptions as well. Students consider they should play an essential role in CLIL lessons and, judging by the data gathered, it appears that learner-centred teaching is manifest in the classroom. Subjects agree that work based on projects is a frequent feature (item 16) and that development of tasks (item 15) is standard practice. As for group work, there seems to be some disagreement on whether this activity usually takes place within the CLIL classroom, although the majority answers affirmatively (item 18).

Finally, a very high percentage of students state that they learn a great amount of vocabulary (item 17) in their CLIL lessons.

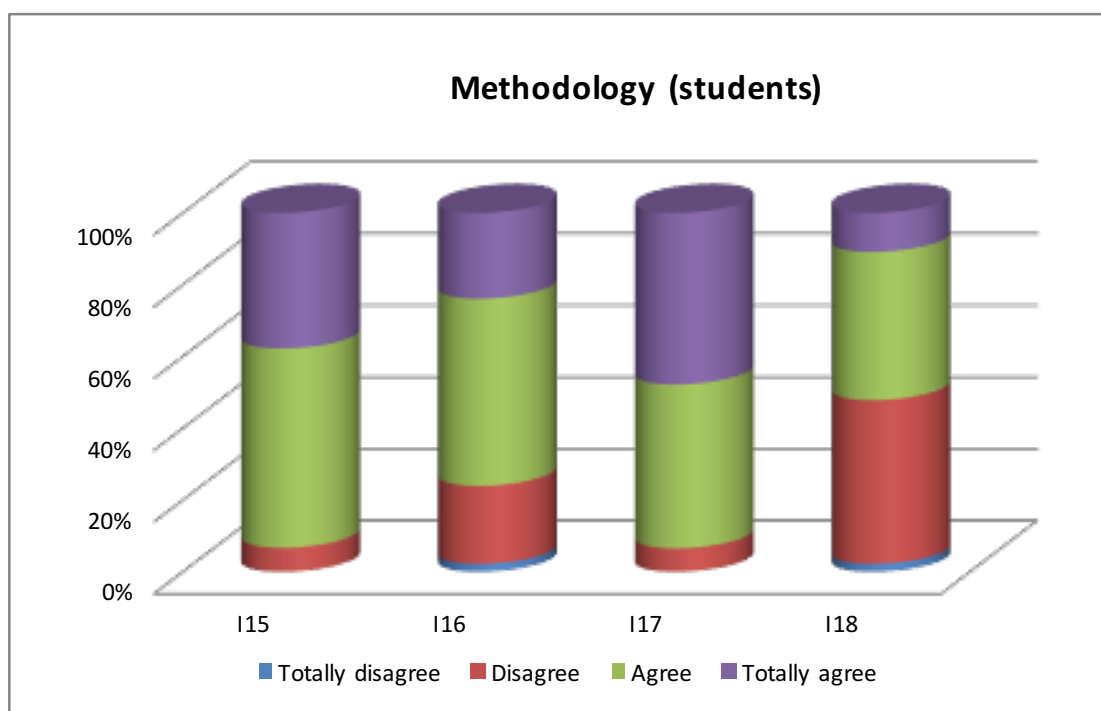


Figure 24. Block 2. Student questionnaire.

Block number three, entitled *materials and resources* (cf. Figure 25), also unveils generally positive results, but a more negative outlook is harboured on aspects corresponding to the use of ICT resources in the classroom: although pupils agree to a certain extent on the use of software (item 25) and online reference materials (item 26) in class, the vast majority point out the lack of Web 2.0 tools like webquests, blogs and wikis (item 27) and interactive whiteboards (item 28). In the same way, computer-mediated communication like e-Twinning does not seem to be incorporated in CLIL lessons (items 29). These outcomes are in agreement with the general deficit of CLIL resources already diagnosed by Ruiz Gómez (2015) and Pérez Cañado (2016d, 2018).

The block also reveals some encouraging outcomes since students acknowledge the use of authentic (item 19) and adapted materials (item 20). Moreover, CLIL pupils also

consider that such materials promote communication in the English language within the classroom (item 23) and cater to diversity (item 24). However, many students consider resources could be more interesting and innovative (item 21). Lastly, our findings regarding teacher collaboration in the preparation of CLIL materials is satisfactory (item 22) for an estimable amount of the students surveyed, a result which is in keeping with several investigations that document increased coordination between teacher roles (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lorenzo Casal & Moore, 2009; Sánchez-Torres, 2014).

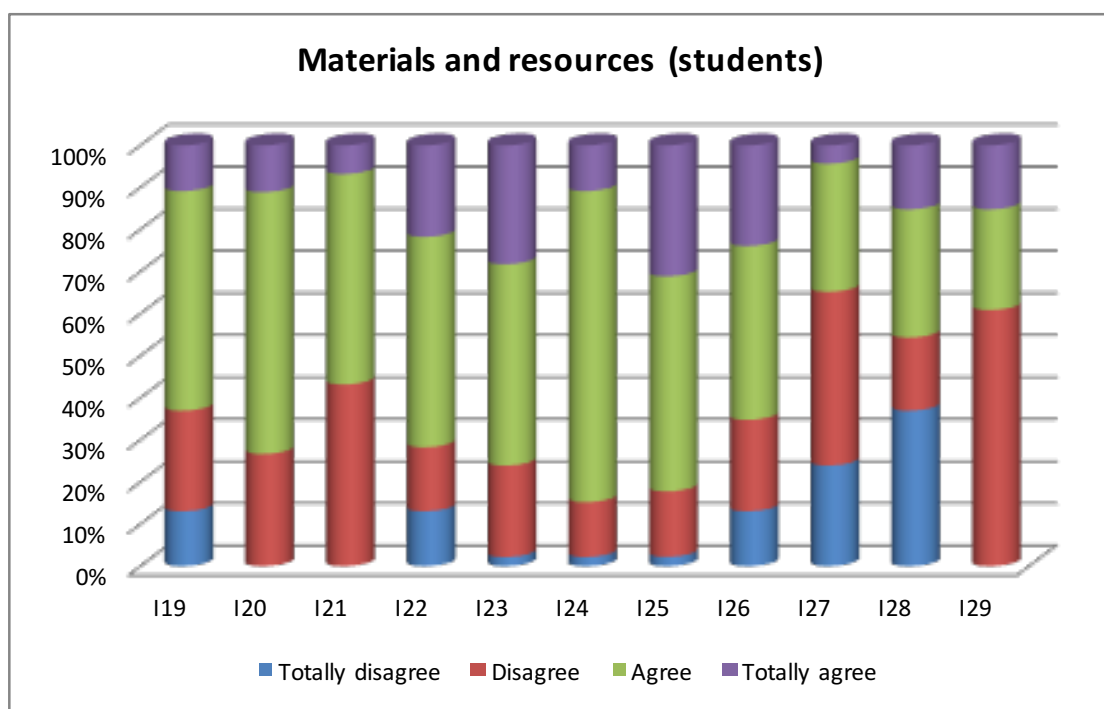


Figure 25. Block 3. Student questionnaire.

At first glance, the block titled *evaluation* fully concurs with the previous thematic blocks, offering promising results (cf. Figure 26). As can be visually interpreted, when asked if all contents taught in the CLIL programme are assessed, almost 98% of pupils are in agreement (item 30). Moreover, from their responses to the next items, it transpires that priority is generally given to content over linguistic competence (item 31) within the assessment process and that this is normally carried out in the form of both summative and formative evaluation (item 33). Regarding the issue of oral testing,

although more agree than not, a markedly large percentage of students disagree with the fact that it is undertaken (item 32). We were surprised by this unexpected outcome, since we had been told otherwise by CLIL teachers. Therefore, we are led to believe that either some students are confused about which class activities constitute part of their final mark and which do not, or that the different CLIL teachers are inconsistent in this respect.

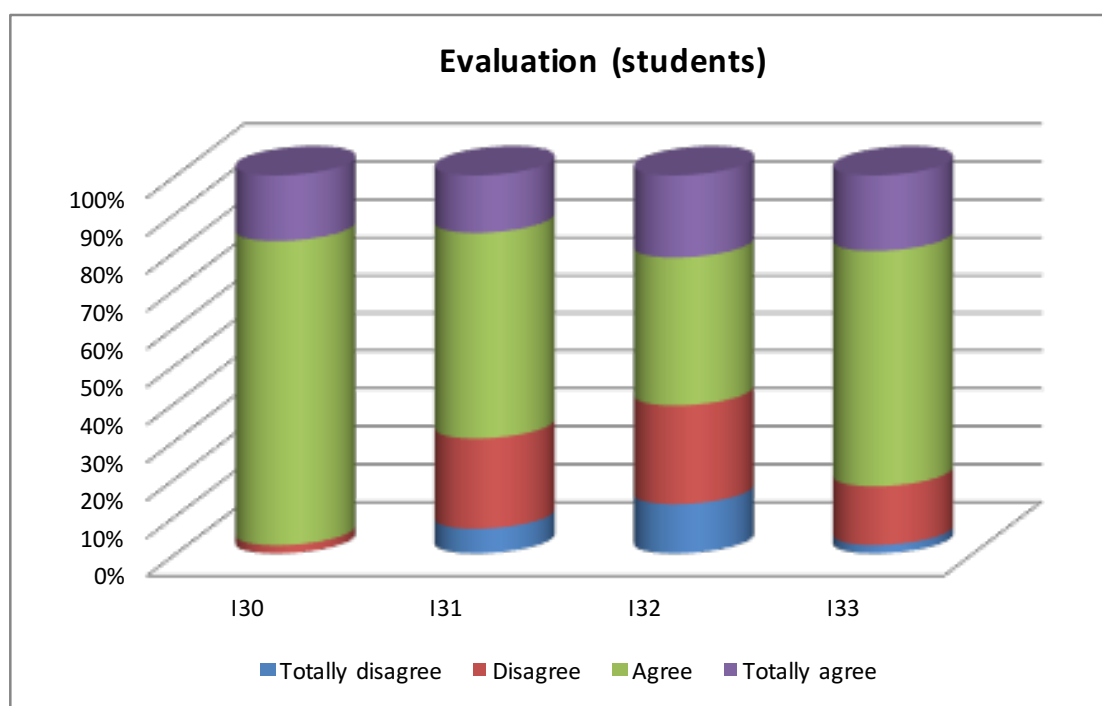


Figure 26. Block 4. Student questionnaire.

Block 5, entitled *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, constitutes a fundamental topic to explore in any FL learning context (cf. Figure 27). The fact that students agree with the ten items subsumed within this thematic block leads us to believe that they are satisfied with teacher roles in general, although some items present certain negativity. It is plain to see that motivation is the main culprit: most students consider that foreign language, non-linguistic area teachers and teaching assistants (items 37, 38 and 39) are successful in motivating them, but still over one fourth of pupils claim to feel uninspired by their teaching, an issue which should not be

overlooked. In contrast, we are able to assign a higher degree of positivity to the remaining items on the topic. Over 93% of students consider that language teachers teach effective lessons (item 34) and a slightly more variegated though still positive response is revealed for content teachers (item 35) and teaching assistants (items 36 and 40). To finish, harmony transpires amongst student favourable opinions on teachers' oral, written and sociocultural capabilities in English (items 41, 42 and 43).

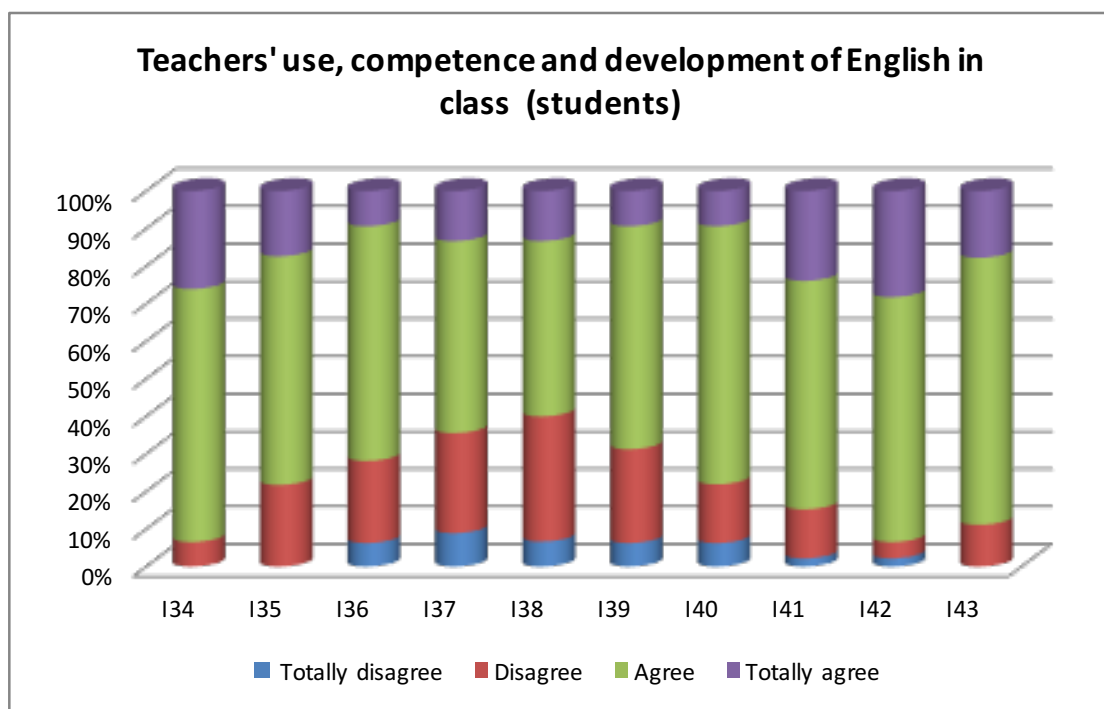


Figure 27. Block 5. Student questionnaire.

If we shift our focus to block number 6, we can observe it brings forth markedly heterogeneous findings pertaining to *mobility* (cf. Figure 28). Results suggest that students feel encouraged by CLIL teachers (item 45) and by their own families (item 46) to take advantage of incentives for learning languages, such as exchanges. However, what seems shocking is that, despite the support received, when asked whether they have taken part in any mobility programme, our results show that only half (51.1%) of the students claim to have done so (item 44), something which accords with Gálvez Gómez (2013) and Lancaster's (2016) findings regarding mobility. Considering that

student and teacher mobility are fundamental objectives of CLIL programmes, this low level of participation clearly constitutes an area of concern that deserves further attention.

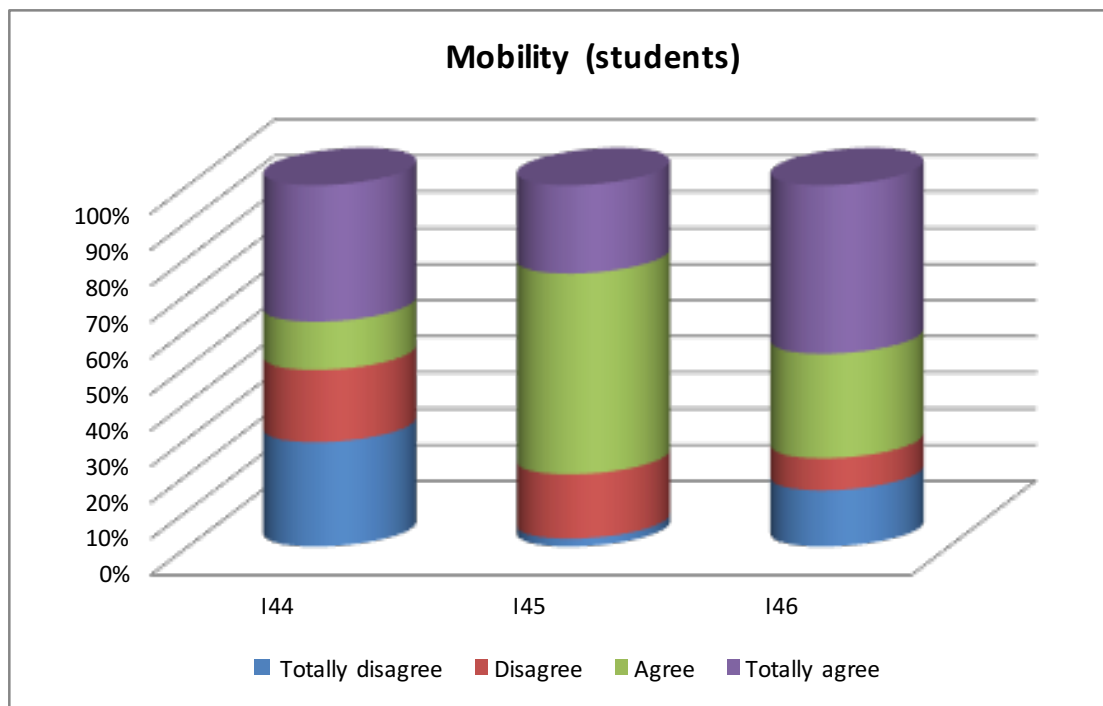


Figure 28. Block 6. Student questionnaire.

Improvement and motivation towards learning English is the concluding block for the student cohort (cf. Figure 29). Outcomes on this topic attest to the success of the CLIL programme in the public school IES Albal from a student mind-set in the sense that all four statements included in the block have received a high mean value between 3 (agree) and 4 (totally agree) in the four-point Likert scale employed. The programme seems to have furthered a general improvement in terms of motivation towards foreign language learning (item 49), a result in keeping with Cabezas Cabello’s (2010) investigation. An elevated percentage of participants consider that belonging to a CLIL stream has greatly advanced their English skills in general (item 48). In addition, most agree or totally agree that forming part of the CLIL scheme is worth the extra workload

involved (item 47). Lastly, considerable percentages (item 50) report adequate availability of English materials outside the school.

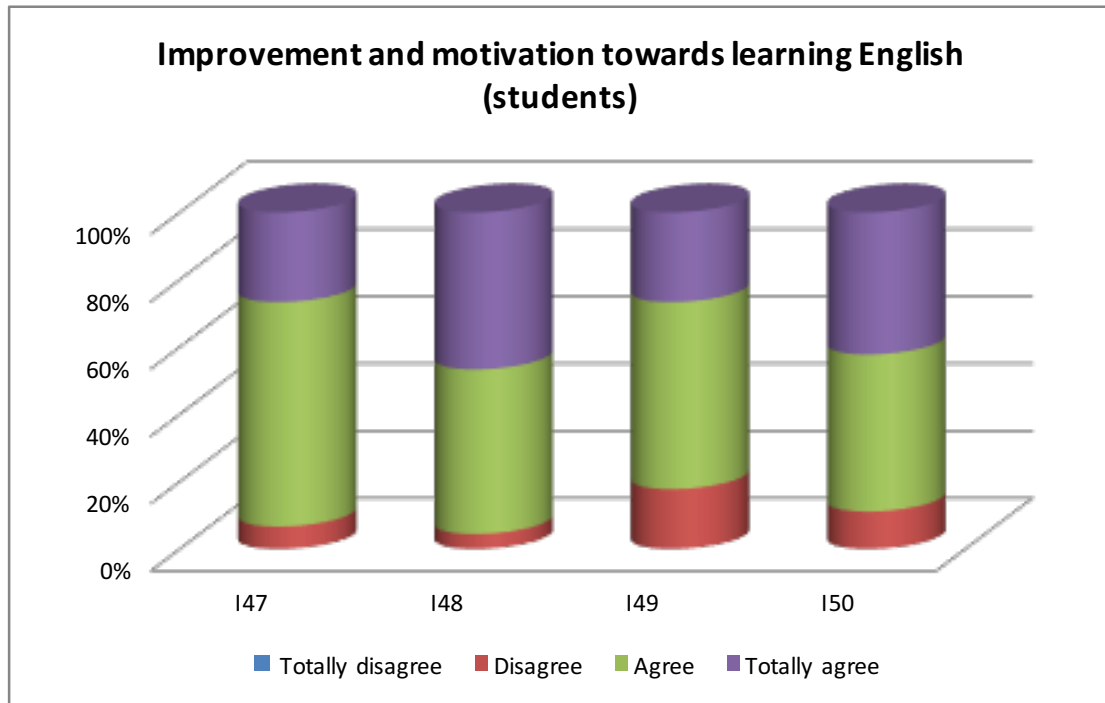


Figure 29. Block 7. Student questionnaire.

6.1.1.1.2. Teachers

Having presented and reflected on the global results of the student cohort, we will now embark on an in-depth analysis of the next stakeholder: the CLIL teachers. Although this sample is quite reduced in comparison with that of the students, the content teachers in the CLIL programme set forth estimable opinions. Superficially, the instructors' general opinions are positive and tally with previous research (Ackerl, 2007; Coonan, 2007; Czura, Papaja & Urbaniak, 2009; Infante, Benvenuto & Lastrucci, 2008, 2009; Mehisto & Asser, 2007; Pladevall-Ballester, 2015; San Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2018; Wiesemes, 2009), however, we can immediately detect a slightly more negative vision and a considerably less homogeneous perspective than the ones seen in the student cohort.

Mirroring students' beliefs, in the first block on *students' use, competence and development of English in class*, the teachers have expressed very positive opinions for the first two items on improvement of students' FL skills and development of key competences as a result of the CLIL programme (cf. Figure 30). Items 6, 7 and 10 on metalinguistic awareness and interest have garnered exclusively positive reactions from the teachers, while the students' answers, although still encouraging, presented less harmony in this respect. Data obtained show teachers are very satisfied with students' understanding of how languages work (item 6) and with their understanding of the link between Spanish and English (item 7), evincing congruence with the students' responses and in line with a great number of investigations that praise the metalinguistic awareness resulting from CLIL instruction (Coyle, 2006; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015; Lancaster, 2016; Lasagabaster, 2011; Lorenzo, Casal & Moore, 2009; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007).

Teacher positivity is also detected across the board apropos student motivation (item 10), this time in line with students' opinions. Still on the bright side, CLIL teachers give the impression they are satisfied with the content knowledge level of their pupils (item 5), their self-confidence (item 8) and their participation in the classroom (item 9). Surprisingly, and in line with Pérez Cañado's findings (2018), teachers' perception of student participation is considerably more optimistic than the opinion students have of their own participation.

The last three items on this topic elicit heterogeneous responses from the teachers. The aforementioned statements revolve around students' listening, speaking (item 12), reading and writing skills (item 13) and their intercultural awareness (item 14). Although the majority of the teachers surveyed seem to be happy with their students' achievements, a considerable percentage believe pupils are yet to attain an adequate level in the previous skills. Finally, standing out as the most homogenous elements are teachers' views on the effects of CLIL on Spanish (item 4) and their views on whether to increase the use of the target language (item 11). Most teachers report they do not perceive any particular improvement in their students' L1 as a result of the CLIL

programme, and an even larger proportion believe their students would not welcome an increased use of English in class. The latter was confirmed by the outcomes of the pupils' questionnaires and by recent investigations (Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2015, 2017; Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018). In the corresponding block, students reacted in a similar manner to these questions too, expressing both that FL use should not be increased and that their L1 remained unaffected by CLIL methodology.

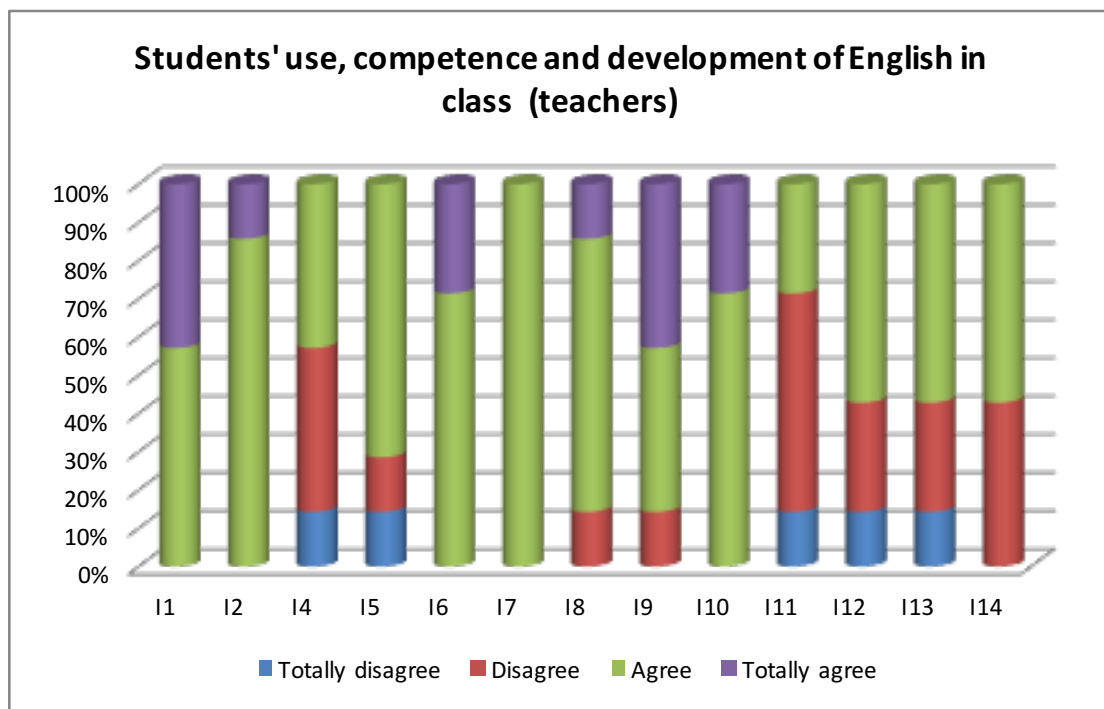


Figure 30. Block 1. Teacher questionnaire.

Turning now to the block on *methodology*, it can be said that, overall, it puts forth a primarily optimistic outlook, although some negative aspects also transpire (cf. Figure 31). Previous studies like those by Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008), or Pérez Cañado (2016b, 2016d) coincide that this is a problematic CLIL area that needs further investigation since important deficits have been consistently unveiled.

The answers of the teachers surveyed are mixed; for instance, most CLIL instructors use projects but, surprisingly, a considerable number admit to never using these in the

classroom (item 16). An even larger proportion report not prioritizing the lexical dimension in their lessons (item 17), mirroring Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa's results (2018). These apparently contradictory answers could be due to the diversity of CLIL subjects taught in the school (from Mathematics to Physical Education), each with different characteristics, some of them being more theory-orientated and others being more prone to project-based initiatives. In this line and, despite minor discrepancies, there is a general consensus that task-based learning methodologies are employed in the CLIL streams (item 15) and that the links between the pupils' mother tongue and the target language are emphasised (item 19).

A chiefly optimistic outlook does ensue when considering the rest of the questions in this block. The majority of teachers confirm that the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (item 20) and European Language Portfolio recommendations (item 21) are followed. A similar proportion claim the cooperative methodology (item 18) is employed in their subject.

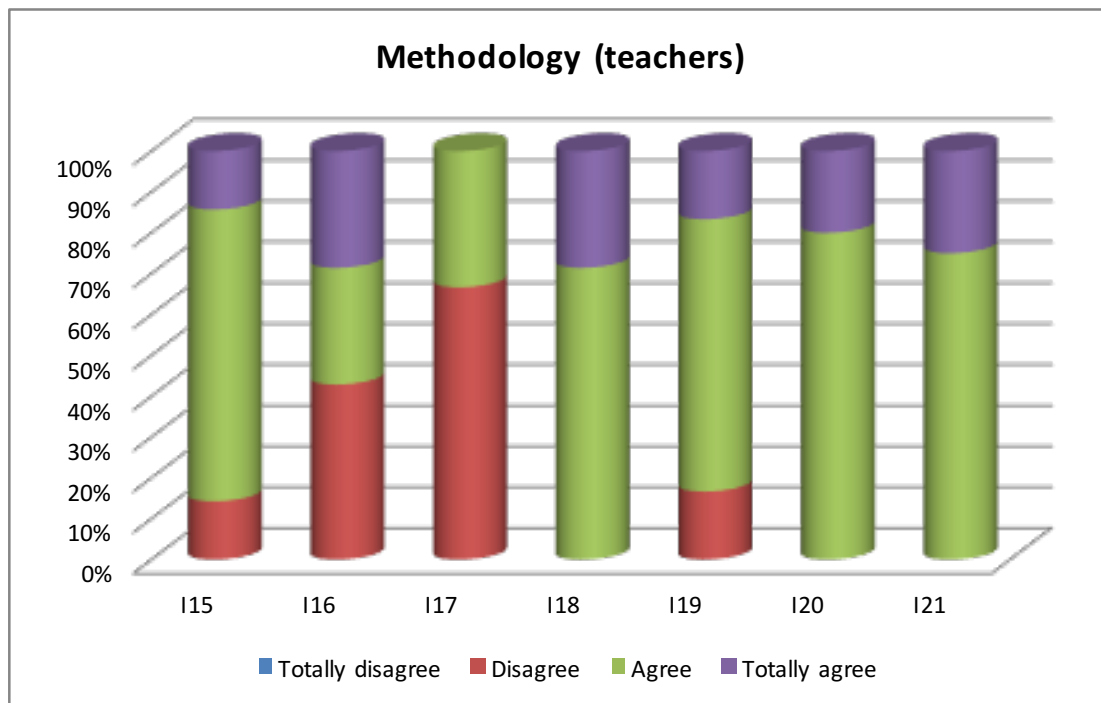


Figure 31. Block 2. Teacher questionnaire.

Tallying with the previous block, the views manifested by teachers on *materials, resources and ICT* inform us of even more diversified standpoints (cf. Figure 32). Some clear examples would be collaboration among CLIL teachers in the preparation of resources and lessons (item 25) and the adaptation of authentic materials (item 27), where approximately half of the informants disagree these take place at all, while the rest of teachers either agree or completely agree, suggesting there is room for improvement in this aspect. Teachers show an overarching optimistic outlook, intertwined with occasional problem areas cropping up on the topics regarding the use of authentic (item 22) and adapted materials (item 23) and software (item 24) in the CLIL class. Very similar percentages are obtained vis-à-vis how innovative and interesting their resources are (item 28), an item which nearly half the students rated in a negative manner. In relation to the use of online reference materials (item 29) and Web 2.0 tools (item 30) in CLIL lessons, a slightly more negative vision can be sensed in harmony with the students' beliefs, bringing to light an outstanding issue. Such findings deviate from the results obtained by Cabezas Cabello (2010), who found ICT to be one of the strong points of CLIL in his context.

Next, and adhering to the more negative aspects identified, there is considerable agreement about the last three items on this third block, namely the lack of electronic whiteboards (item 31), the rare use of computer-mediated communication (item 32) or parent-friendly homework tasks (item 33). Congruent with the outcomes of previous investigations, an overwhelming majority of teachers point to the absence of CLIL materials with guidelines in Spanish to involve the parents (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2015; Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2011). Ending on a positive note, 100% of the teachers in our survey affirm they use resources that follow communicative principles.

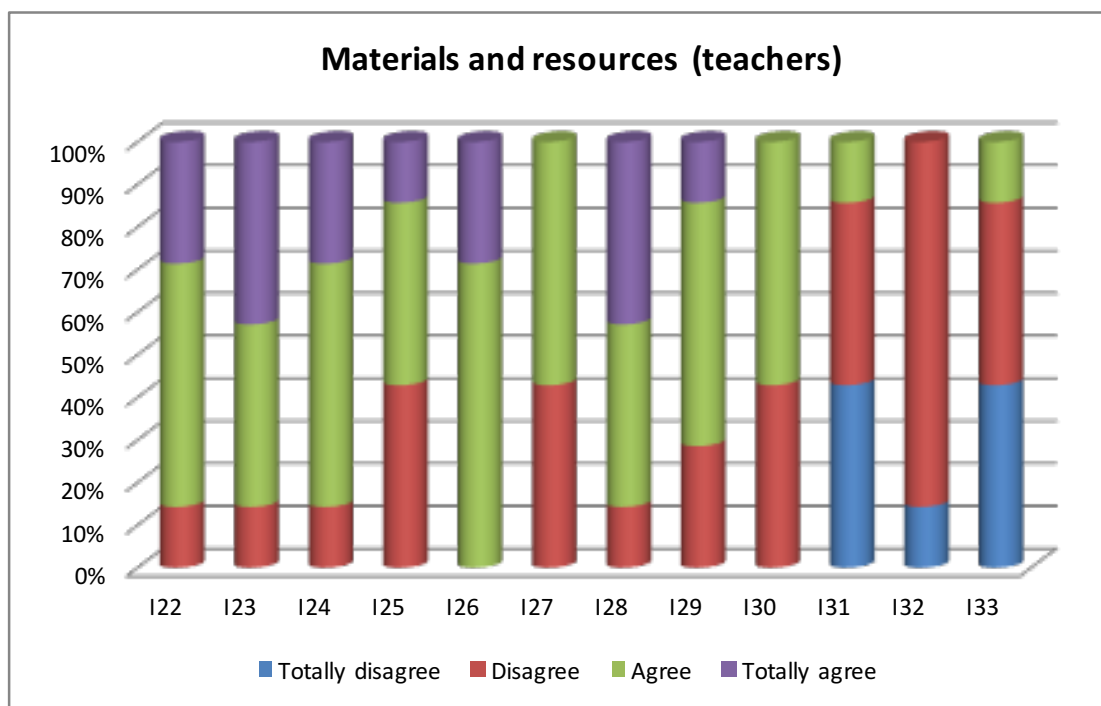


Figure 32. Block 3. Teacher questionnaire.

Moving on to *evaluation* (cf. Figure 33), this block backs up what the students have already furnished. Prevailing enthusiasm is established towards all items but one: the inclusion of an oral component in the assessment process (item 36), thereby endorsing the findings of Lancaster (2016) and Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018). Pertaining to the use of formative and summative evaluation (item 37), absolutely all teachers present a positive reaction, evincing congruence with the students' view. Finally, and although a minor proportion disagree, there is an overall consensus that all the content taught in CLIL lessons is part of the assessment (item 34) and that it is given priority over linguistic competence (item 35).

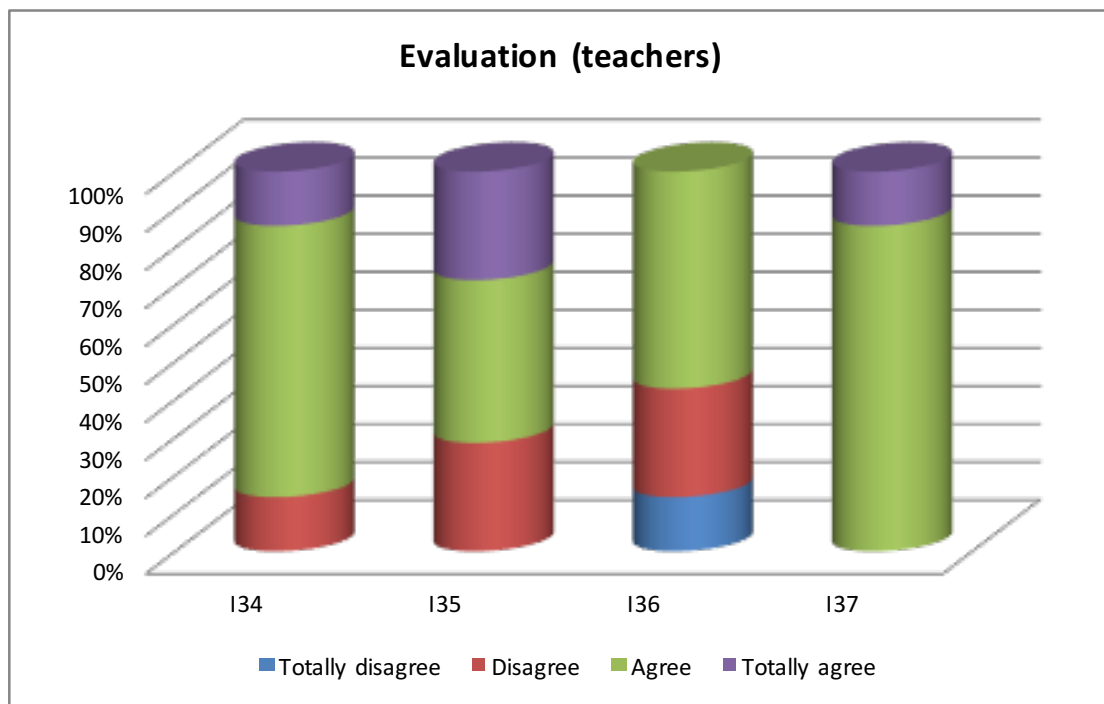


Figure 33. Block 4. Teacher questionnaire.

A less optimistic sentiment ensues when considering the outcomes of the next block: *teacher training* (cf. Figure 34). Several items subsumed within the present block correspond to an equivalent section entitled *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* in the students' questionnaire. A number of different items have been included or reformulated, however, in order to expand on issues pertinent to the teaching context and to gather valuable information about matters with which pupils are not directly involved.

This time, instructors express mixed feelings concerning the topic of this block: although teachers show a self-complacent view on items belonging to their FL skills and their ability to motivate pupils, they are rather critical about the rest of questions. More concretely, participants' responses indicate they consider their own teaching (item 42), the teaching in the EFL subject (item 41) and that of the TAs (item 43) are motivating for students, a perception which departs from what pupils have declared in the equivalent items of their questionnaires. Outcomes congruent with Sánchez-Torres

(2014) show that TAs are highly regarded for the support they offer to both students and content teachers (items 44 and 45), this time in line with learners' responses.

When asked about their own knowledge and skills, teachers appear to be self-confident especially in relation to their productive and receptive skills in the target language (items 46 and 47) and their sociocultural knowledge (item 48). With regards to their pedagogic preparation, they all claim to have participated in at least one teacher training initiative (item 51); however, all the content teachers surveyed without exception voice their need for further training (item 39). Calls for adequate teacher training provision are frequently listed in CLIL literature and constitute an ongoing problem that needs to be adequately addressed (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2015, 2016b; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015; Rubio Mostacero, 2009). Moreover, a considerable percentage also express that both EFL teachers and TAs would benefit from training as well (item 38 and 40). In addition, data gathered through items 49 and 50 remind us that, although no clear-cut opinions transpire, most teachers embody certain scepticism with respect to their knowledge of the basic principles or inner workings of CLIL and the regional plurilingualism plan. To finish, there is one particular question that has attracted some negativity is the final item on the block: teachers' participation in linguistic upgrade courses in Official Language Schools (EOI). Findings unveiled a possible cause for concern: paucity in the constant development of the target language (item 52).

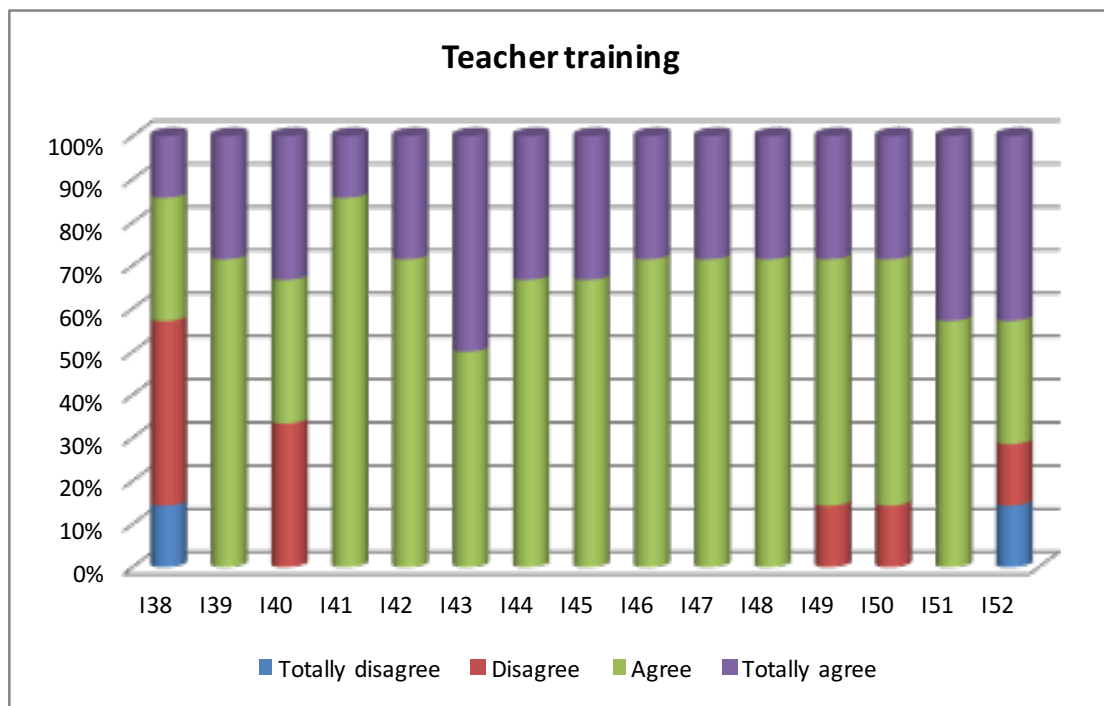


Figure 34. Block 5. Teacher questionnaire.

The sixth thematic block addresses the thorny topic of *mobility*, and exhibits similar opinions to the previous section (cf. Figure 35). In fact, this topic stands out as the most negative one, with teachers disagreeing or totally disagreeing with most questions asked, backing up some of what the students had already furnished. We are able to interpret that linguistic courses abroad have generally not been carried out (item 54), and alarmingly, study licenses (item 56) and methodological training outside their country pervade even less according to the CLIL teachers in this school (item 55), a situation which endorses the findings of a cluster of authors (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Galvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2012). Fortunately, better outcomes are obtained in relation to exchanges since most teachers claim they have participated in one (item 53). Nonetheless, we consider mobility to be a key aspect of teacher development and therefore hold the opinion that greater emphasis should be placed on this matter in order for the school to have an adequately trained staff that can successfully step up to the CLIL challenge.

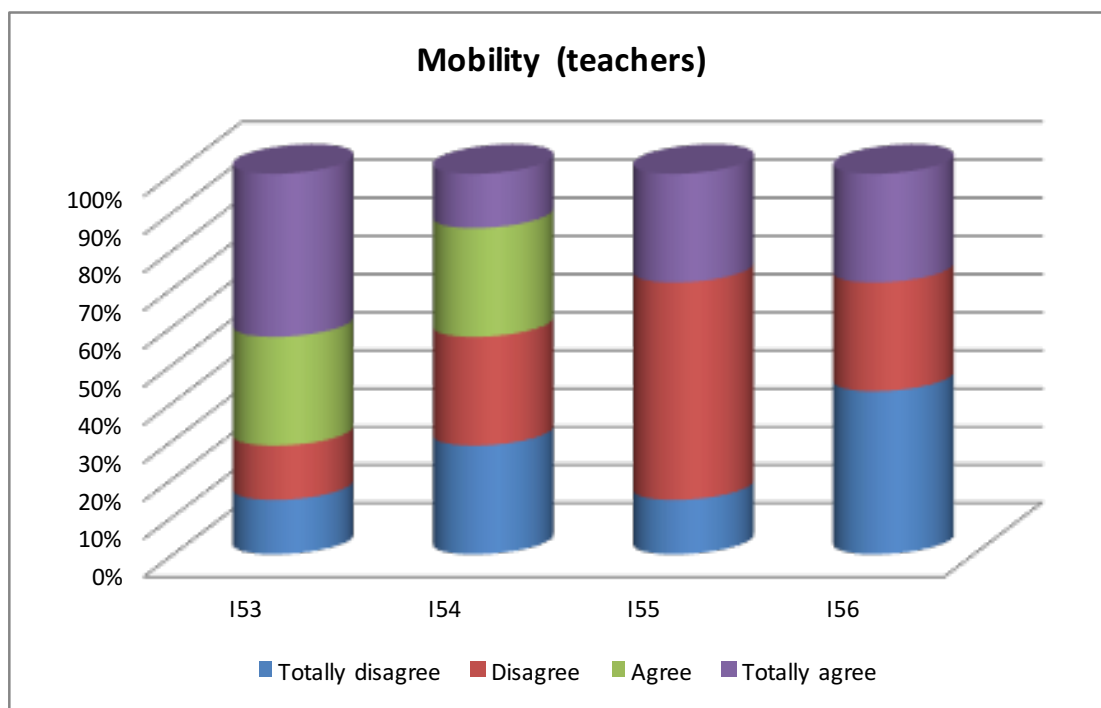


Figure 35. Block 6. Teacher questionnaire.

To complete our evaluation of this cohort, the items in the seventh and last block are now examined (cf. Figure 36). Questions on *coordination and organisation* within the CLIL scheme have revealed an array of mixed responses on the part of the teachers that depart to some extent from the encouraging findings of Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018). For instance, one third of the teachers surveyed consider that coordinators do not fulfil their functions within the regional Plurilingualism plan, while the rest agree that this is the case (item 58). In this line, another item which particularly polarised teachers' opinions refers to the communication with the CLIL coordinator and other CLIL schools; concretely, half of them agree while the rest hold the opposite opinion (item 60). It should be noted that there was no CLIL coordinator as such in the public school under study, but a Deputy Headteacher instructors can turn to if issues arise. The possibility that some of the teachers see this person as a coordinator while the rest do not may explain the divergent views expressed. In addition, and although the majority of teachers affirm that being part of the CLIL programme is worth their while, some consider the extra effort or workload to be too much (item 57), coinciding with the outcomes of many prior investigations (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009;

Rubio Mostacero, 2009). Despite the fact that the increased workload experienced is clearly an important issue, the most negative item to transpire goes beyond the school gates and concerns the educational authorities: not receiving enough support appears to be a serious issue on behalf of this cohort (item 61). Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador's outcomes (2016) also acknowledged the limited regional administrative support. To finish the overall appraisal of the CLIL programme by teachers on a positive note, the item to unearth the most optimistic responses, item 59, shows that instructors consider they fulfil their functions within the regional Plurilingualism plan.

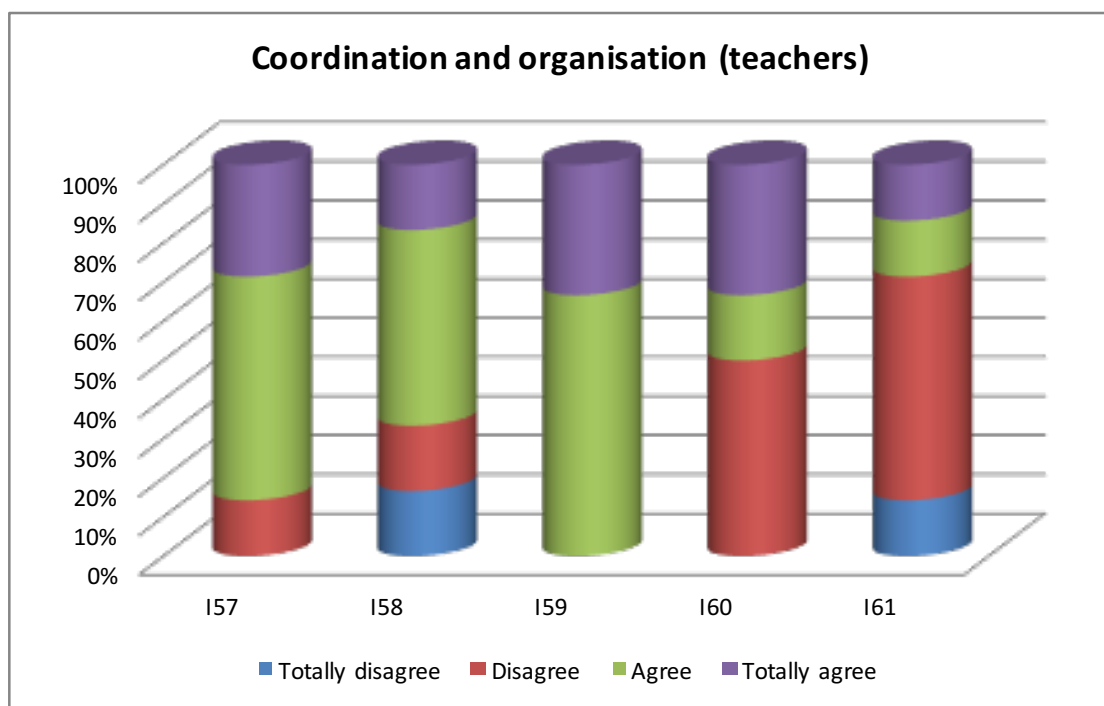


Figure 36. Block 7. Teacher questionnaire.

6.1.1.1.3. Parents

Our focus will now be drawn to the final stakeholder under examination: parents. The bulk of qualitative CLIL research to date has mainly focused on teacher and student perceptions, but there appears to be a need for investigations tapping into the views and attitudes of families (Mehisto & Asser 2007). As discussed in the literature review (heading 3.2.4.6), parents play an important role within the school development of their

children and, for this reason, gauging their judgement on the CLIL scheme was deemed necessary in the context of this dissertation. Relevant data was collected through the 40-item survey described under heading 5.3.4.2, and now the whole picture will be fleshed out according to its seven thematic blocks.

We can commence by saying that the parent cohort displays an overly positive outlook (congruent with that of their children) with respect to the first block: *students' use, competence and development of English in class* (cf. Figure 37). All parents appear to be in agreement that belonging to the CLIL stream has developed their children's competence in the foreign language (item 1), coinciding with the outcomes of prior investigations like that of Lorenzo et al. (2009). Similarly, exclusively positive opinions have been gathered about the increased confidence in languages exhibited by their children (item 6) and their improved comprehension and production skills in English (item 8), something fully in keeping with the results obtained this year by Ráez Padilla (2018). Generalised positivity is also detected on the topic of metalinguistic awareness, as all parents polled point out that their children now have a better understanding of the links between their L1 and the foreign language (item 5).

Families also give the impression that they are satisfied with the content aspect, although this view is less pronounced: they attest to an enhanced content knowledge (item 3) and do not perceive that content learning through English poses an increased challenge for their children (item 4). In a like manner, albeit with minor disagreement, there is a general consensus that the students' receptive and productive oral skills have improved since they attend CLIL lessons (item 7) and that the children have an adequate sociocultural knowledge (item 8). To finish this block, and deviating from what both teachers and students have declared in their questionnaires, the majority of parents consider that CLIL has had a direct effect on the L1 of their children (item 2). This outcome is, however, looked upon as dubious since it contradicts the views expressed by the two main cohorts directly involved in the CLIL programme: students and teachers.

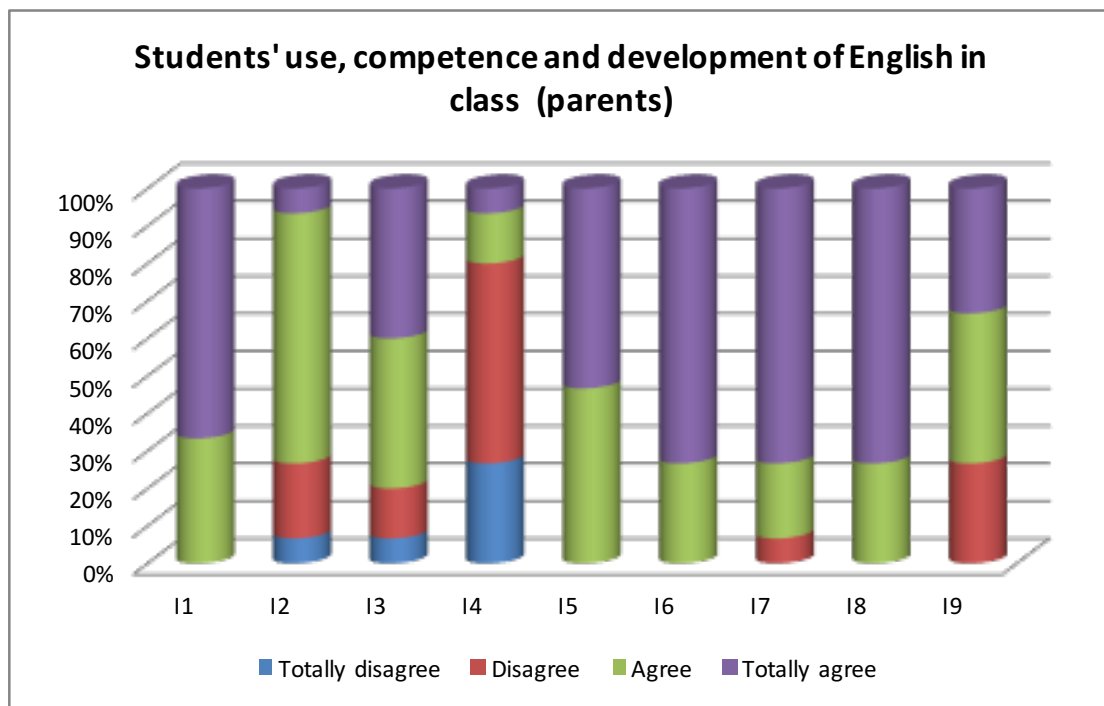


Figure 37. Block 1. Parent questionnaire.

The outcomes of block number two on *methodology* are varied and less optimistic than the ones explained above (cf. Figure 38). A sizeable proportion of parents states they feel unable to help their children with homework, as they are not proficient in the FL (item 12). This issue appears to be this cohort's main cause of stress, a finding which has been documented on several occasions (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2018; Ráez Padilla, 2018). With regards to the methodologies employed, there is a considerable disagreement on whether these are sufficiently innovative and student-centred (item 11), mirroring pupils' views on the matter but departing from recent findings in other regions (Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2016b). Nevertheless, more favourable attitudes are detected in the remaining item of this block: the amount of vocabulary learnt by CLIL students in class (item 10).

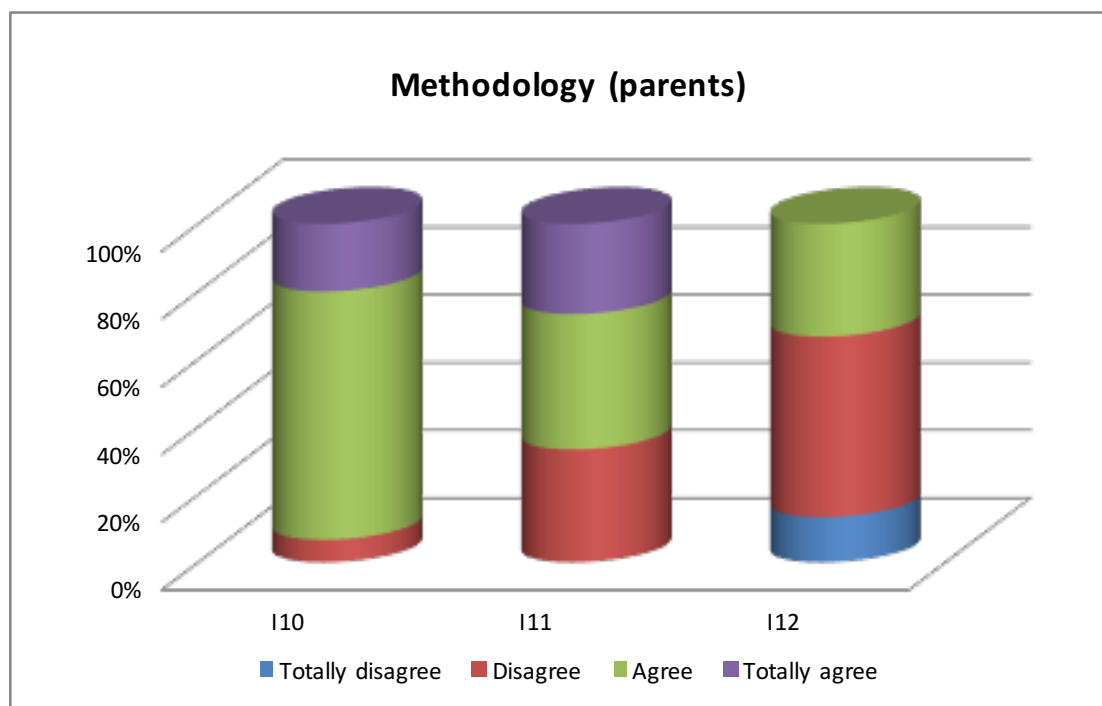


Figure 38. Block 2. Parent questionnaire.

Congruent with the previous block, critical stances reappear on the subject of *materials, resources and ICT* (cf. Figure 39). We have unveiled that, even though their overall opinion is positive, almost a third of parents would not qualify the CLIL resources as interesting and innovative (item 13) or as adapted enough to cater for different types of students (item 15). Even more mixed responses are obtained on their price (item 17) and on whether these materials promote the use of the FL inside and outside the classroom (item 14). Consistent with students' views, an elevated number of parents comment negatively on the use of ICT in the CLIL classroom (item 16), in line with the findings of the latest investigations in Andalusia (Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2016b), which draw attention to the scant employment of certain technological aspects, a problematic area that the new PEDLA programme seeks to improve.

Next, when asked about extramural exposure to English (item 19), two thirds of parents consider it satisfactory and an even more optimistic outlook transpires regarding the students' adequate access to materials in the target language outside school (item 20).

On the downside and standing out as the most negative element is item 18, where 66.7% of parents express their concern for not finding any Spanish instructions in their children's homework that would allow them to help with these tasks at home, an outcome also referred to by Cabezas Cabello (2010), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2015) and lately by Ráez Padilla (2018).

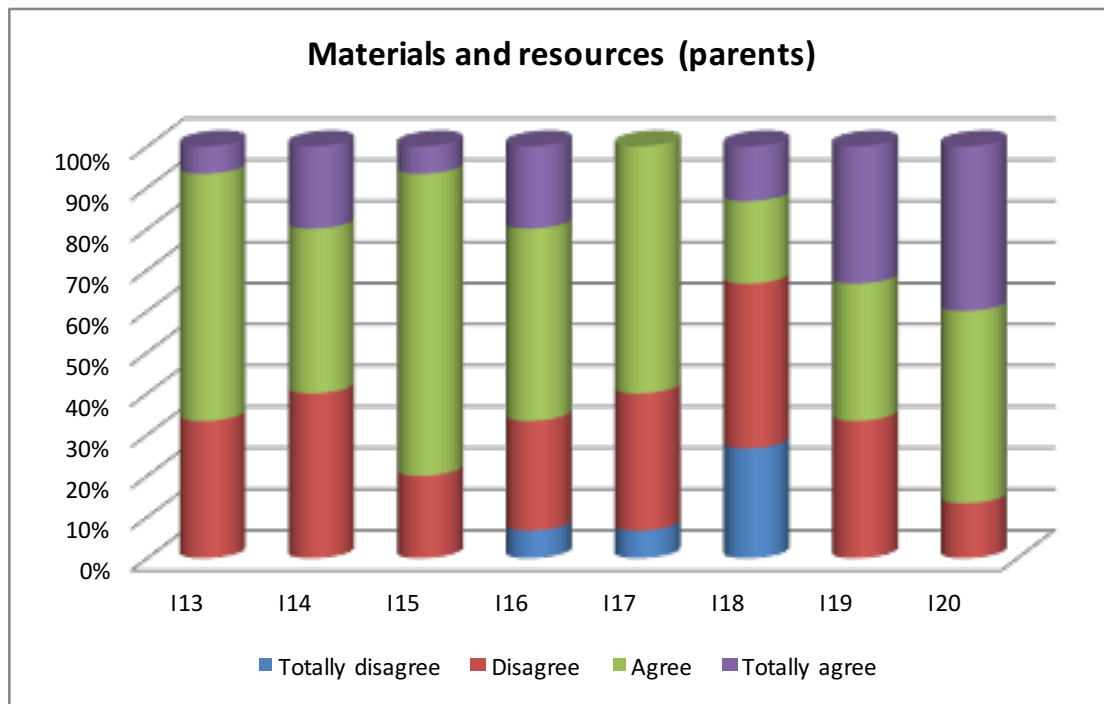


Figure 39. Block 3. Parent questionnaire.

The subsequent block on *evaluation* presents limited harmony between items, revealing heterogeneous results (cf. Figure 40). Exhibiting a complete contrast with teachers' and students' opinions, only half of the parents believe that content is given priority over language in CLIL assessment (item 24), a fact that may point to a need for better information on the programme. Fortunately, the rest of items reveal more encouraging patterns, although not without some modest criticism: overall, parents acknowledge their children are tested periodically (item 22), including orally (item 23), and consider CLIL assessment procedures to be adequate (item 21). As for the students' outcomes,

parents coincide with the other two cohorts when they affirm that these have improved as a consequence of belonging to a CLIL stream, although less markedly so (item 25).

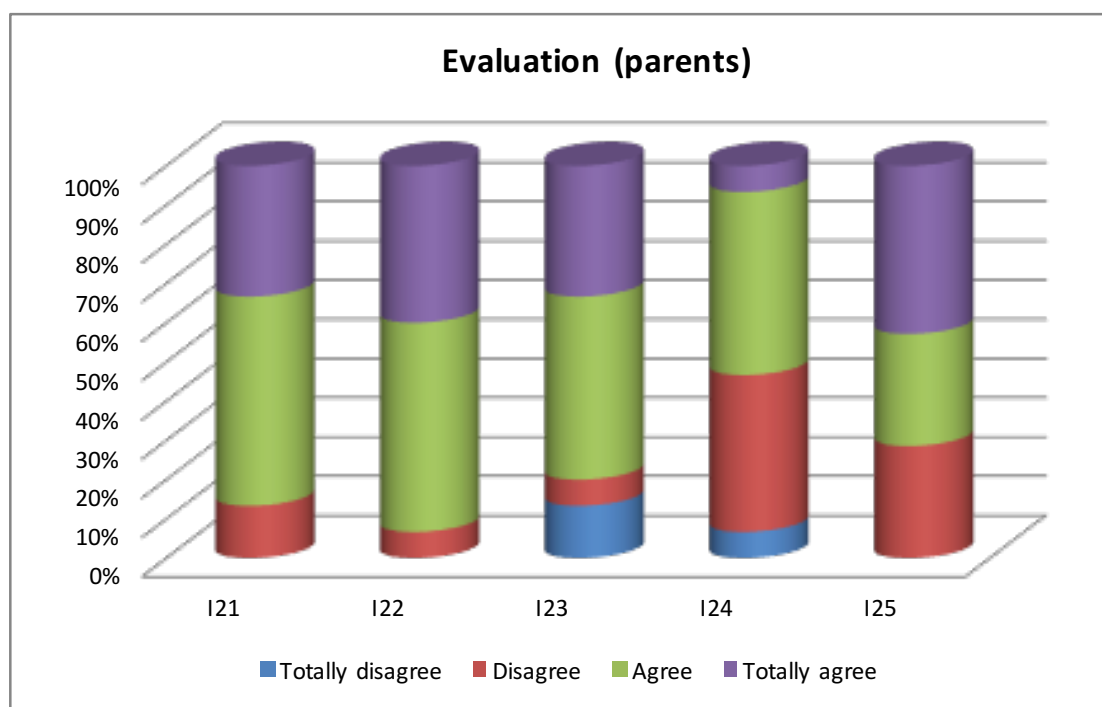


Figure 40. Block 4. Parent questionnaire.

Turning now to the *training and information* block, families have, once again, expressed heterogeneous opinions (cf. Figure 41). On the one hand, when considering the receptive and productive written skills of teachers (item 27) and their sociocultural knowledge (item 28) a chiefly optimistic outlook transpires. In addition, parents appear to be confident in their understanding of the school's implementation of the CLIL programme (item 29). On the other hand, a quarter of the participants are more critical about the oral skills of their children's instructors (item 26), expressing some reservations about their proficiency, although the majority of parents are satisfied in this respect. In this vein, the other main areas pinpointed for improvement in this block are the need for further information on the regional Plurilingual plan (item 30) and the inner workings of CLIL (item 31).

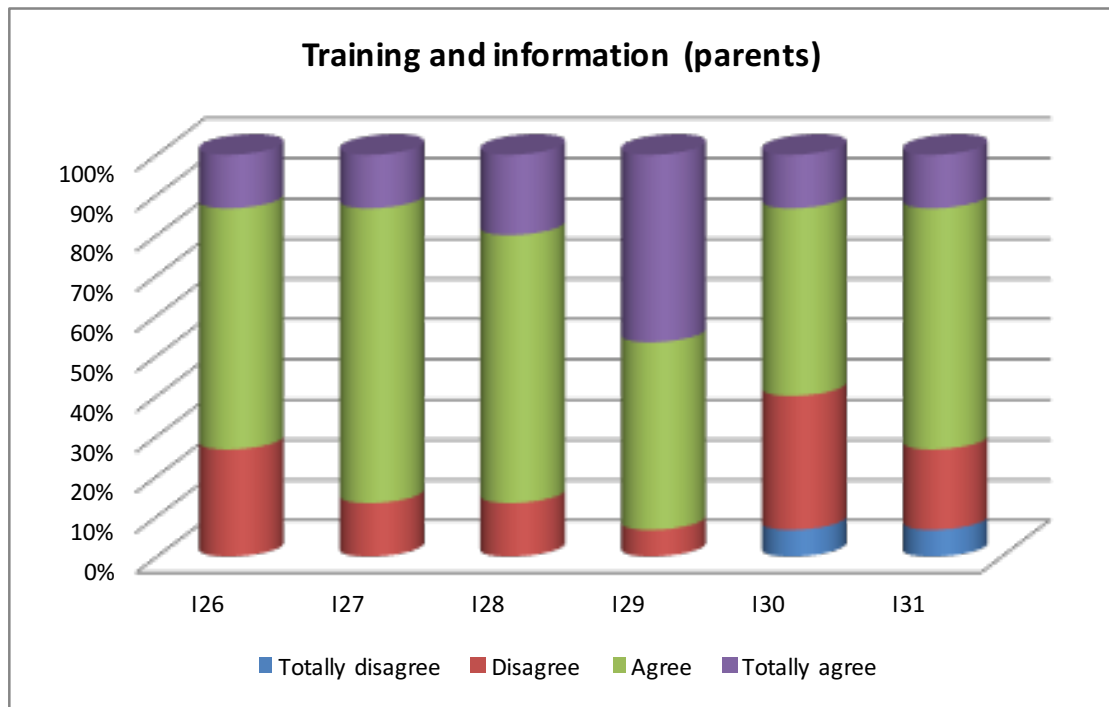


Figure 41. Block 5. Parent questionnaire.

In line with the other two cohorts, parents also comment on *mobility* (cf. Figure 42). Much the same as the other stakeholders, they strongly agree that participation in mobility programmes fosters the children's FL skills (item 33). Moreover, they claim that they normally encourage their children to take advantage of such initiatives (item 34). Most of them, however, affirm their children have not participated in such programmes yet (item 32). Ráez Padilla's (2018) results recently unveiled a similar contrast between the families' theoretical appraisal of the importance of mobility and the actual number of cases in which their offspring took advantage of mobility opportunities, a mismatch which calls for further research.

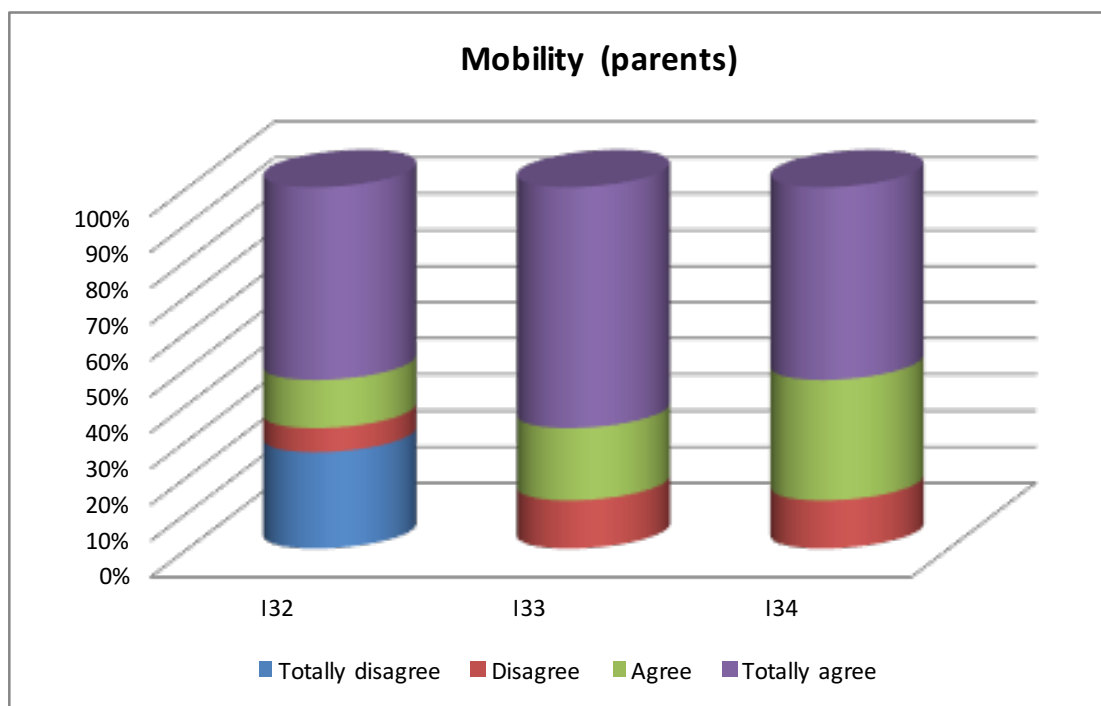


Figure 42. Block 6. Parent questionnaire.

In order to complete our depiction of the parent cohort's sentiments apropos the CLIL scheme, the seventh block on *improvement and motivation towards English learning* will now be examined (cf. Figure 43). From this last block, we are able to extricate valuable conclusions, as it summarises key trends that we have been witnessing throughout the analysis of this cohort. Adhering to the more negative aspects identified, only half of the parents surveyed express heightened personal motivation as a result of their children's CLIL experience (item 37), a finding that could be related to the difficulties reported vis-à-vis helping them (cf. items 12 and 18). Furthermore, nearly 80% of parents affirm they do not contact the CLIL teachers on a regular basis to check on their child's progress (item 39). This is a worrisome outcome since, as we explained under heading 3.2.4.6, fluent communication between the family and the school is key for the short- and long-term success of the CLIL scheme.

On a positive note and fully congruent with the opinions of the previous two stakeholders, parents' general appraisal of the Plurilingual programme in the school is

exclusively optimistic (item 40) and strongly supportive of the initiative, in line with San Isidro and Lasagabaster's (2018) outcomes. Conforming with the views expressed by their offspring, families believe that studying in the CLIL stream is worth the increased workload involved (item 35) and they claim to have witnessed an overall improvement in their children's English level (item 36). As far as they are concerned, the programme under scrutiny has played an important part in increasing their children's motivation for the learning of foreign languages (item 38).

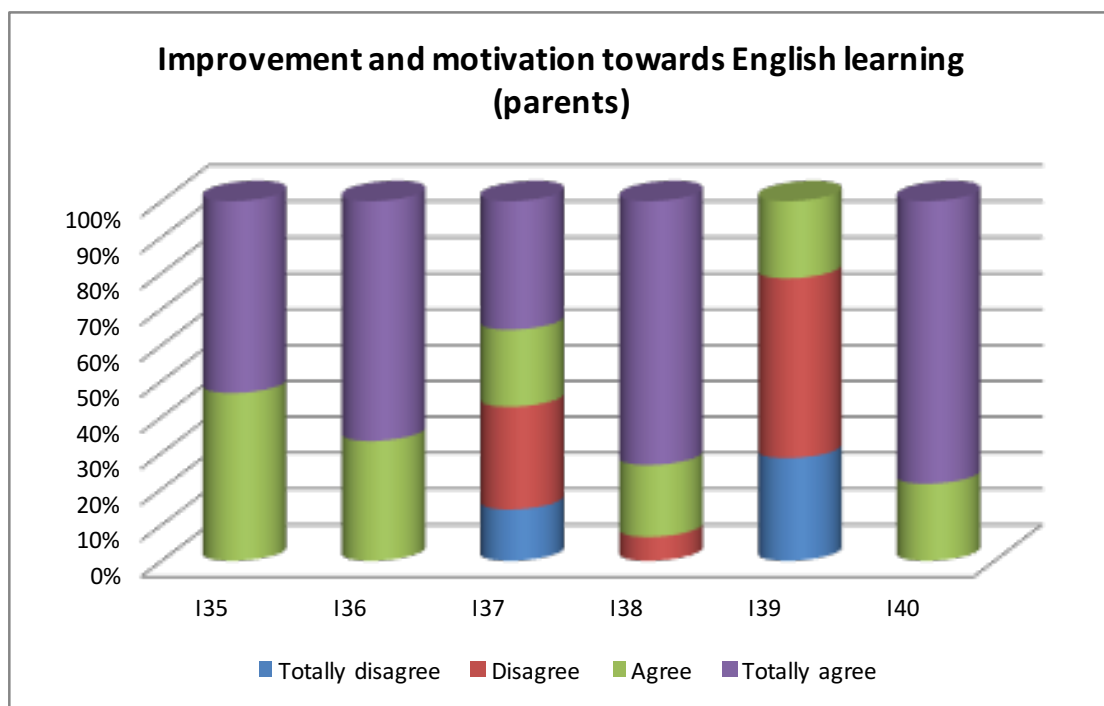


Figure 43. Block 7. Parent questionnaire.

6.1.1.2. Interviews

At this stage, a comprehensive summary of the conclusions drawn from our interviews with the teachers and students will be provided. The reasons behind this data collection and analysis is straightforward: making possible the triangulation-based analysis of the stakeholders' stance on the implementation of the CLIL programme under scrutiny. In

relation to questionnaires, some authors have disputed their validity, and more concretely their representativeness as a statistical tool. In particular, Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) consider that the act of filling in a questionnaire at a particular point in time may not accurately reflect the real perceptions of the participants immersed in the long and complex process of language learning. Thus, factoring in methodological triangulation in this study through the inclusion of interviews was considered paramount to corroborate the questionnaires' findings.

The questions comprised in the student and teacher interviews have been organised into ten thematic blocks corresponding to those in the surveys for the comparability of both instruments. In other words, we seek to corroborate the findings already ascertained by the questionnaires, as well as to compare the overall mindset of the different cohorts. The ten blocks will now be examined separately with reference to each cohort, starting with the largest one: the students (made up of two CLIL class groups D and E), followed by the teacher cohort (parent interviews were not feasible).

Results pertaining to the first block have allowed us to paint a comprehensive picture of the *use of L2 in the CLIL class*. Both student groups D and E agreed that the English level of their teachers was adequate to participate in the programme and, mirroring questionnaire findings, all students affirmed their FL level had improved as a consequence of the scheme. When asked about the percentage of English used in class, most pupils conveyed it was between 70% and 80% for teachers and admitted that students seldom speak in the FL more than 60% of the time. Next, and with regards to content, a huge majority of the students polled appeared to be satisfied with their level. The majority revealed that learning through a foreign language did slow their progress at the beginning but that they eventually caught up with their mainstream peers. This perception concurs with studies that confirm how the positive effects of CLIL on FL attainment can be felt especially in the long run (Pérez Cañado, 2018).

"Al principio de la ESO me costaba esfuerzo entender, pero enseguida te acostumbras"

"Íbamos bastante lentos cuando empezamos y ahora vamos como los no-pluri"

Finally, in relation to their participation in the CLIL class, mixed responses transpired but, overall, pupils agreed that it had improved considerably since the first stages when everybody was embarrassed and found it very difficult to play an active role in the lessons. Students expressed they were feeling more confident now at the end of CSE and that communicating in English generally posed no problems, although the level of participation could be higher.

"En primero nadie quería hablar por vergüenza, aunque supiéramos la respuesta"

"Sí, ahora participamos más, especialmente en los debates... pero no todos... podríamos hablar más, la verdad"

Echoing the students, all the teachers interviewed agreed on the same two aspects: firstly, that their pupils' command of the target language had improved and secondly, that their own English level was adequate for the CLIL programme, at least for the groups they had at that moment. One of the teachers, however, admitted s/he would not be comfortable teaching in English to older, more demanding grades without having more training first. Next, and contrasting with the pupils' more homogeneous views, the question on the language of instruction in the CLIL lessons elicited varied responses on the part of the teachers, who estimated they used the target language between 50% and 100% of the time, being 80% the most frequent answer.

"Sí, mi nivel es adecuado, al menos para primero y segundo. Pero para último curso o ya Bachiller... sé que tendría que reciclarme"

The views put forward by teachers on the remaining two questions are considerably less positive than the students' stances. Approximately half of the instructors stated that CLIL does not particularly improve subject content learning: it either makes no difference or it slows down the process. The rest of teachers have not had this issue and

claimed that learning through English has clearly motivated their students to study more and to obtain better results in the subject.

"Es una metodología más activa que les hace aprender algunos conceptos mejor (puedes incluir canciones y juegos). Memorizan más"

Overall, and partially coinciding with the overarching results from the questionnaires, teachers were happy with student participation, albeit with a degree of scepticism. While they all celebrated that participation had clearly increased in the CLIL streams, some of the instructors interviewed also complained that certain students were still rather quiet or that sometimes they switched to their mother tongue when the activity was not closely monitored.

Next, block 2 of the interviews looked into the *development of the L2 in class in terms of discursive functions*. After analysing this aspect of classroom environment, most students claimed that both interactional and transmissive functions are present and are predominantly carried out in the target language. It transpired that instructors tend to switch to Spanish in two particular situations according to students, namely managing certain challenging behaviours and offering further clarifications when the initial feedback is not understood, in agreement with San Isidro and Lasagabaster's (2018) findings.

"De normal los profes usan inglés para casi todo, a no ser que alguien se porte muy mal"

"Me gusta que cuando lo has hecho bien o te equivocas te lo explican en inglés...aunque si no lo acabas de entender a veces se pasan al castellano. Pero sólo si no hay manera"

According to the responses given in our data, teachers were in total agreement with this statement: clarification of doubts and behaviour management are the most common

reasons behind code-switching. When asked to reflect on discursive functions, both cohorts unequivocally pointed out the emphasis placed on interactional functions during most CLIL lessons. They reported that typically, the beginning of the lesson was characterised by transmissive functions employed to introduce the topic or to give instructions, but that students were given opportunities to communicate as soon as possible.

According to the data collected, the rest of the lesson normally concentrates on asking questions to instigate debate, pair work, corrections or review and consolidation activities, all geared at developing the pupils' communicative skills. Some of the teachers interviewed mentioned the students' attention-span when learning through English, which they found to be considerably shorter than that of EFL groups. This circumstance, they claimed, pushes them to keep transmissive functions in the CLIL stream to the minimum and to place the student at the centre by taking advantage of communicative methodologies that promote interaction as much as possible. Group work, however, needs to be closely monitored to avoid the use of the mother tongue, as one teacher claimed. Finally, on the matter of feedback, most instructors emphasised that content mistakes are always corrected, whereas language problems are more frequently overlooked in their lessons, as opposed to what happens in the typically form-focused EFL classroom.

"Con los pluri no puedes dar largas explicaciones porque su capacidad de atención en inglés es menor. Tienes que plantear la clase de otra manera"

"Hay más interacción. Les hago muchas preguntas para que se cuestionen las cosas, interesarlos y así descubrirlas juntos más que contárselas"

"El trabajo en grupo les gusta y les hace hablar bastante, aunque hay que vigilar que no se pasen al castellano"

Block 3 on the *development of key competences* revealed that both oral and written competences are paid attention to during CLIL lessons; however, not in a balanced way. Departing from what teachers have declared, the student cohort unanimously claimed that reading was less prominent in the course than the other skills.

Both pupils and teachers acknowledged how CLIL fosters communicative interaction, critical thinking and student autonomy and, in a similar vein as what has been certified by the questionnaires, they seem generally content with their metalinguistic knowledge and intercultural awareness. Approximately half of the teachers, however, expressed the difficulties encountered to foster the latter in their specific subject. On a different topic, our attention was particularly drawn to the apparent disagreement between teachers and students on the matter of creativity: while the overwhelming majority of students saw little to no development of this competence, over half of the teachers confirmed that creativity figured prominently on their CLIL agenda. From this apparent contradiction, it could be inferred that pupils and their instructors may have different concepts of creativity. We believe that delving deeper into this issue is vital to understand the reasons underlying it and to bring teacher and student positions closer together.

In the next block, evidence is given of different methodologies and types of groupings in the CLIL subject. Specifically, stakeholders agreed that individual work, pairwork, groupwork and whole-class work are usually implemented in lessons. All the teachers interviewed use task-based methodologies and half of them use projects, although to a lesser extent. These findings were corroborated by the pupils, who, in turn, stressed the focus on lexis in CLIL sessions, tallying with questionnaire results.

"A veces se trabaja en parejas, otras en grupo... de todo"

"Sí, aprendemos mucho vocabulario en clase"

By accounts of the two cohorts involved, single-response questions and open multiple-response ones are normally used in lessons. One third of teachers claimed to favour

activities that imply memorising, understanding and applying information, especially during the first trimester, to ease the students into the new subject. In the second and third trimesters, a greater percentage of tasks seek to promote higher order thinking skills such as analysing, evaluating and creating. Lastly, pupils think that the activities and methodology in the CLIL class are adequate but not particularly innovative, presenting a conflicting point of view to that of most teachers. In this line, some instructors voice their need for further CLIL training, something which accords with Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador's results (2017).

"Sí, hacen actividades que consisten en analizar y crear cosas nuevas, pero esas vienen después. En el primer trimestre explico más, veo el nivel que traen y hay más actividades de comprensión, de aplicar reglas, etc."

"A ver, las actividades y metodología están bien, pero innovadoras...no sé"

"Lo hacemos lo mejor que podemos. Yo agradecería más formación metodológica"

On the downside, and fully concurrent with questionnaire outcomes, negative opinions were once again expressed in the materials and resources block. Both cohorts indicated that the materials employed in the CLIL class are generally adapted by the teacher and that coursebooks are very rarely used. The only type of authentic materials mentioned are short clips or videos and links to websites, mainly for homework. However, other online tools such as wikis, blogs, webquests and computer-mediated communication such as e-Twinning are not normally used during the lessons. Furthermore, students manifest that most classrooms are only equipped with an overhead projector and a PC, used mainly by the teacher, or for Power Point presentations, and that whiteboards are not frequently available. Teachers also complain that they are seldom able to take pupils to the computer room because it is "perpetually" booked. As a result of technological resources being scarce and generally unavailable, ICT use in many CLIL subjects has unfortunately been reduced to a minimum.

Teachers interviewed were especially vocal about the deficit of adequate CLIL materials. It appears that, when found, resources are not adapted to a suitable level and, therefore, long hours need to be spent creating the right material for their groups; a time that is not accounted for in their timetables. This lack of support in the creation of materials constitutes a finding which has been documented on many occasions (Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2016, 2017; Durán-Martínez, Beltrán-Llavador & Martínez-Abad, 2016; Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Infante, Benvenuto & Lastrucci, 2009; Massler, 2012).

"Te reúnes en tus ratos libres con los que dan tu misma asignatura si quieres"

"No, no hay apenas materiales ni tiempo para crearlos. Qué menos que nos den una hora semanal con la carga que llevamos"

Displaying a trend of negativity, teachers declare in the sixth block of our interviews that there is a deficit in *coordination and organisation*. From a student angle, coordination between teachers in the CLIL programme is not evident, but they assume there exists some, especially with TAs in previous years, since there have been no issues. In turn, all teachers confirm there is no CLIL coordinator as such, despite the fact that, at any given point in time, there are eight class groups taking part in the school's CLIL scheme. Nevertheless, this cohort claims that they voluntarily coordinate with EFL instructors and other content teachers and that they feel they can turn to the Deputy Head if they face a problem. A considerable percentage of teachers have articulated the nonexistence of a "CLIL team" with coordination meetings and time allocated for the creation and sharing of CLIL resources and would like such a team to become a reality. In addition, most instructors voice the insufficient support received from the educational authorities in the aforementioned issues and their need for further teacher training specific to CLIL, corroborating Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador's outcomes (2016). Nevertheless, approximately half of the teachers interviewed declare they are satisfied with the level of implication of the school management team in general.

"Se podría mejorar mucho con reuniones de coordinación porque cada asignatura va por su lado"

"Que yo sepa todos hemos hecho algún curso, pero a lo mejor no del todo específico para lo que necesitamos"

Block number seven of the interviews not only backs up what the questionnaires have already furnished about *evaluation* in the CLIL programme, but it also reveals further interesting data. Although all the interviewees make a strong case that content is given priority over the linguistic aspects, no clear-cut answer is provided on percentages. It transpired that there are no unified criteria and, as a result, content and form are given different weights in different subjects and years. According to both cohorts, content percentages constitute between 60% and 90% of the final mark, depending on the subject, while attention paid to form ranges between 10% and 40%.

"Evalúo principalmente el contenido, pero dejo dos puntos para expresión"

"No sé el porcentaje de inglés. Depende del profesor"

They also corroborate that this assessment is generally a written one and takes place in the form of summative and formative evaluation (never self-assessment or peer-assessment) in all the CLIL subjects studied. Finally, it was revealed that only a third of CLIL teachers include an oral component in the assessment process, a surprising finding considering that speaking is the skill they claim to promote the most.

"Tengo en cuenta los apuntes que elaboran, su participación y actitud en clase y los exámenes, pero autoevaluación no hacemos nunca"

"No nos hacen exámenes orales. Bueno, hicimos presentaciones en clase que contaban para la nota final"

Pertaining to *teacher training* and *mobility* and fully commensurate with questionnaire findings, it transpired from all the interviews that teachers are regarded as competent educators. There are, nonetheless, pronounced differences between teachers in terms of general teaching experience and English proficiency, according to the pupils. Although all the CLIL teachers they have had in the past were skilled enough to take part in the programme, students expressed they perceived notable differences in their methodology and English level, probably due to their experience or amount of training received. Moreover, in the face-to-face interviews, teachers adamantly articulate the difficulties they encounter in three main areas: when adapting to the FL level of the students, when trying to transmit content in the target language, and in the creation of effective resources. Thus, the lack of adequate, sufficient and CLIL-specific teacher training reappears as one of the most negative features of the programme under analysis.

In harmony with survey outcomes, interview questions apropos *mobility* evinced this is still an outstanding issue. Over half of the students disclosed they had never taken part in any exchange programme, despite being aware of the benefits of such initiatives. Contrastingly, most teachers reported to have had some sort of language or methodological training in the past either in the country or, to a lesser extent, abroad. The main concern expressed by this cohort is that those courses were either rare or too short and very seldom directly related to CLIL. Teachers who attended the few CLIL-specific courses mentioned complained that these were too theoretical and general to help them in their day-to-day teaching. In other words, there is a plea for subject-specific CLIL courses with concrete proposals for the classroom that include practical methodological advice and the creation of resources or adaptation of materials. In their recent investigation, authors like Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) have also confirmed that, despite the increasing availability of teacher training possibilities, many still fail to cater for the CLIL teachers' needs.

"Aunque en mi caso ya hace tiempo de aquello, he hecho varios cursos de pedagogía y de idioma"

"Fui a uno sobre AICLE pero era muy teórico y me quedé prácticamente igual. ¿Cómo aplico yo eso luego en el aula?"

Without exception, every participant we spoke to documented the increased workload of all those involved in the CLIL scheme. While with pupils there was a general consensus that this effort was worth their while, modest negativity reappeared on the teacher front. Although we can confirm that instructors harboured a positive mind-set in general, some admitted that the greater workload affected their motivation, especially at the beginning, a recurrent outcome reported in the literature (Lancaster 2015).

We are brought to our final but equally important block: *overall assessment*. Responses comparable with questionnaire results emerged, especially in the case of the student cohort, who expressed an overly optimistic outlook. The pupils interviewed recalled that when they started with the CLIL programme four years before, some of them felt uneasy about learning content in a foreign language or using English to participate in class. Students claimed that, as time went on, they realised the benefits that the scheme was bringing to their L2 proficiency and now, at the end of the secondary stage, an overwhelming majority stated that it was worth the extra effort. The general sentiment was that teachers had higher expectations for plurilingual groups and, therefore learners, started demanding more of themselves. Pupils agreed that, in the four years they had been learning through CLIL, they had noticed an overall increase in motivation, focus, and results not only in these subjects but in general.

In turn, the teacher cohort also expressed positive sentiments apropos the CLIL programme, although this view was less pronounced. Concentrating on the negative aspects put forward, we are not surprised to discover that, in their overall assessment, most teachers criticised once more the lack of adequate ICT resources, including computer rooms and whiteboards. There was a plea for better organisation and specific time allocation in their schedule for coordination meetings and the creation of CLIL materials in accordance with a trend manifested in relevant prior research (Durán-

Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2005, 2017; Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Infante, Benvenuto & Lastrucci, 2009; Massler, 2012, Pérez Cañado, 2014, 2016d).

On one hand, increased workload was mentioned as a drawback of the programme but the most negative item to transpire was, once again, that teachers are in dire need of better CLIL-specific training. On the other hand, teachers also identified the main strengths of the scheme that make their efforts worthwhile, namely, student motivation, good behaviour, development of communicative skills and the opportunity to step up their game as instructors.

"Sí, te interesas más por el inglés"

"Merece la pena, aunque es bastante más trabajo que con los otros grupos"

After analysing student and teacher interviews, we can confirm that practically the entirety of data gathered support the questionnaire findings detailed in the previous sections. Our overall results regarding the participants' attitudes coincide with the outcomes of prior investigations, particularly with Pladevall-Ballester's study (2015) in Catalonia (cf. 4.2.1.2), which analysed stakeholders' perceptions on CLIL implementation at primary level through opinion-based questionnaires and interviews. Our results show that most students are satisfied with the experience in general terms, while parents' perceptions are not as realistic in the sense that they are too enthusiastic. As was the case with Pladevall-Ballester's (2015) participants, our teachers' viewpoints are the most realistic of all stakeholders, since they combined general satisfaction with an acknowledgement of their frustrations, mainly concerning excessive workload and lack of adequate support.

6.1.2. Specific results: Across- and within-cohort comparison

In order to carry out a within-cohort comparison, the perceptions of the CLIL students regarding CLIL have been compared in terms of the identification variables outlined in our design section with a view to answering **RQ3**. Our statistical analyses have revealed that the intervening variables *gender* and *group* yielded significant differences in most of the blocks. However, the variables of sociocultural status, age and time of exposure outside of school have displayed little divergence and, for the purposes of this study, do not need further examination.

Vis-à-vis gender, our statistical analysis has revealed significant differences in three items of the student questionnaire. More concretely, in block 1 (*students' use, competence and development of English in class*), females show greater agreement than males on whether key competences are developed in the CLIL class (item 1). With regards to the block on *evaluation* (block 4) more males than females consider that content is assessed over form in the CLIL programme (item 31). Finally, male students appear once again to have a more positive stance than their female counterparts in the area of *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* (block 5). Particularly, item 41 shows that a higher percentage of males agreed or totally agreed that their CLIL teachers had an adequate level of receptive and productive oral skills in the target language (cf. Table 8).

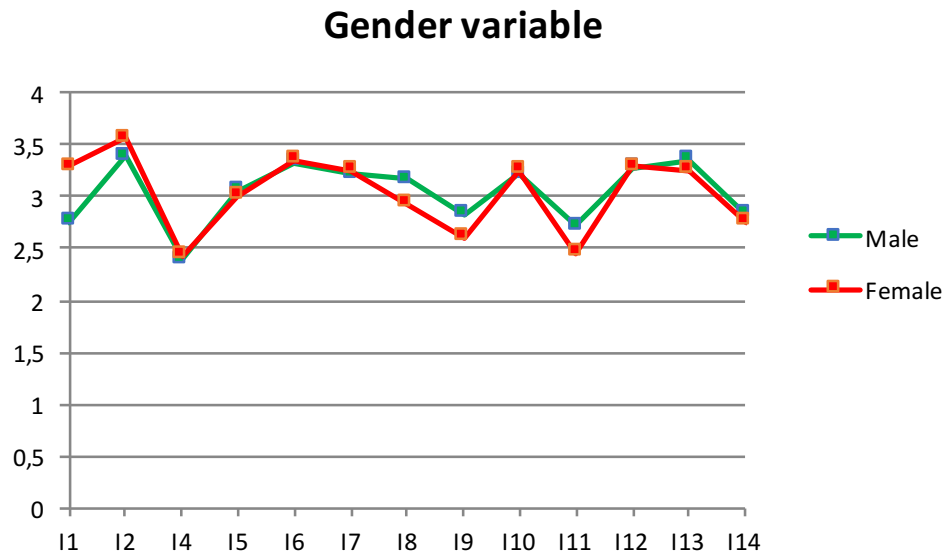


Figure 44. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender variable I

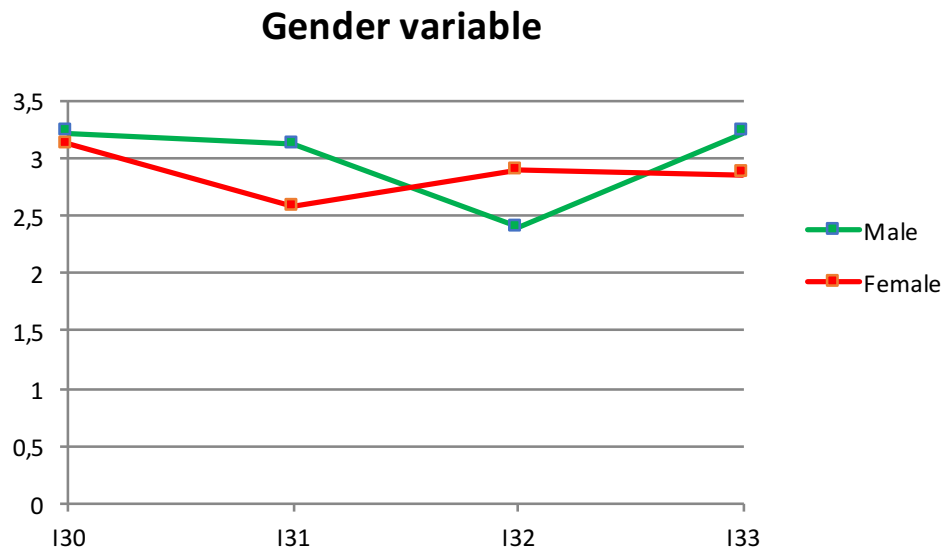


Figure 45. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender variable II

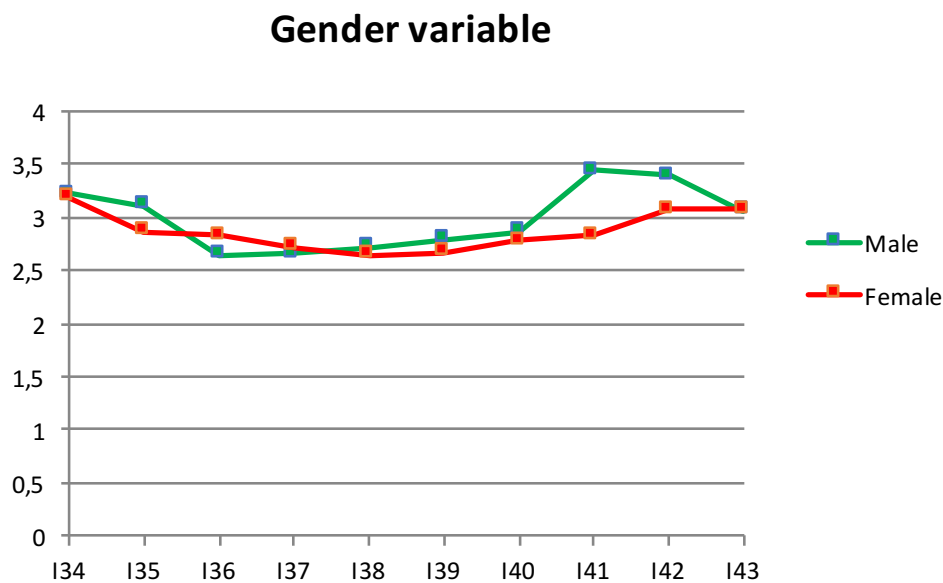


Figure 46. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender variable III

Taking the variable of group into consideration, nine items have yielded statistical differences worthy of mention. In block number two on *methodology*, class D claims to have developed projects (item16) and to have worked collaboratively in groups (item 18) more than class E. Block three on *materials and resources* is the part of the student questionnaire that has yielded the most divergent outcomes. Group E witnesses more collaboration among CLIL teachers in the design of resources (item 22) and a minority claims to have experienced computer-mediated communication (item 29). However, class D is the one to have worked with more adapted materials (item 24), and used software (item 25), Web 2.0 and interactive resources (item 27 and 28) more frequently. Finally, item 38 in the block *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* (block 5) reveals a very interesting difference between the two classes: students in group D give higher ratings to their CLIL teachers' ability to motivate them (cf. Tables 47, 48 and 49).

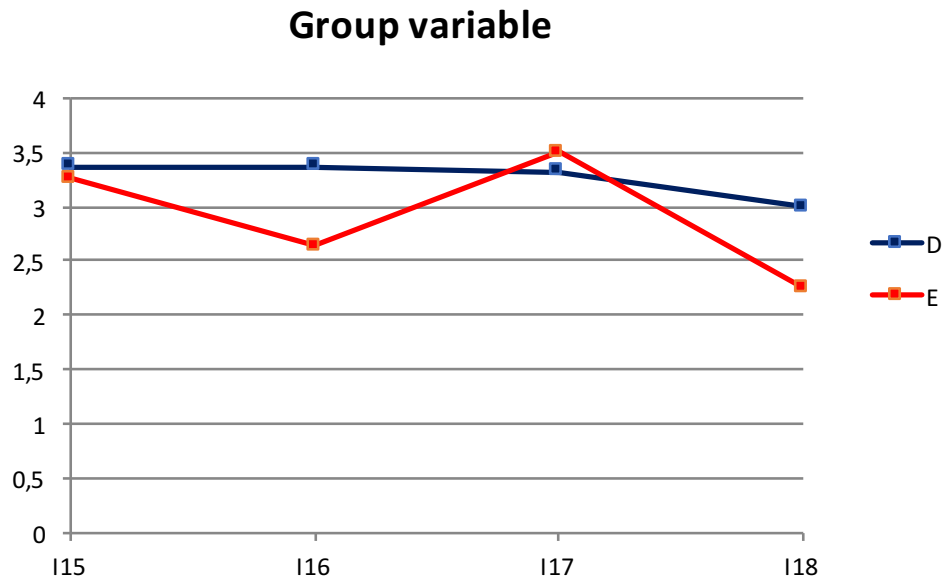


Figure 47. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Group variable I

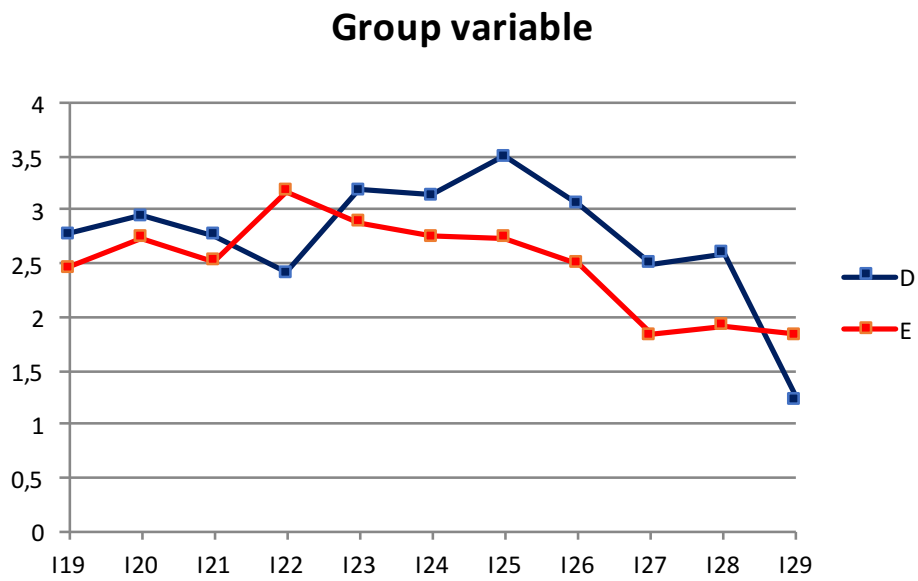


Figure 48. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Group variable II

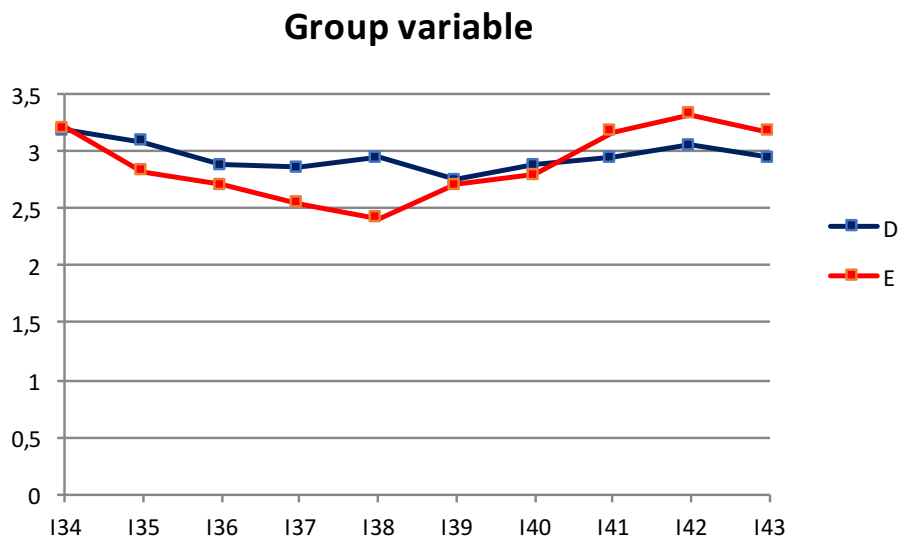


Figure 49. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Group variable III

Next, the statistically significant differences that have been unveiled among teachers, students and parents through our across-cohort comparison will be presented, in answer to **RQ3** on stakeholders' views. We must first of all call attention to the fact that our sample is limited and, as a result, has generated very few statistically significant differences. What follows is a table that summarises how the items in the three questionnaires have been matched to allow for a comprehensive comparison of the cohorts (cf. Table 8).

| Students | Teachers | Parents |
|----------|----------|---------|
| 2 | 2 | 1 |
| 4 | 4 | 2 |
| 5 | 5 | 3 |
| 7 | 7 | 5 |
| 8 | 8 | 6 |
| 12 | 12 | 7 |
| 13 | 13 | 8 |
| 14 | 14 | 9 |
| 21 | 24 | 13 |
| 24 | 27 | 15 |
| 32 | 36 | 23 |
| 31 | 35 | 24 |
| 41 | 46 | 26 |
| 42 | 47 | 27 |
| 43 | 48 | 28 |
| 47 | 57 | 35 |

Table 9. Stakeholder perspectives: Across-cohort comparison. Matched items

The t-test has enabled us to detect how many differences exist among cohorts and for which items the aforementioned differences are manifest (cf. Table 15). After an in-depth statistical inquiry, significant differences worthy of mention have only been detected for three of the items examined, all of them belonging to the first block of the questionnaires: *students' use, competence and development of English in class*. Item number 8 in the student survey and its corresponding items in the teacher and parent questionnaires have revealed that, although all stakeholders agree to some degree that the students' self-confidence has improved in the CLIL scheme, parents are the only ones to affirm so without any reservations. The other two items yielding interesting differences focus on the students' FL proficiency. When asked whether the students had an adequate level of oral skills (item 12) and written abilities (item 13), parents and teachers held opposing views: virtually half of the teachers reacted negatively to the items while positivity was detected almost across the board on the parent side (cf. Table 9). All in all, it is safe to affirm that parents tend to express more positive opinions in comparison of those more directly involved in the CLIL experience -their children and the instructors-, a result that mirrors Pladevall-Ballester's (2015) findings.

| Item | Cohort | Mean | Std. deviation | p_value |
|---------|----------|------|----------------|---------|
| item 8 | students | 3.02 | .745 | 0.002 |
| | teachers | 3.00 | .577 | |
| | parents | 3.73 | .458 | |
| item 12 | students | 3.28 | .621 | 0.001 |
| | teachers | 2.43 | .787 | |
| | parents | 3.67 | .617 | |
| item 13 | students | 3.29 | .589 | <0.001 |
| | teachers | 2.43 | .787 | |
| | parents | 3.73 | .458 | |

Table 10. Stakeholder perspectives: Across-cohort differences

6.2 Quantitative results

We turn now to a discussion of the quantitative results, which have been divided into three sections attending to our second, third and fourth metaconcerns and the research questions that structure them. Subsection 6.2.1 reports on the effects of CLIL on foreign language skills by analysing the English tests sat by the students during the post-test and delayed post-test phases (**RQ4, RQ5, RQ6 and RQ7**). Next, the impact of the CLIL programme on Spanish competence, Valencian competence, and content taught through English is examined under subheading 6.2.2 with a view to answering research questions eight to eleven. Lastly, and attending to **RQ12**, we offer an appraisal of the competence differential found between experimental and control groups via successive discriminant analyses in order to ascertain whether the aforementioned differences are truly ascribable to CLIL (cf. 6.2.3). In the following pages, we will proceed to examine the FL level attained by CLIL and non-CLIL groups with a special focus on the writing skill, the effects of the various

intervening variables on the FL proficiency of the students, and, finally, the durability or medium-term effects of CLIL and EFL programmes on FL competence.

6.2.1. Effects of CLIL on foreign language skills

6.2.1.1 Linguistic competence: Cohort comparison

The students' performance on different linguistic aspects was evaluated, concretely, their use of English or grammar, listening, reading and vocabulary. With regards to the productive skills, five different subaspects were assessed in both the speaking (grammar, vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation and task) and the writing tests (communication, task, organization, lexis-grammar, mechanics). Lastly, the study of pupils' written production was complemented with a Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency analysis (CAF) of the students' output.

An initial overall comparison evinced statistically significant differences ($p\text{-value} \leq 0.05$) in favour of the experimental group at high confidence levels on most of the linguistic aspects sampled (the $p\text{-value}$ was especially low for vocabulary 0.001 and reading 0.005). Differences between the CLIL and control group are particularly marked for use of English, vocabulary and reading, with fairly large effect sizes ($d = -0.604$, -0.809 and -0.7357 , respectively). It should be highlighted that the CLIL group was significantly superior in speaking, concretely with regards to fluency and adequacy to the task, in line with studies like Madrid and Barrios' (2018), Nieto Moreno de Diezmas' (2016) or Ruiz de Zarobe's (2008). In agreement with Roquet and Pérez-Vidal's (2015) outcomes, no statistically significant differences were discerned for the writing skill, although CLIL students slightly outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts: the means were 6.72 and 6.22, respectively (cf. Table 11).

| Skills | Cohort | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|------------------------|----------|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Use of English | Non-CLIL | 24,95 | 9,22 | -0,604 | 0.022 |
| | CLIL | 30,08 | 7,25 | | |
| Vocabulary | Non-CLIL | 8,89 | 3,96 | -0,809 | 0.001 |
| | CLIL | 11,68 | 2,43 | | |
| Listening | Non-CLIL | 4,37 | 1,72 | -0,383 | 0.142 |
| | CLIL | 4,96 | 1,24 | | |
| Reading | Non-CLIL | 3,39 | 1,52 | -0,757 | 0.005 |
| | CLIL | 4,48 | 1,29 | | |
| Grammar Speaking | Non-CLIL | 1,26 | 0,53 | -0,403 | 0.251 |
| | CLIL | 1,45 | 0,28 | | |
| Vocabulary Speaking | Non-CLIL | 1,18 | 0,43 | -0,568 | 0.166 |
| | CLIL | 1,40 | 0,32 | | |
| Fluency Speaking | Non-CLIL | 1,09 | 0,44 | -1,015 | 0.017 |
| | CLIL | 1,50 | 0,33 | | |
| Pronunciation Speaking | Non-CLIL | 1,09 | 0,51 | -0,696 | 0.093 |
| | CLIL | 1,40 | 0,32 | | |
| Task Speaking | Non-CLIL | 1,15 | 0,49 | -0,994 | 0.005 |
| | CLIL | 1,55 | 0,16 | | |
| Total Speaking | Non-CLIL | 5,76 | 2,24 | -0,802 | 0.026 |
| | CLIL | 7,30 | 1,11 | | |
| Task Writing | Non-CLIL | 1,44 | 0,61 | -0,364 | 0.191 |
| | CLIL | 1,64 | 0,45 | | |
| Communication Writing | Non-CLIL | 1,35 | 0,53 | 0,063 | 0.821 |
| | CLIL | 1,32 | 0,48 | | |
| Organisation Writing | Non-CLIL | 1,13 | 0,49 | -0,243 | 0.386 |
| | CLIL | 1,24 | 0,41 | | |
| Lexis/Grammar Writing | Non-CLIL | 1,17 | 0,50 | 0,051 | 0.855 |
| | CLIL | 1,14 | 0,55 | | |
| Mechanics Writing | Non-CLIL | 1,13 | 0,51 | -0,466 | 0.099 |
| | CLIL | 1,38 | 0,56 | | |
| Total Writing | Non-CLIL | 6,22 | 2,31 | -0,226 | 0.419 |
| | CLIL | 6,72 | 2,08 | | |

Table 11. Foreign language competence: Post-test cohort comparison

Considering now our first research question (**RQ4**), which inquired about the possible superior linguistic competence of students following CLIL programmes, our general outcomes appear to confirm this is the case. As can be observed in Figure 50, when

compared with other 4th year of CSE pupils in traditional EFL programmes (control group), the CLIL cohort outperformed the non-CLIL stream in all the skills and aspects sampled, although statistical confirmation could not be obtained for listening and writing. Overall, these findings tally with the majority of prior studies summarized in the literature review: from early landmark studies such as Admiraal, Westhoff and de Bot's (2006) in The Netherlands to very recent ones like Pérez Cañado's (2018a) in our country, that also showed the positive effects of CLIL on general foreign language proficiency.

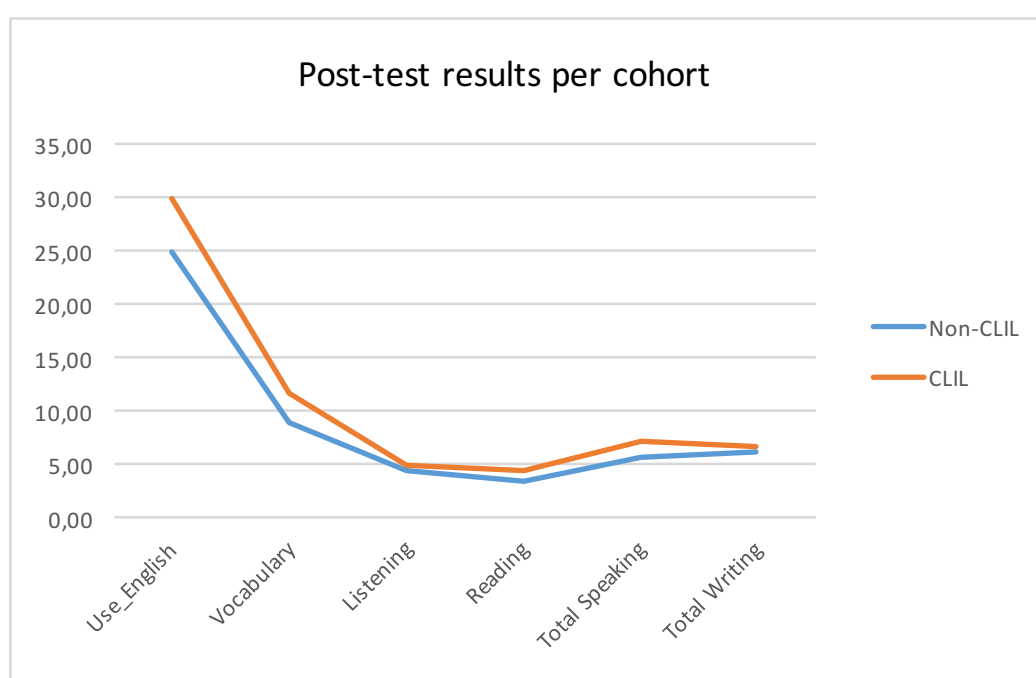


Figure 50. Foreign language competence: Post-test cohort comparison

A more in-depth study of the writing test results was deemed appropriate and therefore we performed the detailed Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency (CAF) analysis using the tools described under heading 5.3.4.3 in order to delve deeper into specific aspects of written production. Our first overall CAF comparison between CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts did not generate statistically significant differences between the two (cf. Table 12). Very close means were identified, resulting in no differences on any of the complexity, accuracy and fluency subspects under scrutiny. These findings tally with

Roquet and Pérez-Vidal's (2015) results and corroborate that, overall, our CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts have similar writing abilities, in line with the outcomes illustrated in Table 11 and Figure 50 above.

| CAF Measures | Cohort | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's D | p value |
|-------------------------------|----------|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| FM Words or tokens | Non-CLIL | 85,93 | 31,62 | -0,116 | 0.678 |
| | CLIL | 89,52 | 30,27 | | |
| FM T-Units | Non-CLIL | 10,15 | 4,02 | -0,093 | 0.739 |
| | CLIL | 10,52 | 3,97 | | |
| Error-Free T-Units | Non-CLIL | 5,63 | 3,79 | -0,083 | 0.767 |
| | CLIL | 5,96 | 4,19 | | |
| AM Sentences | Non-CLIL | 6,59 | 3,51 | -0,205 | 0.464 |
| | CLIL | 7,32 | 3,59 | | |
| AM Error-Free T-Units/S Ratio | Non-CLIL | 0,85 | 0,43 | 0,206 | 0.462 |
| | CLIL | 0,77 | 0,38 | | |
| AM Errors | Non-CLIL | 8,59 | 4,62 | 0,023 | 0.935 |
| | CLIL | 8,48 | 5,24 | | |
| AM Errors/word Ratio | Non-CLIL | 0,12 | 0,08 | 0,258 | 0.357 |
| | CLIL | 0,10 | 0,05 | | |
| GMC length of T-Unit Ratio | Non-CLIL | 8,64 | 1,39 | -0,158 | 0.571 |
| | CLIL | 9,00 | 2,88 | | |
| GMC Clauses | Non-CLIL | 14,44 | 5,81 | -0,236 | 0.400 |
| | CLIL | 15,80 | 5,68 | | |
| GMC Clauses/T-Unit Ratio | Non-CLIL | 1,43 | 0,35 | -0,305 | 0.277 |
| | CLIL | 1,55 | 0,38 | | |
| LCM Types | Non-CLIL | 59,00 | 18,44 | -0,051 | 0.855 |
| | CLIL | 59,92 | 17,61 | | |
| LCM Type/token Ratio | Non-CLIL | 0,70 | 0,07 | 0,214 | 0.445 |
| | CLIL | 0,69 | 0,08 | | |
| LCM D Value | Non-CLIL | 81,61 | 27,89 | 0,330 | 0.255 |
| | CLIL | 73,12 | 23,33 | | |

Table 12. Foreign language competence: CAF Analysis per cohort. (FM: fluency measures, AM: accuracy measures, GCM: grammar complexity measures, LCM: lexical complexity measures)

6.2.1.2. Differential effect of intervening variables on FL competence.

6.2.1.2.1 Type of school

In order to address the first part of **RQ5** on the differential effect exerted on students' FL competence by the intervening variable of *type of school*, we have fleshed out the data in terms of public and semi-private school types. We thus seek to be able to further understand the effects of the CLIL and EFL programmes on English proficiency.

The ANOVA used to analyse our data verified the existence of statistically significant differences between the groups in the majority of aspects under scrutiny, albeit with medium to low effect sizes (e.g. task speaking $d= 0.475$, listening $d= 0.339$), as shown in Table 13 below. These divergent results were further examined with the aid of the Bonferroni post hoc test, which allowed us to compare the three different classes (public CLIL, public non-CLIL and semi-private non-CLIL) in pairs.

| Skills | Group | Mean | Standard Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|----------------|-----------------------|-------|--------------------|-------------|---------|
| Use of English | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 28.67 | 8.34 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 30.08 | 7.25 | 0.270 | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 18.57 | 7.05 | | |
| Vocabulary | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 10.46 | 4.02 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 11.68 | 2.43 | 0.329 | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 6.21 | 1.97 | | |
| Listening | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 5.21 | 1.25 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 4.96 | 1.24 | 0.339 | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 2.93 | 1.44 | | |
| Reading | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 4.04 | 1.33 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 4.48 | 1.29 | 0.315 | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 2.29 | 1.14 | | |

| | | | | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|------|------|-------|--------|
| Grammar Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.46 | 0.50 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.45 | 0.28 | 0.317 | 0.010 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.80 | 0.27 | | |
| Vocab Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.29 | 0.45 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.40 | 0.32 | 0.205 | 0.064 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.90 | 0.22 | | |
| Fluency Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.21 | 0.45 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.50 | 0.33 | 0.319 | 0.010 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.80 | 0.27 | | |
| Pronunciation Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.29 | 0.45 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.40 | 0.32 | 0.409 | 0.002 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.60 | 0.22 | | |
| Task Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.33 | 0.44 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.55 | 0.16 | 0.475 | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.70 | 0.27 | | |
| Total Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 6.58 | 2.11 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 7.30 | 1.11 | 0.396 | 0.002 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 3.80 | 1.04 | | |
| Task Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.56 | 0.54 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.64 | 0.45 | 0.235 | 0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.50 | 0.00 | | |
| Communication Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.44 | 0.50 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.32 | 0.48 | 0.124 | 0.039 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.67 | 0.29 | | |
| Organisation Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.19 | 0.48 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.24 | 0.41 | 0.084 | 0.117 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.67 | 0.29 | | |
| Lexis/Grammar Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.23 | 0.49 | 0.062 | 0.209 |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|------|------|-------|-------|
| | Public CLIL | 1.14 | 0.55 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.67 | 0.29 | | |
| Mechanics Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1.17 | 0.52 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1.38 | 0.56 | 0.073 | 0.157 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.83 | 0.29 | | |
| Total Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 6.58 | 2.18 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 6.72 | 2.08 | 0.128 | 0.035 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 3.33 | 0.76 | | |

Table 13. Foreign language competence: Type of school variable. ANOVA

When the public CLIL and public non-CLIL groups were compared, the former outstripped the latter across the board with p-values as low as <0.001 , thus confirming its superiority (cf. Table 14). With the exception of one subspect of the writing test (communication $p=0.091$), the CLIL group performed significantly better in all skills sampled at extremely high confidence levels. Our outcomes are largely congruent with many studies that prove the positive impact of CLIL on additional language learning such as those by Ackerl (2007), Alonso et al. (2008), Gallardo del Puerto et al. (2009); Lasagabaster (2008, 2009) or Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) and San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2018), among others.

Next, when the public non-CLIL group was compared with the semi-private one, similar results emerged, this time in favour of the semi-private school. Public non-CLIL students obtained significantly lower scores on each of the abilities tested, with the exception of the fluency subspect of the speaking skill, where the differences did not reach statistical significance (cf. Table 14). Since the homogeneity of all three groups in terms of motivation and verbal intelligence was statistically corroborated in our initial phase, these results lead us to believe that there are strong intervening variables involved that need to be analysed in detail.

Finally, results pertaining to the public CLIL and semi-private EFL groups were compared. It was found that learners performed equally well irrespective of their type of school and programme, and no significant statistical differences transpired between the two groups in this case (cf. Table 14). It should be underlined that the CLIL students obtained slightly higher marks in the majority of skills sampled except listening, something which accords with a study by Pérez Cañado (2018a) which found no significant differences between public CLIL and semi-private mainstream strands in this skill. Regarding our investigation, the following graph shows in detail how very close the CLIL and semi-private non-CLIL groups were in their results in the FL tests (cf. Figure 51, Table 14) while the non-CLIL public students appear to lag behind, a tendency also confirmed by prior investigations (Madrid & Hughes, 2011; Madrid & Barrios, 2018).

| Skills | Group | Semi-private non-CLIL | Public CLIL | Public non-CLIL |
|------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Use of English | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | 0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Vocabulary | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.505 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Listening | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Reading | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.705 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.705 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Grammar Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | 0.014 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | 0.019 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.014 | 0.019 | |

| | | CLIL | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|-------|--------|--------|
| Fluency Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.265 | 0.171 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.265 | | 0.008 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.171 | 0.008 | |
| Pronun Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | 0.006 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | 0.002 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.006 | 0.002 | |
| Task Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.432 | 0.005 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.005 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.432 | <0.001 | |
| Total Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.950 | 0.012 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.950 | | 0.002 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.012 | 0.002 | |
| Task Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | 0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | 0.002 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.001 | 0.002 | |
| Communic Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | 0.035 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | 0.091 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.035 | 0.091 | |
| Total Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | 0.043 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | 0.032 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.043 | 0.032 | |

Table 14. Foreign language competence: Type of school variable. Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons

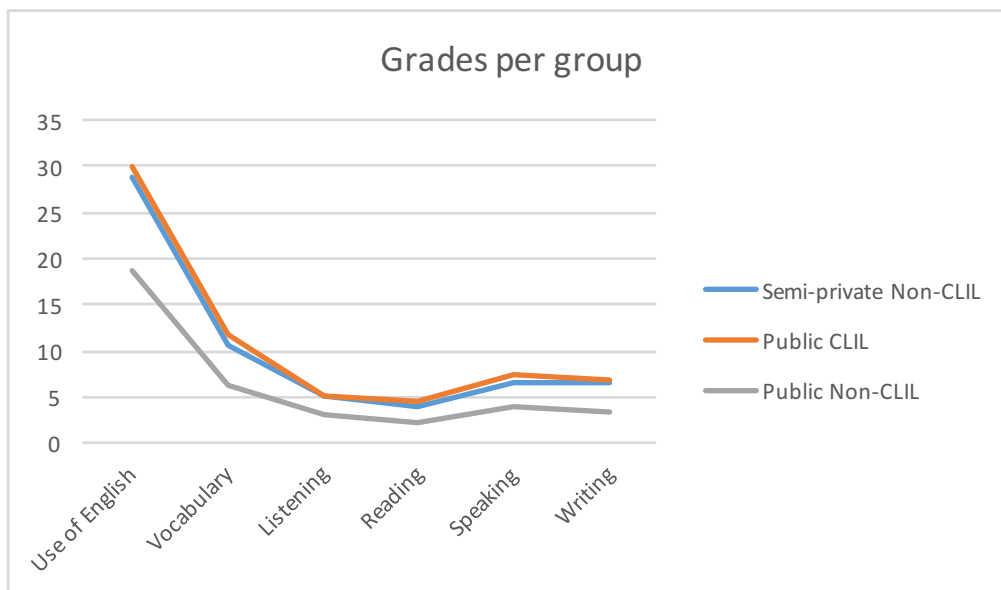


Figure 51. Foreign language competence per group

We then decided to undertake a CAF analysis of the students' performance taking the type of school variable into account, which yielded interesting results in various accuracy, grammar complexity and lexical complexity measures, albeit with low effect sizes (cf. Tables 15 and 16). In the case of the public school, where we compared the experimental and the EFL control, statistically significant differences were ascertained in favour of CLIL learners in fluency ($p=0.04$). This was evinced by the greater amount of words written: the CLIL mean (89.52) more than doubled the non-CLIL one (43.67). Our accuracy measures, however, showed no statistically significant differences between the two groups; the number of mistakes per word and the number of error-free sentences in the writings of both streams were similar. With regards to grammatical and lexical complexity, the differences were especially significant with p -values as low as 0.011 and 0.016, respectively. The analysis confirmed that CLIL writings contained more than double the number of clauses and types (different words) than mainstream writings did. This clearly suggests that the CLIL group has a considerably greater command of grammar and vocabulary and is able to produce longer and more complex texts than the other stream, mirroring Ackerl's (2007) results. In his investigation, CLIL learners and their non-CLIL counterparts made a comparable number of mistakes but,

overall, they were able to write at a more sophisticated level. Furthermore, these positive outcomes regarding the writing skill in CLIL groups are in line with other studies like Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann's (2007, 2010), Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer's (2010) and Seregély's (2008).

Our next comparison was between the public CLIL group and the EFL students from the semi-private catholic school. Once more, the pupils in these strands obtained similar means on all subskills tested and no differences worthy of mention were detected ($p=1$). Both produced writings of very similar length, accuracy and complexity, suggesting that CLIL group's written production was at the same level as the semi-private EFL group's (cf. Tables 15 and 16).

In contrast, statistically significant differences surfaced when the two EFL groups (public and semi-private) were compared. The pattern that emerged was similar to the one described for the rest of skills at the beginning of this heading and once again in favour of the semi-private group. With regards to the significant differences found in fluency, grammar and lexis (p -values of 0.032, 0.012 and 0.024, respectively), the mentioned pupils produced objectively longer texts with more T-units, more clauses and more types. As it happened in our comparison of the public non-CLIL group with the CLIL stream, the accuracy measures were also the exception: these did not yield any statistically significant differences. Such findings denote that the public and semi-private EFL students in our study made a statistically comparable number of mistakes. Since the CLIL and the semi-private group have established their superiority in the rest of elements analysed, this apparently comparable accuracy could be simply due to the fact that the public EFL group wrote shorter and simpler texts than the rest, thereby avoiding some of the risks taken by those attempting longer and more complex writings.

| CAF Measures | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|--------------------|-----------------------|-------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| FM Words or Tokens | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 91,21 | 29,19 | 0,129 | 0,034 |
| | Public CLIL | 89,52 | 30,27 | | |
| | Public Non- | 43,67 | 13,61 | | |

| | | CLIL | | | |
|--|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| FM T-Units | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 10,79 | 3,78 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 10,52 | 3,97 | 0,114 | 0,051 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 5,00 | 1,00 | | |
| AM Error-Free T-Units | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 5,92 | 3,83 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 5,96 | 4,19 | 0,024 | 0,550 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 3,33 | 3,06 | | |
| AM Sentences | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 6,92 | 3,51 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 7,32 | 3,59 | 0,046 | 0,312 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 4,00 | 2,65 | | |
| AM Error-free T-Units/S Ratio | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 0,88 | 0,42 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 0,77 | 0,38 | 0,036 | 0,409 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 0,60 | 0,53 | | |
| AM Errors | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 8,67 | 4,65 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 8,48 | 5,24 | 0,001 | 0,973 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 8,00 | 5,29 | | |
| AM Errors/word Ratio | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 0,11 | 0,07 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 0,10 | 0,05 | 0,106 | 0,063 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 0,19 | 0,16 | | |
| GCM Length of T-Unit Ratio | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 8,64 | 1,45 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 9,00 | 2,88 | 0,006 | 0,853 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 8,63 | 1,07 | | |
| GCM Clauses | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 15,54 | 5,05 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 15,80 | 5,68 | 0,169 | 0,011 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 5,67 | 4,04 | | |
| GCM Clauses/T-Unit Ratio | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,47 | 0,29 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 1,55 | 0,38 | 0,077 | 0,140 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 1,11 | 0,65 | | |
| LCM Types | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 62,42 | 16,44 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 59,92 | 17,61 | 0,155 | 0,016 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 31,67 | 7,02 | | |

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| LCM Type/Token Ratio | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 0,70 | 0,07 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 0,69 | 0,08 | 0,026 | 0,526 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 0,74 | 0,07 | | |
| LCM D Value | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 83,19 | 27,32 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 73,12 | 23,33 | 0,075 | 0,168 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 43,56 | | | |

Table 15. Foreign language competence: CAF Analysis per groups. ANOVA

| CAF | | Semi-private Non-CLIL | Public CLIL | Public Non- CLIL |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|---------------------|
| FM Words or Tokens | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1 | 0.032 |
| | Public CLIL | 1 | | 0.040 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 0.032 | 0.040 | |
| GCM Clauses | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1 | 0.012 |
| | Public CLIL | 1 | | 0.009 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 0.012 | 0.009 | |
| LCM Types | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1 | 0.013 |
| | Public CLIL | 1 | | 0.024 |
| | Public Non- CLIL | 0.024 | 0.013 | |

Table 16. Foreign language competence: CAF Analysis per groups. Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons

Going back to **RQ5**, it is safe to affirm that the *type of school* variable clearly exerts a modulating effect on students' English language competence. The results detailed above suggest that, in general terms, the attainment of the experimental group fares well when compared with the semi-private one, and especially well when contrasted with the public non-CLIL control. In other words, while there were no meaningful differences between the public CLIL and the semi-private EFL control, both groups outstripped the public non-CLIL stream across the board.

6.2.1.2.2. Gender

In relation to the remaining elements of **RQ5**, we have further analysed our cohorts' FL test results to determine the possible modulating effect exerted by the rest of intervening variables, namely gender of the students, socioeconomic status and extramural exposure to English, with mixed results. Regarding gender, and in line with Heras and Lasagabaster's (2015) study, our initial analysis found no statistically significant differences between female and male students in any of the skills tested. Moreover, our in-depth CAF analysis of the writing test further confirmed the above results, showing that there were no statistically significant differences between the written production of male and female students when the different subskills were analysed. However, a more in-depth analysis of each separate cohort (cf. Table 17) evinced that females in the experimental group obtained higher scores on the receptive skills of listening and reading speaking skill, while no statistical confirmation of clear differences could be reported between males and females in the rest of tests.

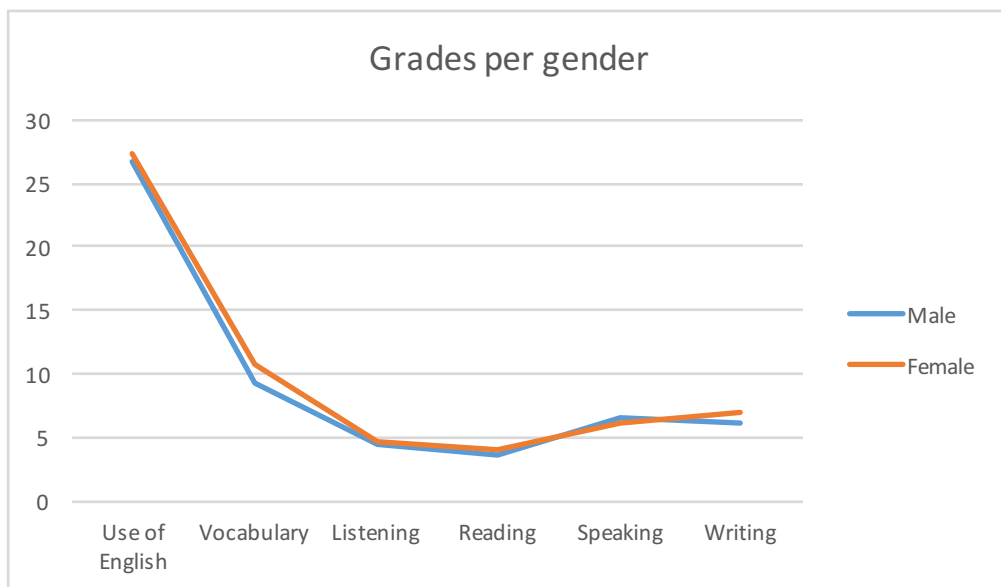


Figure 52. Foreign language competence: Gender variable

| | Group | Gender | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|----------------|----------|--------|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Use of English | | Male | 24,84 | 7,85 | -0,075 | 0.820 |
| | | Female | 25,53 | 10,34 | | |
| Vocabulary | | Male | 8,11 | 4,14 | -0,401 | 0.224 |
| | | Female | 9,68 | 3,71 | | |
| Listening | Non-CLIL | Male | 4,74 | 1,14 | 0,388 | 0.240 |
| | | Female | 4,11 | 1,99 | | |
| Reading | | Male | 3,32 | 1,45 | -0,103 | 0.753 |
| | | Female | 3,47 | 1,61 | | |
| Total Speaking | | Male | 6,12 | 1,92 | 0,297 | 0.550 |
| | | Female | 5,44 | 2,56 | | |
| Total Writing | | Male | 5,67 | 2,18 | -0,495 | 0.211 |
| | | Female | 6,80 | 2,38 | | |
| Use of English | | Male | 30,36 | 6,65 | -0,034 | 0.934 |
| | | Female | 30,64 | 9,39 | | |
| Vocabulary | | Male | 11,18 | 1,94 | -0,365 | 0.354 |
| | | Female | 12,07 | 2,75 | | |
| Listening | CLIL | Male | 4,18 | 0,87 | -1,331 | 0.003 |
| | | Female | 5,57 | 1,15 | | |
| Reading | | Male | 3,73 | 1,42 | -1,150 | 0.018 |
| | | Female | 5,00 | 0,78 | | |
| Total Speaking | | Male | 6,90 | 0,41 | -0,734 | 0.279 |
| | | Female | 7,70 | 1,48 | | |
| Total Writing | | Male | 6,31 | 2,41 | -0,343 | 0.403 |
| | | Female | 7,03 | 1,80 | | |

Table 17. Foreign language competence: Gender variable. T-test

6.2.1.2.3. SES

Socioeconomic status (SES) was factored in as a moderating variable in the following manner: as we mentioned in our methodology section 5.3, to measure this variable, the educational attainment of parents was taken as a proxy and three levels were established according to their studies: high (tertiary education), medium (vocational training or secondary) and low (school qualifications or no studies). When our quantitative sample was analysed as a whole considering SES, we could not detect any statistically significant differences between rungs. This initial analysis of SES, albeit with no

statistical confirmation, did reveal a typical pattern in which pupils coming from families with higher SES tend to obtain the highest means while students from less privileged backgrounds often have the lower ones. Congruent with these findings, our complexity, accuracy and fluency analyses did not evince any statistically meaningful differences either between the performance of students in the different rungs.

Nevertheless, a more in-depth analysis was deemed necessary to determine the influence of the SES variable according to cohort (cf. Table 18). Our findings evinced statistically significant differences between the students of non-CLIL groups in the Use of English and listening tests, particularly between medium and high SES pupils in favour of the latter (cf. Table 19). Learners from various backgrounds in the CLIL cohort, however, obtained statistically comparable results in all the skills assessed. Our outcomes corroborate a trend discerned in extremely recent studies, namely, that CLIL programmes could well be cancelling out differences in social class, causing them to phase out, particularly in the long term, when students reach the end of Compulsory Secondary Education (Pérez Cañado, 2017b; Pavón, 2018; Rascón & Bretones, 2018).

| | Group | SES | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|----------------|-------|--------|-------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Use of English | | Low | 30,20 | 5,26 | 0,101 | 0,384 |
| | | Medium | 27,08 | 6,24 | | |
| | | High | 32,33 | 9,45 | | |
| Vocabulary | | Low | 11,80 | 2,17 | 0,065 | 0,548 |
| | | Medium | 10,85 | 2,34 | | |
| | | High | 12,33 | 3,06 | | |
| Listening | | Low | 5,20 | 1,10 | 0,156 | 0,217 |
| | | Medium | 4,85 | 1,28 | | |
| | | High | 3,67 | 0,58 | | |
| Reading | CLIL | Low | 4,40 | 1,52 | 0,043 | 0,675 |
| | | Medium | 4,46 | 1,20 | | |
| | | High | 3,67 | 2,08 | | |
| Total Speaking | | Low | 7,00 | 0,57 | 0,040 | 0,903 |
| | | Medium | 6,80 | | | |
| | | High | 7,00 | | | |
| Total Writing | | Low | 6,80 | 1,53 | 0,041 | 0,685 |
| | | Medium | 6,35 | | | |
| | | High | 5,50 | | | |

| | | | | | |
|----------------|--------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| Use English | Low | 20,80 | 6,87 | 0,217 | 0,020 |
| | Medium | 20,13 | 9,85 | | |
| | High | 28,82 | 7,67 | | |
| Vocabulary | Low | 7,60 | 1,67 | 0,051 | 0,431 |
| | Medium | 8,50 | 3,59 | | |
| | High | 9,86 | 4,29 | | |
| Listening | Low | 3,20 | 2,17 | 0,267 | 0,007 |
| | Medium | 3,63 | 1,41 | | |
| | High | 5,18 | 1,30 | | |
| Reading | Low | 2,80 | 0,84 | 0,110 | 0,154 |
| | Medium | 2,88 | 1,81 | | |
| | High | 3,86 | 1,42 | | |
| Total Speaking | Low | 4,00 | | 0,188 | 0,233 |
| | Medium | 4,60 | 1,98 | | |
| | High | 6,45 | 2,23 | | |
| Total Writing | Low | 3,50 | | 0,112 | 0,240 |
| | Medium | 5,20 | 2,82 | | |
| | High | 6,60 | 2,14 | | |

Table 18. Foreign language competence: SES variable. ANOVA

| | SES | Low | Medium | High |
|----------------|--------|-------|--------|-------|
| Use of English | Low | | 0.988 | 0.129 |
| | Medium | 0.988 | | 0.037 |
| | High | 0.129 | 0.037 | |
| Listening | Low | | 0.866 | 0.026 |
| | Medium | 0.866 | | 0.037 |
| | High | 0.026 | 0.037 | |

Table 19. Foreign language competence: SES variable. Tukey's HSD Post hoc

6.2.1.2.4. Extramural Exposure

This variable was measured through a questionnaire in the initial stage of our study. It asked students to reflect on the amount of contact they had with the FL outside the school and to calculate the number of hours they devoted to certain activities in English

per week; eight hours or less was considered low and more than eight was classified as high exposure. When the means obtained were first examined, a clear pattern shone through for the English proficiency levels achieved by students: it was principally, and not surprisingly, the pupils with a higher exposure to English who possessed the most developed FL competence. With regards to the effects of extramural exposure to English per cohort, statistically significant differences (with large effect sizes) were found between non-CLIL students in the majority of skills, concretely in vocabulary, listening, reading and speaking (cf. Table 20), invariably in favour of students with more than eight hours of extramural exposure. In the case of the experimental group, the influence of this variable was felt only in the reading test, while the rest of skills remained unaffected. It could be argued that the greater in-class exposure to the TL in the CLIL cohort may have helped to bridge the existing gap between students with greater or lesser access to English outside the school.

| | Group | Exposure | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|----------------|--------------|-----------------|-------------|-----------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Use of English | | <=8 Hours | 22,00 | 7,55 | -0,653 | 0.076 |
| | | >8 Hours | 27,61 | 9,06 | | |
| Vocabulary | | <=8 Hours | 7,42 | 2,53 | -0,743 | 0.045 |
| | | >8 Hours | 10,17 | 4,17 | | |
| Listening | Non-CLIL | <=8 Hours | 3,50 | 1,83 | -1,068 | 0.005 |
| | | >8 Hours | 5,09 | 1,27 | | |
| Reading | | <=8 Hours | 2,50 | 1,31 | -1,122 | 0.003 |
| | | >8 Hours | 4,00 | 1,34 | | |
| Total Speaking | | <=8 Hours | 3,80 | 1,03 | -1,478 | 0.014 |
| | | >8 Hours | 6,58 | 2,10 | | |
| Total Writing | | <=8 Hours | 4,70 | 3,01 | -0,837 | 0.103 |
| | | >8 Hours | 6,56 | 2,04 | | |
| Use of English | | <=8 Hours | 26,42 | 3,34 | -0,822 | 0.127 |
| | | >8 Hours | 31,44 | 8,57 | | |
| Vocabulary | | <=8 Hours | 10,83 | 2,44 | -0,450 | 0.320 |
| | | >8 Hours | 11,89 | 2,20 | | |
| Listening | CLIL | <=8 Hours | 4,67 | 1,23 | -0,178 | 0.691 |
| | | >8 Hours | 4,89 | 1,26 | | |
| Reading | | <=8 Hours | 3,67 | 1,37 | -1,378 | 0.003 |
| | | >8 Hours | 5,22 | ,066 | | |
| Total Speaking | | <=8 Hours | 6,83 | 0,76 | -0,120 | 0.875 |

| | | | | | |
|---------------|-----------|------|------|--------|-------|
| | >8 Hours | 6,90 | 0,41 | | |
| Total Writing | <=8 Hours | 5,66 | 2,07 | -0,843 | 0.071 |
| | >8 Hours | 7,22 | 1,48 | | |

Table 20. Foreign language competence: Extramural exposure variable. T-test

6.2.1.3. Durability of effects of the CLIL programme on FL competence

This section will focus on the discussion of the delayed post-test results both from a general viewpoint and through the analysis of each group's attainment. In a like manner to the previous phase, and in order to delve deeper into specific aspects of written production, we have set out to analyse complexity, accuracy and fluency features of the students' output. Then, in relation to **RQ6** on the performance of the experimental cohort, we will establish a comparison between their results in the post-test and in the delayed post-test to ascertain whether the effects of CLIL remained once the programme was discontinued or whether these gradually disappeared. In addition, and pertaining to **RQ7**, the possible evolution of the control group's FL competence between the two phases will be analysed both jointly and in terms of type of school.

6.2.1.3.1 *Delayed post-test results per cohort*

An initial overall comparison of the skills tests sat by the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts showed especially divergent mean scores to the advantage of the CLIL stream (cf. Table 21). Statistically significant differences were revealed by the use of English ($p= 0.044$) and the speaking tests ($p= 0.004$). In vocabulary and in the reading and listening skills, the experimental group still obtained higher marks than their counterparts although the differences between groups cannot be considered substantial, in agreement with Pérez Cañado's (2018a) and Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona's (2016) outcomes. What particularly stands out at this point, however, are the CLIL groups' achievement in the speaking test ($p=0.004$), mirroring the outcomes of Pérez Cañado and Lancaster's

longitudinal study (2017). The experimental group outstripped their mainstream peers in every single one of the subskills assessed with very large effect sizes, as attested by the high Cohen's *d* values obtained. CLIL students outperformed the rest in relation to their use of grammar ($p=0.003$), vocabulary ($p=0.002$), fluency ($p=0.015$), pronunciation ($p=0.039$) and adequacy to the task ($p=0.012$). With regards to writing, no statistically significant differences were found between groups, except for the organisation of the written task, which was slightly better in the non-CLIL strand ($p=0.024$). As we can observe in Figure 53, results have experimented slight changes in this delayed post-test phase. It appears that speaking continues to be the CLIL students' forte; however, the control groups have been able to catch up in some aspects of written production.

| Group | | Mean | Standard Deviation | Cohen's <i>d</i> | p value |
|----------------|----------|-------|--------------------|------------------|---------|
| Use of English | Non-CLIL | 29,28 | 8,52 | -0,613 | 0,044 |
| | CLIL | 33,95 | 6,38 | | |
| Vocabulary | Non-CLIL | 11,64 | 2,72 | -0,087 | 0,770 |
| | CLIL | 11,86 | 2,20 | | |
| Listening | Non-CLIL | 5,12 | 1,51 | -0,115 | 0,699 |
| | CLIL | 5,29 | 1,35 | | |
| Reading | Non-CLIL | 4,20 | 1,26 | -0,029 | 0,922 |
| | CLIL | 4,24 | 1,37 | | |
| Grammar | Non-CLIL | 1,25 | 0,47 | -1,384 | 0,003 |
| | CLIL | 1,80 | 0,26 | | |
| Speaking | Non-CLIL | 1,14 | 0,57 | -1,295 | 0,002 |
| | CLIL | 1,75 | 0,26 | | |
| Vocabulary | Non-CLIL | 1,29 | 0,47 | -1,091 | 0,015 |
| | CLIL | 1,75 | 0,35 | | |
| Fluency | Non-CLIL | 1,29 | 0,47 | -0,817 | 0,039 |
| | CLIL | 1,60 | 0,21 | | |
| Pronunciation | Non-CLIL | 1,29 | 0,54 | -1,029 | 0,012 |
| | CLIL | 1,75 | 0,26 | | |
| Speaking | Non-CLIL | 6,21 | 2,38 | -1,229 | 0,004 |
| | CLIL | 8,65 | 1,18 | | |
| Task | Non-CLIL | 1,74 | 0,45 | 0,429 | 0,163 |
| | CLIL | 1,55 | 0,44 | | |
| Writing | Non-CLIL | 1,37 | 0,43 | 0,383 | 0,211 |
| | CLIL | 1,21 | 0,37 | | |

| | | | | | |
|---------------|----------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Organisation | Non-CLIL | 1,33 | 0,47 | 0,694 | 0,024 |
| Writing | CLIL | 1,05 | 0,31 | | |
| Lexis/Grammar | Non-CLIL | 1,26 | 0,62 | 0,216 | 0,478 |
| Writing | CLIL | 1,14 | 0,45 | | |
| Mechanics | Non-CLIL | 1,43 | 0,43 | 0,507 | 0,100 |
| Writing | CLIL | 1,21 | 0,44 | | |
| Total | Non-CLIL | 7,13 | 2,05 | 0,529 | 0,087 |
| Writing | CLIL | 6,17 | 1,53 | | |

Table 21. Delayed post-test cohort comparison

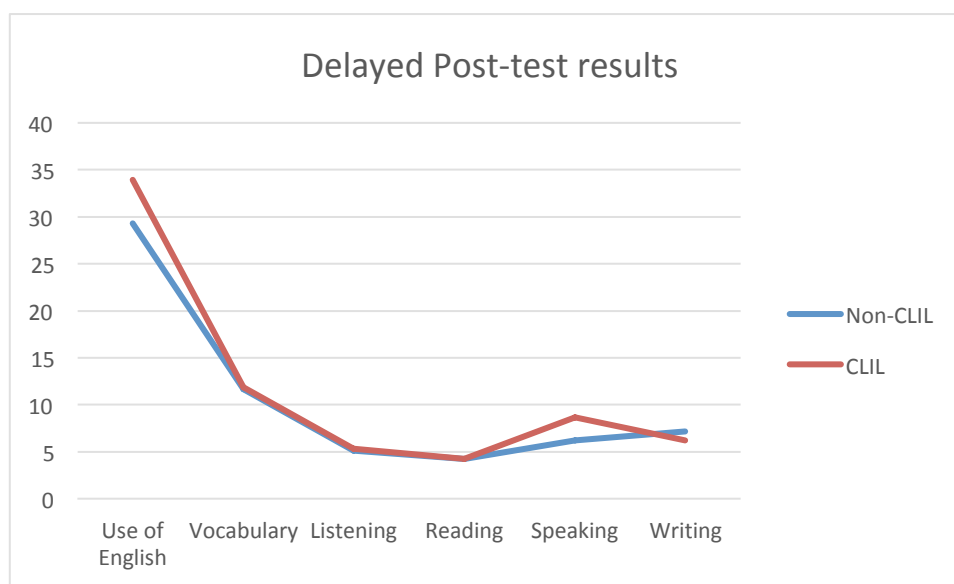


Figure 53. Delayed post-test cohort comparison

6.2.1.3.2. Delayed post-test results: type of school comparison

Further interesting insights can be gleaned when we consider the performance of each type of school group, since our analysis of variance exposed a great number of statistical differences between them (cf. Table 22), albeit with medium to small effect sizes. We then proceeded in the same manner as in the previous phase by performing a Bonferroni post hoc test, which allowed us to compare the three different classes in pairs.

| Skills | Group | Mean | Standard Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|------------------------|-----------------------|-------|--------------------|-------------|---------|
| Use of English | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 32,06 | 7,32 | 0,265 | 0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 33,95 | 6,38 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 22,14 | 7,47 | | |
| Vocabulary | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 12,67 | 1,88 | 0,248 | 0,002 |
| | Public CLIL | 11,86 | 2,20 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 9,00 | 2,89 | | |
| Listening | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 5,33 | 1,46 | 0,036 | 0,460 |
| | Public CLIL | 5,29 | 1,35 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 4,57 | 1,62 | | |
| Reading | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 4,67 | 0,97 | 0,185 | 0,012 |
| | Public CLIL | 4,24 | 1,37 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 3,00 | 1,15 | | |
| Grammar Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,50 | 0,35 | 0,637 | 0,000 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,80 | 0,26 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,80 | 0,27 | | |
| Vocabulary Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,44 | 0,46 | 0,636 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,75 | 0,26 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,60 | 0,22 | | |
| Fluency Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,50 | 0,43 | 0,461 | 0,002 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,75 | 0,35 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,90 | 0,22 | | |
| Pronunciation Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,56 | 0,30 | 0,629 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,60 | 0,21 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,80 | 0,27 | | |
| Task Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,61 | 0,33 | 0,684 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,75 | 0,26 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,70 | 0,27 | | |
| Total Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 7,56 | 1,79 | 0,661 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 8,65 | 1,18 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 3,80 | 0,84 | | |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|------|------|-------|--------|
| Task Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,83 | 0,42 | 0,129 | 0,058 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,55 | 0,44 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 1,40 | 0,42 | | |
| Communication Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,53 | 0,32 | 0,326 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,21 | 0,37 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,80 | 0,27 | | |
| Organisation Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,47 | 0,40 | 0,344 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,05 | 0,31 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,80 | 0,27 | | |
| Lexis/Grammar Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,50 | 0,42 | 0,386 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,14 | 0,45 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,40 | 0,42 | | |
| Mechanics Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 1,61 | 0,27 | 0,367 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1,21 | 0,44 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0,80 | 0,27 | | |
| Total Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 7,94 | 1,35 | 0,435 | <0,001 |
| | Public CLIL | 6,17 | 1,53 | | |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 4,20 | 1,30 | | |

Table 22. Delayed post-test results: Type of school variable. ANOVA

Within the public school, we are able to appreciate an evident pre-eminence of the CLIL students on all the linguistic aspects assessed (cf. Table 23, Figure 54); in most cases, the experimental group outstrips the non-CLIL one at extremely high confidence levels and with large effect sizes. This is especially the case with the use of English, the speaking and the writing tests, all exhibiting an extremely low p-value (<0.001) and very high d value coefficients. Furthermore, it should be highlighted that the CLIL stream performed considerably better in every single one of the subskills analysed in the speaking test: grammar, vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation and adequacy to the task. It is true, however, that not all the differences found were statistically significant, such as the marks obtained in the receptive skills tests of reading and listening.

Results pertaining to the two EFL groups will now be rendered. At first glance, when these groups are compared, we can immediately acknowledge a parallel situation to the one described in the post-test phase: the semi-private EFL learners outstrip their non-CLIL peers across the board (cf. Table 23, Figure 54). In the use of English, vocabulary and reading tests, the public group performed significantly more poorly than their counterparts, whereas in the skill of listening, no statistically significant differences were found between groups. In general, we are witness to a great divergence of means as well on all the elements of the oral and written production assessed, always in favour of the semi-private group. Our outcomes evince this generally occurs at extremely high confidence levels ($p < 0.001$), especially in the productive skills. All in all, it can be stated that public non-CLIL students continue to fare negatively when contrasted with the remaining groups.

Finally, the delayed post-test results of the CLIL group will be contrasted with the ones obtained by their semi-private EFL peers. Students from both groups performed comparably well in most skills, as evinced by the lack of statistically significant differences in the use of English, vocabulary, reading, listening and speaking results (cf. Table 23, Figure 54). The outcomes of the writing test, however, paint a different picture: for the first time, the experimental group is surpassed by the semi-private one in written production (as had been foregrounded in our overall cohort comparison). This time, statistically significant differences could be detected in all subspects under scrutiny: communication ($p = 0.021$), organisation ($p = 0.001$), mechanics ($p = 0.004$) and lexis and grammar ($p = 0.043$).

| Skills | Group | Semi-private Non-CLIL | Public CLIL | Public Non-CLIL |
|----------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Use of English | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | 0.007 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | 0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.007 | 0.001 | |
| Vocabulary | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.770 | 0.014 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.770 | | 0.002 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.014 | 0.002 | |

| | | | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Reading | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.816 | 0.010 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.816 | | 0.068 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.010 | 0.068 | |
| Grammar Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.125 | 0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.125 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Vocab Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.210 | 0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.210 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Pronunciation Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 1.000 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Task Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.946 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.946 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Total Speaking | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.310 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 1.000 | | <0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | <0.001 | |
| Communication Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.021 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.021 | | 0.059 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | 0.059 | |
| Organisation Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.001 | 0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.001 | | 0.484 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.001 | 0.484 | |
| Lex Gramm Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.043 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.043 | | 0.004 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | 0.004 | |
| Mechanics Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.004 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.004 | | 0.079 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | 0.079 | |
| Total Writing | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.001 | <0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.001 | | 0.026 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | <0.001 | 0.026 | |

Table 23. Delayed post-test results: Type of school variable. Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons

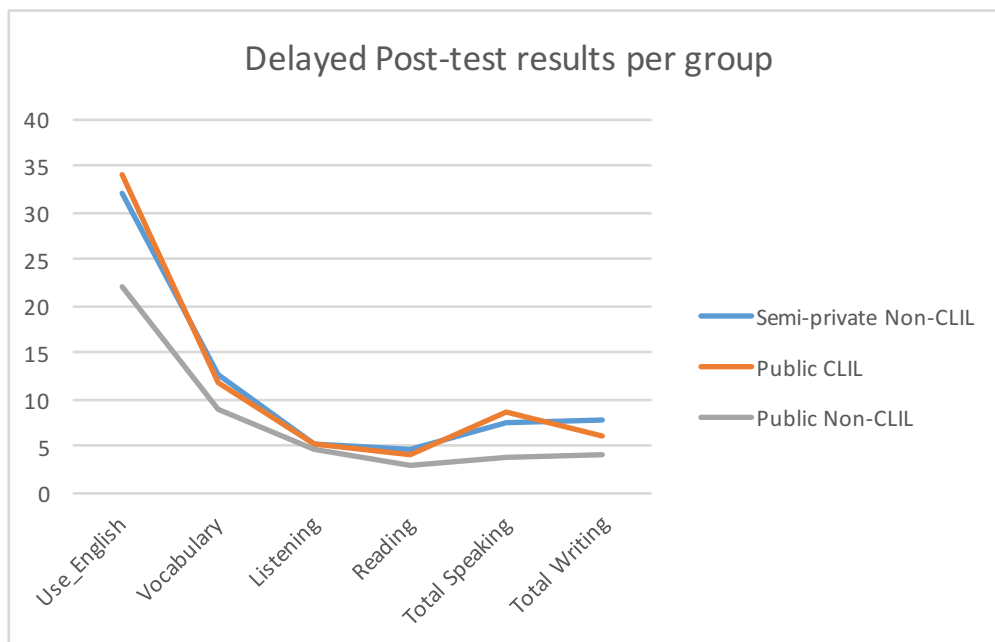


Figure 54. Delayed post-test results: Skills per group

6.2.1.3.3. Post to delayed post-test comparison

6.2.1.3.3.1. Evolution per cohort

Next, and with a view to answering **RQ6 and RQ7**, we will proceed to compare post-test results with the outcomes of the delayed post-test sat by the same students six months later. In order to establish this comparison, we have analysed the evolution of those students who sat all the tests in the two phases and, as a result, our sample has been inevitably reduced.

Regarding the EFL cohort, our findings indicate that, this time, pupils obtained similar or slightly higher means than in the previous phase in most of the skills tested (cf. Table 24). Statistically significant differences were found pertaining to use of English ($p=0.002$) and vocabulary ($p=0.002$), whereas no significant improvement could be detected between the two phases in the listening or reading abilities. These outcomes

could be explained by the focus on grammar and writing often witnessed in EFL lessons during Baccalaureate. The proximity of the university entrance exams, which concentrate on the above-mentioned components is why communicative skills such as listening and speaking are sometimes overlooked; a possible reason behind these results.

| Group | Skills | Phase | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|----------|----------------|--------------|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Non-CLIL | Use of English | Post | 25.96 | 9.72 | -0.363 | 0.002 |
| | | Delayed post | 29.28 | 8.52 | | |
| | Vocabulary | Post | 9.4 | 4.16 | -0.637 | 0.002 |
| | | Delayed post | 11.64 | 2.72 | | |
| | Reading | Post | 3.76 | 1.48 | -0.320 | 0.078 |
| | | Delayed post | 4.20 | 1.26 | | |
| | Listening | Post | 4.72 | 1.74 | -0.246 | 0.246 |
| | | Delayed post | 5.12 | 1.51 | | |

Table 24. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of non-CLIL cohort's results

Pertaining to the productive skills of the non-CLIL cohort (cf. Table 25 and Figures 55, 56), no significant differences were ascertained between the pupils' performances in speaking, whereas a clear development of the writing skill was detected. EFL pupils' written production improved not only in general terms ($p=0.007$) but also in the organisation ($p=0.003$), mechanics ($p=0.010$) and lexis-grammar subskills ($p=0.028$), as illustrated below.

| Skill | Sub-skills | Post/Delayed | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|---------------|-----------------|--------------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Writing | Communication | Post | 1.42 | 0.51 | -0.186 | 0.380 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.5 | 0.33 | | |
| | Organisation | Post | 1.16 | 0.55 | -0.749 | 0.003 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.5 | 0.33 | | |
| | Lexis / Grammar | Post | 1.24 | 0.48 | -0.442 | 0.028 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.45 | 0.47 | | |
| | Task | Post | 1.55 | 0.59 | -0.493 | 0.274 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.81 | 0.42 | | |
| | Mechanics | Post | 1.26 | 0.48 | -0.799 | 0.010 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.58 | 0.30 | | |
| Total writing | Post | 6.32 | 2.24 | -0.776 | 0.007 | |
| | Delayed post | 7.79 | 1.47 | | | |
| Speaking | Grammar | Post | 1.39 | 0.55 | 0.232 | 0.337 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.27 | 0.48 | | |

| | | | | | |
|----------------|--------------|------|------|--------|-------|
| Vocabulary | Post | 1.23 | 0.44 | 0.154 | 0.584 |
| | Delayed post | 1.15 | 0.59 | | |
| Fluency | Post | 1.12 | 0.46 | -0.404 | 0.096 |
| | Delayed post | 1.31 | 0.48 | | |
| Pronunciation | Post | 1.15 | 0.55 | -0.405 | 0.096 |
| | Delayed post | 1.35 | 0.43 | | |
| Task | Post | 1.19 | 0.52 | -0.308 | 0.219 |
| | Delayed post | 1.35 | 0.52 | | |
| Total Speaking | Post | 6.08 | 2.36 | -0.131 | 0.546 |
| | Delayed post | 6.39 | 2.39 | | |

Table 25. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of non-CLIL cohort's productive skills

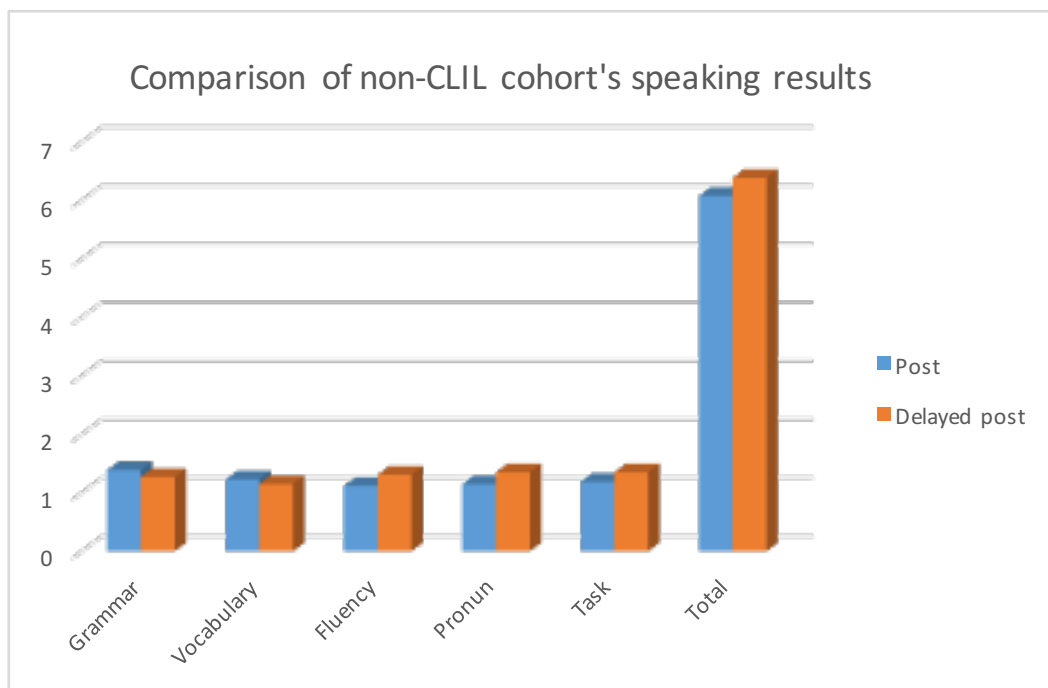


Figure 55. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of non-CLIL cohort's speaking skills

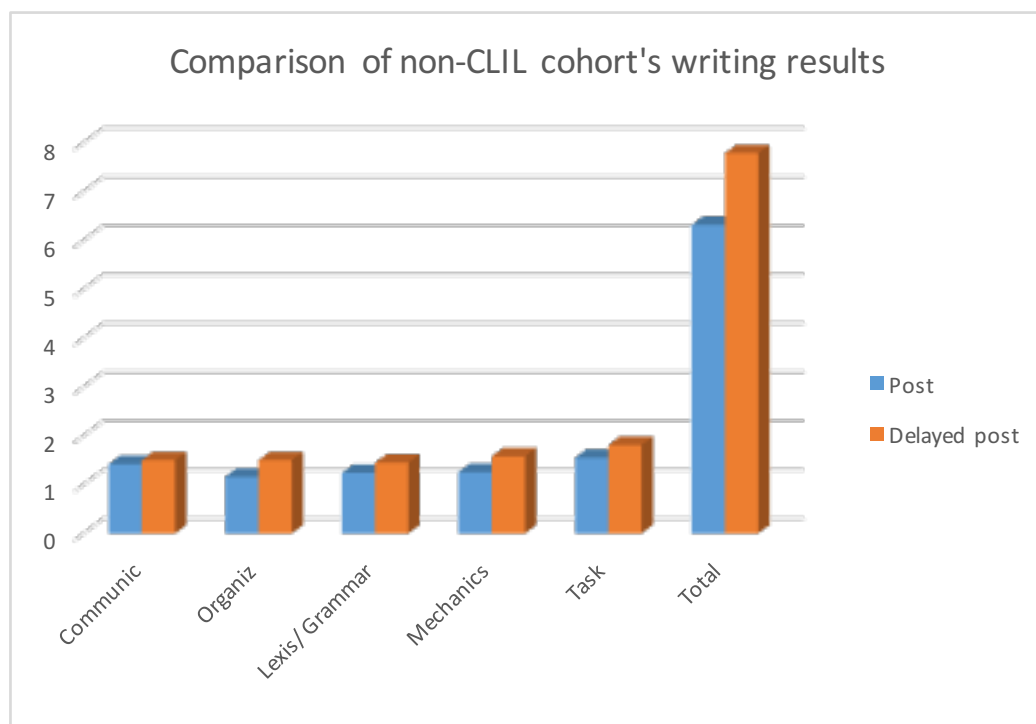


Figure 56. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of non-CLIL cohort's writing skills

In turn, on close inspection of the data obtained from CLIL pupils, it can be affirmed that the experimental group performed significantly better in the use of English ($p=0.001$) in the delayed post-test, as shown on Table 26. Differences in means were also detected between the two stages in listening, vocabulary and reading exams; however, in this case they could not be considered meaningful.

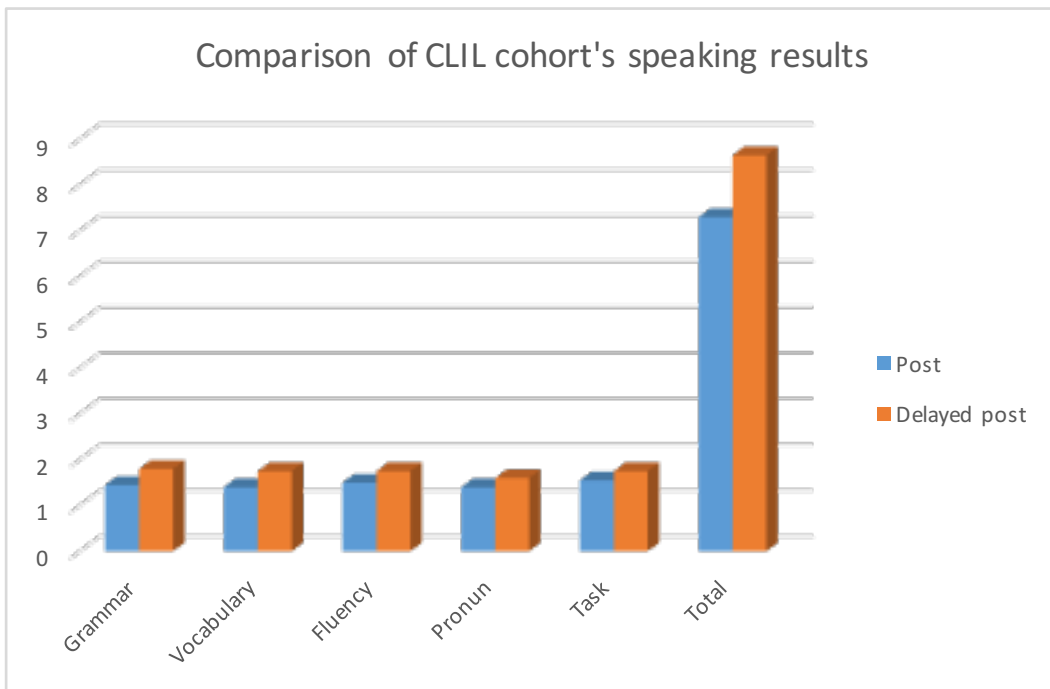
| Group | Skills | Post/Delayed | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|-------|----------------|--------------|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| CLIL | Use of English | Post | 30.86 | 7.12 | -0.457 | 0.001 |
| | | Delayed post | 33.95 | 6.38 | | |
| | Vocabulary | Post | 11.62 | 2.27 | -0.108 | 0.542 |
| | | Delayed post | 11.86 | 2.19 | | |
| | Reading | Post | 4.48 | 1.25 | 0.183 | 0.424 |
| | | Delayed post | 4.24 | 1.37 | | |
| | Listening | Post | 4.76 | 1.14 | -0.426 | 0.126 |
| | | Delayed post | 5.29 | 1.34 | | |

Table 26. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of CLIL cohort's results

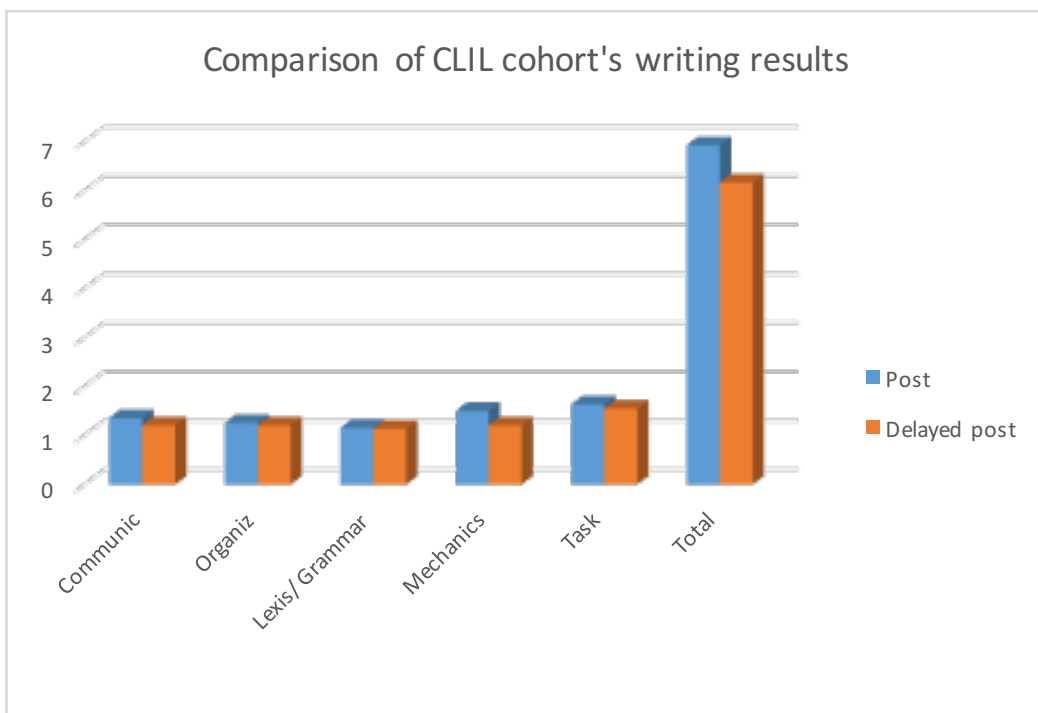
Moving on to the productive skills, our findings vis-à-vis the speaking performance of CLIL students were positive, statistically significant and with large effect sizes (Cohen's $d = -1.178$). Outcomes were particularly substantial in the various speaking subskills, clearly pointing to a positive general development of such ability by the experimental group (cf. Table 27, Figure 57). These data, however, contrast with the results of the writing exams, which, overall, were better in the post-test, especially in terms of mechanics ($p = 0.004$) and the final mark obtained ($p = 0.043$), as it can be observed in Table 27 and Figure 58.

| Skill | Sub-skills | Post/Delayed | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|----------------|-------------------|--------------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Writing | Communication | Post | 1.36 | 0.48 | 0.350 | 0.083 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.21 | 0.37 | | |
| | Organisation | Post | 1.26 | 0.44 | 0.123 | 0.605 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.21 | 0.37 | | |
| | Lexis/ Grammar | Post | 1.16 | 0.55 | 0.039 | 0.815 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.14 | 0.45 | | |
| | Task | Post | 1.64 | 0.45 | 0.202 | 0.352 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.55 | 0.44 | | |
| | Mechanics | Post | 1.5 | 0.50 | 0.616 | 0.004 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.21 | 0.44 | | |
| Total writing | Post | 6.93 | 2.08 | 0.416 | 0.043 | |
| | Delayed post | 6.17 | 1.53 | | | |
| Speaking | Grammar | Post | 1.45 | 0.28 | -1.295 | 0.010 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.80 | 0.26 | | |
| | Vocabulary | Post | 1.40 | 0.32 | -1.200 | 0.010 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.75 | 0.26 | | |
| | Fluency | Post | 1.50 | 0.33 | -0.735 | 0.015 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.75 | 0.35 | | |
| | Pronun | Post | 1.40 | 0.32 | -0.739 | 0.037 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.60 | 0.21 | | |
| | Task | Post | 1.55 | 0.16 | -0.926 | 0.037 |
| | | Delayed post | 1.75 | 0.26 | | |
| Total speaking | Post | 7.30 | 1.11 | -1.178 | 0.002 | |
| | Delayed post | 8.65 | 1.18 | | | |

Table 27. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of CLIL cohort's productive skills



Graph 57. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of CLIL cohort's speaking skills



Graph 58. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of CLIL cohort's writing skills

Addressing now **RQ6** on the duration of the effects of CLIL after reaching Baccalaureate, our data suggest that use of English and speaking continued their development, and that achievements in listening and reading were maintained. The effects on writing, however, gradually disappeared for the experimental group once the CLIL programme was discontinued.

Our fine-grained CAF analysis of the pupils' written production enabled us to break down and better understand the aforesaid findings. Table 28 below compares the complexity, accuracy and fluency measures between the post-test and the delayed post-test of the EFL strand. At first glance, we can acknowledge immediately that the means obtained in the delayed post-test for most components analysed were slightly higher than in the previous exam; however, no statistical confirmation can be reported. With the exception of the grammatical complexity measure *clauses per T Unit ratio*, which was barely significant ($p=0.05$), the outcomes of our complexity, accuracy and fluency analysis evince that the EFL cohort's apparent headway on writing is not as substantial as we initially perceived.

| CAF Measures | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|------------------------------|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| FM Words or tokens Post | 86.74 | 31.41 | | |
| FM Words or tokens Delayed | 92.68 | 23.97 | -0.213 | 0.429 |
| FM T-Units Post | 10.21 | 3.69 | | |
| FM T-Units Delayed | 11.16 | 4.03 | -0.245 | 0.343 |
| AM Error-FreeT-Units Post | 5.74 | 3.45 | | |
| AM Error-FreeT-Units Delayed | 6.68 | 3.96 | -0.255 | 0.278 |

| | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| AM Sentences Post | 6.37 | 3.45 | | |
| | | | 0.098 | 0.751 |
| AM Sentences Delayed | 6.11 | 1.63 | | |
| AM Error-free T-Units/S Ratio Post | 0.94 | 0.43 | | |
| | | | -0.323 | 0.203 |
| AM Error-free T-Units/S Ratio Delayed | 1.11 | 0.61 | | |
| AM Errors Post | 7.68 | 4.51 | | |
| | | | 0.206 | 0.446 |
| AM Errors Delayed | 6.68 | 5.16 | | |
| AM Errors/word Ratio Post | 0.10 | 0.06 | | |
| | | | 0.441 | 0.123 |
| AM Errors/word Ratio Delayed | 0.07 | 0.05 | | |
| GCM length of T- Unit Ratio Post | 8.60 | 1.41 | | |
| | | | -0.166 | 0.509 |
| GCM length of T-Unit Ratio Delayed | 8.99 | 2.99 | | |
| GCM Clauses Post | 14.32 | 5.64 | | |
| | | | -0.507 | 0.055 |
| GCM Clauses Delayed | 16.89 | 4.47 | | |
| GCM Clauses/T- Unit Ratio Post | 1.41 | 0.39 | | |
| | | | -0.445 | 0.050 |
| GCM Clauses/T-Unit Ratio Delayed | 1.63 | 0.58 | | |
| LCM Types Post | 60.42 | 17.40 | -0.102 | 0.679 |

| | | | | |
|------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| LCM Types Delayed | 61.95 | 11.98 | | |
| LCM Type/Token Ratio Post | 0.72 | 0.07 | 0.406 | 0.248 |
| LCM Type/Token Ratio Delayed | 0.68 | 0.08 | | |
| LCM D Value Post | 88.09 | 28.94 | 0.525 | 0.145 |
| LCM D Value Delayed | 74.89 | 20.62 | | |

Table 28. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of non-CLIL cohort's writings: CAF analysis

The post to delayed post-test comparison of CLIL students' writings (cf. Table 29) corroborates the overall results for the writing skill at the beginning of this heading. The CAF analysis showed no significant differences in grammatical complexity, but substantial differences were ascertained in terms of accuracy and fluency in favour of the post-test. In other words, the experimental group produced longer ($p=0.020$), more varied ($p=0.032$) and more accurate ($p=0.016$) writings before the CLIL programme was discontinued.

| CAF Measures | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|----------------------------|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| FM Words or tokens Post | 92.24 | 30.42 | 0.701 | 0.020 |
| FM Words or tokens Delayed | 74.33 | 19.50 | | |
| FM T-Units Post | 10.57 | 4.07 | 0.301 | 0.198 |
| FM T-Units Delayed | 9.48 | 3.16 | | |
| AM Error-Free T-Units Post | 6.24 | 4.39 | 0.064 | 0.739 |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| AM Error-Free T-Units Delayed | 6.00 | 2.97 | | |
| AM Sentences Post | 7.62 | 3.69 | | |
| | | | 0.238 | 0.208 |
| AM Sentences Delayed | 6.86 | 2.63 | | |
| AM Error-free T-Units/S Ratio Post | 0.77 | 0.39 | | |
| | | | -0.324 | 0.249 |
| AM Error-free T-Units/S Ratio Delayed | 0.88 | 0.28 | | |
| AM Errors Post | 8.14 | 5.44 | | |
| | | | 0.767 | 0.019 |
| AM Errors Delayed | 4.71 | 3.21 | | |
| AM Errors/word Ratio Post | 0.09 | 0.05 | | |
| | | | 0.699 | 0.016 |
| AM Errors/word Ratio Delayed | 0.06 | 0.03 | | |
| GCM length of T-Unit Ratio Post | 9.31 | 3.05 | | |
| | | | 0.526 | 0.058 |
| GCM length of T-Unit Ratio Delayed | 8.09 | 1.22 | | |
| GCM Clauses Post | 16.14 | 5.95 | | |
| | | | 0.322 | 0.219 |
| GCM Clauses Delayed | 14.29 | 5.59 | | |
| GCM Clauses/T-Unit Ratio Post | 10.57 | 4.07 | | |
| | | | 0.301 | 0.198 |
| GCM Clauses/T-Unit Ratio Delayed | 9.48 | 3.16 | | |
| LCM Types Post | 61.19 | 17.69 | 0.563 | 0.032 |

| | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| LCM Types Delayed | 52.48 | 12.86 | | |
| LCM Type/Token Ratio Post | 0.68 | 0.09 | | |
| | | | -0.419 | 0.184 |
| LCM Type/Token Ratio Delayed | 0.71 | 0.06 | | |
| LCM D Value Post | 74.31 | 24.39 | | |
| | | | 0.069 | 0.800 |
| LCM D Value Delayed | 72.52 | 27.17 | | |

Table 29. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of CLIL cohort's writings: CAF analysis

6.2.1.3.3.2. *Evolution per group*

In this final part of our comparison of the two stages, we will analyse the evolution of the three groups separately. Observing **RQ7** on the evolution of the EFL students' English language competence in terms of type of school, the results of the semiprivate and public non-CLIL groups were analysed separately. The review of the data gathered on the public group reveals that the means obtained in the delayed post-test were generally higher than those in the post-test. Nevertheless, with the exception of the clear improvement witnessed in the listening exam ($p=0.011$), the differences between the two phases were not statistically significant for the rest of skills tested, as can be seen in Table 30 and Figure 59. The differences in performance between the writing post-test and delayed post-test could not be calculated for this separate group. The small sample available, inevitably reduced in this type of comparison, meant the reliability of an analysis of writing results would not have been guaranteed from a statistical point of view.

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|------------------------|-------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Total Speaking Post | 4,13 | 0,85 | | 0.444 |
| Total Speaking Delayed | 3,75 | 0,96 | 0,413 | |
| Use English Post | 16,86 | 5,58 | | 0.053 |
| Use English Delayed | 22,14 | 7,47 | -0,802 | |
| Vocabulary Post | 6,29 | 1,60 | | 0.066 |
| Vocabulary Delayed | 9,00 | 2,89 | -1,162 | |
| Listening Post | 2,71 | 1,60 | | 0.011 |
| Listening Delayed | 4,57 | 1,62 | -1,153 | |
| Reading Post | 2,14 | 1,07 | | 0.270 |
| Reading Delayed | 3,00 | 1,15 | -0,770 | |
| Total Post | 28,00 | 7,81 | | 0.029 |
| Total Delayed | 38,71 | 12,01 | -1,058 | |

Table 30. Post- to delayed post-test within-group comparison: public non-CLIL

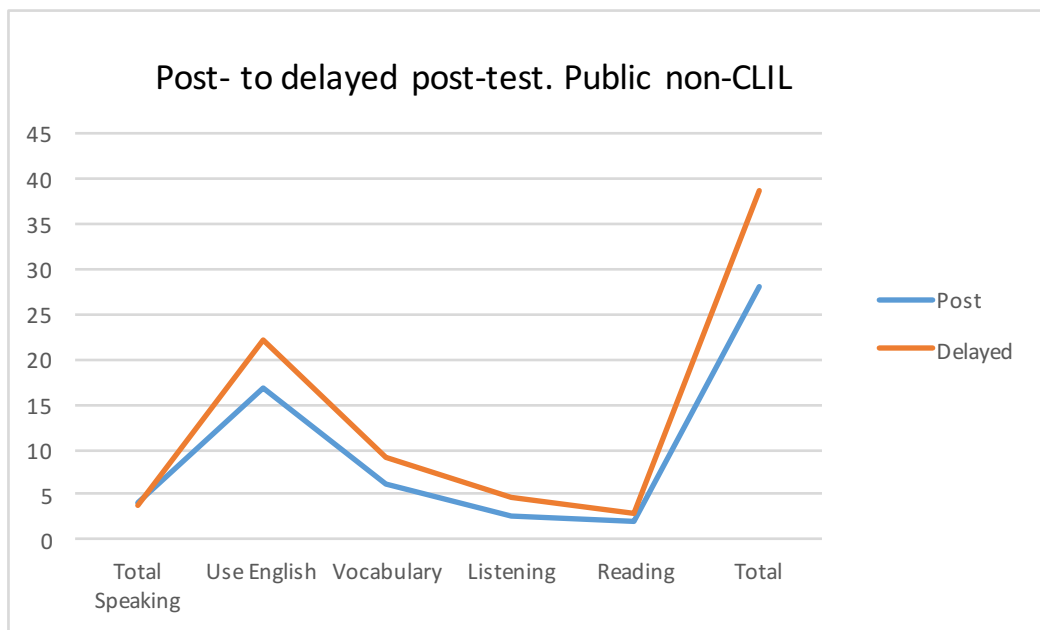


Figure 59. Post- to delayed post-test within-group comparison: public non-CLIL

Turning now to the experimental group, interesting results can be gleaned. As has already been mentioned pertaining to **RQ6** in the previous heading (cf. Tables 26 and 27), there is no doubt about the development of the speaking skills ($p=0.002$) and the use of English ($p=0.001$) of CLIL students. Their results in the second writing test, however, proved that this skill has not experimented any improvement; on the contrary, the positive effects of CLIL on writing started to gradually disappear after CLIL teaching was interrupted (cf. Figure 60). Such findings, in our view, support the continuity of CLIL programmes in post-secondary stages in order to consolidate and further develop the schemes' positive outcomes. In line with Pérez Cañado (2018a), our outcomes indicate that, although many of the effects of dual-focused education pervade, they are mitigated if the programmes are discontinued.

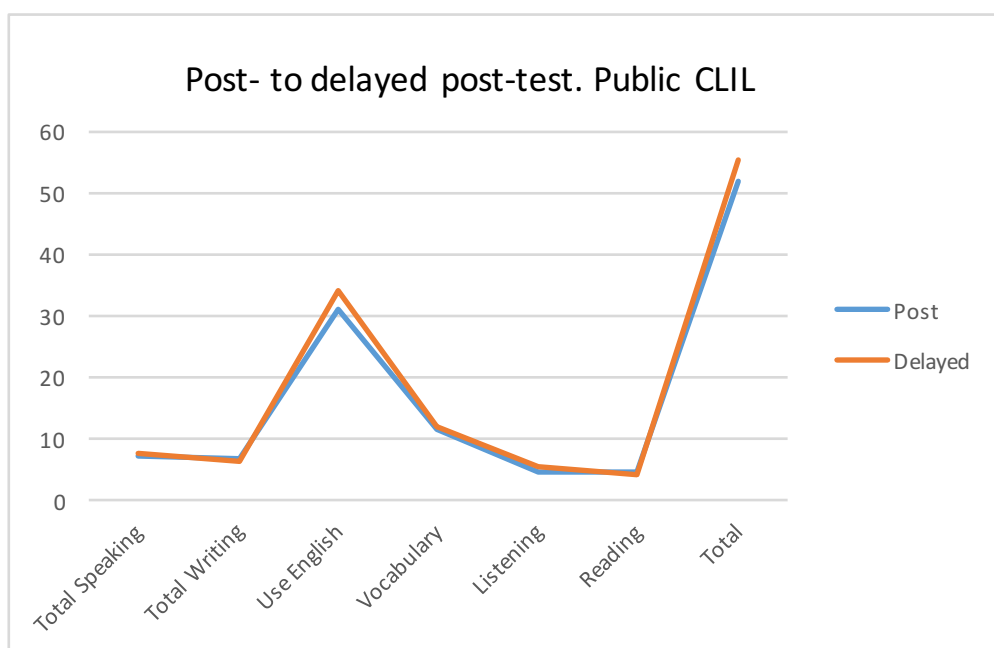


Figure 60. Post- to delayed post-test within-group comparison: public CLIL

Lastly, and addressing **RQ7**, an overview of the semi-private school's results will be offered (cf. Table 31, Figure 61). At first glance, we can acknowledge immediately that this non-CLIL group obtained better marks in writing ($p=0.011$), use of English ($p=0.022$) and vocabulary ($p=0.018$) in the delayed post-test phase. Therefore, the statistically significant differences unveiled between phases point to the development of the mentioned skills between the first and the second assessment, albeit with medium to small effect sizes. In relation to the rest of abilities tested, however, our findings revealed a lack of significant progress in speaking, reading and listening results. Moreover, in the case of the listening skill, semi-private EFL students obtained lower means in the second measure. As was foregrounded in the overall analysis of the non-CLIL cohort, the absence of progress in the abovementioned skills of semi-private EFL pupils could be explained by the proximity of the university entrance exams. The renewed emphasis on grammar and writing typically witnessed in EFL lessons during the Baccalaureate years may be the reason why communicative skills such as listening and speaking are sometimes disregarded.

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|---------------------------|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|
| Total_Speaking Post | 6,94 | 2,31 | | 0.396 |
| Total_Speaking Delayed | 7,56 | 1,79 | -0,295 | |
| Total_Writing Post | 6,78 | 2,21 | | 0.011 |
| Total_Writing Delayed | 7,94 | 1,35 | -0,637 | |
| Use of English Post | 29,50 | 8,66 | | 0.022 |
| Use of English Delayed | 32,06 | 7,32 | -0,319 | |
| Vocabulary Post | 10,61 | 4,24 | | 0.018 |
| Vocabulary Delayed | 12,67 | 1,88 | -0,626 | |
| Listening Post | 5,50 | 1,04 | | 0.636 |
| Listening Delayed | 5,33 | 1,46 | 0,132 | |
| Reading Post | 4,39 | 1,09 | | 0.172 |
| Reading Delayed | 4,67 | 0,97 | -0,269 | |
| Total Post | 50,00 | 12,30 | | 0.009 |
| Total Delayed | 54,72 | 10,10 | -0,420 | |

Table 31. Post- to delayed post-test within-group comparison: semi-private non-CLIL

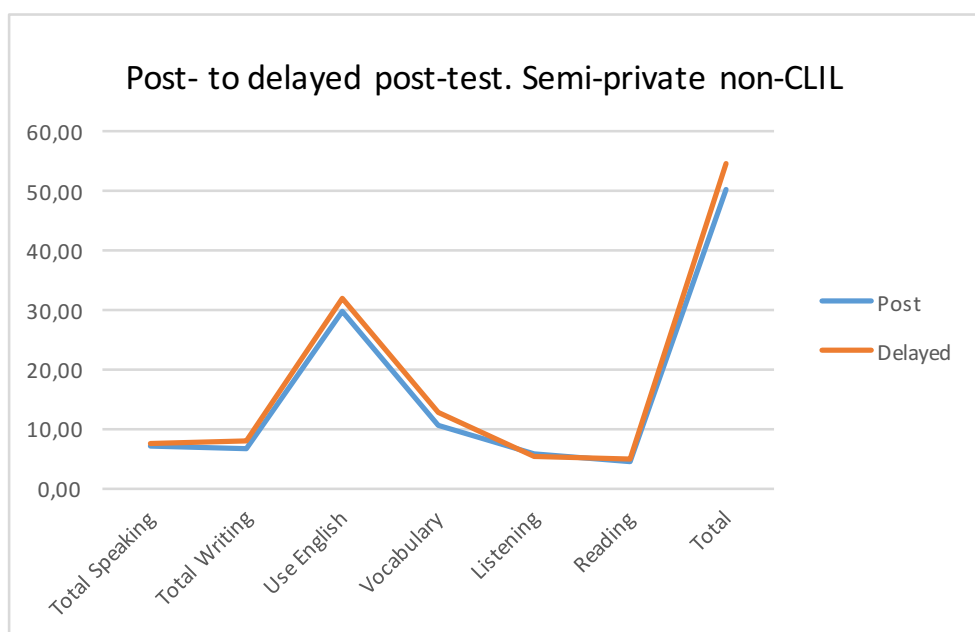


Figure 61. Post- to delayed post-test within-group comparison: semi-private non-CLIL

6.2.2 CLIL impact on Spanish, Valencian, and content taught through English

Interesting results surface when our next dependent variables are considered: Spanish competence, Valencian competence, and content taught through the foreign language. The pupils' final marks at the end of CSE for Ethics, Spanish and Valencian were obtained from the schools and then analysed and compared across the different cohorts in contemplation of metaconcern 3 articulated in **RQ8** to **RQ11**. Taken generally, our results evinced interesting statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups. These outcomes call for the fine-grained analysis of each cohorts' performance provided here and for the subsequent analysis of the possible effects of various intervening variables, necessary to give accurate answers to our research questions.

6.2.2.1. Ethics

6.2.2.1.1. Across- and within-cohort comparisons

Let us now comment on the subject content mastery of the experimental and control groups. Pertaining to the level attained by students in the Ethics subject, statistically significant differences were ascertained in favour of the non-CLIL cohort. Results were deemed substantial as exhibited by the considerably low p-value ($p=0.009$) and medium d-value coefficients ($d=0.696$) calculated (cf. Table 32). This decrease in pupils' performance in the subject taught through CLIL, compared to students learning contents in their mother tongue, is a result largely congruent with those obtained by a growing number of researchers such as Anghel, Cabrales and Carro (2016), Dallinger et al (2016), Fernández-Sanjurjo et al (2017) or Piesche et al (2016). These outcomes depart from prior research where no substantial differences could be detected between the subject content knowledge of the cohorts (Admiraal, Westhoff & de Bot, 2006; Bergroth, 2006; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Stehler, 2006) or from studies which confirm the superiority of CLIL (Mattheoudakis et al, 2014; Serra, 2007; Surmont et al., 2016).

| Subject | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|---------------|----------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Ethics Grades | Non-CLIL | 7.55 | 1.796 | 0.696 | 0.009 |
| | CLIL | 6.36 | 1.578 | | |

Table 32. Ethics grades achieved per cohort

When the three groups were contrasted through one-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD comparisons (Tables 33 and 34), noteworthy results surfaced. It was found that, the grades obtained by the semi-private non-CLIL pupils were by far the highest of all three groups, and statistically significantly so ($p=0.000$). When we next considered the public groups, this time no statistically significant differences were detected in Ethics between CLIL and non-CLIL students, who showed similar subject content mastery. Such findings suggest that, in the public-school context, studying a subject through English

has not had a detrimental effect on content learning for the CLIL cohort in line with the results of Victori and Vallbona (2008) and Coral (2009).

Turning thus to **RQ8**, on the impact of CLIL on the acquisition of content in Ethics by the experimental group in comparison to the EFL control groups, it can be affirmed that, in the public-school context, CLIL effects have been neither negative nor positive. Lastly, and regarding our findings on the content knowledge of the semi-private group, these are largely congruent with those obtained by Madrid and Barrios (2018) and Madrid and Hughes (2011), who also attest to the superior performance of students from semi-private schools. Such differences could perhaps be further explained through the analysis of other intervening variables.

| Subject | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|---------------|-----------------------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Ethics Grades | Semi-private non-CLIL | 8.42 | 1.10 | 0.349 | 0.000 |
| | Public non-CLIL | 6.07 | 1.82 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 6.36 | 1.58 | | |

Table 33. Ethics grades achieved per group: ANOVA

| Subject | Group | Semi-Private non-CLIL | Public non-CLIL | Public CLIL |
|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Ethics Grade | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.000 | | 0.828 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.000 | 0.828 | |

Table 34. Ethics grades achieved per group: Tukey’s HSD comparisons

6.2.2.1.2. Intervening variables

In relation to **RQ11**, we have analysed the possible modulating effects exerted on the students’ Ethics, Spanish and Valencian language competence by the intervening

variables of gender, sociocultural status and time of exposure to English outside the schools. This section reveals how the SES and exposure variables have had significant impact on the attainment of our 4th year of CSE students in Ethics.

The first variable under scrutiny, gender, did not elicit significant differences between the students in terms of the level achieved in the Ethics subject. It can be observed in Table 35 that female pupils tend to obtain slightly higher means than males (a result that will also be reported for the rest of subjects), but the differences cannot be considered substantial. Next, when the effects of gender were analysed per cohort (cf. Table 36), no substantial differences could be detected in the Ethics grades of males and females.

| Subject | Gender | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|---------------|--------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Ethics Grades | Male | 6.83 | 1.82 | -0.261 | 0.304 |
| | Female | 7.30 | 1.78 | | |

Table 35. Effects of the gender variable on Ethics grades

| | Group | Gender | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|---------------|----------|--------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Ethics Grades | Non-CLIL | Male | 7.21 | 2.02 | -0.383 | 0.246 |
| | | Female | 7.89 | 1.52 | | |
| | CLIL | Male | 5.89 | 1.17 | -0.469 | 0.272 |
| | | Female | 6.63 | 1.75 | | |

Table 36. Effects of the gender variable on Ethics grades per cohort

The socioeconomic status of the families, on the contrary, had a very strong influence on students' academic achievements in Ethics (cf. Table 37). Here we offer a general overview of the effect of this moderating variable on the performance of low, middle and high SES pupils. As revealed by Tukey's HSD, the students from more privileged backgrounds obtained the highest means in the Ethics subject (cf. Table 38). Lastly, as illustrated on Table 39, the socioeconomic variable had a considerable effect on non-CLIL learners ($p=0.000$) but not so much on the CLIL cohort ($p=0.300$). Observing

these results, it could be argued that belonging to the CLIL cohort may play a role in minimising the effects of the SES variable. Although further statistical work including a complete discriminant analysis will be necessary to accurately describe the influence of this variable, our initial results fall in line with Rascón and Bretones' (2018) findings regarding SES.

| Subject | SES | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|---------------|--------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Ethics Grades | Low | 5.83 | 2.08 | 0.339 | 0.000 |
| | Medium | 6.50 | 1.37 | | |
| | High | 8.31 | 1.26 | | |

Table 37. Effects of the SES variable on Ethics grades

| Subject | SES | Low | Medium | High |
|--------------|--------|-------|--------|-------|
| Ethics Grade | Low | | 0.431 | 0.000 |
| | Medium | 0.431 | | 0.000 |
| | High | 0.000 | 0.000 | |

Table 38. Effects of the SES variable on Ethics grades. Tukey's HSD Comparisons

| Subject | Group | SES | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|---------------|----------|--------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Ethics Grades | Non-CLIL | Low | 5.40 | 2.70 | 0.396 | 0.000 |
| | | Medium | 7.13 | 1.13 | | |
| | | High | 8.45 | 1.10 | | |
| | CLIL | Low | 6.14 | 1.68 | 0.104 | 0.300 |
| | | Medium | 6.14 | 1.41 | | |
| | | High | 7.50 | 1.91 | | |

Table 39. Effects of the SES variable on Ethics grades per cohort

To finish our analysis of the Ethics subject, the weight of the extramural exposure variable needs to be factored in. As explained in previous sections, students were classified in two groups according to their higher (>8h) or lower (<=8h) exposure to English outside the classroom. An initial comparison (cf. Table 40) between the performance of pupils with higher and those with lower exposure to the FL detected significant differences ($p=0.000$) worth exploring and therefore, further statistical analyses were performed to study the effects of this variable on each separate cohort (Table 41). It was found that the grades of pupils with greater exposure were normally the highest, but differences only reached statistical significance in the case on non-CLIL students ($p=0.002$). When the same analysis was made for the CLIL cohort, no substantial differences transpired ($p= 0.125$) suggesting that the extramural exposure variable has not affected the CLIL students' marks in Ethics.

| Subject | Extramural Exposure | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|---------------|---------------------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Ethics Grades | Less than 8 hours | 6.21 | 1.76 | -0.999 | 0.000 |
| | More than 8 hours | 7.82 | 1.49 | | |

Table 40. Effects of the extramural exposure variable on Ethics grades

| Subject | Cohort | Extramural Exposure | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's | p value |
|---------------|----------|---------------------|------|----------------|---------|---------|
| Ethics Grades | CLIL | <=8 hours | 5.93 | 1.38 | -0.641 | 0.125 |
| | | >8 hours | 6.91 | 1.70 | | |
| | Non-CLIL | <=8 hours | 6.47 | 2.07 | -0.838 | 0.002 |
| | | >8 hours | 8.26 | 2.18 | | |

Table 41. Effects of the extramural exposure variable on Ethics grades per cohort

6.2.2.2. Spanish competence

6.2.2.2.1. Across- and within-cohort comparisons

Results pertaining to the grades achieved by the students in the Spanish language subject will be rendered now. The level attained by pupils in the Spanish language and literature subject was calculated for the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts in an initial overall comparison which can be visualised in Table 42 below. The means were slightly higher for the non-CLIL strand, although the differences witnessed between both groups were not statistically significant. In line with numerous studies such as the ones conducted by Bergroth (2006), Madrid and Barrios (2018), Merino and Lasagabaster (2015), Merisuo-Storm (2006, 2007), Pérez Cañado (2017a) or Seikkula-Leino (2007), the existence of negative effects resulting from minimising exposure to the mother tongue in CLIL groups is refuted.

| Subject | Cohort | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|----------------|----------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Spanish Grades | Non-CLIL | 6.42 | 2.616 | 0.351 | 0.178 |
| | CLIL | 5.60 | 1.826 | | |

Table 42. Spanish grades achieved per cohort

Observing **RQ9**, we then undertook a fine-grained analysis of the three class groups through ANOVA (cf. Table 43) and Tukey's HSD comparisons (cf. Table 44). Results confirmed the existence of significant differences between the groups ($p=0.000$) and the superiority of the semi-private pupils' performance in the Spanish subject when compared to the attainment of each of the public groups ($p=0.000$). Nevertheless, the levels achieved by CLIL and non-CLIL students in the public school were similar and no differences worthy of mention could be found between them ($p=0.065$), suggesting that CLIL has had neither positive nor detrimental effects on the Spanish language of the students in the experimental group.

| Subject | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|----------------|-----------------------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Spanish Grades | Semi-private Non-CLIL | 7.75 | 1.73 | 0.365 | 0.000 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 4.14 | 2.32 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 5.60 | 1.83 | | |

Table 43. Spanish grades achieved per type of school: ANOVA

| Subject | School | Semi-private Non-CLIL | Public Non-CLIL | Public CLIL |
|----------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Spanish Grades | Semi-private Non-CLIL | | 0.000 | 0.001 |
| | Public Non-CLIL | 0.000 | | 0.065 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.001 | 0.065 | |

Table 44. Spanish grades achieved per type of school: Tukey's HSD comparisons

6.2.2.2.2. *Intervening variables*

Our study of learner attainment in the Spanish subject would not be complete without an analysis of possible intervening variables, in this case gender and socioeconomic status only. It was considered, in view of the literature (Lancaster, 2018), that extramural exposure to English may account for the level attained in the CLIL subject or for the FL proficiency differential between groups, but that the Spanish level (and even the Valencian level) of native students can hardly be ascribed to this variable.

Let us now comment on the first intervening variable analysed: the effect of gender on Spanish grades. It was calculated with the aid of the t-test and, despite the fact that females had slightly higher means (6.12) than males (6.07), no statistically significant differences could be detected (cf. Table 45), as was the case with the Ethics subject. In addition, our subsequent analysis of the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts (cf. Table 46) did not evince substantial differences between the two genders either.

| Subject | Gender | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|----------------|--------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Spanish Grades | Male | 6.07 | 2.49 | -0.023 | 0.928 |
| | Female | 6.12 | 2.26 | | |

Table 45. Effects of the gender variable on Spanish grades

| | Group | Gender | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|----------------|----------|--------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Spanish Grades | Non-CLIL | Male | 6.05 | 2.93 | -0.281 | 0.393 |
| | | Female | 6.79 | 2.27 | | |
| | CLIL | Male | 5.78 | 1.56 | 0.149 | 0.723 |
| | | Female | 5.50 | 2.00 | | |

Table 46. Effects of the gender variable on Spanish grades per cohort

The picture which transpires for the second moderating variable considered, SES, is completely different. After grouping students according to their high, medium and low socioeconomic background, it was found that their proficiency in the subject matched their SES level, with means in the Spanish subject of 7.54, 5.59 and 4.83 out of ten, respectively (cf. Table 47). The differences detected were significant ($p=0.000$) although the low Cohen's d coefficient implies a small effect size.

| Subject | SES | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|----------------|--------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Spanish Grades | Low | 4.83 | 2.29 | 0.264 | 0.000 |
| | Medium | 5.59 | 1.87 | | |
| | High | 7.54 | 1.82 | | |

Table 47. Effects of the SES variable on Spanish grades

Then, our Tukey's HSD comparisons (cf. Table 48) confirmed that the differences between the grades obtained by medium and low SES students were not statistically significant ($p=0.524$), whereas those found between the high SES students and the rest

were considerable ($p=0.001$, $p=0.002$). In other words, pupils from the most privileged families consistently obtained the highest marks in the Spanish language and literature subject. Finally, and in relation to **RQ11**, the ANOVA unveiled statistically significant differences between the two cohorts, as shown on Table 49. In the experimental group, the means obtained by pupils in the low (5.57), medium (5.36) and high (6.5) rungs were close and consequently, no statistically significant differences were found between students from this cohort, while the contrary is true for the non-CLIL group ($p=0.001$).

| Subject | SES | Low | Medium | High |
|----------------|--------|-------|--------|-------|
| Spanish Grades | Low | | 0.524 | 0.001 |
| | Medium | 0.524 | | 0.003 |
| | High | 0.001 | 0.003 | |

Table 48. Effects of the SES variable on Spanish grades. Tukey's HSD Comparisons

| Subject | Cohort | SES | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|----------------|----------|--------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Spanish Grades | Non-CLIL | Low | 3.80 | 2.49 | 0.363 | 0.001 |
| | | Medium | 6.00 | 2.00 | | |
| | | High | 7.73 | 1.80 | | |
| | CLIL | Low | 5.57 | 1.99 | 0.051 | 0.583 |
| | | Medium | 5.36 | 1.82 | | |
| | | High | 6.50 | 1.73 | | |

Table 49. Effects of the SES variable on Spanish grades per cohort

6.2.2.3. Valencian competence

6.2.2.3.1. Across- and within-cohort comparisons

We now turn to the discussion of Valencian language and literature results. It should be borne in mind that we have purposefully avoided the terms mother tongue, L1 and L2 in this context because of the special circumstances of our region. Despite the fact that all the pupils in our sample are Spanish nationals, being in a bilingual autonomous community means that, for some of them, Valencian may be at the same level as the Spanish language, while for others it may come second or it may even come before Spanish, making the aforementioned terms inaccurate to refer to the languages spoken by our student sample as a whole. In a like manner to Ethics and Spanish, the final grades obtained by our 4th grade of CSE students in the regional language were collected from the schools and analysed both per cohort and per class-group. An initial overall comparison of the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts (cf. Table 50) revealed a lack of statistically significant differences between them ($p=0.863$).

| Subject | Cohort | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|------------------|----------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Valencian Grades | Non-CLIL | 6.00 | 2.080 | 0.045 | 0.863 |
| | CLIL | 5.92 | 1.222 | | |

Table 50. Valencian grades achieved per cohort

However, when we undertook a fine-grained analysis of the outcomes per class, we discovered differences in means that are worthy of mention ($p=0.000$), as illustrated on Table 51, although Cohen's d was low. Concretely, the p-values obtained through our Tukey's HSD comparisons (cf. Table 52) indicate that the differences detected between each of the three groups are statistically significant. Addressing now **RQ10** in relation to CLIL impact on the Valencian subject results, the final grades of the experimental

group were compared to those achieved by the EFL control. It is plain to see that, in Valencian language, the experimental group is in the middle position: although the semi-private's means are considerably higher, if we compare the two public school groups, the experimental one performed better. In line with Merino and Lasagabaster's (2015) findings regarding the regional language, it appears that belonging to the CLIL stream not only has no detrimental effects, but it may have positive repercussions on the achievement of learners in this context.

| Subject | Group | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|------------------|-----------------------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Valencian Grades | Semi-private non-CLIL | 7.08 | 1.41 | 0.391 | 0.000 |
| | Public non-CLIL | 4.14 | 1.70 | | |
| | Public CLIL | 5.92 | 1.22 | | |

Table 51. Valencian grades achieved per type of school. ANOVA

| Subject | Group | Semi-private non-CLIL | Public non-CLIL | Public CLIL |
|------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Valencian Grades | Semi-private non-CLIL | | 0.000 | 0.016 |
| | Public non-CLIL | 0.000 | | 0.001 |
| | Public CLIL | 0.016 | 0.001 | |

Table 52. Valencian grades achieved per type of school: Tukey's HSD comparisons

5.2.2.3.2. *Intervening variables*

In line with **RQ11**, we have analysed the possible modulating effect exerted on the students' Valencian language and literature competence by the intervening variables of gender and sociocultural status. The first variable analysed was gender and, once again, it did not yield any statistically significant differences. No substantial differences could be ascertained between the performance of male and female learners in the regional language subject, as evidenced by the results on Table 53. In a like manner, our

statistical inquiry on the effects of this variable per cohort did not reveal any significant differences (cf. Table 54)

| Subject | Gender | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|------------------|--------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Valencian Grades | Male | 5.90 | 2.04 | -0.073 | 0.774 |
| | Female | 6.03 | 1.53 | | |

Table 53. Effects of the gender variable on Valencian grades

| | Group | Gender | Mean | Std. Deviation | Cohen's d | p value |
|------------------|----------|--------|------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Valencian Grades | Non-CLIL | Male | 5.74 | 2.42 | -0.252 | 0.443 |
| | | Female | 6.26 | 1.69 | | |
| | CLIL | Male | 5.89 | 1.05 | -0.039 | 0.926 |
| | | Female | 5.94 | 1.34 | | |

Table 54. Effects of the gender variable on Valencian grades per cohort

Turning now to the examination of the socioeconomic status variable, the Valencian grades of low, middle and high SES students were compared (cf. Table 55). This time, although the resulting p-value (0.002) initially offered statistical confirmation, the Cohen's d coefficient (0.192) revealed an effect size too small for the results to be considered truly significant. The final grades of the students in the different rungs were then compared in pairs and the pattern for the effects of SES on Valencian attainment practically mirrored that found for Spanish: the high SES students consistently outperformed their peers from more modest backgrounds (cf. Table 56). Moreover, in the CLIL cohort, the different SES pupils obtained comparable results as it can be observed on Table 57, while the outcomes of non-CLIL learners were significantly affected by this variable.

| Subject | SES | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|------------------|--------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Valencian Grades | Low | 5.08 | 1.62 | 0.192 | 0.002 |
| | Medium | 5.77 | 1.54 | | |
| | High | 6.88 | 1.42 | | |

Table 55. Effects of the SES variable on Valencian grades

| Subject | SES | Low | Medium | High |
|------------------|--------|-------|--------|-------|
| Valencian Grades | Low | | 0.415 | 0.003 |
| | Medium | 0.415 | | 0.036 |
| | High | 0.003 | 0.036 | |

Table 56. Effects of the SES variable on Valencian grades: Tukey's HSD Comparisons

| Subject | Cohort | SES | Mean | Std. Deviation | Eta Squared | p value |
|------------------|----------|--------|------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Valencian Grades | Non-CLIL | Low | 4.20 | 1.79 | 0.286 | 0.005 |
| | | Medium | 5.63 | 2.07 | | |
| | | High | 6.95 | 1.46 | | |
| | CLIL | Low | 5.71 | 1.25 | 0.047 | 0.586 |
| | | Medium | 5.86 | 1.23 | | |
| | | High | 6.50 | 1.29 | | |

Table 57. Effects of the SES variable on Ethics grades per cohort

6.2.3. Appraisal of competence differential: discriminant analysis

Under this new subheading and with a view to addressing **RQ12**, we will quantify the effect of the different variables involved by comprehensively discussing the results of our discriminant analysis. This statistical technique will help us determine which set of variables is effective in predicting group membership (CLIL and non-CLIL). In other words, we seek to calculate the discriminating potential of the moderating and

independent variables in our study. The successive discriminant analyses below will determine which variables best account for the differences detected between the CLIL and non-CLIL strands on Spanish, the FL test, Valencian and Ethics.

Pertaining to Spanish language, the differences between the experimental and control groups cannot be ascribed to the independent variable (the CLIL programme). In Table 58, we can observe that the variables which displayed the greatest significance in the tests of equality of group means are socioeconomic status ($p=0.004$). Accordingly, a discriminant function with these variables was created which proved to be significant ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, we are able to confirm that differences between groups are best explained by SES, which is higher in the non-CLIL cohort.

Test of equality of group means

| | Wilks' Lambda | F | gl1 | gl2 | Sig. |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----------|------------|------------|-------------|
| Socioeconomic status | ,857 | 9,009 | 1 | 54 | ,004 |
| Spanish grades | ,865 | 8,438 | 1 | 54 | ,005 |
| Verbal intelligence | ,985 | ,847 | 1 | 54 | ,362 |
| Self-esteem and vain desire to work | ,959 | 2,287 | 1 | 54 | ,136 |
| Anxiety | ,985 | ,796 | 1 | 54 | ,376 |
| Lack of interest | ,999 | ,030 | 1 | 54 | ,863 |
| Self-demand | ,955 | 2,531 | 1 | 54 | ,117 |
| Extramural exp. to English | ,962 | 2,110 | 1 | 54 | ,152 |

Eigenvalues

| Function | Eigenvalue | % of variance | cumulative % | Canonical correlation |
|-----------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 | ,215 | 100,0 | 100,0 | ,420 |

Wilks' Lambda 1

| Test of functions | Wilks' Lambda | Chi-square | gl | Sig. |
|--------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------|
| 1 | ,823 | 10,305 | 2 | ,006 |

| Structure Matrix | |
|-------------------------|------|
| Function 1 | |
| Socioeconomic status | ,882 |
| Spanish grades | ,853 |

| Functions at Group Centroids | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Cohort | Function 1 |
| Non-CLIL | ,352 |
| CLIL | -,587 |

Table 58. Discriminant analysis. Spanish grades

In the case of the English language (cf. Table 59), the tests of equality of group means point at the CLIL programme as the variable with greatest discriminating potential between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups. In addition, the discriminant function created confirmed that the socioeconomic status is, once more, the most influential variable. Differently put: despite the fact that the SES variable clearly benefits the non-CLIL cohort, the experimental group performed significantly better in the mentioned parts of the FL test.

| Test of equality of group means | | | | | |
|--|---------------|----------|------------|------------|-------------|
| | Wilks' | | | | |
| | Lambda | F | gl1 | gl2 | Sig. |
| Socioeconomic status | ,857 | 9,009 | 1 | 54 | ,004 |
| Verbal intelligence | ,985 | ,847 | 1 | 54 | ,362 |
| Self-esteem and vain desire to work | ,959 | 2,287 | 1 | 54 | ,136 |
| Anxiety | ,985 | ,796 | 1 | 54 | ,376 |
| Lack of interest | ,999 | ,030 | 1 | 54 | ,863 |
| Self-demand | ,955 | 2,531 | 1 | 54 | ,117 |
| Extramural exposure to English | ,962 | 2,110 | 1 | 54 | ,152 |
| Use of English | ,970 | 1,674 | 1 | 54 | ,201 |
| Vocabulary | ,918 | 4,803 | 1 | 54 | ,033 |
| Listening | ,995 | ,278 | 1 | 54 | ,600 |
| Reading | ,923 | 4,490 | 1 | 54 | ,039 |
| Total | ,945 | 3,144 | 1 | 54 | ,082 |

| Eigenvalues | | | | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|--|
| Function | Eigenvalue | % of variance | cumulative % | Canonical correlation | |
| 1 | ,375 | 100,0 | 100,0 | ,522 | |

| Wilks' Lambda | | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------|--|
| Test of functions | Wilks' Lambda | Chi-square | gl | Sig. | |
| 1 | ,727 | 16,703 | 3 | ,001 | |

| Structure Matrix | |
|-------------------------|-------|
| Function 1 | |
| Socioeconomic status | -,667 |
| Vocabulary | ,487 |
| Reading | ,471 |

| Functions at Group Centroids | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Cohort | Function 1 |
| Non-CLIL | -,466 |
| CLIL | ,776 |

Table 59. Discriminant analysis. English grades

Next, the grades obtained in the regional language were analysed. In this case, the academic level attained in the Valencian language subject does not discriminate between cohorts, as evidenced by the tests of equality of group means (Table 60). Our discriminant analysis proved that the differences between the experimental and control groups can be ascribed to a single strong variable: the pupils' socioeconomic status, which is higher in the non-CLIL cohort.

| Test of equality of group means | | | | | | |
|--|------------------------|----------|------------|------------|-------------|--|
| | Lambda de Wilks | F | gl1 | gl2 | Sig. | |
| Socioeconomic status | ,857 | 9,009 | 1 | 54 | ,004 | |
| Verbal intelligence | ,985 | ,847 | 1 | 54 | ,362 | |
| Self-esteem and vain desire to work | ,959 | 2,287 | 1 | 54 | ,136 | |
| Anxiety | ,985 | ,796 | 1 | 54 | ,376 | |
| Lack of interest | ,999 | ,030 | 1 | 54 | ,863 | |
| Self-demand | ,955 | 2,531 | 1 | 54 | ,117 | |
| Extramural exposure to English | ,962 | 2,110 | 1 | 54 | ,152 | |
| Valencian grades | ,958 | 2,350 | 1 | 54 | ,131 | |

| Eigenvalues | | | | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|--|
| Function | Eigenvalue | % of variance | cumulative % | Canonical correlation | |
| 1 | ,167 | 100,0 | 100,0 | ,378 | |

| Wilks' Lambda Test of functions | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------|--|
| | Wilks' Lambda | Chi-square | gl | Sig. | |
| 1 | ,857 | 8,255 | 1 | ,004 | |

| Structure Matrix Function 1 | | |
|------------------------------------|--|-------|
| Socioeconomic status | | 1,000 |

| Functions at Group Centroids | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------|
| Cohort | Function1 |
| Non-CLIL | ,311 |
| CLIL | -,518 |

Table 60. Discriminant analysis. Valencian grades

When analysing the variables at play in the Ethics subject context, we first selected the ones which displayed the greatest significance in the tests of equality of group means. It soon became apparent that the only one with discriminating potential was

socioeconomic status (p=0.004). Therefore, the differences between the groups are best explained by the pupils' SES, typically higher in the non-CLIL cohort (cf. Table 61).

| Test of equality of group means | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|----------|------------|------------|-------------|
| | Wilks' Lambda | F | gl1 | gl2 | Sig. |
| Socioeconomic status | ,857 | 9,009 | 1 | 54 | ,004 |
| Ethics grades | ,741 | 18,845 | 1 | 54 | ,000 |
| Verbal intelligence | ,985 | ,847 | 1 | 54 | ,362 |
| Self-esteem and vain desire to work | ,959 | 2,287 | 1 | 54 | ,136 |
| Anxiety | ,985 | ,796 | 1 | 54 | ,376 |
| Lack of interest | ,999 | ,030 | 1 | 54 | ,863 |
| Self-demand | ,955 | 2,531 | 1 | 54 | ,117 |
| Extramural exposure to English | ,962 | 2,110 | 1 | 54 | ,152 |

| Eigenvalues | | | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|
| Function | Eigenvalue | % of variance | cumulative % | Canonical correlation |
| 1 | ,361 | 100,0 | 100,0 | ,515 |

| Wilks' Lambda | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------|
| Test of functions | Wilks' Lambda | Chi-square | gl | Sig. |
| 1 | ,735 | 16,318 | 2 | ,000 |

| Structure Matrix | |
|-------------------------|------|
| Function 1 | |
| Ethics grades | ,984 |
| Socioeconomic status | ,680 |

| Functions at Group Centroids | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Cohort | Function 1 |
| Non-CLIL | ,457 |
| CLIL | -,761 |

Table 61. Discriminant analysis. Ethics grades

To finish, we will offer an additional discriminant analysis of the variables behind the differences between CLIL and non-CLIL streams, but this time focusing only on the

public-school context. We consider this additional analysis to be crucial since all the statistical analyses performed thus far point to the superior SES of the semi-private stream. Once the semi-private group was taken out of the equation, socioeconomic status was no longer an influential variable and interesting results ensued (cf. Table 62).

Considering thus the public CLIL and non-CLIL groups with more homogenous SES, the test of equality of group means and successive analyses showed that the differences between groups could be ascribed to the CLIL programme. Concretely, the various skills tests performed: use of English, vocabulary, listening and reading (considered both individually and in sum), were the variables with the greatest weight in predicting group membership; the pupils with higher marks are considerably more likely to belong to the CLIL stream. It should be stressed that the important canonical correlation observed confirms the very significant relationship that exists between these variables, which attests to the positive effects of the CLIL programme when experimental and control groups from the same background are compared.

The outcomes of the latter discriminant analysis suggest that dual-focused education positively affected foreign language learning in the CLIL stream and that it was not detrimental for content learning. In the public-school context, it is safe to affirm that the CLIL scheme is the variable accountable for the main differences found between the groups. These results accord with those obtained in recent studies in monolingual contexts where successive discriminant analyses have also been performed (Madrid & Barrios, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018a; Rascón & Bretones, 2018) and where the CLIL programme has been found to be the variable with the greatest weight in explaining the language competence differential between CLIL and non-CLIL streams.

Test of equality of group means

| | Wilks' Lambda | F | g11 | g12 | Sig. |
|------------------------|--------------------------|----------|------------|------------|-------------|
| Socioeconomic variable | ,960 | 1,263 | 1 | 30 | ,270 |
| Ethics grades | ,988 | ,356 | 1 | 30 | ,555 |
| Spanish grades | ,984 | ,483 | 1 | 30 | ,492 |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------|--------|---|----|------|
| English grades | ,908 | 3,052 | 1 | 30 | ,091 |
| Valencian grades | ,830 | 6,158 | 1 | 30 | ,019 |
| Verbal intelligence | ,994 | ,172 | 1 | 30 | ,681 |
| Self-esteem and vain desire to work | ,973 | ,820 | 1 | 30 | ,372 |
| Anxiety | 1,000 | ,001 | 1 | 30 | ,982 |
| Lack of interest | ,952 | 1,523 | 1 | 30 | ,227 |
| Self-demand | ,978 | ,671 | 1 | 30 | ,419 |
| Extramural exposure to English | ,880 | 4,083 | 1 | 30 | ,052 |
| Use_English | ,630 | 17,646 | 1 | 30 | ,000 |
| Vocabulary | ,458 | 35,516 | 1 | 30 | ,000 |
| Listening | ,723 | 11,470 | 1 | 30 | ,002 |
| Reading | ,614 | 18,824 | 1 | 30 | ,000 |
| Total | ,470 | 33,894 | 1 | 30 | ,000 |

Eigenvalues

| Function | Eigenvalue | % of variance | cumulative % | Canonical correlation |
|----------|------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | 2,029 | 100,0 | 100,0 | ,818 |

Wilks' Lambda

| Test of functions | Wilks' Lambda | Chi-square | gl | Sig. |
|-------------------|---------------|------------|----|------|
| 1 | ,330 | 38,231 | 5 | ,000 |

**Structure Matrix
Function 1**

| | |
|------------------|------|
| Vocabulary | ,830 |
| Reading | ,611 |
| Use_English | ,525 |
| Listening | ,513 |
| Valencian grades | ,436 |

Functions at Group Centroids

| Group | Function 1 |
|----------|------------|
| Non-CLIL | -1,854 |
| CLIL | 1,038 |

Table 62. Additional discriminant analysis. Public school groups

CONCLUSIONS

After an in-depth discussion of the many qualitative and quantitative results obtained, we arrive at the seventh and final chapter of this dissertation, entitled *conclusions*. The first part (7.1) comprises a recapitulation or summary of the principal findings of this multifaceted study in relation to its metaconcerns. Section 7.1.1 below will respond to the first three research questions pertaining to the qualitative side of our study, which has focused on stakeholder perceptions. In turn, the conclusions drawn from the quantitative data analyses will be condensed in the remaining sections: 7.1.2, 7.1.3 and 7.1.4. Within these, the effects of CLIL on foreign language skills (**RQ4-RQ7**), CLIL impact on Spanish competence, Valencian competence, and content taught through the FL (**RQ8-RQ11**) and the appraisal of competence differential (**RQ12**), will be addressed. In turn, the second part of the chapter (7.2) will acknowledge the limitations of the present investigation and will suggest feasible lines for future research.

7.1 Recapitulation

7.1.1. Metaconcern 1

As was seen in chapter 5, our first metaconcern was the triangulation-based analysis of stakeholders' stances on CLIL programme implementation via a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis. Congruent with metaconcern 1, this analysis was carried out through three different validated questionnaires (student, teacher and parent). In addition, semi-structured interviews, both personal and group-focused, were employed as a second qualitative tool in order to further substantiate our findings. We successfully collated stakeholders' opinions regarding competencies, methods, materials and resources, evaluation, teacher training, mobility programmes, workload, coordination and organisation in order to probe all the curricular and organizational levels affected by the CLIL scheme.

The research questions linked to metaconcern 1 were **RQ1**, **RQ2** and **RQ3** (cf. section 5.2). Accordingly, this section addresses and answers them with the evidence obtained through the analyses of the collected data:

RQ1. What are the teachers', parents', and students' perceptions of the way in which the CLIL programme is functioning at all curricular and organisational levels in their school?

In line with qualitative studies on stakeholders' perceptions in the Spanish context presented in chapter 4, our findings corroborate that students, teachers and families involved in the CLIL scheme express overall positive opinions regarding higher levels of self-confidence, interest in the subject and, to a lesser extent, participation (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2009; Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018; Oxbrow, 2018; Rubio Mostacero, 2009). In addition, the outcomes of our qualitative analysis tally with the overwhelming majority of studies on L2 that report a perceived improvement of FL skills as a result of studying in a bilingual programme (Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Madrid & Hughes, 2011; Oxbrow, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018a; Ráez Padilla, 2018).

After analysing student and teacher interviews, we can confirm that practically the entirety of data gathered support the questionnaire findings detailed in the previous sections (cf. 6.1.1). Regarding the participants' attitudes, our results allow us to conclude that most students were satisfied or very satisfied with the CLIL experience in general terms, while parents' perceptions were even more enthusiastic. Parents' general appraisal of the Plurilingual programme in the school was almost exclusively optimistic and therefore they expressed a strong support for the initiative, in line with the findings of San Isidro and Lasagabaster's (2018) investigation. The teachers' viewpoints were the most realistic, and they concur with Pladevall-Ballester's study (2015) in the sense that they combined general satisfaction with an acknowledgement of their frustrations, mainly concerning excessive workload and lack of adequate support.

1. Results pertaining to the first block have allowed us to draw a comprehensive picture of *L2 use in the CLIL classroom*. Students agreed that the English level of their teachers was adequate to participate in the programme and affirmed their own FL level had improved as a consequence of the scheme. Echoing the students, most of the teachers agreed that their pupils' command of the FL had improved considerably since joining the CLIL programme and that their own English level was adequate. With regards to the development of key competences, teachers affirmed that both oral and written skills were practised in a balanced way, while the student cohort unanimously expressed that the reading skill was less prominent in the course.

Another topic that particularly drew our attention was the apparent disagreement between teachers and students on the matter of creativity: while an overwhelming majority of students envisaged little to no development of this competence, over half of the teachers confirmed that creativity figured prominently on their CLIL agenda. From this apparent contradiction, it could be inferred that pupils and their instructors may have different concepts of creativity, an issue worth examining.

Next, and with regards to content, a huge majority of the canvassed students appeared to be satisfied with their level. Many revealed that learning through a foreign language did slow their progress at the beginning, but that they eventually caught up with their mainstream peers. Approximately half of the instructors stated that CLIL may slow down the learning process, while the rest disagreed and claimed it has motivated their students to obtain better results in the subject. This perception concurs with studies that confirm how the positive effects of CLIL on FL attainment can be felt especially in the long run (Pérez Cañado, 2018b). In turn, parents do not consider that content learning through English poses an increased challenge for their children.

Finally, in relation to their participation in the CLIL class, pupils reported increased confidence when communicating in English, although the level of participation could be higher. Parents expressed exclusively positive opinions about this improved confidence

in languages and teachers were also satisfied with student participation and confidence, albeit with a degree of scepticism.

2. On the whole, the block on methodologies and the *development of the L2 in class* can be said to present a primarily optimistic outlook. Most students and teachers agreed that both interactional and transmissive functions are present in CLIL lessons and predominantly carried out in the FL, although clarification of doubts and behaviour management were common reasons behind code-switching, in agreement with San Isidro and Lasagabaster's (2018) findings. Some teachers mentioned the students' shorter attention-span when learning through English, which forces them to place the student at the centre by taking advantage of communicative methodologies that promote as much interaction as possible.

In this line and, despite minor discrepancies, there is a general consensus that cooperative and task-based learning methodologies are employed in the CLIL streams. Furthermore, there is a focus on lexis in CLIL sessions and the links between the pupils' mother tongue and the target language are emphasised. Stakeholders agreed that individual work, pairwork, groupwork and whole-class work are usually implemented in lessons, although only half of the instructors use projects.

There is, however, considerable disagreement among parents on whether methodologies are sufficiently innovative and student-centred, mirroring pupils' views on the matter. In this line, some instructors have voiced their need for further CLIL training, something which accords with Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador's results (2017). Furthermore, numerous qualitative studies like those by Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008), or Pérez Cañado (2014, 2016d) coincide that methodology is still a problematic CLIL area that needs further investigation since important deficits have been consistently unveiled.

3. In block number three, some encouraging outcomes were revealed, as students acknowledged the use of authentic and adapted materials and believed that these

promote communication in the FL. However, critical stances reappear on the subject of *materials, resources and ICT* as many students and parents consider that the range of selected resources could be more interesting and innovative, contrary to teachers' beliefs.

A considerably more negative outlook is harboured as regards the use of ICT resources in the classroom: although pupils, parents and teachers agree to a certain extent on the use of software and online reference materials in class, the vast majority point out the lack of Web 2.0 tools and the scarcity or unavailability of technological resources and facilities. The teachers polled were especially vocal about the deficit of adequate CLIL materials and lack of support in the creation or adaptation of resources. As a result, there was a plea for better organisation and specific time allocation in their schedule for coordination meetings and the creation of CLIL materials in accordance with a trend manifested in relevant prior research (Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2016, 2017; Durán-Martínez, Beltrán-Llavador & Martínez-Abad, 2016; Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Infante, Benvenuto & Lastrucci, 2009; Massler, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2014, 2016a).

Lastly, an overwhelming majority of teachers and parents pointed at the absence of CLIL materials with guidelines in Spanish, which may help to involve the parents in their children's homework, an outcome also referred to by Cabezas Cabello (2010), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2015), Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), Pérez Cañado (2011) and Ráez Padilla (2018).

4. Moving on to *evaluation*, this block revealed a primarily optimistic outlook in all items but one: the inclusion of an oral component in the assessment process, thereby endorsing the findings of Lancaster (2012) and Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018). Regarding the issue, a large percentage of students disagree with the fact that oral testing is undertaken, despite a high degree of agreement among the total cohort. This is an unexpected outcome, since we had been told otherwise by CLIL teachers. Therefore, we are led to believe that either some students are confused about which class activities

constitute part of their final mark and which do not, or that the different CLIL teachers are inconsistent in this respect.

Pertaining to the use of formative and summative evaluation, all teachers display a positive reply, evincing congruence with the students' view. Finally, there is an overall consensus, albeit with minor discrepancies from parents, that all the content taught in CLIL lessons is part of the assessment and that it is given priority over linguistic competence. Nevertheless, the lack of clear-cut answers vis-à-vis percentages unveiled that there are no unified criteria and, as a result, content and form are weighted differently across subjects and years.

5. The next block, entitled *teacher training* in the instructors' questionnaire, partially corresponds to the *training and information* section in the parents' block and includes several items from the equivalent section entitled *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* in the students' survey. This time, instructors expressed mixed feelings concerning their own knowledge and skills. They appeared to be self-confident in relation to their productive and receptive skills in the FL and their sociocultural knowledge, mirroring the rest of stakeholders, who were satisfied with teachers' abilities in general. However, it soon became apparent that motivation constituted the main culprit: although most students considered teachers were successful in motivating them, over one fourth of pupils claimed to feel uninspired by their teaching, an issue which should not be overlooked. On a more positive note, outcomes congruent with Sánchez-Torres (2014) showed that TAs were highly regarded by the majority of participants for the support they offer to both CLIL teachers and students.

With regards to their pedagogic preparation, all teachers claimed to have participated in at least one teacher training initiative but also voiced their need for further training. Teachers' low levels of participation in linguistic upgrade courses unveiled a possible cause for concern: paucity in the constant development of the target language. Furthermore, the data collected revealed that instructors are not entirely satisfied with their knowledge of the inner workings of CLIL and the regional Plurilingualism plan.

Adequate teacher training provision is frequently listed in the CLIL literature and poses an ongoing problem that needs to be adequately addressed (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2015, 2016b; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015; Rubio Mostacero, 2009). To finish, the main areas for improvement in this block pinpointed by parents were, coincidentally, the need for further information on the regional Plurilingualism plan and on the underlying principles of CLIL.

6. The sixth thematic block addresses the thorny topic of *mobility*, which brings forth markedly heterogeneous findings. The three stakeholders mentioned that students feel encouraged by CLIL teachers and by their own families to take part in exchange and language programmes. However, despite the support received, only half of the students had taken part in a mobility programme, which accords with Gálvez Gómez (2013) and Lancaster's (2012) findings regarding this topic. Ráez Padilla's (2018) results recently unveiled a similar contrast between the families' theoretical appraisal of the importance of mobility and the actual number of cases in which their offspring took advantage of mobility opportunities, a mismatch which calls for further research.

As for teacher mobility, we conclude that linguistic courses abroad have generally not been carried out, and study licenses and methodological training outside their country are even less common, a situation which endorses the findings of a cluster of authors (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Galvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2012). Fortunately, better outcomes were obtained in relation to exchanges, since most teachers had participated in one. Nonetheless, we consider mobility to be a key aspect of teacher development and therefore hold the opinion that greater emphasis should be placed on this issue in order for the school to have an adequately trained staff that can successfully step up to the CLIL challenge.

7. The concluding block for the student and parent cohort was entitled *improvement and motivation towards learning English*. Outcomes on this topic attest to the success of the CLIL programme in the public school, not only from a student mindset but also from

the parents' perspective. An elevated percentage of students consider that belonging to a CLIL stream has greatly improved their FL skills in general, a fact their families corroborate. The CLIL programme under scrutiny appears to have also furthered a general upgrade in terms of student motivation, a result in keeping with Cabezas Cabello's (2010), Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez's (2018) or Pérez Cañado's (2018b) investigations.

Moving on to the more negative aspects identified, only half of the parents surveyed expressed heightened personal motivation as a result of their children's CLIL experience, which may be linked to the difficulties reported in helping them with their homework and assignments. Furthermore, most families reported that they do not contact the CLIL teachers on a regular basis to check on their child's progress, which can be a cause for concern given that communication between school and home is pivotal to the success of the CLIL scheme.

Questions on *coordination and organisation* within the CLIL scheme particularly polarised teachers' opinions. Although most CLIL instructors surveyed considered that coordinators did fulfil their functions within the regional Plurilingualism plan and had a positive stance in relation to their mutual communication and with other CLIL schools, a considerable number were convinced that organisation could be improved. We must reiterate here that there was no CLIL coordinator as such in the public school under study, but a Deputy Headteacher to whom instructors may turn in case of need. The possibility that some of the teachers saw this person as a coordinator, while the rest did not, may explain the divergent views expressed.

In addition, and conforming with the opinions held by the student and parent cohorts, the majority of teachers stated that being part of the CLIL programme was worth the extra effort involved. Nevertheless, a small percentage of teachers considered the workload to be excessive, which coincides with the outcomes of several prior investigations (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009).

The CLIL instructors in our study collectively demanded greater support from the educational authorities, a serious concern already voiced by Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador (2016) and San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2018), who also acknowledged limited regional administrative support. Teachers also require further assistance with the creation of resources given the scarcity of adequate published course materials and, lastly, they reiterate the need for suitable teacher training programmes specific to CLIL.

RQ2. Are there any statistically significant differences between the perceptions of the three stakeholders?

Addressing our second research question, the items in the student, parent and teacher questionnaires were matched to allow for a comprehensive comparison of the cohorts (cf. section 6.1.1.3). This across-cohort comparison enabled us to detect how many differences existed among cohorts and for which items the aforementioned differences were manifest. Although the three stakeholders had varied opinions with respect to several questionnaire items, their differences in perception very rarely reached statistical significance. In other words, the subjects surveyed were very much in agreement regarding the overall success of the CLIL programme implemented and had similar views on its main areas for improvement.

After an in-depth statistical inquiry, significant differences were identified for three of the items examined, all of them related to students' use, competence and development of English in class in the first block of the surveys. It was revealed that, although all stakeholders admit to a certain degree that the pupils' self-confidence had improved in the CLIL programme, families were the only ones to affirm so without any reservations. Lastly, when asked whether the oral skills and written abilities of pupils had reached an adequate level, families and instructors held different views: nearly half of the teachers expressed some reservations while positivity was detected almost across the board on the parental side.

Overall, we can conclude that our statistical analysis has witnessed a trend unfolding for all the stakeholders discussed. Every time the data collected showed heterogeneous or discordant results (whether statistically significant or not), parents were the ones to hold the most positive opinions on the school's CLIL programme and the skills and self-confidence it fosters, which fully concurs with the results obtained by Pladevall-Ballester (2015). The optimistic stance of the families in the above-mentioned aspects contrasts with that of those more directly involved in the CLIL experience: their children and especially with teachers, who have consistently proved to be the most critical cohort.

RQ3. Within the student cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (group, age, gender, socioeconomic status and time of exposure outside school)?

To provide an answer to **RQ3**, CLIL student perceptions were compared in terms of the identification variables outlined in our research design (section 5.3.3) and substantial differences were found in terms of gender and group. Considering gender, our within-cohort comparison revealed statistically significant differences in the blocks related to *teachers' and students' use, competence and development of English in class and evaluation*. This contrast unveiled that females showed greater agreement than males when asked about the development of key competences developed in class and when reporting that content was assessed over form in the CLIL programme. Furthermore, female students were more critical than their male counterparts on teachers' adequate level of receptive and productive oral skills in the target language.

Vis-à-vis the group variable, our statistical analysis showed that, generally speaking, group D's experience in the CLIL programme had been more positive than that of group E. The former appeared to be less critical and more optimistic than the latter when reflecting on methodology, materials and resources and the skills of their teachers. Group D claimed to have developed projects and to have worked collaboratively in

groups to a greater extent than class E. The latter witnessed more collaboration among CLIL teachers in the design of resources, but class D is the one to have worked with more adapted materials, and used interactive resources more frequently. Finally, it was revealed that students in group D gave higher ratings to their CLIL teachers' ability to motivate them.

Since both groups were very similar in size, age, SES, motivation, ability and in their access to resources both inside and outside the school, it appears that the sole important difference between them was their CLIL instructors. All pupils had followed the CLIL programme for the same number of years and they had had the same subjects, but the two class groups had not always shared the same CLIL instructors. We believe that the heterogeneous viewpoints collated may point to the teachers' particular implementations of the programme and to their teaching skills as the main reasons behind the different perceptions observed.

7.1.2. Metaconcern 2

Turning to our second metaconcern (quantitative study), and specific to research questions number four, five and six, a comprehensive evaluation of the English language tests results was performed considering the influence of the various intervening variables. In addition, we analysed the duration of the differential effects exerted by the CLIL programme on FL skills. Accordingly, this thesis set out to answer the three research questions directly concerning the above. In this sense, the analyses presented in the results and discussion chapter (cf. section 6.2.1) provided the empirical evidence that has enabled us to reach the following conclusions:

RQ4. Do CLIL programmes implemented with 4th year CSE students (experimental group) develop superior linguistic competence (grammar,

vocabulary, and the four skills) to that promoted by traditional EFL programmes with students from the same level (control group)?

The students' performance on the above-mentioned linguistic ability tests was evaluated and our general outcomes allow us to confirm the superior English language competence of students following the CLIL programme. As detailed in section 6.2.1, the CLIL cohort outperformed the non-CLIL stream in all the skills and aspects sampled, with particularly marked differences in use of English, vocabulary and reading. It should also be underlined that the speaking skills of the experimental group were significantly superior, especially in terms of fluency and adequacy to the task, mirroring studies by Madrid and Barrios (2018), Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) or Ruiz de Zarobe (2008). Differences in listening and writing, however, did not reach statistical significance. Moreover, our detailed Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency (CAF) analysis corroborates that, on the whole, our CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts have similar writing abilities, in line with Roquet and Pérez-Vidal's (2015) findings. Overall, our results tally with the vast majority of prior investigations on the positive effects of CLIL on FL attainment discussed in our literature review: from early landmark studies such as Admiraal, Westhoff and de Bot's (2006) in The Netherlands to very recent ones like Pérez Cañado's (2018a) in Spain.

RQ5. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the secondary students' English language competence by the following intervening variables: type of school (public, semi-private), gender, sociocultural status and time of exposure to English outside school?

RQ5 inquired about the differential effect exerted on students' FL competence by the various intervening variables. In order to factor in the *type of school variable*, we fleshed out the data in terms of public and semi-private school types and we are able to affirm that the type of school in which students are enrolled clearly exerts a modulating effect on their language competence. Results (cf. section 6.2.1.2) suggested that, in

general terms, the attainment of the CLIL group fares well when compared with the mainstream semi-private one and is especially superior to the public EFL control. Moreover, CLIL students obtained the highest marks in all the skills sampled with the exception of listening, a result in line with Pérez Cañado (2018a), who found no significant differences in performance for this skill. In sum, while there were no substantial differences between the experimental and the semi-private EFL pupils, both classes outperformed the public non-CLIL group across the board and did so at high confidence levels.

The findings of our CAF analysis of the written test further confirm this trend. The CLIL group and their peers from the semi-private mainstream school obtained similar means on all sub-skills tested. Both produced writings of very similar length, accuracy and complexity, which allow us to confirm that dual-focused education had no detrimental effect on the CLIL cohort with regards to this skill. Furthermore, when considering only the public-school context, outcomes clearly suggest that the CLIL group has a considerably greater command of grammar and vocabulary and is able to produce longer and more complex texts than the non-CLIL stream, in line with Ackerl (2007), Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann (2007, 2010), Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010) and Seregély (2008).

Vis-à-vis *gender*, no significant differences could be ascertained between female and male pupils in any of the skills tested. There is evidence of males performing better on the speaking test, while females obtained slightly higher scores on the remaining skills, but the differences between them did not reach statistical significance. The subsequent CAF analysis and the analysis per cohort confirmed that the writing skills and subskills of both genders were, once again, comparable.

In order to measure the *socioeconomic* variable, the educational attainment of parents was taken as a proxy. The analysis did not detect any statistically significant differences in attainment between the pupils in the three rungs (low, medium and high). In harmony with these findings, our complexity, accuracy and fluency analyses did not evince any

statistically meaningful differences either between the performance of students in the different rungs. However, a more in-depth analysis of the SES variable according to cohort evinced statistically significant differences between the students of non-CLIL groups, while pupils in the experimental group obtained statistically comparable results in all the skills assessed. Our outcomes corroborate a trend discerned in extremely recent studies, namely, that CLIL programmes could well be cancelling out differences in social class, causing them to phase out, particularly in the long term, when students reach the end of CSE (Pérez Cañado, 2017b; Pavón, 2018; Rascón & Bretones, 2018).

Lastly, when it comes to the presentation of the results associated with the *effects of extramural exposure* to English on the FL tests, general outcomes suggested that greater exposure (more than eight hours per week) to the TL had a positive effect on the grammar and the receptive skills of the learners. Regarding each separate cohort, significant differences were located between non-CLIL learners in the majority of skills, invariably in favour of students with more extramural exposure. In the CLIL group, the influence of this variable was felt only in the reading test, while the rest of skills remained unaffected. It was argued that the greater in-class exposure to the TL in the CLIL cohort may have helped to bridge the existing gap between students with greater or lesser access to English outside the school.

RQ6. Considering the evolution of the experimental group from the post- to the delayed post-test phase, do the possible differential effects exerted by CLIL programmes on English language competence pervade at the end of the first term of Baccalaureate (six months after the CLIL programme is discontinued) or do they gradually disappear?

As was seen in section 6.2.1.3, post-test results were compared with the outcomes of the delayed post-test sat by the same pupils six months after the end of the CLIL programme. Concerning the CLIL group, on close inspection of the data obtained in the two phases, it can be affirmed that the students performed significantly better in the

second use of English test. Furthermore, our findings vis-à-vis the speaking performance of CLIL pupils revealed a statistically significant improvement in the various speaking sub-skills assessed, which confirms the positive general development of this ability in the experimental group. Differences in means were also detected in listening, vocabulary and reading exams, favouring the delayed post-test, although in this case, these did not reach statistical significance. Such data, however, contrast with those obtained in our comparison of the writing exams, which favour the post-test phase. Our detailed CAF analysis corroborated that the CLIL students produced longer, more varied and more accurate writings before the end of the experimental programme.

Vis-à-vis **RQ6** on the duration of the effects of CLIL after reaching Baccalaureate, our data point to the sustained improvement of use of English and speaking abilities, while the achievements in listening and reading are maintained. With regards to writing, however, our findings allow us to conclude that the positive effects felt during the post-test phase gradually disappeared for the experimental group once the CLIL programme was discontinued. Overall, we consider that these outcomes support the continuity of CLIL schemes in post-secondary stages and their importance in order to consolidate and further develop their positive results. In line with Pérez Cañado (2018a), our analyses indicate that, although many of the effects of dual-focused education pervade, these can be mitigated if the programmes are discontinued.

RQ7. What is the evolution of the EFL (control) group's (both jointly and in terms of type of school) English language competence from the post- to the delayed post-test phase?

Pertaining to the non-CLIL cohort, post-test outcomes were also compared with the results of the delayed post-test sat in the first trimester of Baccalaureate. The analysis of our EFL cohort's data did not unveil meaningful differences between the two phases in the listening, speaking or reading abilities of the students. Nevertheless, statistically significant improvements in use of English, vocabulary and writing were detected.

Regarding the latter skill, however, our CAF analysis revealed that the perceived improvement was minimal and mainly restricted to grammatical complexity. Our outcomes could be explained by the focus on grammar and writing often witnessed in EFL lessons during Baccalaureate due to the proximity of the university entrance exams. Since communicative skills such as listening and speaking are not assessed in these exams, they are sometimes disregarded by teachers.

Vis-à-vis the evolution of the EFL students' English language competence in terms of type of school, the results of the semiprivate and public non-CLIL groups were analysed separately. The data gathered on the public non-CLIL group revealed that the means obtained in the delayed post-test were generally higher than those in the post-test. Nevertheless, with the exception of the improvement witnessed in the listening exam, the differences between the two phases were not statistically significant for the rest of skills tested. In turn, the semi-private EFL group obtained significantly better marks in use of English, writing and vocabulary in the delayed post-test phase. Nevertheless, in relation to the speaking and reading abilities, our findings revealed a lack of significant progress. Furthermore, in the case of the listening skill, semi-private non-CLIL students obtained lower marks in the second measure. As was foregrounded in the overall analysis of the non-CLIL cohort, the absence of progress in the mentioned skills could be explained by the proximity of the university entrance exams.

7.1.3. Metaconcern 3

Metaconcern 3 will now be examined. An analysis was carried out providing an insight into the remaining dependent variables of our study, which encompassed the students' Spanish and Valencian attainment, as well as their mastery of the contents of the subject implemented through CLIL (Ethics). Research questions eight to ten explore the effects of the CLIL programme on pupils' achievements in the foregoing subjects, while **RQ11** delves into the effects of the various intervening variables examined under heading 6.2.2.

RQ8. Does CLIL impact the level of Ethics acquired by the experimental group following this programme, in comparison to that achieved by the EFL control?

An initial analysis carried out on the subject content mastery of the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts in Ethics unveiled statistically significant differences in favour of the latter (cf. section 6.2.2.1). Poorer performance in the subject taught through English in comparison to content learning in the mother tongue is a result in line with those obtained by a growing number of researchers, such as Anghel, Cabrales and Carro (2016), Dallinger et al (2016), Fernández-Sanjurjo et al (2017) or Piesche et al (2016).

Nevertheless, when the three class groups were contrasted, the picture which transpired was completely different. It is safe to affirm that, in the public-school context, learning Ethics through CLIL had no detrimental effects, since CLIL and non-CLIL students showed similar subject content mastery, endorsing Victori and Vallbona (2008) and Coral's (2009) findings. To finish, the better grades of the semi-private group were largely congruent with Madrid and Barrios' (2018) and Madrid and Hughes' (2011) results, who also attested to the superior performance of students from semi-private schools.

RQ9. Does CLIL impact the level of Spanish acquired by the experimental group following this programme, in comparison to that achieved by the EFL control group?

Our initial overall comparison of the level attained by the two cohorts in the Spanish subject revealed that the few differences witnessed between groups were not statistically significant (cf. section 6.2.2.2). These outcomes mirror numerous studies which also refute the existence of negative effects resulting from a decreased exposure to the L1 in CLIL groups, such as the ones conducted by Bergroth (2006), Madrid and Barrios (2018), Merino and Lasagabaster (2015), Merisuo-Storm (2006, 2007), Pérez Cañado (2017a) or Seikkula-Leino (2007).

The subsequent fine-grained analysis of the three groups confirmed that the L1 levels achieved by CLIL and non-CLIL students in the public school were very similar, suggesting that the programme did not exert either a positive or a negative influence on the mother tongue of students in the experimental group. The analysis also revealed that the semi-private pupils' performance in the L1 subject was significantly better than that of the other two groups.

RQ10. Does CLIL impact the acquisition of content in Valencian by the experimental group following this programme, in comparison to that achieved by the EFL control groups?

Similarly to the Ethics and Spanish subjects discussed in the previous sections, the final grades obtained by the students in the regional language were collected from the schools and analysed both per cohort and per group (cf. section 6.2.2.3). The review of the data related to the research question posited above revealed a lack of statistically significant differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts. After this initial overall comparison, however, a detailed analysis of the outcomes per group evinced certain differences, albeit with small effect sizes. When the Valencian performance of the three class groups was contrasted, we found that the CLIL stream outstripped the non-CLIL public one and that the semi-private's means were the highest of all three groups.

In line with Merino and Lasagabaster's (2015) findings regarding the regional language, belonging to the CLIL stream had no negative effects on attainment. Furthermore, it appeared to have positive repercussions for the experimental group, mirroring San Isidro and Lasagabaster's outcomes (2018).

RQ11. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the 4th grade of CSE students' Spanish language, Valencian language competence and Ethics by the

following intervening variables: type of school (public and semi-private), gender, sociocultural status and amount of exposure to English outside of school?

With regards to the first intervening variable, the statistical analyses performed revealed that the *type of school* carries an important weight, as confirmed in research questions seven to nine. On closer inspection of the three separate groups, in the public-school context it was invariably the CLIL group who obtained the best grades, although generally speaking, the semi-private non-CLIL pupils were the highest achievers in Ethics, Spanish and Valencian language.

Pertaining to the *gender* variable, it did not elicit significant differences between the students in terms of the level achieved in the Ethics, Spanish and Valencian subjects. It was observed that female pupils obtained slightly higher means than males in the subjects under scrutiny, but the differences could not be considered substantial. The *socioeconomic status* of the families, on the contrary, had a considerable influence on students' academic achievements; pupils from more privileged backgrounds typically obtained the highest means in Ethics, Spanish and Valencian. The differences evinced, however, were not always significant, as had happened with FL proficiency, where the means of low, middle and high SES participants were very close.

Interestingly, it was also unveiled that the SES variable had a significant effect on non-CLIL learners but not so much on the CLIL cohort. In other words: the differences in performance between pupils from various backgrounds were minimised in the CLIL cohort, which points to a possible beneficial effect of the programme, mirroring Rascón and Bretones' (2018) findings regarding SES. Nevertheless, further statistical work like the complete discriminant analysis detailed at the end of section 6.2.3 and summarised in **RQ12** below proved necessary to accurately describe the influence of this variable.

The picture which arises for the last moderating variable considered, *extramural exposure*, was quite similar. A general comparison between students with high (>8h) and with low (<=8h) FL exposure identified higher means on behalf of the students with

greater exposure to English. Nevertheless, regarding the Ethics subject, no significant differences could be ascertained between high and low exposure students in the CLIL cohort, whereas in the case of the non-CLIL control, the differences did reach statistical significance. These findings suggest that the variable under analysis did not affect the CLIL students' marks in Ethics to a significant extent.

7.1.4. Metaconcern 4

Conducive to underpinning the key assumptions of this thesis, we will now present an overview of the principal findings of our detailed discriminant analyses (cf. section 6.2.3) in relation to the fourth and last metaconcern articulated in **RQ12** below. This appraisal of competence differential has sought to quantify the impact of the variables considered, with a view to determining whether the differences detected between cohorts can be ascribed to the CLIL programme.

***RQ12.** If there is a competence differential between the treatment and comparison groups, is it truly ascribable to language learning based on academic content processing?*

On addressing the last research question, we performed successive discriminant analyses (cf. section 6.2.3) to conclude which variables best account for the differences detected between the experimental and control groups in Ethics, Spanish, Valencian and English proficiency. Relating to the Ethics and Spanish subjects, it was revealed that the only variable with true discriminating potential was the socioeconomic status of the students. The subsequent analyses indicated that SES was typically higher in the non-CLIL cohort. Results proved that the differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts could not be ascribed to the CLIL programme (the independent variable). This was also the case when analysing the variables at play in the Valencian language subject, as it was found that the level attained in the regional language did not

discriminate between cohorts. The analyses performed evinced that the differences could be ascribed to a single strong variable: the pupils' SES, which was higher in the non-CLIL cohort.

Lastly, and pertaining to FL proficiency, results pointed at the CLIL programme, together with SES, as the variables with greatest discriminating potential between groups. In other words, we were able to conclude that although the socioeconomic status variable clearly benefited the EFL cohort, the CLIL group performed significantly better in the FL test.

Our appraisal of competence differential, however, would not be complete without an additional discriminant analysis of the public-school context. As was ascertained throughout our discussion, the statistical analyses carried out until that moment on students' final grades called for further inquiry into the strong effects of SES on the achievements of the non-CLIL cohort. Consequently, for this supplementary analysis, the semi-private group was separated from the public one and taken out of the equation. As a result, when comparing the two public streams, socioeconomic status ceased to come forth as an influential variable and interesting results ensued. Specifically, it was unveiled that the FL level attained (consistently superior in CLIL students) was the variable with the greatest weight in predicting group membership. Finally, in response to **RQ12**, the analyses carried out corroborate that the CLIL scheme is the variable accountable for the main differences found between the groups from the same institution, thus confirming that the gains of the experimental cohort are truly ascribable to CLIL.

7.2. Limitations of the study and further lines for research

This dissertation has sought to tackle one of the current areas of interest in SLA research: to gain a deeper insight into the effects of CLIL programmes. In addition, we

have conducted our investigation in the region of Valencia, an area conspicuous for its paucity of empirically sound research into the topic. As is the case with all studies of this genus, ours also has its limitations. In this section, we wish to address these, while at the same time suggesting possible avenues for further research.

Firstly, one of the main limitations concerns the numerically and geographically reduced sample. Nonetheless, our investigation can be characterised as a case study and it was not the intention to generalise conclusions. While large-scale evaluations of CLIL programmes are certainly necessary, this smaller study has made it possible to better reflect the reality of a specific CLIL implementation by means of a complex multifaceted analysis. It would be interesting, however, to replicate this investigation with an increased sample and with the aid of other researchers. This would enable us to carry out a greater number of statistical analyses than those possible in a numerically limited sample. An increased number of participants would also allow us to examine pupils from other areas of the region (the provinces of Alicante and Castellón) to determine whether results are in agreement with the conclusions of this thesis, and the Plurilingual plan is working as efficiently throughout the region of Valencia.

Secondly, this investigation has evinced that CLIL instruction appears to minimise the impact of socioeconomic status on pupil performance, but that the strong effects of this variable on non-CLIL students should not be underestimated, especially when including semi-private groups in a study. On the one hand, it could be argued that factoring in the socioeconomic status of students from the onset, at the homogenisation stage, would have been advisable. On the other hand, with excessive homogenisation of the sample in a small study we run the risk of losing sight of the actual composition and characteristics of the groups and failing to offer a realistic picture of the effects of teaching programmes in authentic class groups. The supplementary discriminant analysis offered at the end of our discussion enabled us to better understand the different weight of this and other variables in the CLIL and non-CLIL contexts without renouncing to the full picture.

Thirdly, it would have been desirable to use standardised tests instead of the pupils' final grades from the schools in the Spanish, Valencian and Ethics subjects. However, this has been done in the interest of the feasibility of our project. We already overloaded the two schools that volunteered for the investigation and abused their generosity during the various testing phases of the qualitative and quantitative studies. Therefore, the administration of additional tests would have been an impossibility. Nevertheless, we acknowledge that the use of standardised tests would be beneficial in future research projects with a greater number of schools, where the various tests, interviews and surveys could be distributed without taking up so much of their time.

In terms of methodological triangulation, our study has employed two types of instruments to compare perceptions among stakeholders: questionnaires and interviews. It would be beneficial to include a third tool with a view to better scrutinizing and reporting on the realities of the CLIL classroom. Observation protocols would allow researchers to witness the implementation of this approach, with its positive and negative aspects. To avoid potential bias, these observers would naturally have to be external to the school and completely unobtrusive.

Considering now the participants' perceptions, some of the findings regarding creativity and motivation particularly drew our attention. There was an apparent disagreement between teachers and some students: while a small but considerable number of pupils felt uninspired in these aspects, most CLIL teachers perceived they motivated their students and confirmed that creativity figured prominently on their CLIL lessons. From this contradiction, we inferred that CLIL teachers and a proportion of their students may have different concepts of motivation and creativity. We believe these constitute interesting lines for further research with a view to bridging the gap between students' expectations and actual teaching practice.

Similarly, our study unveiled another mismatch, this time pertaining to mobility. We observed that only half of the students had taken part in mobility programmes, despite the encouragement of their teachers and parents. Several studies have recently

signposted this issue. It would be worthwhile to delve deeper into the contrast between the theoretical appraisal of mobility and the actual use of mobility opportunities, in order to foster the latter more successfully.

Despite its limitations, the present longitudinal investigation has been able to offer an in-depth picture of the effects of CLIL implementation in a particular educational context with the assistance of tried-and-tested instruments. The collated data have enabled us to provide a detailed description of stakeholder stances, as well as empirical evidence on the impact of CLIL on FL proficiency (use of English, vocabulary and the four skills) and on student attainment in the Spanish, Valencian and Ethics subjects.

Moreover, this research study has superseded many of the limitations of prior investigations which compromised the reliability of their results. For instance, its longitudinal nature and mixed methods research design (a combination of qualitative and quantitative features), together with the use of validated instruments, are traits which our investigation presents as opposed to previous ones. Steps were also taken from the onset to ensure the homogeneity of experimental and control groups in terms of verbal intelligence and motivation, and three types of triangulation were applied: data triangulation, methodological triangulation and location triangulation.

Other lacunae often presented by CLIL research studies involve the absence of statistical analyses and a failure to factor in important variables. In order to rectify the above shortcomings, our investigation took into consideration a number of dependent (the pupils' English, Spanish, Valencian and Ethics level), independent (the CLIL scheme) and moderating variables (verbal intelligence, motivation, socioeconomic status, gender, type of school, extramural exposure) that were likely to influence results. In addition, successive discriminant analyses were carried out to determine the existence of significant differences between groups and to uncover which variables best account for those differences.

Lastly, and considering the pressing need for empirical research in our region, we have strived to present a rigorous monitoring of the effects of a CLIL programme and the sentiments of its stakeholders to better understand the main hurdles to be tackled in the forthcoming future. It is our hope that the present dissertation, despite its limitations, will shed some light on the true potential of CLIL in our specific context and will contribute to push forward its research and implementation in the region of Valencia.

SUMMARY OF THESIS IN SPANISH

"Impacto del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) en la adquisición del inglés y el rendimiento académico de alumnos valencianos de secundaria: un estudio de casos"

Justificación del estudio y metodología

El principal objeto de la presente investigación ha sido el de aportar nuevos datos sobre los efectos del enfoque metodológico AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras) en el contexto plurilingüe de la Comunitat Valenciana. Esta tesis doctoral desarrolla un estudio longitudinal con un diseño de investigación cualitativo y cuantitativo con tres grupos de alumnos, sus profesores y sus familias.

Los primeros cuatro capítulos presentan una detallada revisión de literatura que incluye una retrospectiva sobre la metodología de la enseñanza de segundas lenguas y la aparición del AICLE en el contexto europeo. Se ofrece una caracterización pormenorizada del enfoque metodológico con sus puntos fuertes y débiles, y se presta especial atención a sus antecedentes: los modelos canadiense y americano. La última parte de la revisión bibliográfica aporta una amplia panorámica de las más relevantes publicaciones europeas sobre AICLE, haciendo hincapié en los estudios centrados en nuestro país. En ella puede apreciarse cómo la inmensa mayoría de las investigaciones llevadas a cabo en el continente en diferentes niveles educativos aprueba esta metodología. En sus resultados, la superioridad de los grupos experimentales AICLE en el idioma extranjero y el aprendizaje de contenido respecto a los grupos de control es prácticamente una constante.

Sin embargo, un grupo cada vez más numeroso de voces críticas ha reaccionado ante este excesivo optimismo inicial y ha puesto de relieve la escasez de estudios AICLE verdaderamente fiables, especialmente los empíricos y de naturaleza cuantitativa. Los principales problemas que afectan a muchas investigaciones abarcan desde trabajar con muestras numérica y geográficamente reducidas hasta no incluir triangulación ni considerar el efecto de importantes variables moderadoras. Asimismo, se espera que los

estudios utilicen instrumentos previamente validados, garanticen la homogeneidad de la muestra y lleven a cabo los necesarios análisis estadísticos para no sólo descubrir si las diferencias entre grupos son significativas, sino para determinar si las mejoras halladas pueden realmente atribuirse al programa AICLE. En este contexto de renovado interés por un estudio mejor fundamentado del AICLE se enmarca el presente trabajo de investigación, que tratará de abordar las mencionadas cuestiones ofreciendo un informe metodológicamente riguroso sobre los efectos del programa AICLE en un centro público valenciano.

El quinto capítulo establece los objetivos, las preguntas de investigación y justifica el estudio. Describe además de forma detallada el método, incluyendo la muestra y los instrumentos utilizados para la recolección de datos y su posterior análisis estadístico. La muestra de la parte cuantitativa de la investigación involucra a 63 alumnos provenientes de tres clases de 4º de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria (ESO): el grupo experimental AICLE (público) y los grupos de control que estudian inglés como lengua extranjera o ILE (público y concertado). Por otro lado, la muestra cualitativa comprende 68 informantes que participan directa o indirectamente en el programa AICLE implementado en el centro público. Los estudiantes representan el 67,6% de la muestra cuantitativa, sus padres constituyen el 22,1% de la misma y los profesores el restante 10,3%.

En lo que respecta a los objetivos de la tesis, el primero consiste en recabar información sobre la satisfacción generada por el programa plurilingüe en los participantes del mismo a todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos (competencias, métodos, materiales y recursos, evaluación, formación del profesorado, programas de movilidad, carga de trabajo). El segundo objetivo es cuantificar el desarrollo de la competencia lingüística en inglés de los alumnos y analizar el impacto del AICLE en su nivel de gramática, vocabulario y destrezas productivas (habla y escritura) y receptoras (escucha y lectura), además de evaluar la duración de estos efectos. Finalmente, nuestro tercer objetivo se centra en valorar el impacto del programa AICLE en el rendimiento escolar de los estudiantes, concretamente en las asignaturas de lengua española, valenciano o

lengua autonómica y la asignatura AICLE de Ética. Dichos objetivos principales han sido articulados más específicamente en 12 preguntas de investigación (PI) que nuestro estudio busca responder:

- Área Focal 1: PERCEPCIONES DE LOS PARTICIPANTES

PI1. ¿Cuáles son las percepciones de los profesores, padres y estudiantes del funcionamiento del programa AICLE a todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos en su centro escolar?

PI2. ¿Existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones de los tres colectivos: profesores, padres y alumnos?

PI3. Dentro del colectivo de alumnos, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de percepción en función de las variables de identificación: grupo, edad, género, nivel socioeconómico y tiempo de exposición al inglés fuera del aula?

- Área Focal 2: EFECTOS DEL AICLE EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA

PI4. ¿Desarrollan los alumnos del grupo experimental AICLE implementado en 4º curso de ESO competencias lingüísticas (gramática, vocabulario y las cuatro destrezas) superiores a las desarrolladas a través de programas tradicionales en grupos no AICLE del mismo nivel (grupo de control)?

PI5. ¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes (tipo de centro, género, nivel socioeconómico y tiempo de exposición al inglés fuera del aula) sobre la competencia en lengua extranjera del alumnado?

PI6. Según la evolución del grupo AICLE de la fase de post test a la de seguimiento, ¿perduran los posibles efectos diferenciales ejercidos por el

programa AICLE sobre la competencia lingüística en inglés seis meses después del fin de dicho programa o desaparecen gradualmente?

PI7. ¿Cuál es la evolución de la competencia lingüística en inglés del grupo de control ILE (conjuntamente y por tipo de centro) de la fase de post-test a la de seguimiento?

- *Área Focal 3: IMPACTO DEL AICLE EN LAS CALIFICACIONES DE LENGUA ESPAÑOLA Y VALENCIANA Y LA ASIGNATURA DE CONTENIDO IMPARTIDA A TRAVÉS DEL AICLE*

PI8. ¿Afecta el programa AICLE a la adquisición de contenido en la asignatura de Ética del grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?

PI9. ¿Afecta el programa AICLE al nivel alcanzado en la asignatura de lengua española por el grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?

PI10. ¿Afecta el programa AICLE al nivel alcanzado en la asignatura de lengua autonómica (valenciano) por el grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?

PI11. ¿Cuál es el efecto modulador ejercido en la competencia de los alumnos en las asignaturas de ética, lengua española y valenciana por parte de las siguientes variables intervinientes: tipo de centro (público y concertado), género, nivel socioeconómico y exposición al inglés fuera del centro?

- *Área Focal 4: EVALUACIÓN DEL DIFERENCIAL. ANÁLISIS DISCRIMINANTE*

PI12. En caso de existir diferencias significativas entre el grupo experimental y el de control, ¿pueden realmente ser atribuidas al programa AICLE?

Las últimas secciones del capítulo 5 presentan las diversas herramientas y metodología estadística que se han empleado en la recolección y tratamiento de datos durante las diferentes fases del estudio:

- Fase Inicial: La necesaria homogeneización y selección de la muestra final se llevó a cabo mediante un cuestionario inicial (diseñado por el grupo Mon-CLIL), un test de razonamiento e inteligencia verbal (Evaluación Factorial de las Aptitudes Intelectuales EFAI por Santamaría, Arribas, Pereña y Seisdedos, 2016) y un test de motivación y ansiedad (MA por Pelechano Barberá, 1994), adaptados a la etapa de secundaria en la que se encuentran los alumnos.
- Fase Cualitativa: Para estudiar las percepciones de los participantes favoreciendo la triangulación metodológica fueron necesarios tres cuestionarios para alumnos, profesores y padres (adaptados a cada uno de los tres grupos), entrevistas personales semi-estructuradas con los profesores AICLE y entrevistas grupales semi-estructuradas con los alumnos AICLE. Todos los instrumentos mencionados habían sido previamente diseñados y validados en el seno del proyecto Mon-CLIL.
- Fase Cuantitativa: Por último, todos los alumnos tanto AICLE como no AICLE realizaron una serie de exámenes de inglés (Madrid, Bueno y Ráez, 2018) para establecer su competencia en lengua extranjera antes de finalizar 4º de ESO y de nuevo seis meses después, ya cursando Bachillerato. En concreto, las pruebas fueron de vocabulario, gramática y las cuatro habilidades productivas y receptivas (habla, escritura, lectura y escucha).

Por último, los datos obtenidos fueron analizados con la ayuda del programa SPSS en su versión 23.0. Con el objeto de determinar la existencia de diferencias inter e intragrupalmente estadísticamente significativas se utilizaron el ANOVA, la prueba de t y el test Mann–Whitney U, junto con los tests de Tukey’s HSD o Bonferroni post hoc. Además, se emplearon análisis discriminantes para establecer qué variables eran responsables de las diferencias halladas entre los grupos. Los datos obtenidos mediante los cuestionarios fueron analizados estadísticamente y los resultados se presentaron mediante estadísticos descriptivos; en concreto se calcularon medidas de tendencia

central (media y mediana) y medidas de dispersión (rango, alto-bajo y desviación típica).

Las perspectivas de los participantes fueron estudiadas con la ayuda de técnicas cualitativas y cuantitativas. Para analizar los protocolos de entrevista se utilizó la Teoría Fundamentada en Datos de Glaser y Strauss (1967) para categorizar, codificar y justificar las conclusiones alcanzadas. En cuanto a la parte cuantitativa, los resultados fueron presentados mediante datos, porcentajes y visualizaciones gráficas.

Finalmente, los capítulos 6 y 7 ofrecen una minuciosa presentación y discusión de los resultados obtenidos, reconocen las principales limitaciones del estudio y proponen futuras líneas de investigación. Las principales conclusiones del estudio se presentan en los párrafos siguientes, teniendo en cuenta las 12 preguntas de investigación y haciendo referencia a estudios previos relevantes.

Conclusiones del estudio

Área Focal 1: Percepciones de los participantes

Nuestro objetivo de identificar las perspectivas de los participantes respecto a la metodología AICLE a todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos (competencias, métodos, materiales y recursos, evaluación, formación del profesorado, programas de movilidad y carga de trabajo) ha conllevado la realización de una serie de encuestas y de entrevistas personales y grupales. El análisis de los datos obtenidos nos ha permitido responder a las tres preguntas de investigación contenidas en esta Área Focal (PI1, PI2 y PI3):

PII. *¿Cuáles son las percepciones de los profesores, padres y estudiantes del funcionamiento del programa AICLE a todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos en su centro escolar?*

En consonancia con la gran mayoría de estudios cualitativos sobre este tema presentados en nuestra revisión de literatura, los resultados de la presente investigación corroboran que los estudiantes, los profesores y los padres encuestados expresan opiniones claramente positivas. Las entrevistas realizadas tras la recolección de los cuestionarios respaldaron y ampliaron los hallazgos de los mismos: satisfacción generalizada con el programa y los beneficios que aporta, como el aumento de confianza en uno mismo, de interés por la asignatura AICLE y de participación. Los tres colectivos indican además que perciben una clara mejoría en las habilidades lingüísticas del alumnado en el idioma extranjero. A continuación, pasamos a sintetizar los resultados obtenidos en cada uno de los siete bloques temáticos de los cuestionarios, diferenciando las visiones aportadas por los tres colectivos implicados en el programa plurilingüe, completándolas con los datos que revelan las encuestas.

1. Los resultados pertenecientes al primer bloque nos han permitido obtener una visión panorámica del *uso de la lengua extranjera (LE) en el aula AICLE*. Podemos afirmar que los tres colectivos presentan actitudes predominantemente positivas; no obstante, el grupo de profesores ofrece una visión algo más crítica. Los tres grupos encuestados celebran el desarrollo de las capacidades lingüísticas del alumnado y la mayoría de instructores considera adecuado su dominio de la LE. Los datos también han desvelado pequeñas discrepancias entre aquellos directamente implicados en el programa: mientras que los profesores afirman que las cuatro habilidades se trabajan de forma equilibrada y que la creatividad figura de modo preferente en sus lecciones, los alumnos señalan que la lectura es una habilidad con menos presencia que las demás en la asignatura AICLE y que sería deseable un mayor desarrollo de la competencia creativa. Respecto a la asimilación de contenido, los tres grupos se muestran optimistas, si bien es cierto que un número considerable de participantes reconoce la existencia de cierto rezago inicial. En armonía con estudios previos que indican beneficios a medio y largo

plazo, los encuestados afirman que pronto el grupo AICLE alcanzó sin problema a los alumnos que estudiaban en su lengua materna.

2. El segundo bloque, que trata sobre *metodología* y los diferentes usos de la lengua extranjera en el aula, muestra también resultados optimistas. Un gran número de participantes encuestados confirma que la mayoría de funciones de interacción y transmisión de conocimientos tienen lugar en inglés y no en la lengua materna, aunque también reconocen que la resolución de dudas y la gestión del comportamiento son motivos habituales para el *code-switching*, en armonía con los resultados de San Isidro y Lasgabaster (2018). Algunos profesores consideran que la capacidad de concentración de sus alumnos es algo menor a la hora de seguir explicaciones en lengua extranjera, por lo que siguen una metodología centrada en el alumno que se aleja de la tradicional clase magistral y trata de explotar al máximo las oportunidades de comunicación e interacción. En este sentido, existe un consenso general sobre la utilización de metodologías cooperativas, enfoques basados en tareas y trabajo individual, por parejas o grupos, mientras que sólo la mitad de profesores utilizan proyectos. De los resultados se desprende también que gran parte del profesorado da prioridad a la dimensión léxica en la clase AICLE y se enfatiza la conexión entre la lengua materna y el inglés.

Existe, sin embargo, cierto desacuerdo entre los agentes implicados respecto al grado de innovación de las metodologías empleadas. En esta línea, algunos profesores han expresado su necesidad de mayor formación AICLE, un resultado que coincide con los de Durán-Martínez y Beltrán-Llavador (2017). De hecho, numerosos estudios cualitativos como los llevados a cabo por Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa (2018), Pena Díaz y Porto Requejo (2008), o Pérez Cañado (2014, 2016d) señalan que la metodología AICLE utilizada en muchos centros es todavía un área problemática en la cual se han descubierto importantes déficits.

3. En lo que respecta al tema de *materiales, recursos* y uso de las TICs, el tercer bloque nos ha proporcionado resultados mixtos. Por un lado, los estudiantes corroboran el uso

de materiales auténticos y adaptados para la clase AICLE que promueven la interacción. Pero, por otro, los alumnos se muestran algo críticos respecto a dichos materiales y estiman que podrían ser más interesantes e innovadores, al contrario que algunos de sus profesores, que tienen una visión algo más autocomplaciente.

El uso de las TICs en el aula, en cambio, atrae opiniones considerablemente más negativas. Aunque los tres grupos afirman que se utilizan software y materiales de referencia online con cierta asiduidad, también indican la ausencia de herramientas Web 2.0 y la escasez o insuficiente disponibilidad de recursos tecnológicos e instalaciones. Los instructores entrevistados fueron claros acerca del déficit de libros de texto adecuados y de la falta apoyo para la creación y adaptación de materiales AICLE. Por este motivo, piden una mejor organización y una pequeña reducción horaria que les permita programar reuniones de coordinación y de elaboración de materiales con otros profesores AICLE. Todo ello está en consonancia con lo expresado por un gran número de profesores en investigaciones similares (Durán-Martínez y Beltrán-Llavador, 2016, 2017; Durán-Martínez, Beltrán-Llavador y Martínez-Abad, 2016; Fernández y Halbach, 2011; Infante, Benvenuto y Lastrucci, 2009; Massler, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2014, 2016a). Por último, la gran mayoría de padres y profesores identificaron otro aspecto clave que se debe mejorar: la ausencia de materiales AICLE con instrucciones en castellano que permitan a los padres involucrarse y ayudar en las tareas a sus hijos. Esta petición de las familias ha sido también recogida en estudios previos como los de Cabezas Cabello (2010), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2015), Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa (2018), Pérez Cañado (2011) o Ráez Padilla (2018).

4. El cuarto bloque temático revela interesantes hallazgos en materia de *evaluación*. La inmensa mayoría de los participantes corrobora que en la asignatura AICLE se practica la evaluación diversificada, formativa, sumativa y holística. Los tres grupos implicados (a pesar de las discrepancias de algunos padres) coinciden en afirmar que todo el contenido enseñado en la asignatura AICLE se evalúa y que éste tiene además prioridad sobre la competencia lingüística. Sin embargo, la falta de respuestas claras sobre los porcentajes de evaluación otorgados al contenido y a la forma revelan la falta de un

criterio unificado en este aspecto. Finalmente, un grupo numeroso de alumnos expresó que, a la hora de evaluar, no se incluye un componente oral en la asignatura AICLE, un resultado que entra en contradicción con el punto de vista del profesorado. Ello nos lleva a conjeturar que algunos estudiantes puedan no haber comprendido qué actividades de clase constituyen parte de la evaluación y qué actividades no, o que los profesores AICLE no sean consistentes a la hora de calificar esta habilidad. Los autores Lancaster (2012) y Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa (2018) también encontraron discrepancias en las percepciones de los participantes respecto a la inclusión de un componente oral en la evaluación de los grupos AICLE.

5. El bloque número cinco recibe el nombre de *formación del profesorado* en el cuestionario de los profesores y el de *formación e información* en la encuesta de los padres, mientras que los alumnos respondieron a un bloque que coincide parcialmente con los anteriores y se titula *uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés de los profesores en clase*. Esta vez, los profesores expresaron sentimientos contradictorios respecto a sus propios conocimientos y habilidades. Los instructores parecen poseer una actitud autocomplaciente respecto de sus habilidades lingüísticas (tanto receptoras como productivas), su conocimiento de aspectos socioculturales y conciencia intercultural; una percepción que queda corroborada por las valoraciones de los otros dos grupos. En cambio, este colectivo se siente algo inseguro en su preparación pedagógica y, a pesar de haber participado como mínimo en un curso, reclama más oportunidades de formación en los principios básicos del AICLE y el Decreto de Plurilingüismo de la Comunitat Valenciana. Los datos recogidos también evidencian una baja participación en cursos de formación lingüística, lo cual supone un motivo de preocupación, pues se trata de un colectivo del que se espera un desarrollo constante de la lengua meta. Tanto es así que un gran número de publicaciones se han hecho eco de la necesidad de una mayor y mejor oferta formativa para los profesores AICLE, entre ellas las de Cabezas Cabello (2010), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2012), Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa (2018), Pérez Cañado (2012, 2015, 2016b), Pérez Cañado y Ráez Padilla (2015) o Rubio Mostacero (2009). Cabe además destacar que las principales áreas de mejora señaladas por los padres son precisamente una mayor información sobre los principios

básicos del AICLE y el Decreto de Plurilingüismo. Para finalizar, la mayoría de los estudiantes valoraron positivamente la capacidad de sus profesores AICLE para motivarlos y los resultados fueron incluso más positivos para los auxiliares de conversación, resultados congruentes con los de Sánchez-Torres (2014). Sin embargo, una proporción nada desdeñable de los alumnos (cerca de la cuarta parte) señaló, al contrario de lo expresado por los profesores y el resto de compañeros, que las clases AICLE podrían ser más estimulantes.

6. El sexto bloque aborda el tema de la *movilidad* y presenta resultados heterogéneos. Los tres grupos (familias, profesores y alumnos) mencionan que los padres y profesores animan a los estudiantes a tomar parte en intercambios y programas lingüísticos. Sin embargo, solo la mitad de ellos lo han hecho alguna vez a pesar del apoyo recibido, un dato que concuerda con los hallazgos de estudios previos (Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Ráez Padilla, 2018). Sería conveniente estudiar en profundidad los motivos de este aparente contraste entre el valor otorgado a la idea de movilidad y el número real de alumnos que finalmente aprovecha este tipo de oportunidades.

En lo que respecta a la movilidad del profesorado, los datos muestran que la mayoría ha participado en al menos un intercambio, pero que generalmente no participan en cursos lingüísticos en el extranjero y lo mismo sucede con las licencias de estudios y formación metodológica fuera del país; una situación respaldada por los resultados de varias investigaciones previas (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Galvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2012). Consideramos que la movilidad es un aspecto clave en el desarrollo profesional del profesorado, por lo que es necesario en el contexto de este centro escolar hacer hincapié en el aprovechamiento de dichos programas con el objetivo de conseguir una plantilla adecuadamente formada para afrontar con garantías el reto AICLE.

7. El séptimo y último bloque temático se titula *mejoras y motivación para el aprendizaje de inglés* en los cuestionarios de los alumnos y padres, mientras que la encuesta de profesores se centra en la *coordinación y organización* del programa. Los

resultados generales de este último bloque avalan el éxito del programa desde el punto de vista de los tres grupos involucrados en el mismo. Un elevado porcentaje de estudiantes expresaron que pertenecer a un grupo AICLE ha mejorado considerablemente sus habilidades en lengua inglesa, una percepción que también comparten sus familias y la mayoría de profesores. Éstos últimos se muestran, en general, más cautelosos a la hora de loar las virtudes del programa. Por ejemplo, los tres colectivos encuestados reconocen que pertenecer a la línea AICLE supone una mayor carga de trabajo, pero la gran mayoría afirma que el esfuerzo extra merece la pena. Los profesores son de la misma opinión, pero un pequeño porcentaje considera que el aumento en su carga de trabajo resulta excesivo, coincidiendo con otros estudios españoles sobre el tema (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009).

Nuestro estudio también ha identificado una mejora general en términos de motivación como consecuencia de la implementación del programa AICLE en estos grupos de estudiantes, en consonancia con anteriores investigaciones (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Navarro Pablo y García Jiménez, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018b). Sin embargo, sólo la mitad de los padres manifestaron sentirse motivados a raíz de esta experiencia, lo cual podría relacionarse con las dificultades a la hora de ayudar a sus hijos, expresadas en bloques precedentes. Es más, un gran número de familias admite no contactar con el profesor de la asignatura AICLE con regularidad para conocer los progresos de sus hijos, una cuestión algo preocupante dada la importancia de la comunicación fluida entre la casa y la escuela para el éxito a largo plazo de estos programas.

Los resultados recogidos a través de los ítems sobre coordinación y organización revelaron actitudes polarizadas por parte del profesorado participante. Aunque la mayoría de los instructores estiman que los coordinadores cumplen con sus funciones dentro del plan de plurilingüismo regional y tienen además una opinión positiva de la comunicación existente con esta figura y con otros centros plurilingües, un número considerable de profesores consideran que la organización y coordinación del programa es muy mejorable. Es importante reiterar en este punto que no existe un coordinador

AICLE como tal en el centro bajo estudio, sino una subdirectora a la que los profesores pueden acudir en caso de necesidad. La posibilidad de que algunos profesores consideren a esta persona como la coordinadora CLIL y otros no lo hagan podría explicar las opiniones discordantes expresadas.

Por último, el colectivo de profesores exige mayor respaldo y financiación por parte de las autoridades educativas, una cuestión ya verbalizada por profesores en estudios similares, como los de Durán-Martínez y Beltrán-Llavador (2016) y San Isidro y Lasagabaster (2018). Los profesores necesitan urgentemente un mayor apoyo, no sólo en los aspectos de formación AICLE y organización, sino también en la creación de materiales y recursos adecuados para poder llevar a cabo su labor en el día a día.

PI2. *¿Existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones de los tres colectivos: profesores, padres y alumnos?*

Respondiendo a nuestra segunda pregunta de investigación, los ítems de los tres cuestionarios (alumnos, profesores y padres) se han hecho concordar para permitir una comparación exhaustiva de los diferentes colectivos. Dicha comparación intergrupar nos ha permitido detectar que, aunque claramente existe una variedad de opiniones, las diferencias halladas entre las apreciaciones de los grupos rara vez alcanzan relevancia estadística. En otras palabras, los sujetos encuestados han resultado estar notablemente de acuerdo en el éxito general del programa y presentan puntos de vista muy similares respecto a las áreas que conviene mejorar.

Tras un detallado estudio estadístico, se identificaron diferencias significativas en tres de los ítems examinados, todos los cuales pertenecían al primer bloque de los cuestionarios, titulado *uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés de los alumnos en clase*. El análisis puso de manifiesto que, aunque todos los participantes admiten hasta cierto punto que la confianza de los alumnos en sí mismos ha mejorado gracias al programa, las familias son las únicas que lo afirman sin reservas. A continuación, tras ser

encuestados sobre si las habilidades escritas y orales de los estudiantes habían alcanzado un nivel adecuado, los profesores y las familias presentaron puntos de vista distintos. Concretamente, y aunque la mayoría de profesores sí estaba de acuerdo, prácticamente la mitad de ellos expresó ciertas reservas, mientras que casi la totalidad de los padres se mostró muy optimista respecto al desarrollo de lengua extranjera experimentado por los alumnos.

En conjunto, podemos concluir que nuestro análisis estadístico ha identificado un patrón en el grado de optimismo que presentan los diferentes colectivos en sus apreciaciones. Dicho de otro modo, cada vez que los datos sobre el parecer de cada uno de los grupos muestran resultados heterogéneos o discordantes con el resto (estadísticamente significativos o no), es el grupo de los padres el que manifiesta opiniones más positivas, especialmente en lo referente a la implementación del programa AICLE y las habilidades y autoconfianza que desarrolla en sus hijos. Nuestro análisis, al igual que el de Pladevall-Ballester (2015), refleja el contraste entre la valoración casi exclusivamente positiva que hacen las familias y la visión de aquellos más directamente involucrados en el aula AICLE: los alumnos y especialmente los profesores, quienes sin duda constituyen el colectivo más crítico.

PI3. *Dentro del colectivo de alumnos, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de percepción en términos de las variables de identificación: grupo, edad, género, nivel socioeconómico y tiempo de exposición al inglés fuera del aula?*

Con el objeto de contestar la siguiente pregunta de investigación, se compararon las percepciones de los alumnos AICLE en función de las citadas variables de identificación y se hallaron relevantes diferencias por lo que respecta al género y al grupo al que pertenecen los alumnos. Al contemplar la variable género, nuestra comparativa intragrupal localizó diferencias significativas en los bloques sobre el uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés de los alumnos y profesores en clase y evaluación.

En concreto, los resultados muestran un mayor consenso entre alumnas a la hora de valorar el desarrollo de competencias clave en el aula AICLE y de afirmar que el contenido tiene prioridad sobre la forma en la evaluación. Además, las alumnas se mostraron más críticas que sus compañeros respecto al nivel de la producción y comprensión oral de sus profesores.

Con relación a la variable grupo, el análisis estadístico señala que, en líneas generales, la experiencia AICLE del grupo D ha sido algo más positiva que la del grupo E. Los primeros se muestran más optimistas y menos críticos que los últimos en su apreciación de la metodología, materiales y recursos y las habilidades de sus profesores. El grupo D, a diferencia del E, afirma haber trabajado por proyectos. Además, el trabajo grupal y el uso de recursos interactivos y material adaptado aparece con más frecuencia en las respuestas de 4º de ESO D. Asimismo, a la hora de calificar la habilidad de sus profesores AICLE para motivarlos, los alumnos de este grupo dieron mejores valoraciones.

Teniendo en cuenta que ambos grupos eran muy similares en tamaño, edad, motivación, destrezas, acceso a recursos tanto dentro como fuera del centro, número de años en la línea plurilingüe y asignaturas cursadas, se puede inferir que la principal diferencia entre ellos son los profesores AICLE que han tenido. Consideramos, pues, que los puntos de vista discordantes en este caso pueden deberse a la particular implementación de la asignatura AICLE por parte de los distintos profesores y también al diferente nivel de sus aptitudes pedagógicas.

Área Focal 2: Efectos del AICLE en la lengua extranjera

PI4. *¿Desarrollan los alumnos del grupo experimental AICLE implementado en 4º curso de ESO competencias lingüísticas (gramática, vocabulario y las cuatro destrezas) superiores a las desarrolladas a través de programas tradicionales en grupos no AICLE del mismo nivel (grupo de control)?*

Las destrezas lingüísticas de los estudiantes fueron evaluadas mediante los tests indicados y el análisis de los resultados generales ratifican un dominio del idioma extranjero superior en los alumnos de la línea AICLE. El grupo experimental aventajó al de control en todas las habilidades y aspectos observados, con diferencias notables en gramática, vocabulario y lectura. Cabe destacar además que las destrezas orales del grupo AICLE fueron superiores, en la línea de estudios como los de Madrid y Barrio (2018), Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) o Ruiz de Zarobe (2008), especialmente en lo que respecta a fluidez y adecuación a la tarea. Las diferencias encontradas entre ambas cohortes en comprensión oral y escritura, sin embargo, no fueron estadísticamente significativas. En este sentido, nuestro detallado análisis adicional CAF del examen de escritura (complejidad, precisión y fluidez) ha corroborado que los alumnos tienen un nivel comparable de producción escrita. En términos generales, podemos afirmar que nuestros resultados están alineados con la mayoría de investigaciones sobre los efectos positivos del AICLE sobre la lengua extranjera presentados en la revisión de literatura (capítulo 4): desde estudios fundamentales como el de Admiraal, Westhoff y de Bot (2006) en Holanda hasta los más recientes en nuestro país, como el de Pérez Cañado (2018a).

PI5. *¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes (tipo de grupo, género, nivel socioeconómico y tiempo de exposición al inglés fuera del aula) sobre la competencia en lengua extranjera del alumnado?*

Con la finalidad de estudiar la variable *tipo de centro*, los resultados de los alumnos fueron clasificados según el tipo de colegio y programa en el que estos participaron (grupo público AICLE, grupo concertado ILE y grupo público ILE). Los análisis estadísticos llevados a cabo nos permiten afirmar que esta variable ejerce un claro efecto modulador en la competencia lingüística de los alumnos. En concreto, los resultados han revelado que las habilidades del grupo AICLE en lengua extranjera son comparables a las del grupo concertado ILE y especialmente superiores a las del grupo público ILE, por lo que están en la línea de varios estudios previos (Ackerl, 2007;

Hüttner y Rieder-Bünemann, 2007, 2010; Jexenflicker y Dalton-Puffer, 2010; Seregély, 2008).

Además, los alumnos del grupo experimental obtuvieron las calificaciones más altas en todos los tests, excepto en el de comprensión oral, en consonancia con Pérez Cañado (2018), quien tampoco encontró diferencias significativas en esta destreza. En síntesis: no se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente relevantes entre los resultados del grupo AICLE y el concertado, mientras que, en comparación con ambos, el grupo público ILE parece haber quedado rezagado.

Los hallazgos del análisis CAF no hacen sino reforzar estos patrones; es decir, el grupo experimental y el concertado ILE obtuvieron medias semejantes en todos los aspectos analizados. El hecho de que las dos clases produjeran textos de una longitud, precisión y complejidad similares apunta a que el programa AICLE no ha tenido efectos perjudiciales en la competencia en lengua inglesa de los estudiantes. Es más, si se contempla únicamente el contexto público, las diferencias son todavía más claras, pues los alumnos AICLE demostraron un mayor dominio de la gramática y vocabulario y fueron capaces de producir textos objetivamente más largos y complejos que los estudiantes de la línea ILE de su mismo centro educativo.

En lo referente al *género*, no se observaron diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las habilidades de los alumnos y las alumnas en ninguna de las destrezas analizadas y el subsiguiente análisis CAF corrobora que la competencia escrita es comparable en ambos géneros. El estudio de la siguiente variable, en cambio, sí que arroja más diferencias. Para medir la variable *socioeconómica* se tomó como referencia el nivel de estudios de los padres y se clasificó en alto, medio o bajo. El análisis cuantitativo de los datos encontró, aunque sin confirmación estadística, ciertas diferencias entre los alumnos según su estatus; es decir, los alumnos provenientes de entornos más privilegiados obtuvieron por lo general las mejores calificaciones. En este sentido, las diferencias halladas mediante el análisis CAF tampoco alcanzaron relevancia estadística.

Por último, pudimos comprobar que la variable *tiempo de exposición al inglés* fuera del aula ejerce una influencia sustancial sobre la competencia en lengua extranjera del alumnado. Se ha constatado que los alumnos con una mayor exposición extramural (ocho o más horas por semana) presentan habilidades significativamente mayores en gramática y en las destrezas receptivas, mientras que las destrezas productivas no parecen afectadas.

PI6. *Según la evolución del grupo AICLE de la fase de post test a la de seguimiento, ¿perduran los posibles efectos diferenciales ejercidos por el programa AICLE sobre la competencia lingüística en inglés seis meses después del fin de dicho programa o desaparecen gradualmente?*

Tras un minucioso análisis de los datos obtenidos en la fase post-test y en la fase de seguimiento, podemos confirmar un notable desarrollo de la expresión oral y del dominio de la gramática en el grupo AICLE. También se hallaron ciertas mejoras en comprensión oral, lectura y vocabulario, aunque no pueden considerarse estadísticamente significativas. Estos datos, en cambio, contrastan con los obtenidos en expresión escrita: nuestro detallado análisis CAF corrobora que los alumnos produjeron textos de mayor riqueza léxica, longitud y precisión en la fase de post-test. En otras palabras, los resultados apuntan a que el desarrollo de la mayoría de destrezas continúa o al menos se mantiene, excepto en el caso de la expresión escrita, donde los efectos positivos del AICLE observados en el post-test desaparecen gradualmente tras finalizar el programa. En general, consideramos que estos hallazgos respaldan la continuidad del AICLE a nivel postsecundario, poniendo de manifiesto la necesidad de consolidar sus resultados positivos más allá de esta etapa.

PI7. *¿Cuál es la evolución de la competencia lingüística en inglés del grupo de control ILE (conjuntamente y por tipo de centro) de la fase de post-test a la de seguimiento?*

Con el objeto de responder a esta pregunta de investigación, se compararon los resultados obtenidos por el grupo de control ILE en el post-test y en la prueba de seguimiento. Los datos analizados no arrojaron diferencias significativas entre ambas fases en la lectura, escucha o habla de los estudiantes; sin embargo, se detectaron mejoras significativas en gramática, vocabulario y escritura. Las mejoras podrían ser debidas al énfasis que ponen muchos profesores ILE en las mencionadas habilidades con el objeto de preparar a sus alumnos para las pruebas de acceso a la universidad (pues éstas no evalúan habilidades comunicativas como el habla o la escucha).

Nuestro análisis de las clases por separado confirmó cierta evolución en las notas del grupo público, pero, en su mayoría, las mejoras no alcanzaron relevancia significativa. Sí que se reveló, en cambio, un apreciable desarrollo de la gramática, la escritura y el vocabulario de los alumnos del concertado. En lo referente al habla y la lectura, el análisis de los datos obtenidos evidenció la falta de progresos significativos, y en el caso de la escucha, los resultados fueron más bajos en la prueba de seguimiento que en el primer examen.

Área Focal 3: Impacto del AICLE sobre las calificaciones de los estudiantes

PI8. *¿Afecta el programa AICLE a la adquisición de contenido en la asignatura de Ética del grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?*

Un análisis inicial de la adquisición de contenido en la asignatura de ética reveló diferencias estadísticamente significativas a favor de los alumnos ILE. Varios estudios recientes como los de Anghel, Cabrales y Carro (2016), Dallinger et al (2016),

Fernández-Sanjurjo et al (2017) o Piesche et al (2016) informan de un peor rendimiento en grupos que estudian una asignatura en inglés en comparación con aquellos que lo hacen en su lengua materna. Sin embargo, en nuestro estudio, una vez separamos y contrastamos los tres grupos entre sí, la imagen que se proyecta es muy distinta. En el contexto del centro público puede afirmarse que los alumnos de las líneas AICLE e ILE muestran un dominio similar del contenido en la asignatura de Ética, apoyando los resultados de autores como Victori y Vallbona (2008) o Coral (2009). Por último, cabe destacar que las altas calificaciones obtenidas por el grupo ILE restante son congruentes con las investigaciones de Madrid y Barrios (2018) o Madrid y Hughes (2011), quienes dan fe del rendimiento superior de los alumnos en la escuela concertada.

PI9. *¿Afecta el programa AICLE al nivel alcanzado en la asignatura de lengua española por el grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?*

La comparación entre las dos cohortes (AICLE y no AICLE) reveló que las escasas diferencias encontradas entre ellas en la asignatura de lengua española no eran estadísticamente significativas. Numerosos estudios reflejan resultados similares, refutando que una reducción en la exposición a la lengua propia tenga efectos adversos en la misma (Bergroth, 2006; Madrid y Barrios, 2018; Merino y Lasagabaster, 2015; Merisuo-Storm, 2006, 2007; Pérez Cañado, 2017a; Seikkula-Leino, 2007).

El subsiguiente análisis detallado de los tres grupos confirmó de nuevo el patrón hallado en la asignatura anterior. Por un lado, en el centro público los niveles alcanzados en lengua española por los alumnos AICLE y no AICLE son comparables, lo que sugiere que el programa no ha tenido efectos sobre esta asignatura. Por otro, los datos revelan además que las calificaciones del grupo concertado son significativamente mejores que las de los otros dos.

PI10. *¿Afecta el programa AICLE al nivel alcanzado en la asignatura de lengua autonómica (valenciano) por el grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?*

El análisis de los datos relacionados con esta pregunta de investigación no reveló la existencia de diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las cohortes AICLE e ILE. Sin embargo, tras esta comparación inicial, un análisis en profundidad de los distintos grupos evidenció ciertas diferencias si bien con un efecto de tamaño pequeño. Cuando se contrastó el rendimiento en la lengua autonómica de las tres clases pudo observarse que el grupo experimental aventajó claramente al grupo ILE público, mientras que los estudiantes del concertado obtuvieron las medias más altas. En consonancia con los hallazgos de Merino y Lasagabaster (2015) respecto a la lengua regional, la pertenencia a la línea AICLE no tuvo efectos adversos en los logros de este grupo en la asignatura de lengua Valenciana. Antes bien al contrario, parece haber tenido efectos positivos en el grupo experimental, un resultado que concuerda con San Isidro y Lasagabaster (2018).

PI11. *¿Cuál es el efecto modulador ejercido en la competencia de los alumnos en las asignaturas de ética, lengua española, valenciana e inglesa por parte de las siguientes variables: tipo de centro (público y concertado), género, nivel socioeconómico y exposición al inglés fuera del centro?*

En lo referente al *tipo de centro*, los análisis realizados para contestar las preguntas de investigación siete a diez revelan la gran importancia de esta variable. En el contexto del centro público, el rendimiento del grupo AICLE en todas las asignaturas analizadas fue invariablemente mejor, aunque, en términos generales, los alumnos del centro concertado obtuvieron las calificaciones más altas en ética, lengua castellana y valenciano.

Por otra parte, el estudio de la variable género no reveló diferencias significativas entre los estudiantes en cuanto al nivel alcanzado en las distintas asignaturas examinadas. El nivel socioeconómico de las familias, por el contrario, ejerció una influencia considerable en los logros académicos de los estudiantes: los alumnos provenientes de entornos más privilegiados obtuvieron, por lo general, notas más altas en ética, castellano y valenciano. Las diferencias, sin embargo, no fueron estadísticamente significativas en todos los casos y, en lo que respecta al inglés, las medias obtenidas por los alumnos de nivel socioeconómico bajo, medio y alto fueron similares.

Curiosamente, una vez analizados los grupos por separado, los resultados demostraron que la variable socioeconómica tuvo un efecto considerable en los grupos de control, pero no en el grupo experimental. En otras palabras, dentro del grupo AICLE, las diferencias en rendimiento de los estudiantes de distintos niveles socioeconómicos aparecen minimizadas, en consonancia con los hallazgos de Rascón y Bretones (2018). Sin embargo, fueron necesarios análisis estadísticos más detallados (cf. PI12) para describir con mayor exactitud la influencia de esta variable en las diferentes clases.

Los datos relativos a la variable de *exposición al inglés fuera del centro* presentan un panorama similar al descrito arriba. Nuestra comparativa general entre estudiantes con menor ($\leq 8h$) y mayor ($> 8h$) exposición confirmó que estos últimos obtuvieron las medias más altas. En cambio, el análisis de los resultados en Ética obtenidos por las dos cohortes señala una vez más que la pertenencia al grupo AICLE parece disminuir las diferencias encontradas entre los alumnos, mientras que en los grupos ILE la variable de exposición tiene un peso muy significativo.

Área Focal 4: EVALUACIÓN DEL DIFERENCIAL. ANÁLISIS DISCRIMINANTE

PI12. *En caso de existir diferencias significativas entre el grupo experimental y el de control, ¿pueden realmente ser atribuidas al programa AICLE?*

Para abordar la última cuestión del estudio se realizaron los necesarios análisis discriminantes que permitieron cuantificar los efectos de las diversas variables sobre los logros académicos de los estudiantes. En lo referente a las asignaturas de lengua castellana y Ética, la única variable con capacidad discriminante significativa resultó ser el nivel socioeconómico de los estudiantes, generalmente superior en el grupo ILE. Por tanto, las diferencias halladas entre ambas cohortes en dichas asignaturas no pueden ser atribuidas a los efectos del programa AICLE (o variable independiente). En el caso de la lengua autonómica, los resultados indicaron que la única variable con capacidad discriminante fue el nivel socioeconómico, de nuevo superior en el grupo ILE.

Finalmente, en lo que respecta a la competencia lingüística en inglés, el programa AICLE, junto con el nivel socioeconómico, constituyeron las variables con mayor potencial discriminante. Dicho de otro modo, en este caso es posible concluir que el rendimiento del grupo AICLE fue significativamente mejor en las pruebas de lengua extranjera a pesar de que la variable socioeconómica favorecía claramente al grupo ILE.

Nuestra evaluación del diferencial existente entre ambas cohortes no estaría completa sin un análisis discriminante adicional del centro público, motivado principalmente por los importantes efectos de la variable socioeconómica observados hasta el momento en la cohorte no-AICLE. Por consiguiente, para este último análisis, se ha eliminado el grupo proveniente del centro concertado y se han contrastado únicamente los grupos del centro público entre sí.

Al comparar grupos AICLE e ILE dentro del mismo centro escolar, el peso de la variable socioeconómica quedó muy reducido y se obtuvieron interesantes resultados. Concretamente, los datos confirmaron que el nivel que alcanzaron los alumnos en lengua extranjera (siempre superior en el grupo experimental) fue la variable con mayor peso a la hora de predecir la pertenencia al grupo. Por último, los análisis subsiguientes confirmaron que los beneficios experimentados por el grupo AICLE pueden adscribirse al programa plurilingüe aplicado en el centro público.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

Initial questionnaire

**Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas
Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal**

Cuestionario inicial

ALUMNADO

1. NOMBRE: _____
2. CENTRO: _____
3. CURSO Y CLASE: _____
4. EDAD: _____
5. SEXO: Hombre Mujer
6. NACIONALIDAD: _____
7. EDAD DE TU MADRE:
 20 – 30 años
 31 – 40 años
 41 – 50 años
 51 – 60 años
 Más de 60 años
8. EDAD DE TU PADRE:
 20 – 30 años
 31 – 40 años
 41 – 50 años
 51 – 60 años
 Más de 60 años
9. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS DE TU MADRE:
 Sin estudios
 Título de Graduado Escolar
 Título de Bachiller
 Título de Formación Profesional
 Título Universitario
 Doctorado
10. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS DE TU PADRE:
 Sin estudios
 Título de Graduado Escolar
 Título de Bachiller
 Título de Formación Profesional
 Título Universitario
 Doctorado

Ejemplos de problemas donde se debe seleccionar la palabra o palabras adecuadas:

E8 Completa la frase con el par de palabras que consideres más correcto, de forma que dé sentido y significado a la frase.

Una persona _____ es la que siempre llega _____

- A** nerviosa - tarde
- B** interesante - sencilla
- C** amable - más temprano
- D** puntual - a su hora

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿qué par de palabras completa mejor la frase dotándola de sentido?

E9 MONEDA es a _____ como LLAVE es a _____

A dinero-metal **B** hucha-cerradura **C** billete-maestra **D** fabricada-dentada

ESPERA, NO PASES LA PÁGINA

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué par de palabras o expresiones (A, B, C o D) completan mejor la frase para que tenga sentido?

1 La _____ sobresalía _____.

- A jarra - del vaso
- B bebida - del agua
- C arena - del recipiente
- D cazuela - de la sopa

2 A menudo es conveniente ser _____ con lo que se _____ delante de los demás.

- A sincero - hace
- B modesto - opina
- C conforme - pacta
- D cauteloso - dice

3 Su postura era _____, no tenía una opinión _____ acerca de las ideas propuestas por su equipo.

- A positiva - adecuada
- B neutral - definida
- C ambigua - incierta
- D subjetiva - personal

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué palabra (A, B, C o D) significa lo CONTRARIO que la escrita en mayúsculas?

4 RESPETO

- A deferencia
- B displicencia
- C desprecio
- D estima

5 SOSIEGO

- A intranquilidad
- B salazón
- C escarnio
- D ocurrencia

6 SUEÑO

- A sopor
- B modorra
- C letargo
- D vigilia

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué par de palabras o expresiones (A, B, C o D) completa mejor la frase dotándola de sentido?

7 _____ es a DEMOCRACIA como REY es a _____

- A demócrata - reina
- B oligarquía - dictadura
- C pueblo - monarquía
- D voto - presidente

8 _____ es a ABETO como SANGRE es a _____

- A savia - hombre
- B clorofila - arteria
- C verde - rojo
- D hoja - célula

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿cuál de las cuatro palabras (A, B, C o D) no pertenece al mismo grupo que las otras tres?

9 A arpa B trompeta C saxofón D flauta

10 A soluble B rollizo C fornido D enjuto

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿qué palabra (A, B, C o D) significa lo CONTRARIO que la escrita en mayúsculas?

11 EBRIO

A embriagado

B sobrio

C pertinaz

D iluminado

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué par de palabras o expresiones (A, B, C o D) completan mejor la frase para que tenga sentido?

12 Era un _____ que por su peligrosidad _____ la intervención policial.

A caso - controlaba

B dilema - exigía

C asunto - demandaba

D hecho - completaba

13 La _____ de la tragedia fue de ridículas dimensiones en comparación con su _____.

A trama - predecesor

B consecuencia - final

C película - largometraje

D causa - efecto

14 El joven _____ a la cita antes de tiempo y tuvo que _____ la llegada de sus amigos.

A llegaba - demorar

B acudió - aguardar

C asiste - esperar

D venía - atender

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿cuál de las cuatro palabras (A, B, C o D) significa lo CONTRARIO de la palabra que aparece en mayúsculas?

15 PARQUEDAD

A templanza

B educación

C humedad

D derroche

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿cuál de las cuatro palabras (A, B, C o D) no pertenece al mismo grupo que las otras tres?

16 A señalar

B describir

C distinguir

D apuntar

17 A masía

B barraca

C quintal

D cortijo

18 A orca

B pantera

C cocodrilo

D lobo

NO TE DETENGAS, CONTINÚA EN LA PÁGINA SIGUIENTE.

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué par de palabras (A, B, C o D) completa mejor la relación dotándola de sentido?

19 _____ es a DINERO como BIBLIOTECA es a _____.

- A moneda-lectura
- B moneda-hoja
- C billete-libro
- D banco-libro

20 _____ es a ACABAR como AMANECER es a _____.

- A oscurecer - clarear
- B terminar - atardecer
- C comenzar-anoecer
- D dormir - despertar

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿cuál de las cuatro palabras (A, B, C o D) no pertenece al mismo grupo que las otras tres?

21 A contable B endeble C abarcable D creíble

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿qué par de palabras o expresiones (A, B, C o D) completan mejor la frase para que tenga sentido?

22 Su _____ hacía que la embarcación surcara los mares con _____.

- A potencia - parsimonia
- B ímpetu - vehemencia
- C fragilidad - ahínco
- D suavidad - arduidad

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿qué palabra (A, B, C o D) significa lo CONTRARIO que la escrita en mayúsculas?

23 **ANGOSTO** A sereno B valiente C gélido D amplio



DETÉNTE. NO PASES A LA PRUEBA SIGUIENTE HASTA QUE TE LO INDIQUEN.

CUESTIONARIO M-A

En la página que sigue se encuentran una serie de afirmaciones sobre tu modo de pensar y de actuar en la vida diaria. Para cada una de las afirmaciones hay dos opciones de respuesta SI o NO. Pon una cruz o enmarca en un círculo la que creas más conveniente y que se adapta mejor a tu forma de pensar. Lee atentamente cada una de las afirmaciones y no te olvides de señalar tu respuesta.

EJEMPLO:

| | | |
|------------------------|----|----|
| Me gustan los animales | SI | NO |
|------------------------|----|----|

Si te gustan, tienes que señalar la respuesta SI

Si no te gustan , tienes que señalar la respuesta NO

CONTESTA, POR FAVOR, A TODAS LAS CUESTIONES.

SE SINCERO/A EN TUS RESPUESTAS.

| | | |
|--|----|----|
| 1.- Si temo que me suspendan, estudio más. | SI | NO |
| 2.- Después de hacer un examen, estoy nervioso(a) hasta que me dicen la nota. | SI | NO |
| 3.- Mis amigos(as) dicen a veces que soy muy vago(a). | SI | NO |
| 4.- Sinceramente, creo que hoy los estudiantes tienen que estudiar demasiado. | SI | NO |
| 5.- Frecuentemente empiezo cosas que después no termino. | SI | NO |
| 6.- Suelo realizar las cosas más difíciles con gran facilidad. | SI | NO |
| 8.- Los fracasos me ponen triste. | SI | NO |
| 9.- Saco más nota en un examen si me dan un premio. | SI | NO |
| 10.- Yo hago, como máximo, lo que se me pide y no más. | SI | NO |
| 11.- Me resulta fácil olvidarme del estudio en los días de fiesta. | SI | NO |
| 12.- Mucha gente cree que estoy capacitado(a) para hacer cosas extraordinarias. | SI | NO |
| 13.- Una de mis mayores virtudes es mi voluntad de hierro. | SI | NO |
| 14.- Yo estaría también contento(a) si no tuviera que estudiar. | SI | NO |
| 15.- Una de mis principales dificultades es el nerviosismo que siento antes de un examen. | SI | NO |
| 16.- Cuando hago un examen o evaluación mal, estoy de mal humor. | SI | NO |
| 17.- En momentos importantes estoy casi siempre nervioso(a). | SI | NO |
| 18.- Prefiero hacer trabajos difíciles que hacer trabajos fáciles. | SI | NO |
| 19.- Puedo estudiar mucho tiempo sin cansarme. | SI | NO |
| 20.- Creo que soy un(a) vago(a). | SI | NO |
| 21.- Estudio mucho para ser el primero de la clase. | SI | NO |
| 22.- Las asignaturas que prefiero son, precisamente, las más difíciles. | SI | NO |
| 23.- Normalmente estudio más que mis compañeros. | SI | NO |
| 24.- Sería una suerte para muchos, ser tan inteligente como yo. | SI | NO |
| 25.- Cuando hago algo, lo hago bien: si no, no lo hago. | SI | NO |
| 26.- Las tareas demasiado difíciles las dejo sin hacer. | SI | NO |
| 27.- Los demás creen que yo estudio demasiado. | SI | NO |
| 28.- Algunas veces quiero estudiar tanto, que no tengo tiempo ni para dormir. | SI | NO |
| 29.- Al final de una discusión, mis puntos de vista son siempre los mejores. | SI | NO |
| 30.- Sería muy difícil encontrar un colaborador tan bueno como yo. | SI | NO |
| 31.- Cuando estudio con otros(as) chicos(as), estudio más que ellos(as). | SI | NO |
| 32.- Yo me he propuesto ser muy importante. | SI | NO |
| 33.- Si hago algunos fallos seguidos, me desanimo. | SI | NO |
| 34.- Estudio tanto que los demás no pueden seguirme. | SI | NO |
| 35.- En los exámenes difíciles llega a apoderarse de mí, a veces, una sensación de pánico. | SI | NO |
| 36.- Una cosa mal hecha me sienta mal. | SI | NO |

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Exposición al inglés fuera del aula¹

ALUMNADO

✍ Por favor, reflexiona sobre tu exposición al inglés fuera de clase y anota la media de horas que crees que dedicas a cada una de estas actividades semanalmente.

| | | Horas semanales |
|---|----------|-----------------|
| Leer libros en inglés | Ejemplo: | |
| Leer periódicos / revistas / blogs en inglés | Ejemplo: | |
| Ver programas o series de televisión en inglés (en la televisión o el ordenador) | Ejemplo: | |
| Ver películas en inglés (en el cine, en la televisión, en DVD, en el ordenador, etc.) | Ejemplo: | |
| Usar Internet / redes sociales / servicios de mensajería / foros con información en inglés | Ejemplo: | |
| Jugar a vídeo juegos (en el ordenador, PlayStation, Xbox, etc.) en inglés | Ejemplo: | |
| Escuchar canciones en inglés | Ejemplo: | |
| Ir a clases extraescolares de inglés | Lugar: | |
| Otras actividades | Ejemplo: | |

¹ Basado en Sundqvist, P. & Sylvén, L. K. 2014. "Language-related computer use: Focus on young L2English learners in Sweden". *ReCALL* 26(1): 3-20.

Appendix II

Foreign language skills tests

ENGLISH TEST
SECONDARY EDUCATION, 4TH GRADE

Centro: _____; Curso: ____; Fecha: ____ / ____ / 20____
Apellidos, Nombre: _____; Sexo: H / M

Use of English: /26

A. Rewrite these questions using the correct word order:

(1) long the how programme does last?

_____?

(2) to radio Sunday did listen the last you?

_____?

(3) of do like kind which programme you?

_____?

(4) loud too radio the is why?

_____?

B. Change these sentences into the active. Example: Pictures are transmitted by television → *Television transmits pictures.*

(5) The transmission can be interrupted by high mountains.

High mountains _____.

(6) How can this problem be solved?

How can we _____?

(7) Other transmitters can be built on the top of the hills.

We can _____.

(8) The waves are changed into sound by the aerial.

The aerial _____.

C. (9-13) Complete the text with the verbs in the past tense:

Yesterday Aunt Betty _____ (lose) her glasses. She _____ (can) find them. "Help me!", she _____ (ask). "O.K.", I _____ (reply). "Remember where you _____ (put) them". "Yes, now what _____ (do) I do? I _____ (come) into the house. I _____ (take) off my coat. Tibby _____ (want) some food. I _____ (give) him some". At last she found her glasses.

D. (14-18) Complete these sentences with: *anything/something*; *tell/say* (in the right form); *bring/take* (in the right form):

- Do you mean to _____ me that you're going out with Celo AGAIN??!
- Can you _____ a bottle of wine to my party, please? Thanks.
- Did you speak to him? Yes, but I didn't understand a word he _____!
- I'm so nervous! I've got an exam tomorrow, and I can't remember _____!
- If you go to Scotland, _____ some warm clothing with you!
- Come here: there's _____ I want to _____ you.
- Last month he _____ a break for a week.
- Do you understand _____ about car engines?
- Yesterday he _____ to me: "I'm not going to drive tomorrow. I'll walk".

E. Underline the right words in brackets:

(19) If I (*lived / am living*) in London, (*I'd go / I'll go*) to the theatre every week.

(20) If we (*went / go*) to Madrid, (*we'll visit / we visit*) you.

(21) If my father (*has / had*) a car, he (*would travel / travelling*) a lot.

(22) If I (*am / were*) you, I (*wouldn't / will*) eat so much.

F. (23-26) Complete this text with the correct forms –the PAST (for example, *went*) or the PRESENT PERFECT (for example, *has gone*)– of the verbs in brackets:









I'm feeling terribly hungry, because I _____ (not, have) my lunch yet. I _____ (have) breakfast four hours ago, at 8 o'clock, and I _____ (not, have) anything since then. So you can imagine how I feel. I have a lot of work to do these days: yesterday I _____ (stay) at the office until half past seven! I _____ (never, do) that before, but my boss _____ (want) me to finish the report I was writing. Luckily I _____ (finish) it on time, so I _____ (be) able to get home in time to see the football on TV.

Vocabulary: /15

G. Complete this text using one of the following words and expressions: ON YOUR OWN, OVERCOME, QUIT, CUT DOWN, IMPROVE, HEALTH, WILL POWER, HARM.

If you want to keep your **(27)** _____, it is important to **(28)** _____ smoking or at least to **(29)** _____: let's say from twenty to ten or five cigarettes a day. Even if you only reduce by three a day, your health will **(30)** _____. It isn't easy, of course; you need a lot of **(31)** _____, and you will need to **(32)** _____ the temptation to start smoking again. But keep at it! Smoking does you tremendous **(33)** _____: so quit now!

H. (34-41) Match symbol and text:

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| 1 |  | A. Hot water to all washbasins |
| 2 |  | B. Tents admitted (with number of pitches and rates) |
| 3 |  | C. Shaver points |
| 4 |  | D. Dogs admitted on lead |
| 5 |  | E. Sailing from site |
| 6 |  | F. Riding/pony trekking from site |
| 7 |  | G. Indoor heated swimming pool on site |
| 8 |  | H. Fishing at site |

1: ____; 2: ____; 3: ____; 4: ____; 5: ____; 6: ____; 7: ____; 8: ____

Listening: /14

I. You will hear a news presenter. You must listen and circle the correct answer. You will hear the news report twice.





(42-43) The news report takes place on

- A. Thursday 8th February B. Tuesday 8th February
 C. Thursday 18th February D. Thursday 18th January

(44-45) Which sentence is true?

- A. Babies are fatter than before B. Five-year-old children are fatter than before
 C. Babies are thinner than before D. Five-year-old children are thinner than before





(46-47) What have children stopped doing?

| A | B | C | D |
|---|---|---|---|
|  |  |  |  |

(48-49) How much money will Peter possibly earn in total?

- A. 50 000 dollars
- B. 150 000 dollars
- C. 165 000 dollars
- D. 200 000 dollars

(50-51) What instrument does Peter play now?

| A | B | C | D |
|---|---|--|---|
|  |  |  |  |

(52-53) What is Kirstie’s profession?

- A. A model
- B. An actress
- C. A hockey player
- D. A flight attendant

(54-55) Where does Kirstie work?

- A. In Australia
- B. In New Zealand
- C. In London
- D. In Manchester

Reading: /14

J. Read the following text and circle the correct answer:

* * *

BODY TALK

A smile, a frown, a handshake or a kiss. All of these actions are part of our everyday communication and make up what is commonly known as “body language”. Even though we might not know it, we are constantly sending messages with our bodies without speaking. Some researchers believe that our body language makes up to sixty percent of all of our face-to-face communication and it has been shown that it plays an important role in key areas of our lives, including our success in job interviews, understanding what people are saying, making friends and falling in love. But what are the keys to body language? Here are some examples.

Paragraph A

Hitting someone in the face is a very obvious example of aggressive body language; but there are more subtle forms of showing your aggression. If you look at someone directly in the eyes, frown, and lean forward, you are showing the other person that you do not agree with them and that you probably do not like what they are saying. If you cross your arms or you legs, you are showing a defensive posture. Similarly, if you avoid eye contact with someone, you might be unconsciously telling them that you do not want to tell them the truth.

Paragraph B

It might seem unfair, but the success of a job interview often depends on the first few seconds of the interview and during these initial moments your body is giving many important signals. In an interview situation, apart from dressing well, it is important to move with confidence, not too fast and not too slow. You should also have a pleasant facial expression and try to show positive signs like interest, not boredom or nervousness.

Paragraph C

For many people, one of the most important aspects of body language is the communication of your feelings towards another person. Common signs of romantic love can be observed when two people smile at each other, sit or stand close together and look at each other for longer periods of time than usual.

Paragraph D

So what can we do to improve communication with our bodies? Firstly, it is important to be conscious of our own body language and, in certain situations, to try to control it. We should also try to observe the other person as we pay attention to what they are saying in order to understand not only the words, but also the feelings that they are expressing.

* * *

(56-59) Which title is best for each of the paragraphs?

| | | | | |
|--------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| First impressions | A | B | C | D |
| Attack or defence | A | B | C | D |
| How to use body language | A | B | C | D |
| I love you | A | B | C | D |

(60-61) According to the text, in which situation is body language useful?

- A. When you are speaking to another person on the phone
- B. When you are writing a job application
- C. When you are speaking in the presence of another person
- D. When you are playing a role

(62-63) If a person does not look at you, it is possible that

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| A. S/he is lying to you | B. S/he is in love with you |
| C. S/he is confident | D. S/he is being aggressive |

(64-65) In an interview,

- A. What you wear is not important
- B. You might get the job depending on your body language
- C. You should cross your legs
- D. You should have a neutral expression

(66-67) According to the text, looking at another person for a long while can be a sign of

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------|
| A. Indifference | B. Affection |
| C. Self-defence | D. Boredom |

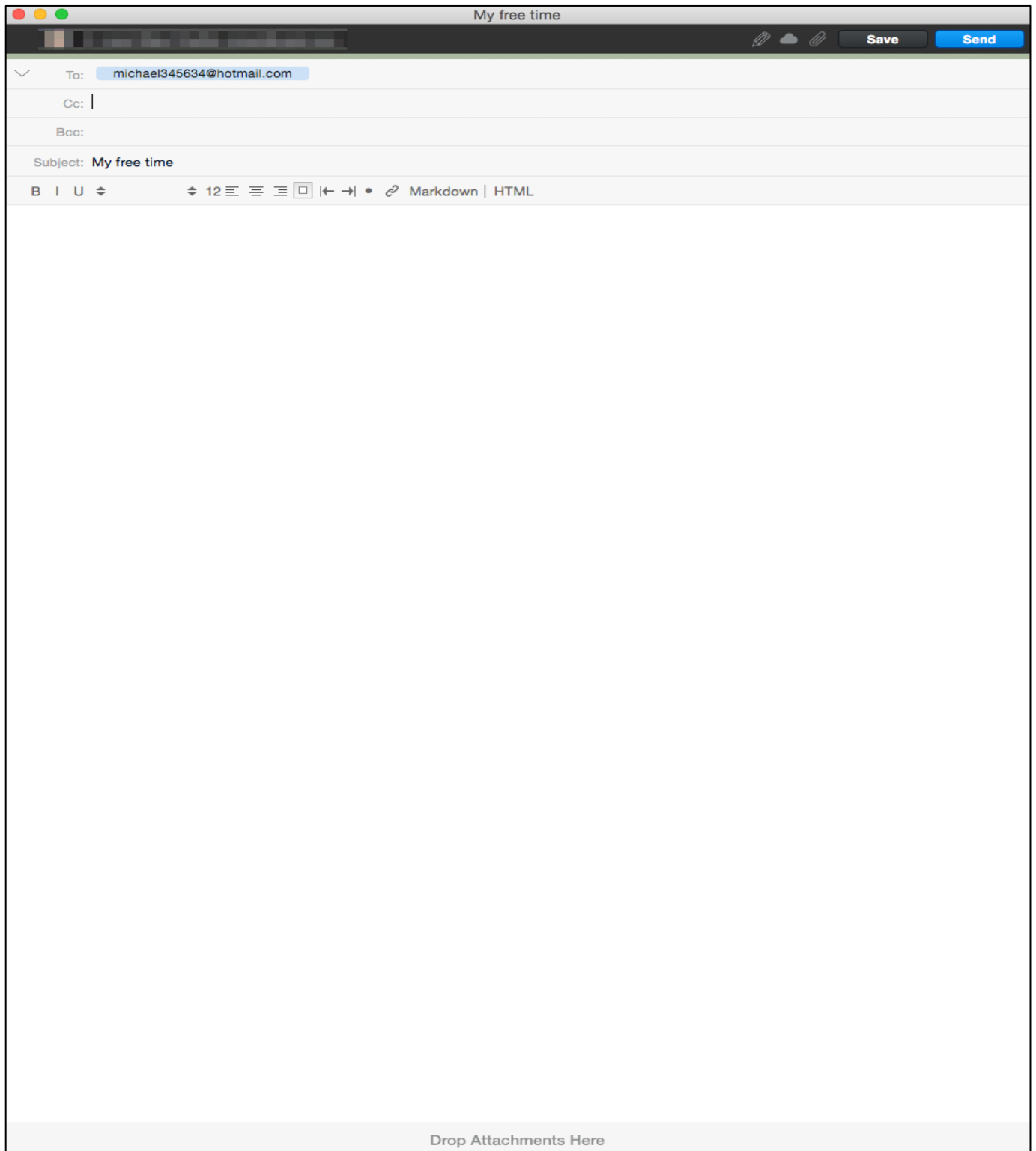
(68-69) When using body language, it is useful to

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| A. Avoid eye contact | B. Show that you are bored |
| C. Hit the other person | D. Look and listen to the other person |

Writing: /15

K. (70-84) You receive an e-mail from an English friend, Michael. Here is part of the e-mail: *I have just started to do karate. It's great! I go every Tuesday and Thursday. What about you? What do you do in your free time?*

Answer Michael's e-mail in the space provided below:



The image shows a screenshot of an email composition window. The title bar at the top reads "My free time". The window has a dark header bar with "Save" and "Send" buttons. Below the header, the email fields are visible: "To: michael345634@hotmail.com", "Cc:", "Bcc:", and "Subject: My free time". A rich text editor toolbar is present with options for bold (B), italic (I), underline (U), font size (12), text color, background color, bulleted list, numbered list, link, and unlink. The main body of the window is a large, empty white area for writing the response. At the bottom, there is a light gray bar with the text "Drop Attachments Here".

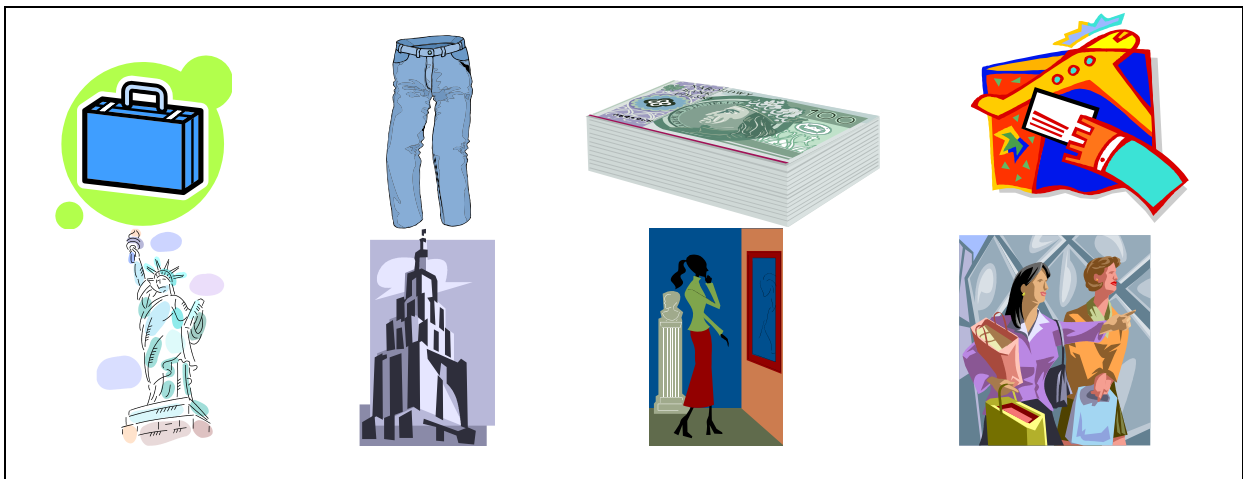
Speaking: /16

L. In pairs. Answer the questions below about your personal life.

- (85) Hi, what's your name? And surname(s)?
- (86) How do you spell that [referring to name or surname(s)]?
- (87) Where do you live?
- (88) Can you describe your house?
- (89) Who do you live with?
- (90) What do you like to do in your free time?
- (91) Have you ever travelled to another country [if not, city]? What did you do there?
- (92) What would you like to do in the future?

M. In pairs. Spoken interaction: two-way dialogue. Use ONLY one scenario.

Scenario 1

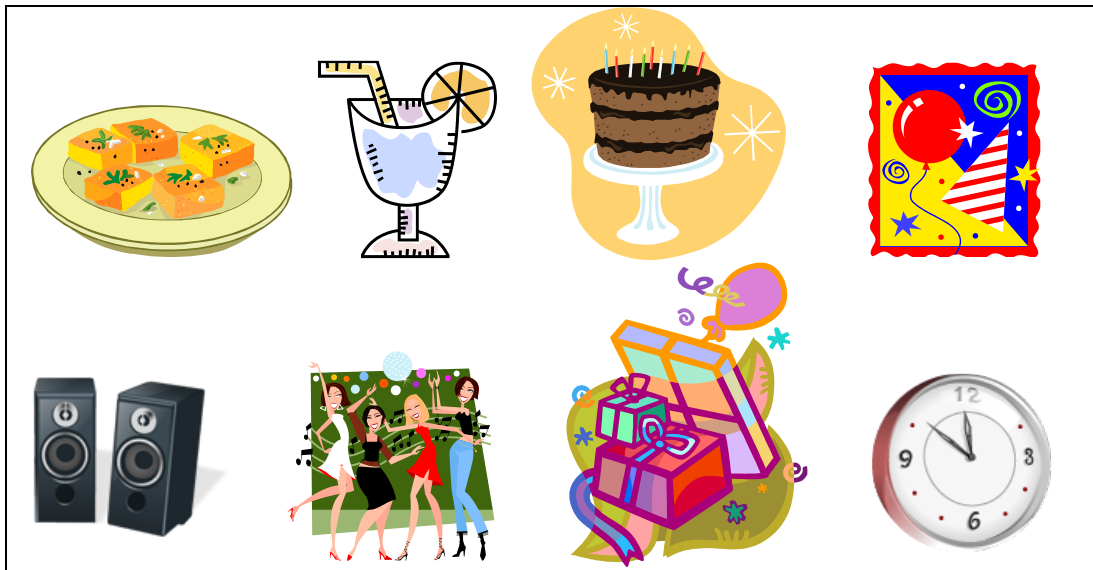


Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going on a trip to New York. Both of you have to plan the trip. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- (93-94) What things you are going to bring with you
- (95-96) What you are going to do in New York

* * *

□ Scenario 2

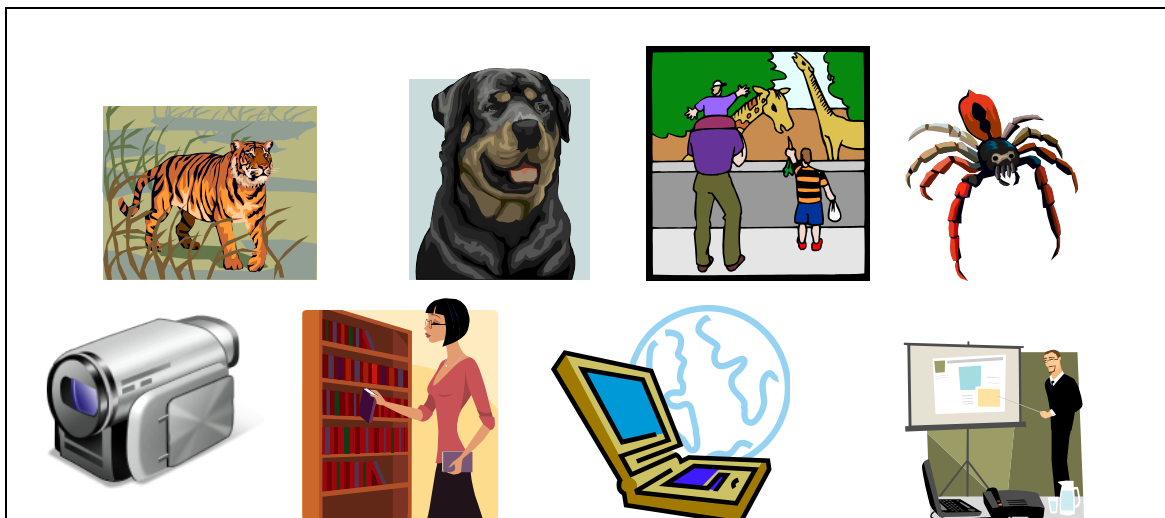


Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going to organise a surprise birthday party for a friend. Both of you have to plan the party. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- (93-94) What you are going to buy for the party
- (95-96) What you are going to do at the party

* * *

□ Scenario 3



Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going to do a school project on animals. Both of you have to plan the project. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- (93-94) What animal or animals you are going to write about
- (95-96) What you are going to do for the project

C. Three-way dialogue.

Examiner: now the three of us are going to talk about two topics. Here we have to give our opinion on each thing. We can ask questions, debate, agree or disagree [examiner chooses only from Block A or Block B].

| Block A | Block B |
|--|---|
| The importance of English (97-98) | The importance of school (97-98) |
| Internet (99-100) | Mobile phones (99-100) |

Appendix III

Student questionnaire

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Cuestionario

ALUMNADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO Y CLASE: _____
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: Hombre Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____
8. ¿CÚANTOS AÑOS HAS ESTUDIADO EN UN PROGRAMA BILINGÜE? _____
9. ASIGNATURAS QUE ESTUDIAS EN INGLÉS ESTE CURSO:
 - Ciencias Naturales
 - Ciencias Sociales
 - Matemáticas
 - Dibujo
 - Música
 - Educación Física
 - Otra _____
10. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DENTRO DEL PROGRAMA BILINGÜE :
 - ¿Qué porcentaje de cada asignatura bilingüe se enseña en inglés? 30% 40% 50% No sé

POR FAVOR, INDICA HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁS DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Se desarrollan las competencias clave en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. Mi inglés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. Mi español ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. Mi conocimiento de los contenidos de las asignaturas impartidas en inglés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. Mi comprensión de cómo funcionan las lenguas ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. Mi comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés y el español ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. Tengo más confianza en mí mismo dentro de la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. Soy participativo en la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. Me intereso en la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 11. Me gustaría más uso del inglés dentro de la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. Tengo un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

2. METODOLOGÍA

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 15. Se desarrollan tareas en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. Se desarrollan proyectos en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. Aprendo mucho vocabulario en la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. Se trabaja en grupo dentro de la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 19. Se utilizan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. Se adaptan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. Los profesores de la sección bilingüe colaboran para preparar y enseñar los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe fomentan la comunicación en inglés en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe están adaptados para atender las necesidades de todos los alumnos | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. Se utilizan materiales multimedia (<i>software</i>) en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. Se utilizan materiales de referencia <i>online</i> en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 27. Se utilizan <i>blogs, wikis</i> (herramientas Web 2.0) y <i>webquests</i> en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. Se utilizan pizarras electrónicas interactivas en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. Se utiliza la comunicación mediada por ordenador en clase (e.g., <i>e-Twinning</i>) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

4. EVALUACIÓN

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 30. Se evalúan todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. A la hora de evaluar, se tienen más en cuenta los contenidos que la expresión lingüística | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. Se evalúa también oralmente | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. Se practica la evaluación continua y final | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

5. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DE INGLÉS DE LOS PROFESORES EN CLASE

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 34. Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras imparten sus clases con éxito | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües imparten sus clases con éxito | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. Mis auxiliares de conversación imparten sus clases con éxito | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras motivan al alumno | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 38. Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües motivan al alumno | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. Mis auxiliares de conversación motivan al alumno | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. Mis auxiliares de conversación colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 41. Mis profesores tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 42. Mis profesores tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 43. Mis profesores tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales en la lengua inglesa | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

6. MOVILIDAD

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 44. He participado en programas de intercambio dentro del programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. Mis profesores de la sección bilingüe fomentan la participación en programas de intercambio | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. Mi familia me anima a participar en programas de intercambio | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

7. MEJORAS Y MOTIVACIÓN PARA EL APRENDIZAJE DE INGLÉS

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 47. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que implica | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 48. Ha habido una mejoría general de mi aprendizaje de inglés debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 49. Mi motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés ha aumentado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 50. Tengo un acceso adecuado a materiales en inglés fuera del centro | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

MUCHAS GRACIAS POR TU COLABORACIÓN

Appendix IV

Teacher questionnaire

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Cuestionario

PROFESORADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. EDAD: _____
3. SEXO: Hombre Mujer
4. NACIONALIDAD: _____
5. TIPO DE PROFESORADO:
 - Lengua extranjera
 - Área no lingüística
 - Auxiliar lingüístico
 - Otro: _____
6. SITUACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA:
 - Funcionario/a con destino definitivo
 - Funcionario/a con destino provisional
 - Interino/a
 - Otro: _____
7. SU NIVEL EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA QUE ENSEÑA ES:
 - A1
 - A2
 - B1
 - B2
 - C1
 - C2
8. ASIGNATURAS QUE ENSEÑA EN INGLÉS:
 - Ciencias Naturales
 - Ciencias Sociales
 - Matemáticas
 - Dibujo
 - Música
 - Educación Física
 - Otro _____
9. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS DENTRO DEL PROGRAMA BILINGÜE:
¿Cuántas asignaturas se enseñan en inglés? _____
¿Qué porcentaje de cada asignatura se enseña en inglés? 30% 40% 50% Otro _____
10. ¿ES COORDINADOR/A DE SU SECCIÓN BILINGÜE? Sí No
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:
 - Menos de 1 año
 - 1-10 años
 - 11-20 años
 - 21-30 años
 - Más de 30 años
12. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN CENTRO BILINGÜE:
 - Menos de 1 año
 - 1-5 años
 - 6-10 años
 - 11-15 años
 - Más de 15 años

POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁ DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|---------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Se desarrollan las competencias clave en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. El inglés de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. El español de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. El conocimiento por parte de mis alumnos de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. La comprensión de mis alumnos de cómo funcionan las lenguas ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. La comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés y el español de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. Mis alumnos tienen más confianza en sí mismos dentro de la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. Mis alumnos son participativos en la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. Mis alumnos se interesan en la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. A mis alumnos les gustaría más uso del inglés dentro de la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en la lengua extranjera | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en la lengua extranjera | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. Mis alumnos tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en la lengua extranjera | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

2. METODOLOGÍA

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 15. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en tareas en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en proyectos en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. Se da prioridad a la dimensión léxica en la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. Se utiliza aprendizaje cooperativo en la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. Se enfatiza la conexión entre la L1 y la L2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 22. Se utilizan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. Se adaptan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. Los profesores de la sección bilingüe colaboran para preparar y enseñar los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe siguen principios comunicativos | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe están adaptados para atender las necesidades de todos los alumnos | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. Se utilizan materiales multimedia (<i>software</i>) en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. Se utilizan materiales de referencia <i>online</i> en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. Se utilizan <i>blogs</i> , <i>Wikis</i> (herramientas Web 2.0) y <i>webquests</i> en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. Se utilizan pizarras electrónicas interactivas en clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. Se utiliza comunicación mediada por ordenador en clase (e.g., <i>e-Twinning</i>) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 33. Los materiales incluyen algunas pautas en español para que los padres puedan ayudar a sus hijos en casa | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

4. EVALUACIÓN

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 34. Se evalúan todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. A la hora de evaluar, se da prioridad al dominio de los contenidos frente a la competencia lingüística | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. A la hora de evaluar, se incluye un componente oral | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. Se practica la evaluación diversificada, formativa, sumativa y holística | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

5. FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 38. Los profesores de lengua extranjera necesitan más formación | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas necesitan más formación | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. Los auxiliares lingüísticos necesitan más formación | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 41. Los profesores de lengua extranjera motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 42. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 43. Los auxiliares lingüísticos motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 44. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los otros profesores de la sección bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 47. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 48. Tengo un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre la LE | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 49. Tengo conocimiento del plan de fomento del plurilingüismo de mi comunidad autónoma: objetivos, acciones, pilares, y marco legislativo | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 50. Tengo conocimiento de los principios básicos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 51. He participado en formación sobre el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 52. He realizado cursos de actualización lingüística en las EOI's | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

6. MOVILIDAD

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 53. He participado en programas de intercambio dentro de la sección bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 54. He participado en cursos lingüísticos en el extranjero | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 55. He participado en cursos metodológicos en el extranjero | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 56. He obtenido licencias de estudios/investigación | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

7. COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 57. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que implica | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 58. El/los coordinador/es cumple/n con sus funciones dentro del plan regional de plurilingüismo. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 59. Cumpló con todas mis funciones dentro del plan regional de plurilingüismo | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 60. Me comunico o el/la coordinador/a se comunica con otros centros bilingües y los/las coordinadores/as provinciales | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 61. Se recibe un apoyo adecuado de las autoridades educativas | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU COLABORACIÓN

Appendix V

Parent questionnaire

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Cuestionario

PADRES Y MADRES

1. CENTRO EN EL QUE ESTÁ ESCOLARIZADO SU HIJO: _____
2. CURSO DE SU HIJO: 6º EP 4º ESO
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: Hombre Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____
6. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS:
 - Sin estudios
 - Título de Graduado Escolar
 - Título de Bachiller
 - Título de Formación Profesional
 - Diplomatura Universitaria
 - Licenciatura Universitaria
 - Doctorado

POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁ DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 1. El nivel de inglés de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. El español de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. El conocimiento por parte de mi hijo/a de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. A mi hijo/a le resulta más difícil aprender los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. La comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés y el español por parte de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. Mi hijo/a tiene más confianza en sí mismo con respecto a las lenguas | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. Mi hijo/a tiene una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. Mi hijo/a tiene una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 9. Mi hijo/a tiene un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre el inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

2. METODOLOGÍA

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 10. Mi hijo/a aprende mucho vocabulario dentro de la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. Se utilizan metodologías más innovadoras y centradas en el estudiante en la clase bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. Soy capaz de ayudar a mi hijo/a con los deberes de enseñanza bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 13. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe fomentan la comunicación en inglés dentro y fuera de la clase | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe están adaptados para atender las necesidades de todos los alumnos | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. Se utilizan más las nuevas tecnologías en la enseñanza bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. Los materiales para la educación bilingüe tienen un precio más elevado | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. Los materiales incluyen algunas pautas en español para que pueda ayudar a mi hijo/a en casa | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. Mi hijo/a está expuesto/a al inglés fuera del centro | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. Mi hijo/a tiene un acceso adecuado a materiales en inglés fuera del centro | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

4. EVALUACIÓN

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 21. La evaluación en los programas bilingües es adecuada | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. Se hacen exámenes periódicamente para evaluar todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. Se evalúa también oralmente | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. A la hora de evaluar los profesores toman más en cuenta el aprendizaje de los contenidos que la competencia en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. Mi hijo/a ha alcanzado mejores resultados formando parte del programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

5. FORMACIÓN E INFORMACIÓN

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 26. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre la lengua extranjera | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. Conozco el funcionamiento del programa bilingüe en el centro de mi hijo/a | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. Estoy bien informado/a sobre el plan de fomento del plurilingüismo de la comunidad autónoma: objetivos, acciones, pilares y marco legislativo | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. Estoy bien informado/a sobre los principios básicos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

6. MOVILIDAD

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 32. Mi hijo/a ha participado en programas de intercambio / lingüísticos | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. Considero que participar en programas de intercambio / lingüísticos es beneficioso para mi hijo/a | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. Animo a mi hijo a participar en programas de intercambio / lingüísticos | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

7. MEJORAS Y MOTIVACIÓN PARA EL APRENDIZAJE DEL INGLÉS

| ASPECTOS | TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO | EN DESACUERDO | DE ACUERDO | TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|------------|-----------------------|
| 35. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que implica | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. Ha habido una mejoría general del aprendizaje del inglés por parte de mi hijo/a debido a la participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. Mi propia motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés ha aumentado debido a la participación de mi hijo/a en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 38. La motivación de mi hijo/a hacia el aprendizaje del inglés ha aumentado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. Me comunico regularmente con los profesores de mi hijo para ver su evolución dentro del programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. Valoro positivamente el programa bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Otro (especificar): | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU COLABORACIÓN

Appendix VI

Student interview protocol

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Protocolo de entrevistas

ALUMNADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO: 6º EP 4º ESO
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: Hombre Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____

1) USO DE LA L2 EN CLASE

¿Consideras que el nivel de inglés de tus profesores es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe?

¿En qué porcentaje dirías que se utiliza el inglés en clase?

¿Consideras que tu nivel de inglés ha mejorado como consecuencia de tu participación en el programa bilingüe?

¿Es más difícil aprender los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés?

¿Consideras que eres participativo en clase y utilizas el inglés para ello?

2) DESARROLLO DE LA L2 EN CLASE: FUNCIONES DISCURSIVAS

¿Para qué funciones discursivas se utiliza el inglés en clase: *transmisivas* o *interaccionales*?

EJEMPLOS: *Dar instrucciones*

Introducir el tema

Transmitir contenidos

Realizar actividades

Aclarar dudas y explicar dificultades

Formular preguntas


Corregir tareas

Consolidar y repasar conocimientos

Organizar la clase con distintos tipos de agrupamiento

Interactuar con el alumnado/profesorado

Suministrar feedback sobre las actuaciones de clase



3) DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS EN CLASE

¿Qué competencias *-lingüísticas, interculturales y genéricas-* consideras que desarrolláis en clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Comprensión oral*

Comprensión escrita

Expresión oral

Expresión escrita

La interacción comunicativa oral (listening+speaking)

La interacción comunicativa escrita (reading+writing)


Capacidad crítica

Creatividad

Autonomía en el aprendizaje

Conciencia metalingüística

Conciencia intercultural



4) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

¿Qué metodologías, tipos de agrupamiento y actividades empleáis en clase? ¿Dirías que son tradicionales o innovadores / basadas en el profesor o centradas en el alumno / que movilizan de procesos cognitivos de nivel bajo o más complejos?

EJEMPLOS: *Aprendizaje basado en tareas*

Aprendizaje basado en proyectos

Aprendizaje cooperativo

Enfoque léxico

CEFR

ELP

Trabajo con toda la clase

Trabajo en grupos

Trabajo en parejas

Trabajo autónomo

Actividades abiertas vs. de respuesta única

Actividades que implican memorizar, comprender y aplicar vs. analizar, evaluar y crear

5) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

¿Qué materiales y recursos empleáis en clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Materiales auténticos*

Materiales adaptados

Materiales originales

Libro de texto

Software específico

Recursos online

Blogs

Wikis

Webquests

Pizarra electrónica

e-Twinning

6) COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre tus profesores?

7) EVALUACIÓN

¿Cómo realiza la evaluación en clase? Qué instrumentos y criterios se utilizan? ¿Qué importancia se da a los aspectos lingüísticos (la L2) y a los contenidos de las materias? ¿Qué aspectos cuentan más en la calificación? ¿En qué porcentaje cuentan unos y otros?

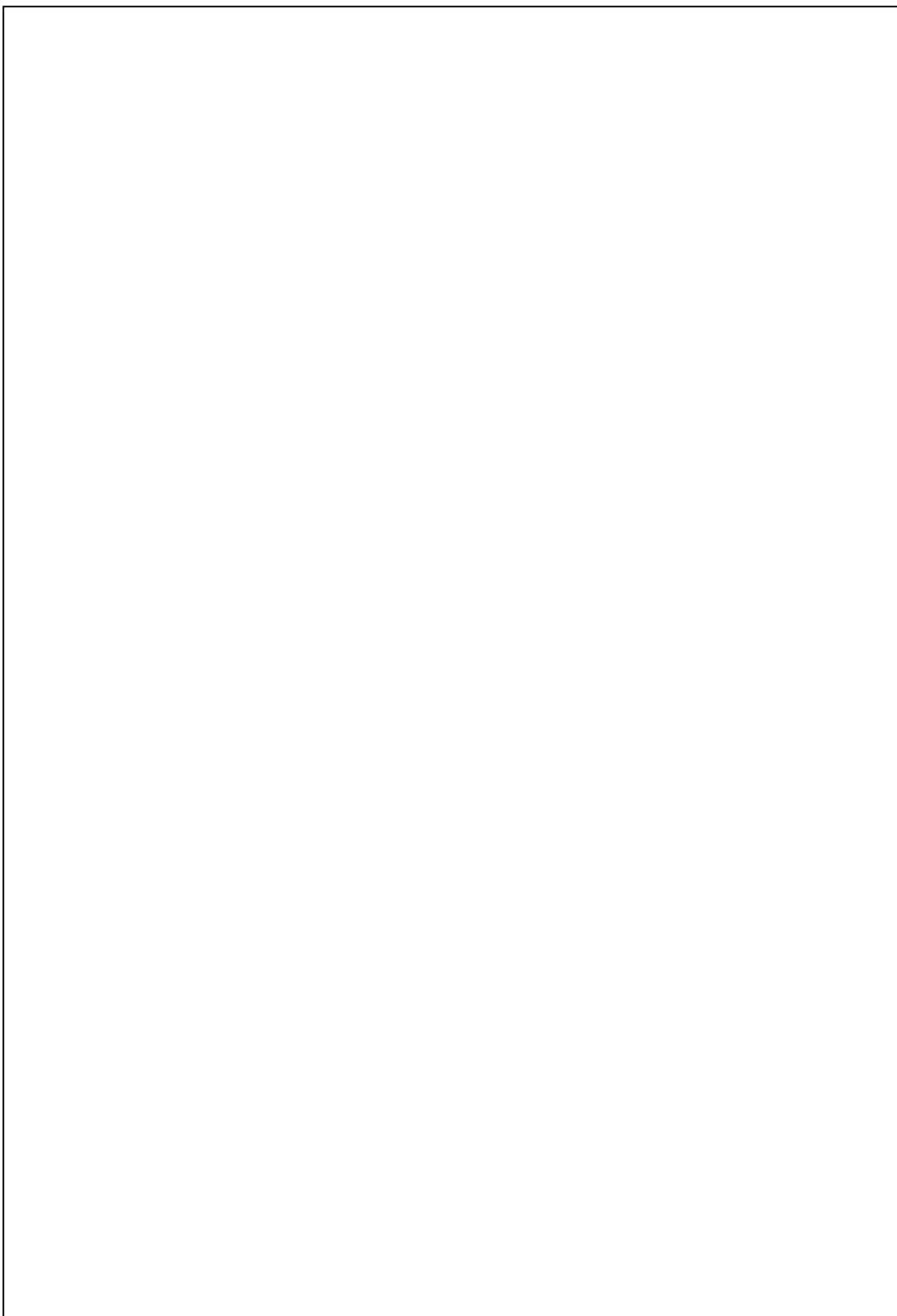
EJEMPLOS: *De forma holística / formativa /sumativa /diversificada*

En inglés y español

Primando contenido/lengua

Con énfasis en los aspectos orales/escritos

Fomentando la autoevaluación (e.g., a través del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas)



8) FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO Y MOVILIDAD

¿Consideras que tus profesores tienen suficiente formación para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Has participado en algún programa de intercambio? Si es así, ¿te resultó beneficioso?

¿Te ha animado tu familia a que participes en ellos?

9) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO

¿Consideras que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado tu carga de trabajo?
¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Estás más motivado?

10) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL

¿Cuáles son las principales dificultades que has encontrado al participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Y las principales ventajas?

¿Cómo lo valoras de modo global?

Appendix VII

Teacher interview protocol

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Protocolo de entrevistas

PROFESORADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO: 6º EP 4º ESO
3. ASIGNATURA: _____
4. TIPO DE PROFESORADO:
 - Lengua extranjera
 - Área no lingüística
 - Auxiliar lingüístico
5. ¿ES COORDINADOR/A DE SU SECCIÓN BILINGÜE? Sí No
6. EDAD: _____
7. SEXO: Hombre Mujer
8. NACIONALIDAD: _____
9. SITUACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA:
 - Funcionario/a con destino definitivo
 - Funcionario/a con destino provisional
 - Interino/a
 - Otro: _____
10. SU NIVEL EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA QUE ENSEÑA ES:
 - A1
 - A2
 - B1
 - B2
 - C1
 - C2
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:
 - Menos de 1 año
 - 1-10 años
 - 11-20 años
 - 21-30 años
 - Más de 30 años
12. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN CENTRO BILINGÜE:
 - Menos de 1 año
 - 1-5 años
 - 6-10 años
 - 11-15 años
 - Más de 15 años

1) USO DE LA L2 EN CLASE


¿Considera que su nivel de inglés es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe?

¿En qué porcentaje diría que utiliza usted el inglés en clase?

¿Considera que el inglés de sus alumnos ha mejorado como consecuencia de su participación en el programa bilingüe?

¿Considera que el conocimiento por parte de sus alumnos de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe?

¿Considera que sus alumnos son participativos en clase y utilizan el inglés para ello?



2) DESARROLLO DE LA L2 EN CLASE: FUNCIONES DISCURSIVAS

¿Para qué funciones discursivas utiliza el inglés en clase: *transmisivas* o *interaccionales*?

EJEMPLOS: *Dar instrucciones*

Introducir el tema

Transmitir contenidos

Realizar actividades

Aclarar dudas y explicar dificultades

Formular preguntas

Corregir tareas

Consolidar y repasar conocimientos

Organizar la clase con distintos tipos de agrupamiento

Interactuar con el alumnado/profesorado

Suministrar feedback sobre las actuaciones de clase

3) DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS EN CLASE

¿Qué competencias-*lingüísticas, interculturales* y *genéricas*- considera que desarrolla en clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Comprensión oral*

Comprensión escrita

Expresión oral

Expresión escrita

La interacción comunicativa oral (listening+speaking)

La interacción comunicativa escrita (reading+writing)

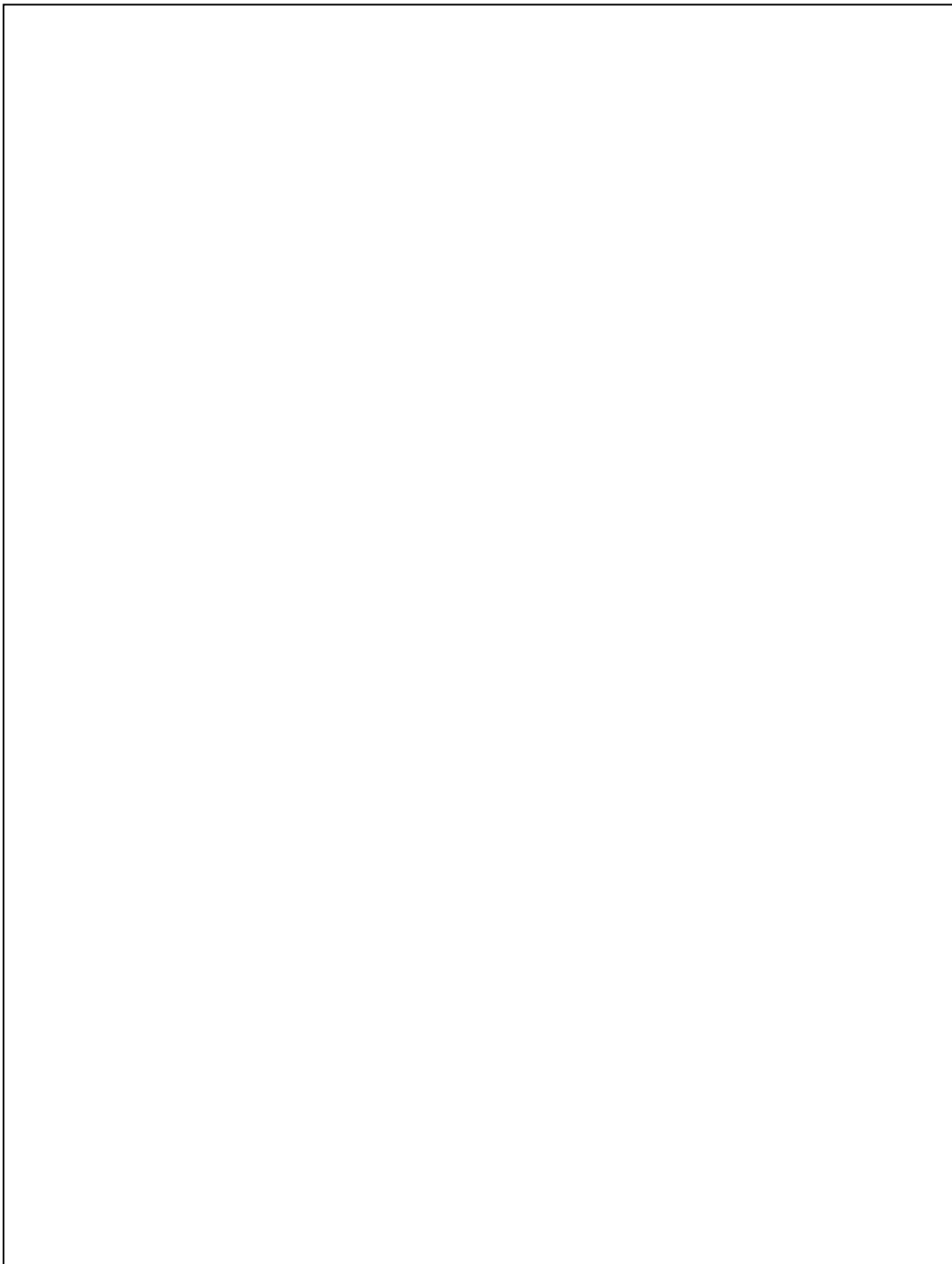
Capacidad crítica

Creatividad

Autonomía en el aprendizaje

Conciencia metalingüística

Conciencia intercultural

A large empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the student to write their answer to the question about classroom competencies.

4) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

¿Qué metodologías, tipos de agrupamiento y actividades emplea en clase? ¿Diría que son tradicionales o innovadores / basadas en el profesor o centradas en el alumno / que movilizan de procesos cognitivos de nivel bajo o más complejos?

EJEMPLOS: *Aprendizaje basado en tareas*

Aprendizaje basado en proyectos

Aprendizaje cooperativo

Enfoque léxico

CEFR

ELP

Trabajo con toda la clase

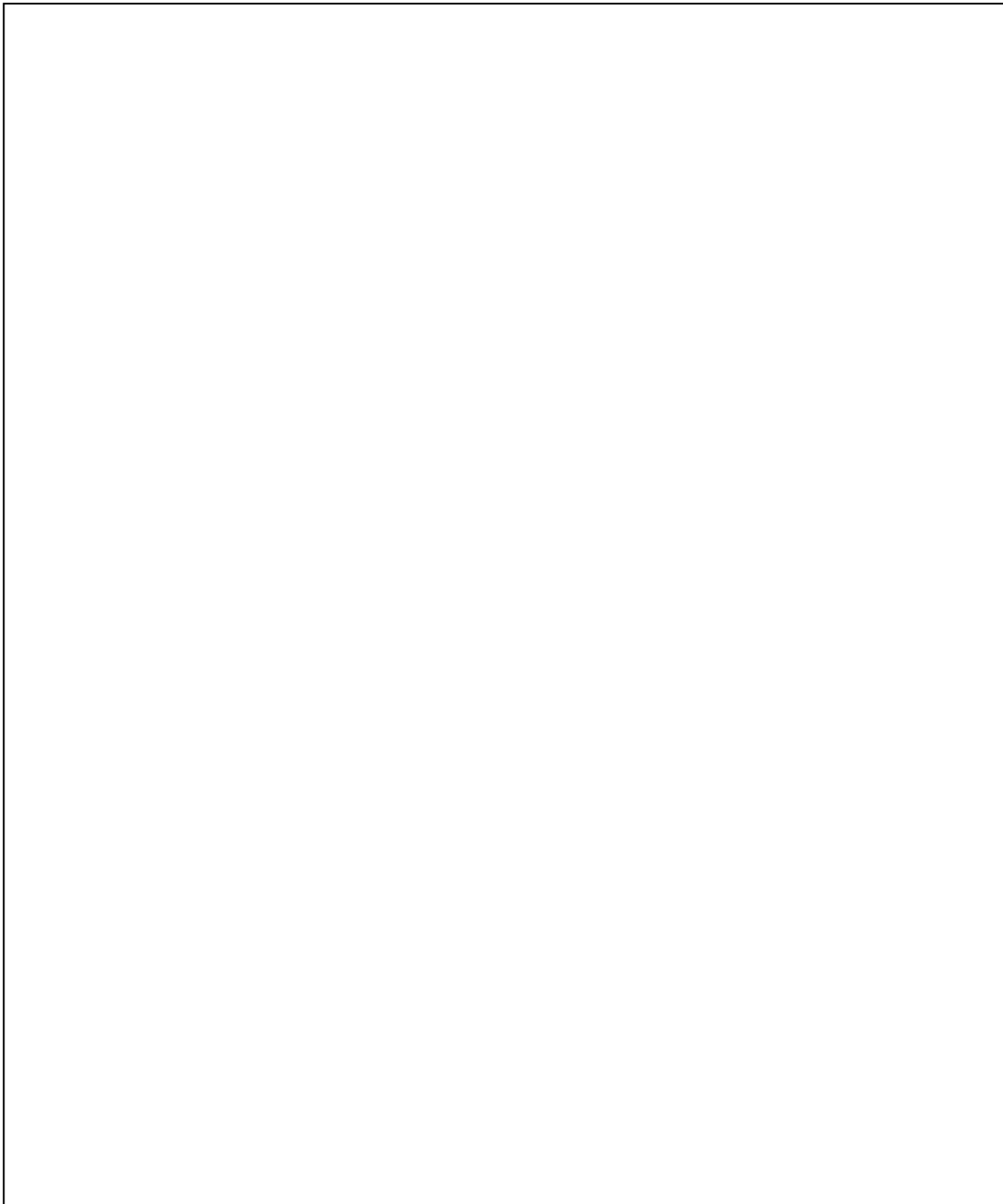
Trabajo en grupos

Trabajo en parejas

Trabajo autónomo

Actividades abiertas vs. de respuesta única

Actividades que implican memorizar, comprender y aplicar vs. analizar, evaluar y crear



5) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

¿Qué materiales y recursos emplea en su clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Materiales auténticos*

Materiales adaptados

Materiales originales

Libro de texto

Software específico

Recursos online

Blogs

Wikis

Webquests

Pizarra electrónica

e-Twinning

6) COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

¿Considera que está desarrollando el Currículo Integrado de Lenguas?

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre el profesorado implicado en el programa bilingüe? ¿Y con el coordinador bilingüe?

¿Se recibe apoyo adecuado del centro, del claustro y de las autoridades educativas?

7) EVALUACIÓN

¿Cómo realiza la evaluación en su clase? ¿Qué instrumentos y criterios utiliza? ¿Qué importancia le da a los aspectos lingüísticos (la L2) y a los contenidos de las materias? ¿Qué aspectos cuentan más en la calificación? ¿En qué porcentaje cuentan unos y otros?

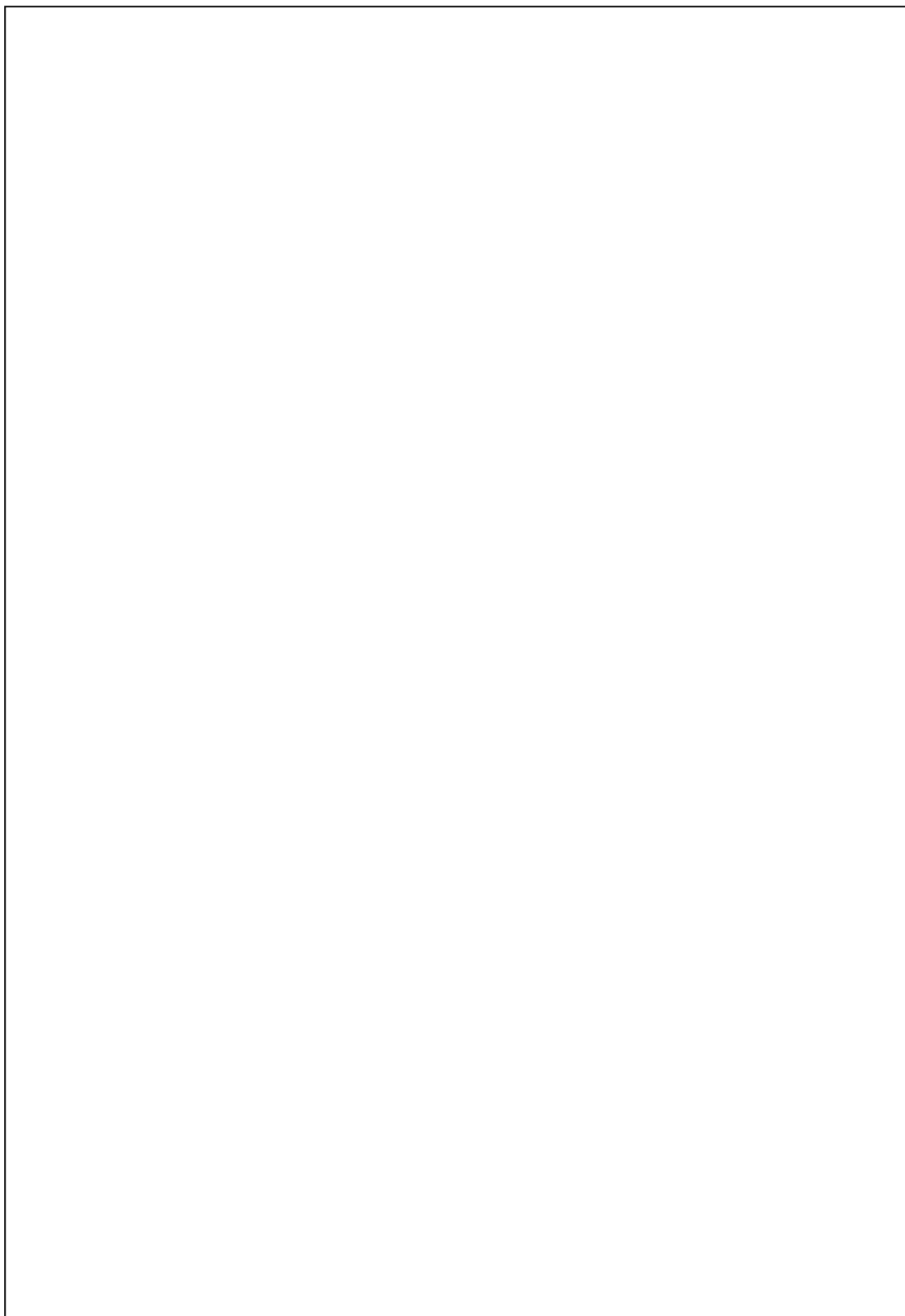
EJEMPLOS: *De forma holística / formativa /sumativa /diversificada*

En inglés y español

Primando contenido/lengua

Con énfasis en los aspectos orales/escritos

Fomentando la autoevaluación (e.g., a través del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas)



8) FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO Y MOVILIDAD

¿Considera que su formación es adecuada para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿En qué iniciativas de formación / movilidad ha participado?

¿En cuáles cree que le sería beneficioso participar?

EJEMPLOS: *Curso lingüísticos*

Cursos metodológicos

Programas de intercambio

Licencias de estudio/investigación

¿En qué aspectos del AICLE cree que requiere más formación?

EJEMPLOS: *Bases teóricas del AICLE*

Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo

Aspectos lingüísticos

Aspectos interculturales

Metodologías centradas en el estudiante

Uso de las TIC

Investigación en el aula

Investigación sobre los efectos del AICLE

9) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO

¿Considera que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado su carga de trabajo?

¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Está más motivado?

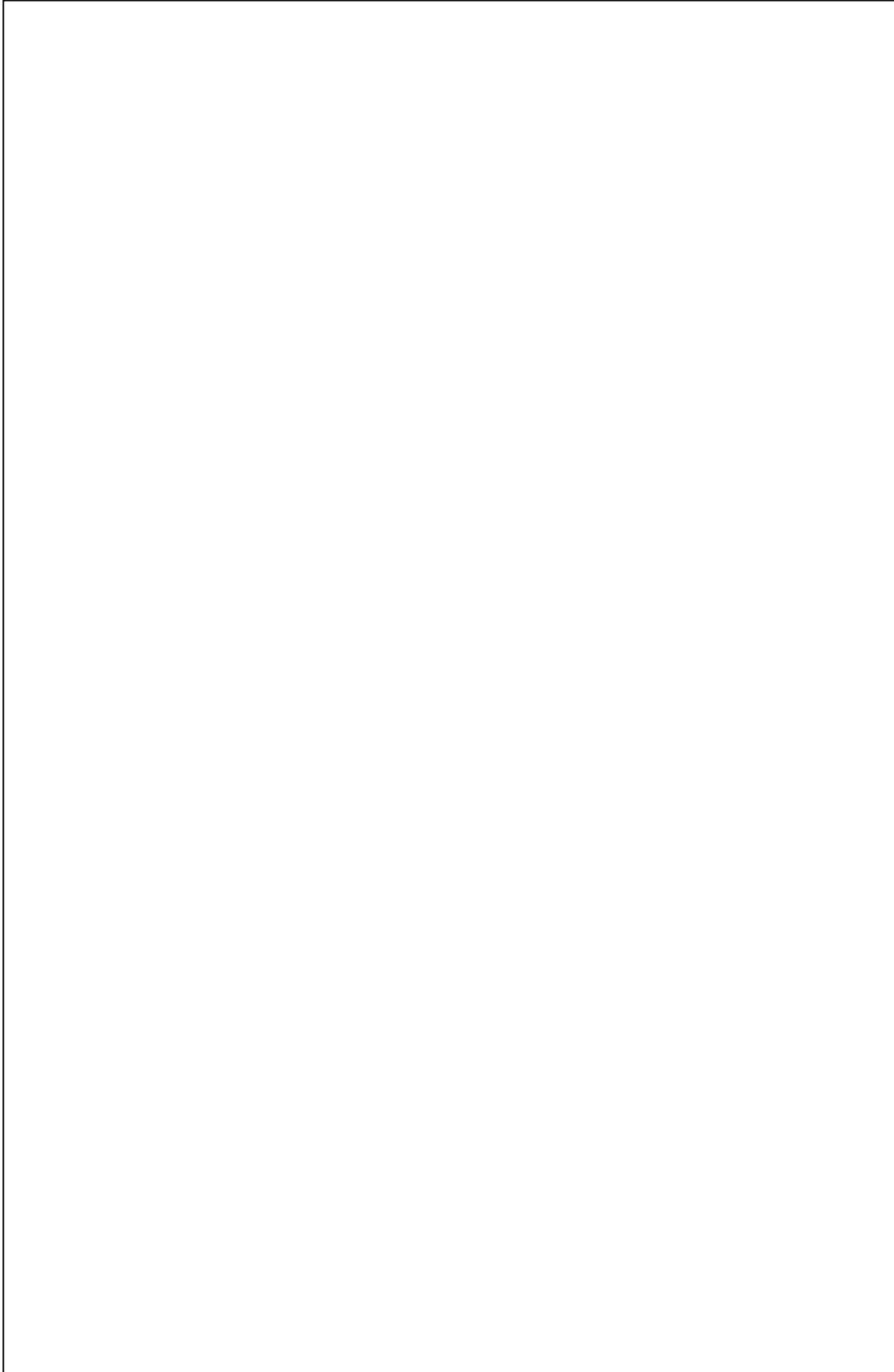
¿Considera que sus alumnos están más motivados como resultado de su participación en el programa bilingüe?

10) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL

¿Cuáles cree que son las principales dificultades en el correcto desarrollo del programa bilingüe en su centro?

¿Y sus principales fortalezas?

¿Cómo lo valora de modo global?

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the respondent to write their answers to the questions above. The box occupies most of the lower half of the page.

Appendix VIII

Foreign language skills tests assessment criteria

ENGLISH TEST (Key)
SECONDARY EDUCATION, 4TH GRADE

Use of English

A.

- (1) How long does the programme last?
- (2) Did you listen to the radio last Sunday?
- (3) Which kind of programme do you like?
- (4) Why is the radio too loud?

B.

- (5) High mountains can interrupt the transmission.
- (6) How can we solve this problem?
- (7) We can build other transmitters on the top of the hills.
- (8) The aerial changes the waves into sound.

C.

- (9) lost
- (10) couldn't
- (11) asked
- (12) replied
- (13) put
- (14) did
- (15) came
- (16) took
- (17) wanted
- (18) gave

D.

- (19) tell
- (20) bring
- (21) said
- (22) anything
- (23) take
- (24) something
- (25) tell
- (26) took
- (27) anything
- (28) said

E.

- (29) lived
- (30) I'd go
- (31) go
- (32) we'll visit
- (33) had
- (34) would travel
- (35) were
- (36) wouldn't

F.

- (37) haven't had
- (38) had
- (39) haven't had
- (40) stayed
- (41) have never done
- (42) wanted
- (43) finished
- (44) was

Vocabulary

G.

- (45) health
- (46) quit
- (47) cut down
- (48) improve
- (49) will power
- (50) overcome
- (51) harm

H. (52) 1B

- (53) 2A
- (54) 3F
- (55) 4E
- (56) 5C
- (57) 6H
- (58) 7D
- (59) 8G

Listening

I.

- (60) C
- (61) B
- (62) C
- (63) D
- (64) A
- (65) B
- (66) C

Transcript (news presenter):

Hello! This is John McDonald and Vanessa Jones. It's Thursday the 18th of February and here is the news for today.

First. According to scientists, children are fatter than 25 years ago. According to experts, babies are born the same weight but by the time they are 5, they are heavier than before. The reasons for children being fatter are that they are eating a lot more and they have a less active health-style, preferring to play video games, watching TV or using the computer rather than taking exercise.

Our next story takes us to America, where Peter Johnston, an economics student at Virginia University, has just won a contract for 50,000 dollars at a famous music company and will possibly earn an extra 150,000 dollars next year. The student, who is not a professional musician, posted a song on YouTube and was seen by one of the music company bosses. Peter used to play the drums and the saxophone and now likes to sing and play the guitar. Peter says the contract has changed his life. Now, he says, he is able to pay the fees for his university and buy a new keyboard, although he still can't play this instrument. But first, he is going to fly to the Island of Cuba, where his song was inspired.

Finally, hockey is in the news as Kirstie McCullough, the star in the new film *How to be a Model*, plays her last game for Manchester's ladies hockey team. Kirstie, who is originally from New Zealand and lived for three years in Australia, came to Manchester when she was 18, where she started work as a flight attendant for Prime Air. Now living in London, Kirstie has been travelling to Manchester to see her family and for her weekend games. Tomorrow, however, is the last time she'll be wearing the red shirt, as she will be spending almost all her time in the capital working on new projects. The film will be in cinemas next month, but already Kirstie has been picked for a major role in the next Bond movie.

Reading

J.

- (67) First impressions B; attack or defence A; how to use body language D; I love you C.
- (68) C
- (69) A
- (70) B
- (71) B
- (72) D

Appendix IX

Complexity Accuracy and Fluency measurements

CAF MEASURES PER CONSTRUCT

| | | |
|-------------------------------|--|--|
| FLUENCY MEASURES | Total number of words: #words | Total number of T-Units: #T-Units |
| ACCURACY MEASURES | Error-free T-Unit ratio: $\frac{\mathbf{\#errorfreeTUnits}}{\mathbf{\#sentences}}$ | Errors per word ratio: $\frac{\mathbf{\#errors}}{\mathbf{\#words}}$ |
| GRAMMATICAL COMPLEXITY | Overall complexity: Mean Length of T-Unit $\frac{\mathbf{\#words}}{\mathbf{\#TUnits}}$ | Intermediate & Upper-Intermediate Levels: Clauses per T-Unit ratio $\frac{\mathbf{\#clauses}}{\mathbf{\#TUnits}}$ |
| LEXICAL COMPLEXITY | Type-Token Ratio (TTR): (lexical density) $\frac{\mathbf{\#types}}{\mathbf{\#tokens}}$ | D Value Use the vocd analysis command of the CLAN programme (Malvern and Richards 2002) |

Appendix X

Writing test assessment criteria

| | TASK FULFILLMENT | COMMUNICATIVE EFFECTIVENESS | ORGANIZATION | LEXICAL & GRAMMATICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY | MECHANICS |
|------------|---|--|--|--|---|
| 2 | The student wrote exactly what he/she was asked to write. All of the content is relevant to the task. | Ideas are communicated clearly and conveyed interestingly, managing to hold the reader's attention. The register is appropriate. | Text presents coherence and cohesiveness throughout and is organized around a well-defined structure. Use of cohesive items and devices is on point. | Common grammatical forms and everyday vocabulary are well used consistently. Some non-impeding errors in more ambitious forms may be present. Tries to avoid repetition. | Only isolated spelling mistakes when using more ambitious items. Only minor punctuation mistakes may occur. |
| 1,5 | The task may have been minimally misinterpreted. Some minor irrelevancies may be present. | The communicative purpose of the task is met by means of straightforward ideas. | Good general use of a wider array of cohesive items. Good attempt at achieving a clear structure. | There is some attempt at using certain complex forms, while common grammatical forms and vocabulary are well used on the whole. Errors are non-impeding. | Spelling is adequate on the whole, with only occasional mistakes. Punctuation is mostly correct. |
| 1 | A small number of irrelevancies are present, although the task is mostly complete. | Ideas are communicated appropriately in general. Message is delivered successfully on the whole. | High-frequency linking words are well used. Structure lacks some clarity, although there is an attempt at organizing the text into paragraphs. | Tends to overuse certain forms and everyday vocabulary. Grammatical forms and structures tend to be simple. Errors do not generally impede communication. | Basic vocabulary is spelled correctly, while less frequent items may still be misspelled. Some errors in punctuation are present, but generally consistent. |
| 0,5 | Part of the content is irrelevant. The task has been partially misinterpreted. | Text is made up by simple ideas which, despite being connected, are conveyed in unambitious ways. | Some use of basic, high-frequency linking words is made. No attempt at defined structure. | Basic vocabulary is used appropriately on the whole. There is some degree of control over simple grammatical forms. The reader is forced to determine meaning at times. | A considerable number of misspelled words is present. Punctuation is attempted, but inconsistent. |
| 0 | Content is irrelevant to the task. | The produced text is formed by scattered thoughts rather than connected ideas. | No attempt at connecting ideas has been made. No use of linking words. | Lacks control of basic vocabulary and grammatical forms. Errors impede meaning frequently. | Spelling is deficient even in basic, high-frequency words. Punctuation is either not attempted or is incorrectly used throughout. |

Appendix XI

Speaking test assessment criteria

The Effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning on the Oral Skills of Compulsory Secondary Education Students: A Longitudinal Study

| | GRAMMATICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY | LEXICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY | FLUENCY AND INTERACTION | PRONUNCIATION, STRESS AND INTONATION | TASK FULFILLMENT/ APPROPRIACY OF RESPONSE/ COMMUNICATIVE EFFECTIVENESS |
|------------|--|---|--|---|---|
| 2 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of basic grammatical structures to deal with the content of the test - Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of grammatical accuracy to deal with simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes but most errors do not impede communication | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Few pauses, false starts and reformulations - Responds slowly on <i>very few occasions</i> - Maintains simple exchanges. Requires <i>very little prompting and support</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mostly intelligible and has <i>good</i> control of phonological features at both utterance and word level - <i>Good</i> control of lexical stress and intonation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fulfils the task well |
| 1.5 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of basic grammatical structures to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of grammatical accuracy to deal with simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes. Major errors occasionally impede communication | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some pauses, false starts and reformulations - Responds slowly on <i>few occasions</i> due to need formulate output - Maintains simple exchanges despite some difficulty. Requires <i>some prompting and support</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mostly intelligible and has <i>sufficient</i> control of phonological features - <i>Sufficient</i> control of lexical stress and intonation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fulfils the task appropriately |
| 1 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows an <i>acceptable</i> degree of control of basic grammatical | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>acceptable</i> control of lexical range to deal with the | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pauses, false starts and reformulations are <i>frequent</i> - Responds | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Limited</i> control of phonological features and <i>sometimes</i> unintelligible | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fulfils the task acceptably with support |

The Effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning on the Oral Skills of Compulsory Secondary Education Students: A Longitudinal Study

| | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|--|--|--|
| | <p>structures to deal with the content of the test</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows an <i>acceptable</i> degree of control of grammatical accuracy <i>just enough to follow</i> - Makes basic mistakes. Major errors <i>sometimes</i> impede communication | <p>content of the test</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>acceptable</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges | <p>slowly on <i>few occasions</i> due to need to make sense of input</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Has difficulty maintaining simple exchanges. Requires <i>additional</i> prompting and support | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Acceptable</i> control of lexical stress and intonation <i>just enough to follow</i> | |
| 0.5 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of basic grammatical structures. <i>Does not manage</i> to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of grammatical accuracy for simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes and major errors <i>often</i> impede communication | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pauses, false starts and reformulations are <i>very frequent</i> - <i>Often</i> responds slowly due to failure to understand input - Has difficulty maintaining simple exchanges <i>even with additional</i> prompting and support | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Limited</i> control of phonological features and <i>often</i> unintelligible - <i>Limited</i> control of lexical stress and intonation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Does not fulfil the task <i>even with support</i> |
| 0 | <p>NO PERFORMANCE TO ASSESS Does not speak or does not speak in English</p> | | | | |

