



Universidad de Jaén

Filología inglesa

CLIL in Higher Education: Making the Learning Visible

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Fecha: 17/06/2024

ISBN:
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Acknowledgements

Well, it's been a journey to say it mildly, and there has been a lot that has happened in between, but as they say in Japanese '終わりよければ全てよし' or '*owari yokereba subete yoshi*', or in other words, '*if it ends well, it was all good*'. I don't know if this is always the case, but as life happened, things have certainly turned out for the better. During a moment of deep despair, a very wonderful individual picked me up, brushed me off, and set me back in motion. A HUGE thank you María Luisa Pérez Cañado, an absolutely warm, kind, and caring human being, who offered to be my supervisor and supported me at every step. Thank you from the bottom of my heart. I really have no idea what would have been at this point if it were not for you recognising something in me that others had not.

To Pat Dougherty, the head of the EAP Department at Akita International University, who from the moment I entered AIU was supportive of my ideas for change, many discussions, many dinners, and supportive of the downs that I had experienced along the way of this journey. You are an inspiration, and every visit to your office to talk about whatever was on the agenda for that day, will always be cherished.

I can't thank Dmitri Leontjev enough for all the years of collaboration, hours and hours each week on whatever platform was available at that time, with whatever virtual background suited the moment. There is so much that we have shared over the past many years, so many ideas for research, presentations, and visits to Japan, Finland, and other countries in between with sushi, beer, or whatever else was on the menu. Certainly, we have had enough coffee during our meetings to last a few lifetimes. You have certainly impacted my life in ways that I would

have never experienced on my own. And thank you for all those moments of laughs when we were hit by the infamous reviewer number 2.

Thank you to the students in these studies who, over the years have dropped by to visit and remind me of why I do what I do. Thank you for all the efforts you put into everything you did. I know it wasn't easy, but you all came out better in the end.

There are a few others that need to also be acknowledged. James Hobbs, who gave me my first university job and remained my friend the entire way through. Joaquín, Santi, Rocío, Raquel, and Pedro, all the folks down in Jaén, whose time will be cherished, all the dinners, and times together who also gave that extra support without knowing it.

And well, here is to the lady who joined me near the end of my journey, who pushed me to finish, who gave me the added confidence, who gave my heart a tremendous boost when it needed it. Natalia, cariño, really, I have no words, you are an incredible lady.

Abstract

Content and Language Integrated Learning has established itself worldwide as an a priori innovative approach to learning (Pérez Cañado, 2012; 2021). To be sure, in some regions of the world, it is implemented top-down, while in other regions, and using the context of Japan as an example, it is still very much a grassroots movement (Ikeda et al., 2013; Ikeda et al., 2021). In the context of Japan, assessment of content and language in the classroom is traditionally summative focusing on the product of learning, rather than the process. In this Compendium, I introduce three studies in a CLIL context in higher education, where the intention was to open up the learning process and focus on the development of the learners. There are two aspects to the studies that make them unique. The first is the way the classroom is orchestrated, where the teacher plays the role of facilitator, or “the guide on the side” while implementing activities that activate the natural proclivities of the learner. The second involves the use of tools that also guide the learner through their developmental trajectory. The first study is conceptual, guided by the principles of Action-oriented approach (Piccardo & North, 2019) and the construct of cognitive discourse functions (CDFs) (Dalton-Puffer, 2013), and reconceptualises one assessment tool, a rubric, into a *self*-assessment tool that guides the learners through the writing process. The second study is empirical and investigates an advanced research writing class and the issues the learners had with coherence in their writing. The teacher orchestrated the classroom, over the course of the term, in such a way that focused on the process of writing, through peer-reviews, and the use of a schema of orienting basis of action (SCOBA) and a group dynamic assessment activity. The third study is a book proposal with Cambridge University Press, which stems from a study done with first-year university learners engaged in a project-based learning scenario in which working in groups, they had to build a presentation from

research jointly constructed. The data that was collected for this third study indicates how learners communicate, through multimodalities, guiding each other through the use of CDFs. The study gives rise to a reconceptualisation of the integration of content and language and at the same time allows for the development of an assessment framework built for the development of the learner. In each of these studies, the focus is on the process, i.e., the way the classroom is orchestrated, the tools made available to the learners through the activities, the tools designed for the learning process, or the way the interaction occurs between all the interlocutors. The focus in all three studies is on the development of the learner by making their learning visible.

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List of Abbreviations

AoA	Action-oriented approach
CDFs	Cognitive Discourse Functions
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
G-DA	Group Dynamic Assessment
METI	Ministry of the Economy, Trade, and Industry
MEXT	Ministry of Education, Culture, Science, Sports, and Technology
S#	Student
SCOBA	Schema for a complete orienting basis of an action
T	Teacher
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

List of Original Publications

1. English Language Teaching (ELT) Journal (Oxford) (published 2023)

- i. de Boer, M. A., Leontjev, D., & Friederich, L. (2023). From language to function: Developing self- and peer-assessment tools. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 94–104.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac014>

2. Language Teaching Research Journal (Sage) (published 2022)

- i. Leontjev, D., & de Boer, M. A. (2022). Teacher as creator: Orchestrating the learning environment to promote learner development. *Language Teaching Research*, 0(0), 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688221117654>

3. Cambridge University Press (Book proposal) Single Author Volume. Book contract signed by both parties December 14th 2023.

- i. de Boer, M. A. (*forthcoming*) Proposed Title: *Multimodality in CLIL: A Focus on Learner Development*. Cambridge University Press.

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 General Introduction

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL), over the last 25 years, has become a rapidly growing area of research and practice in many areas of the world. It has a strong foothold in Europe, in particular Spain (Pérez Cañado, 2012; 2021) and to some degree in Asia (Ikeda et al., 2013; Ikeda et al., 2021). Research continues to open up on a number of fronts, for example, assessment (de Boer & Leontjev, 2020), teacher development (Lo, 2020), integration (Nikula et al., 2016), and multimodality in CLIL (Liu & Lin, 2021), as well as research on cognitive discourse functions in CLIL (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, 2016; de Boer, 2020; Morton, 2020).

Yet, as a teacher-researcher in the Asian context involved in teacher training in CLIL, I am aware of issues that plague its implementation, mainly concerning assessment practices and historical trends that have had a tight hold on the traditions of language teaching and learning in Japan. For example, the high-stakes university entrance exams impose institutional constraints on what is taught and how, particularly in English language classrooms (Green, 2016). The teaching culture in Japan (de Boer, Ogawa, Odate, 2023) dictates assessment policies, and the classrooms are void of any learner-learner interaction. Japan has had a tumultuous history of language learning and education (Tsuchiya, 2019); from the early 1900s, English became a subject to be studied in preparation for the high-stakes university entrance examinations. Emphasis was placed on learning English grammar through *yakudoku*, i.e., grammar-translation method (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006; Green, 2016; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008) which implies that “grammar rules, are presented in a series of steps with accompanying word lists, and translation exercises” (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p. 132), and does not foster communication skills in

learners (see Ishikawa & Otaki, 2021; Iwamoto & Kramer, 2020). High-stakes exams remain prominent, and the traditional teacher-centred, grammar-focused classrooms are still ubiquitous (Green, 2016). These exams also cause issues for those English language teachers who want to implement CLIL but are required to teach using textbooks issued by The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). The testing culture in Japan also negatively affects the learners (Personal Communication, Saki Ogawa, Yukina Odate, November 29th, 2023) as high school teachers are not taught how to assess and are instructed to demerit points for all errors whether or not they are related to the assignment. Indeed, learners are taught that all errors are significant, resulting in the fear of making mistakes and losing motivation to use the language. Teaching is done through a performance-based approach using these government-authorised textbooks; therefore, summative assessment is the primary form of testing, with grades determining the educational trajectory path of the learner. As a result of this type of teaching and assessment practice, by the time learners reach university, they have lost their motivation to study English (Landsberry, 2018).

While more universities in Japan are adopting a CLIL approach (see de Boer & Leontjev, 2020; Ikeda et al., 2021; Tsuchiya & Pérez-Murillo, 2019), assessment is becoming a more pressing issue. Assessment practices continue along the same summative lines from Junior High to the end of university, and focus only on the product of learning, i.e., the test, but do not examine the learning process itself. There is an emerging grassroots movement in Japan, through the J-CLIL organisation (jjclil.com) towards the implementation of CLIL at all levels of education; therefore, there is an opportunity to move away from the traditional testing of grammar, and instead, to the development of productive skills, i.e., the learner's linguistic

abilities to use the target language to formulate meaningful utterances, to explain phenomena, or to develop skills such as writing or presenting within the context of a CLIL classroom.

The papers in this Compendium take a different approach to the classroom, namely, to examine the learning process, to the point where teachers can guide the learners through the development of their linguistic proficiency and conceptual understanding of content in a CLIL context. As learners come to the university context with already a six-year background in English study, albeit through grammar-translation, the teacher (the author of this Compendium) built his classroom in such a way as to give more agency to the learners. The agency was to allow them to develop their own understanding of the content and language, but through a competence-based approach to learning, based on the principles of Action-oriented approach (Piccardo & North, 2019) and through assignments that focused on choice, creativity, and contingency (see Leung & Morton, 2016). What will be shown is how this type of classroom, while adopting a CLIL approach, opens up the process of learning and *makes the learning visible*.

1.2 Structure of the Thesis

The present doctoral thesis has been done following the format of the Compendium of publications. To comply with the requirements of such a format set by the Doctoral Programme at the Universidad de Jaén (Jaén), two original research papers have been published in High Impact, peer-reviewed journals where I am the first author of *at least one of them*, and in addition, one other publication in which I am the sole author. For the latter, I have submitted a book proposal and have received a book contract from Cambridge University Press.

The structure of this dissertation is as follows. Chapter 1 serves as a general introduction, and the research gaps are identified. The general objectives of the dissertation are also presented and explained. Chapter 2 is used to review the literature relevant to the publications in this Compendium, and to the thread that brings these three publications together. Following this, Chapter 3 presents the main objectives of the dissertation, as well as the specific research questions for each of the three studies. Next, Chapter 4 describes the methodology followed to carry out the three studies. For each study, the participants and their context are described, the data collection instruments and procedures are explained, and the data analysis process is summarised.

Chapters 5 to 7 include the final version of the manuscript of the three studies that make up this dissertation:

- Chapter 5: de Boer, M. A., Leontjev, D., & Friederich, L. (2023). From language to function: Developing self- and peer-assessment tools. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 94–104.

<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac014>

- Chapter 6: Leontjev, D., & de Boer, M. A. (2022). Teacher as creator: Orchestrating the learning environment to promote learner development. *Language Teaching Research*, 0(0), 1–22.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688221117654>

- Chapter 7: de Boer, M. A. (*forthcoming*). *Multimodality in CLIL: A focus on learner development*. Cambridge University Press.

Chapter 8 is the discussion of the thread that brings these three publications together in light of the theoretical framework, their alignment with the principles of CLIL, and their contribution to CLIL research. Finally, chapter 9 serves as a conclusion for the thesis.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

At the core of the three papers comprising this PhD thesis Compendium is an innovative stance on the issue of assessment and development in classrooms where a content and language integrated learning (CLIL) approach is taken, and this issue is approached from a rich, complementary, and multifaceted perspective. In this section, I will introduce the conceptual framework that ties these papers together.

The first paper (de Boer, Leontjev, & Friederich, 2023) reconceptualises rubrics in a way that shifts them from their traditional intended use for summative assessment towards one that guides learners through their writing process as a self-assessment tool. It uses an action-oriented approach (AoA) (Piccardo & North, 2019) informed by Cognitive Discourse Functions (CDFs) (Dalton-Puffer, 2013).

The second paper (Leontjev & de Boer, 2022) examines how a teacher (de Boer) orchestrated his classroom in ways that guided the learners through their writing process. It covers a spectrum of different instances of teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions that were instrumental in helping learners improve their writing, namely, their difficulties with coherence. Specifically, it examines the use of peer reviews, the instructor's introduction of a schema for a complete orienting basis of action (SCOBA), and Group Dynamic Assessment (G-DA). It follows one learner and shows how the coherence issue in her writing process was resolved.

The third paper (de Boer, *forthcoming*) is a proposal for a single-author volume which transpired into a book contract with Cambridge University Press. In this proposal, I reconceptualise the integration of content and language in CLIL based on the multimodal

interactional analysis of learner-learner interactions using data from a General English Language university classroom. The learner-learner interactions provided a strong basis for examining the role of multimodalities in CLIL, and in particular how CDFs were evident in multimodalities and these CDFs played a role in the learner-learner communication.

The structure of this section is as follows. Initially, I will introduce the conceptual framework based on the work of Leung and Morton (2016) from which I will discuss the principles of CLIL that are relevant to this Compendium. With this in mind, the next step is to examine the concept of the learner being the “social agent” and how the Action-oriented approach is relevant to the core of the thread that brings these publications together. I will relate these concepts back to the ideas propounded by Leung and Morton (2016) regarding competence-based pedagogies to show how the learner exercising agency can make their learning visible to the teacher. In the next part of this literature review, the various tools available to the teacher to guide the learners through their understanding will be presented, including SCOBAs, Group Dynamic-assessment, cognitive discourse functions, and the role of multimodalities. To begin, I will provide a general discussion of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and discuss how it is represented in the Japanese context.

2.1 English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) / CLIL

In this section, I define CLIL and EMI, and discuss the context of Japan. I also discuss how language education is changing because of what CLIL offers pedagogically.

The rise of CLIL came about through globalisation and the impact of how and what we teach in this integrated mixed global village. The acronym CLIL, or ‘Content and Language Integrated Learning’ is a generic umbrella term that “would encompass 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 the subject have a joint curricular role” (Marsh, 2002, p. 58). This umbrella term covers “a dozen or more educational approaches” (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 12). This joint curricular role of both content and language has been described as being a dual focus (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 1; Marsh, 2002, p. 15; Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 11), and a common definition is that CLIL is “a dual-focus educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 9). In other words, one focus is teaching specific content, and the other is teaching a second language (L2). This implies that, and Marsh stresses this, if there is “no dual-focus on language and non-language content within a lesson or course then it does not qualify as a form of CLIL” (2002, p. 17). Some examples of CLIL might include Malaysian children learning math and science in English, or Spanish students learning art in Italian, and that the “combinations of languages and subjects are almost limitless” (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 9).

English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) on the other hand, is defined by Macaro et al. (2018) as “The use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English” (p. 37). There are four features that are usually associated with EMI, i.e., English is the vehicular language of instruction, there is no methodology ascribed to it, it is primarily associated with higher education, and language development is not a primary intended outcome in itself (Dearden & Macaro, 2016).

In this Compendium, I follow Cenoz et al.’s (2013) argument and conceptualise CLIL as the umbrella term. It incorporates program alternatives that view “authentic content that extends beyond language be used as a vehicle for L2/foreign language teaching and learning” (p. 13).

The reasoning behind this is twofold. First, the context is Japan, and since the 1990s, CLIL has been commonly used in contexts where the foreign language is the target language (in these cases the target language is English, and the everyday spoken language is Japanese). Second, content and language learning are the objectives of these programs in Higher Education.

Generally speaking, CLIL can be implemented in Japan by content teachers who focus on linguistic structures and academic vocabulary or by language teachers who introduce content to teach language. CLIL in Japan is still in its infancy (Ikeda et al., 2013) and remains at the grassroots level, while EMI is very much isolated to a small number of programs within higher educational institutions. Instructors at all levels of education are beginning to realise the importance of a different approach to teaching English (de Boer & Leontjev, *forthcoming*) and realising that CLIL is much more effective in getting learners more engaged with the language learning as it has more relevance to their learning.

Younger generations are more focused on immediacy in their education, as “integrated learning is increasingly viewed as a modern form of educational delivery” (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 10), which recognises the need to provide learners with better knowledge and skills in this global age. This translates into ‘learn as you use and use as you learn’, or “just-in-time” approach (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 27), different from traditional educational approaches of ‘learn with a “just-in-case approach”’ (2008, p. 21) exemplified by the Japanese context. As Coyle, Hood, and Marsh explain, the CLIL classroom practice requires the learners to be active participants and engage in acquiring knowledge and skills through research and problem-solving (2010, pp. 5–6), with the payoff being actively working with their peers “to use newly presented content and language to create something meaningful in the here and now” (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 27). Much different from the communicative language teaching in the 1980s, CLIL provides learners

with an authentic way of learning a language. In CLIL, the content becomes the object of real communication through the subjects which are “a reservoir of concepts, topics and meanings” and CLIL itself becomes a huge task that fosters authentic communication (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 3). In addition, some of the pedagogical outcomes claimed of CLIL are that it builds linguistic competence, develops problem-solving skills, encourages linguistic spontaneity, and fosters cultural awareness (Coyle, 2008, p. 104).

According to Dalton-Puffer (2007), CLIL classrooms have the potential to serve as preparation for real-life contexts, i.e., learners are likely to “use English after leaving school ... in studying specialist subjects” (p. 294) in what she refers to as “developing English for knowledge acquisition” (p. 295). To prepare for these real-life contexts beyond the usual oral fluency, skills such as “scanning and skimming texts, listening for gist, note-taking, processing and condensing new information ... presenting, evaluating, expressing opinions, challenging – thinking” (p. 295) become increasingly important.

In the following section, I will introduce the framework for conceptualising content and language integration to give insight into how a syllabus can be created that will serve as preparation for real-life contexts in an authentic way of learning.

2.2 Language Pedagogy and Disciplinary Orientation to Language

In this section, I discuss Leung and Morton’s (2016) conceptualisation of the integration of content and language. I discuss the concepts of classification and framing and a competence-based approach to illustrate a particular approach to the classroom.

Coyle, Hood, and Marsh also discuss the integration of content and language as a “dual focus”, i.e., “there is a focus not only on content, and not only on language” (Coyle, Hood, &

Marsh, 2010, p. 1). The understanding of integration has been complex for educators, since there might be a greater emphasis on the language or the content, depending on a multitude of situations and contexts where a CLIL pedagogical approach might be used. For example, in a content classroom, there might be more focus on the content whereas in a (foreign) language classroom, there might be more focus on the language. There have been labels such as Hard CLIL or Soft CLIL given, indicating the emphasis on content in the former and language in the latter (see Ikeda et al., 2021), or a continuum going from content-driven to language-driven, indicating the degree to which content or language is taught depending on the types of courses (see Mehisto & Ting, 2017; Met, 1998).

Leung and Morton (2016) propose an alternative framework for conceptualising integration based on a matrix of less or more visible *language pedagogy* versus a lower or higher *disciplinary orientation to language* (see Figure 1). Their conceptualisation draws from the concepts of competence-based versus performance-based pedagogy (Bernstein, 2000), classification and framing, and the concepts of centripetal and centrifugal forces (Bakhtin, 1981). Also drawing from Bakhtin's (1981) conceptual framework, Leung and Morton also examine the tendencies in language in the tensions between 'centripetal' and 'centrifugal', where centripetal forces "tend toward centralisation and unification" while centrifugal forces "open up to decentralisation and diversification" (p. 236).

Figure 1. The integration matrix (Leung & Morton, 2016, p. 237).

	More visible language pedagogy	Less visible language pedagogy
Higher disciplinary orientation to language	1 Focus on 'subject-literacies'	2 Language as a tool for participation in content tasks and disciplinary meaning
Lower disciplinary orientation to language	3 Focus on explicit language knowledge (not necessarily related to content)	4 Focus on choice, creativity, and contingency

In the matrix quadrant with a more visible language pedagogy and a higher disciplinary orientation (Quadrant 1), there is a strong focus on language and content, with subject-literacies at the centre. Language learning occurs in tandem with the learning of content, such that it is possible to “map knowledge structures to ‘language units’” or there is a “programmed-attention to language” (Leung & Morton, 2016, p. 238). In other words, developing language competence is closely tied to learning and understanding the meaning of the content. There will need to be a set criterion for what will be learned in the linguistic domains as this is a visible language pedagogy. However, at the same time, learners will need to struggle to learn unfamiliar language in addition to the content. This quadrant of the matrix is largely performance-based, meaning that the learners may be required to perform a set of competences on a test, for example, based on the descriptors in the Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001). The language shows more centripetal tendencies, in other words, “the views of language development

take a ‘subject literacies’ approach in which emerging language capability is barely distinguishable from developing ability to make meaning” (Leung & Morton, 2016, p. 236).

The opposite quadrant (Quadrant 4), on the other hand, is based on a less visible language pedagogy and a lower disciplinary orientation to language and is the most relevant for this research. There is no explicit focus on the teaching of grammatical structures and there is no framing through which progress through various stages of language development is envisaged. As such, as Leung and Morton specify, integration in CLIL in Quadrant 4 can be seen at different levels: “curriculum and pedagogies, participant perspectives and classroom practices” (2016, p. 247) in that there is more choice, creativity, and contingency. In this quadrant, therefore, there are more centrifugal tendencies, in other words, learners can exercise more agency in the language they use, building on the language they know to develop their language abilities further. Rather than the instructor specifying the linguistic elements the learners use, they create the conditions under which students’ communicative competence will grow. In Bernstein’s terms (2000), this represents a competence-based pedagogy, in which “instruction activates the natural proclivities of the learner by providing an environment in which already existing abilities can flourish and grow” (p. 236). In this quadrant, therefore, there is a weak classification of languages, as there is an emphasis on the individual rather than institutional constraints, so there is an implied situated learning or community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Indeed, there are less boundaries between what language is used inside and outside the classroom linguistically, so there is a competence-based approach where individuals draw on the skills and knowledge they already use in informal contexts to also use in educational contexts. The development of the learner comes through being able to handle contingent and situated meaning, and part of the development is to understand and respond to the preceding utterance

(Leung & Morton, 2016) during collaboration. Indeed, the instructor needs to have metalinguistic/metacognitive awareness to guide learners through the development of their language proficiency based on how they are using the language.

To summarise, the development of the learners' linguistic proficiency and content understanding relies on a classroom environment where the instructor has created the conditions for this development to occur, based on a more authentic learning environment. The role of the instructor is to guide their development, yet to do so, the focus needs to be on the process, making the learning visible to the instructor.

In the next section, I will discuss the Action-oriented Approach and the concept of *learner as a social agent* engaged in real-life collaborative tasks, which is commensurate with the competence-based pedagogy.

2.3 Action-oriented Approach

Following, I compare the Action-oriented Approach (Piccardo & North) with Leung and Morton's (2016) integration matrix. I also discuss the concept of learner as a social agent and how that is related to a competence-based approach.

The Action-oriented Approach (AoA), although not explicitly mentioned in all the studies in this Compendium, is highly relevant since the teaching syllabi in all cases were not based on a linear progression through language structures, but instead, lean "towards syllabuses based on a needs analysis, oriented towards real-life tasks" (Council of Europe, 2020, p.28). AoA goes beyond the communicative approach proposed in the 1970s, considering language learners as social agents acting to accomplish tasks in a specific context. As Piccardo and North state (2019), AoA implies the "move from a paradigm of linearity and simplification focusing on

knowledge to a paradigm of complexity focusing on competence” (p. 52), where the language, the language user, the language use, and the reflection on the language are interconnected.

Also, as discussed above, Leung and Morton (2016) conceptualise that in a lower disciplinary orientation to language and a less visible language pedagogy (Quadrant 4), there is a focus on choice, creativity, and contingency. In other words, in a competence-based pedagogy, the goals are not teaching language as a subject, but engaging learners in meaningful collaborative tasks in which they can use their resources to develop their competences. This follows the Council of Europe’s (2020) description that “Above all, the action-oriented approach implies purposeful, collaborative tasks in the classroom, the primary focus of which is not language” (p.30). I argue that this aligns with Leung and Morton’s (2016) Quadrant 4 where there is a focus on choice, creativity, and contingency.

L2 (second language) development is no longer understood as a learner moving along a linear path of gradually acquiring the linguistic, grammatical, and morphosyntactic competence of native speakers. Instead, language development happens as learners use language for a meaningful purpose. As Piccardo and North (2019) explain, since no action is “fully predictable, different competencies need to be mobilized at different moments and for different purposes both in a proactive and a reactive way” (p. 53). As Leung and Morton (2016) also stated, “If meaning is created and understood primarily in the flow of dialogue, then competence is part of the capacity to handle contingent and situated meaning that is embedded in and emerges out of interaction in context” (p. 245). In other words, both Piccardo and North (2019) and Leung and Morton’s (2016) views align in this particular type of context where learners work out the meaning of what is said by others; therefore, the assessment of the learner should support their

development, not focus on the learner's gap in knowledge as conceptualised by a deficiency perspective of education (Piccardo & North, 2019).

Pedagogically, a principle of AoA is backwards design, meaning the teacher works backwards from the course learning goals to the starting point of learners entering the course, i.e., the teacher “is responsible, among other things, for selecting the themes for curricular units and the activities” based on “on expectations concerning the semiotic resources that such themes and activities are likely to call into play” (Wells, 1999, p. 243). Learners have shown that they are individually novices and collectively experts (Wells, 1999), so while they may not follow the conventions of assessment as a teacher might follow, development still can occur through peer scaffolding (Davin & Donato, 2013). Wells also argued (1999) that “all participants learn with and from each other as they engage together in dialogic inquiry” (p. xii), and “by building on the contributions of its individual members, the group collectively constructs an outcome that no single member envisaged at the outset of the collaboration” (p. 324), similar to communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Without the learning process being visible to the teacher in a classroom that is designed to examine the process, i.e., where the learning is made visible through interaction, the focus on development cannot occur; therefore, in the classroom environment, the teacher should create conditions for the learners to reach a meaningful objective. Thus, the teacher orchestrating the classroom through the principle of backwards design (Piccardo & North, 2019) provides the means by which learners can develop in a competence-based approach of choice, creativity, and contingency, all while making their learning visible.

To understand learners' cognitive processes through the discourse in the CLIL classroom between all interlocutors, we need to be able to identify how the content and language are

integrated through the functions of the language. In the following section, the construct of cognitive discourse functions will be introduced so that we can start to understand how this construct plays a role in how learners use language in a competence-based approach.

2.4 Cognitive Discourse Functions

In this section I will talk about the evolution of the construct of cognitive discourse functions based on previous taxonomies and discuss some of the relevant research that has been done on CLIL classrooms to understand the construct better.

The construct of cognitive discourse functions (CDFs) involves identifiable functions of language through which learners and teachers externalise their cognitive processes linking “subject-specific cognitive learning goals with the linguistic representations” (Dalton-Puffer, 2016, p. 30) while they are co-creating knowledge. The construct was developed by examining historical taxonomies. For example, Bloom’s taxonomy (1956) had been very influential in test design and curriculum development, but it had a perceived essentialist ranking (i.e., applying is cognitively more demanding than remembering). The revised edition (Anderson et al., 2001) had been restructured into a matrix rather than a hierarchy so that the ranking was less pronounced, yet, as Dalton-Puffer (2013) identified, most of the cognitive process dimensions (remembering, understanding, applying, analysing, evaluating, creating) did not include anything to do with “actively doing something with that knowledge” (p. 222). Academic language functions “can best be understood as a special case of the general communicative functions of language” (Dalton-Puffer, 2007a, p. 128). Dalton-Puffer (2013) argued that the integration of content and language needed to be “solved on the level of pedagogies” (p. 219). This entails examining the pedagogies of subject content with the pedagogies of language teaching. In Dalton-Puffer’s

search of curricula and literature dedicated to science, history, and mathematics, she sought to find language that represented ways that students demonstrate content knowledge. As a result, she isolated over fifty academic functions and thinking processes that represented what doing chemistry or doing history involves (2013) and this was synthesised to a total of seven functions, informed by her own definition of Cognitive Discourse Functions: “a zone of convergence as the cognitive processes involving subject-specific facts, concepts and categories are verbalised in recurring and patterned ways during the event of co-creating knowledge in the classroom” (2013, p. 216) (see Table 1).

As learning cannot be observed directly, CDFs can be conceptualised as an interface between content and language or, as Meyer et al. (2015) argue, between thinking and language. I look specifically now into the connection between content and language as CDFs are visible and can be observed in classroom discourse (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). Dalton-Puffer proposed a way to conceptualise the integration of content and language by “linking up subject specific cognitive learning goals with the linguistic representations” (2013, p. 220).

The construct of CDFs is not discipline-specific since it resulted from the need to make “subject-specific thought processes intersubjectively accessible” (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, p. 230). In other words, CDFs are an externalisation of thought processes, making their learning intersubjectively available so learners are able to jointly construct new meanings and knowledge. Intersubjectivity exists when learners “share some aspect of their situation definitions” (Wertsch, 1985, p. 159) through communication that makes their own unique understandings intermentally available.

Table 1. The construct of CDFs (Dalton-Puffer & Bauer-Marschallinger, 2019, p. 35).

Communicative Intention	Type	Members
I tell you how we can cut up the world according to certain ideas	categorize*	<i>classify, compare, contrast, exemplify, match, structure, categorize, subsume</i>
I tell you about the extension of this object of specialist knowledge	define	<i>define, identify, characterize</i>
I tell you the details of what I can see (also metaphorically)	describe	<i>describe, label, identify, name, specify</i>
I tell you what my position is vis a vis X	evaluate	<i>evaluate, argue, judge, take a stance, critique, comment, reflect, justify</i>
I tell you about the causes or motives of X	explain	<i>explain, reason, express cause/effect, deduce, draw conclusions</i>
I tell you something that is potential (i.e., non-factual)	explore	<i>explore, hypothesize, predict, speculate, guess, estimate, simulate</i>
I tell you something external to our immediate context on which I have a legitimate knowledge claim	report	<i>report, inform, summarize, recount, narrate, present, relate</i>
*Previously (see Dalton-Puffer 2013, 2016) this was termed <i>classify</i>		

Recent studies examining the CDF construct show they have been explored under different contexts. Dalton-Puffer and Bauer-Marschallinger (2019) attempted to validate the CDF construct's promise of interdisciplinarity in a specific-content context, whereas Dalton-Puffer et al. (2018) examined the construct in a multiple-content construct.

Evnikskaya (2019) examined CDFs guided by the gaps in learners' linguistic abilities between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language

Proficiency (CALP) but argued for multimodal construction of CDFs rather than just through externalisation of language.

In another study, Dalton-Puffer et al. (2018) and Dalton-Puffer & Bauer-Marschallinger (2019) looked for the existence of types of CDFs in classroom discourse. They also examined who was using the CDFs, examining evidence of meta-talk or the use of semiotic resources and modes apart from spoken language. In all of these instances, CDF studies are limited to the hard-CLIL contexts, i.e. the content classroom where the content is the focus of study, and the CDFs are co-constructed through the teacher-learner interaction.

Morton (2020), on the other hand, conceptualised CDFs as a way to understand learner performance. Providing examples from learners' works, he argued against focusing only on the assessment of the language. CDFs provide the teacher with a different understanding of the learner performance, since CDFs give insight into what the learners are doing with the language. Using two texts from different learners, he showed that the learner with a lower language proficiency was able to express different functions as per the requirements of the task, more so than the more language proficient peer (Morton, 2020).

Understanding learner performance is another realm in which CDFs offer insight through the integration of content and language or as Meyer et al. (2015) stated, "strengthening the connections between the *conceptual continuum* and the *communication continuum*" (p. 50) and how the development of each influences the other.

In similar research, de Boer (2020) also used the CDF construct to examine learner-learner interaction in an asynchronous online forum in a General English classroom for first-year engineering and agriculture students. It revealed that not only could learners develop their understanding of concepts, but they also used CDFs such as a metatalk, unlike what Dalton-

Puffer had found in her classroom studies (2007, 2013, 2016). In de Boer's case (2020), the learner-learner dialogue unearthed a rich array of CDFs, as well as the learners' abilities to use them and progressive dialogue as a form of communication, with multimodalities playing a role in that process. Unfortunately, the study fell short of exploring the use of CDFs through the prism of multimodalities. This leaves the door open to further the study and explore the possibilities of CDFs being used for communicative purposes, especially when learners are exploring phenomena or investigating small research projects in an EFL classroom.

In the next section, I introduce *schema for a complete orienting basis of action* (SCOBA), a way to promote learners' development through concept formation. The SCOBA is useful as a tool to guide learners along their developmental trajectories in a competence-based approach.

2.5 SCOBA

In this section, I introduce the SCOBA and what it represents in terms of helping learners develop an understanding of a concept. I discuss the stages of SCOBA instruction and provide a visual example from the literature.

To engage in a meaning-making process, learners can be guided by their current level of understanding to internalise a conceptualisation represented by a model, diagram, or drawing called a *schema for a complete orienting basis of action* (SCOBA) (Gal'perin, 1978/1992; Negueruela, 2003; Negueruela & Lantolf, 2006). A SCOBA "is a graphic representation of a concept that ... assists students in the learning of the concept and its practical applications" (Fernández, 2022, p. 1). In other words, a SCOBA is a tool that a teacher can use because it represents the current state of the learners' abilities, yet it can guide them in understanding a

concept and to develop a meaning-making process (Negueruela & Lantolf, 2006). Ohta (2017) outlines the following stages of SCOBAs instruction:

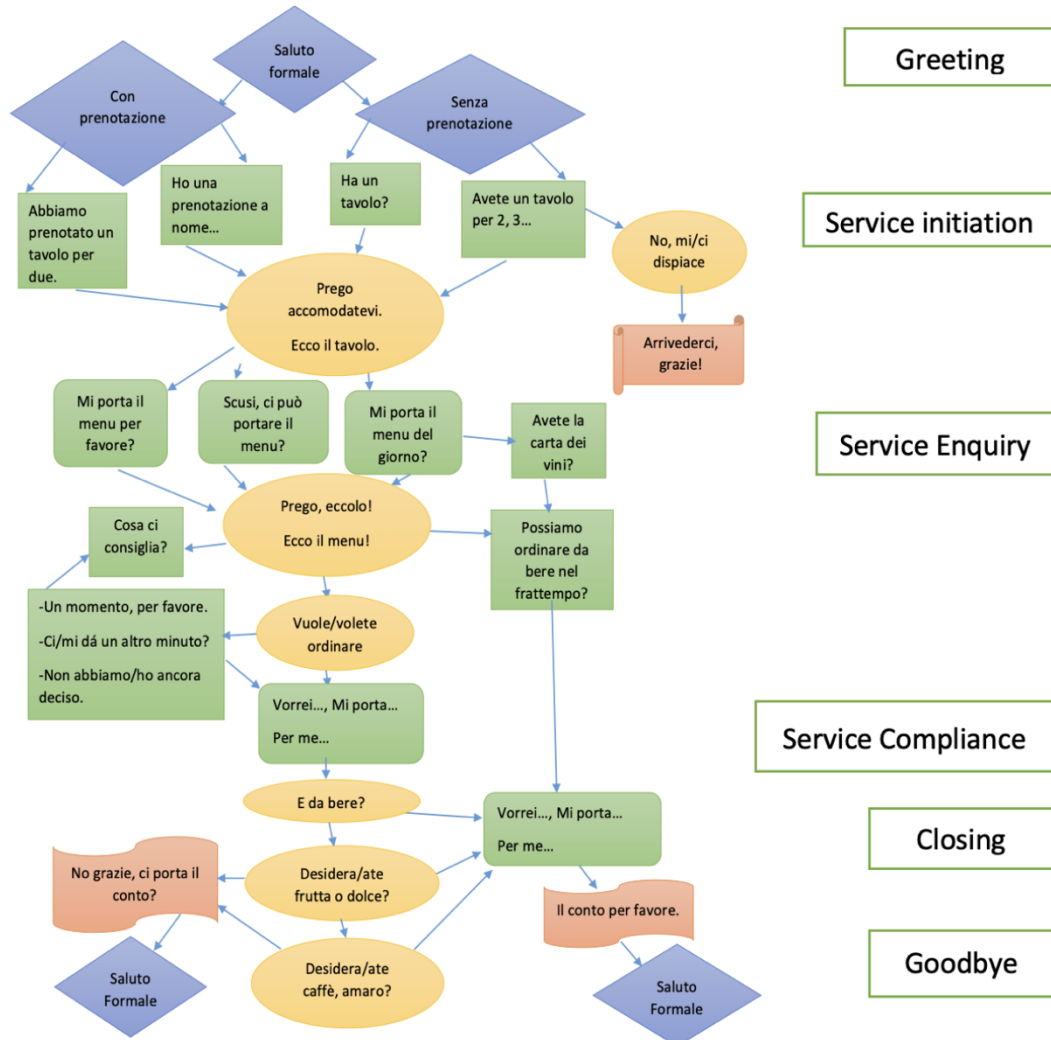
1. understanding learners' current conceptual state
2. presenting the SCOBAs
3. guiding learners' performance mediated by the SCOBAs through creating tasks requiring its use.

For the learners to internalise the conceptual understanding that SCOBAs represent, the role of the instructor is one that helps learners attach meaning to the concept, materialise it by manipulating objects representing the concept, and engage in a joint and individual activity to mediate their actions. As learners internalise the SCOBAs, the new concepts themselves become tools of thought (see Fernández, 2022; Levi, 2017).

In a recent study, Fernández (2022) examined a learner's use of the pre-designed SCOBAs that L2 Italian learners could use to assist them when ordering in a restaurant (see Figure 2) and their own development of another SCOBAs to guide them through shopping in a clothing store. Interview data indicated that the learner could visualise the SCOBAs as she practised various restaurant scenarios until the SCOBAs were no longer needed.

Additionally, the learner used the experience of using a SCOBAs to create her own, giving the teacher insight into that particular learner's conceptual understanding of the learning process. Other L2 SCOBAs research includes Lantolf and Poehner (2014), Levi (2017), Negueruela (2008), Negueruela and Lantolf (2006), and Ohta (2017). The general finding is that SCOBAs are a powerful tool to promote learners' development through concept formation.

Figure 2. SCOPA of the restaurant service encounter (Fernández, 2022).



Now that we have looked at a SCOPA, in the following section I will discuss dynamic assessment and the zone of proximal development and how these concepts are essential for the development of the learner. I introduce two types of dynamic assessment.

2.6 Group Dynamic Assessment (G-DA)

In this section I introduce two types of group dynamic assessment and discuss how they are significant for the development of the learners and the whole class. Dynamic assessment is

different from other forms of assessment as it focuses on the development of the individual. In order to understand individual abilities, it requires active intervention between the more capable peer and the learner. This requires a shift from focusing on the product towards the process through which learner abilities are formed (Poehner, 2008). Rather than the familiar assessment model, i.e., summative assessment where teachers observe learner performance, in dynamic assessment, teachers intervene when necessary when jointly carrying out activities to help learners stretch beyond their current capabilities (Poehner, 2008). That is to say, the teacher is assessing within the learner's zone of proximal development (ZPD), which, in Vygotsky's words, "is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (1978, p. 86).

Vygotsky argued that instruction should not target the abilities that have already formed, but rather should operate within the ZPD to guide learner development. Although this author (1998) does not elaborate on the group ZPD in his works, he does describe the ZPD as "the optimum time for teaching both the group and each individual" (p. 204). While the definition of group and the background of the studies to do with the group ZPD are outside of the focus of this study, the principles of G-DA are similar to the principles of DA to individuals to co-construct a ZPD. During the activity, the teacher must engage the entire group. No individual is able to complete the activity individually and it requires the attention and expertise of all members to solve. In such an activity, there are *primary* and *secondary interactants* such that if a teacher responds to any learner's difficulty, then the teacher and learner become the primary interactants, but as other group members; that is, the other class members are present, then there is mediating potential for the rest of the group, who are the secondary interactants (Poehner, 2009).

There are two different approaches to G-DA: *concurrent G-DA* and *cumulative G-DA*. In *concurrent G-DA*, the teacher is in dialogue with the entire group, yet is responding to the struggles of an individual and this sets the stage for other learners' contributions. In *cumulative G-DA*, individuals take turns being primary interactants with the teacher, with other learners, or secondary interactants, witnessing the interactions. The difference is that *concurrent* supports the development of each individual through working with the group, and *cumulative* supports the development of the group through co-constructing ZPDs with individuals (Poehner, 2009). In other words, in the concurrent G-DA, the teacher's focus remains with the entire class, and each learner's contributions are built on from previous learners' responses; the teacher's support increases in its explicitness with each move, and the mediation is intended to benefit the group. In the cumulative G-DA, the teacher works with an individual gradually moving from implicit to explicit mediation, the teacher and learner being primary interactants, while the other learners are secondary interactants, but participants, nonetheless. Through a series of one-on-one interactions, the students take turns being primary interactants with the teacher. The goal is to move the group forward through their ZPD by moving individuals through their ZPDs. The focus is on the development of the learners through the process of interaction, where the teacher acts as an interactant with members of the class, either concurrently or cumulatively.

In the next section, multimodalities will be discussed, particularly how they are instrumental in the learning process and how they are used to represent meaning.

2.7 Multimodalities

Initially, in this section, I will draw from the literature evidence that indicates that communication is not only about text and verbal communication but should also include

different modes. I will also argue that the “communication” C of CLIL should include modes other than text or verbal.

If, within CLIL, the communication holds true, i.e., “language is a conduit for communication” (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p.54) or language is “to enhance the ability to describe a visual” (p. 105), then what is to be considered a mode through which communication can occur should be able to include modes other than written or spoken language. As Lemke states (2002), “language and visual representation have co-evolved culturally and historically to complement and supplement one another ... in normal human meaning-making practice, they are inseparably integrated on most occasions” (p. 303). While language is certainly an integral part of CLIL, language is but only one type of multimodality through which meaning is made (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Bezemer & Kress, 2015), also discussed at length by Liu and Lin (2021).

Polias (2016) outlines the genres constituting school science, showing the scientific processes, the genres, and the purpose in four major activity domains: doing, organising, explaining, and arguing/challenging science; also indicating that the internal functions of language are “language for interaction, language for organisation and flow, and language for expressing the content and logic” (p. 74) (see also Veel, 1997). The aim is to be able to link the textual with the diagrammatical, i.e. as Polias (2016) states, “scientists do not construct science through verbal texts alone, but rather through complex combinations of the various meaning-making resources available; in other words, multi-semiotically” (p. 57). In addition, Lemke states, “text and images are not the same in the meanings that they represent, therefore, from the combinations of modalities, the incommensurability between text and visual representation enables new meanings” (p. 303). Polias (2016) does not push the language issue aside (see also Veel, 1997); the focus can be on both, but in a way that we also consider what each modality

states in a non-linguistic way. As scientists also communicate in print, they also integrate the text with “mathematical expressions, quantitative graphs, information tables, abstract diagrams, ... and a host of unique specialised visual genres” (Lemke, 1998, p. 98). Lemke also states:

Science is not done, is not communicated, through verbal language alone. It cannot be. The ‘concepts’ of science are not solely verbal concepts, though they have verbal components. They are semiotic hybrids, simultaneously and essentially verbal, mathematical, visual-graphical, and actional—operational (p. 87).

As Bezemer and Kress (2015) and Polias (2016) also indicate, the layout of the text and other modalities on the textbook page can display the function of the modality. In a biology textbook, for example, the life cycle of a frog spatially laid out as a circle combined with figures and text at each stage clearly shows that the function of the combinations of the modalities indicate a cycle (Polias, 2016). Polias’ volume is clearly written for instructors to “make the increasingly technical and abstract meanings that are necessary to be apprenticed into science” (p. 108) understood by learners and to maximise student learning, which is especially relevant for classes such as science, math, geography, history, and physics which use text, figures, diagrams, pictures, spatial arrangement, and graphs as an important part of the learning process. Kress et al. also clearly state that they are not overlooking language or writing in favour of images, but state “in order to properly understand language we need to step outside it and take a satellite view of it” (2014, p. 8).

What remains largely underexplored is the use of multimodalities to integrate content and language to build both conceptual understanding of the content and linguistic proficiency in an integrated fashion. The language triptych in CLIL, under the C for communication, is the language *for* learning, *of* learning, and *through* learning (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010).

Language *for* learning is the language learners need to use to communicate in a collaborative environment. Language *of* learning is the language of the genre (what the learners need to know to understand the content) and language *through* learning is the language that emerges as a result of the lessons. What has not been explored is the link between the language *of* and *through* learning being represented by multimodalities and CDFs.

Grapin (2020) undertook a study (CLIL) where different modalities were used to assess understanding of content, yet the learners were not mediated beyond that understanding. However, additional discussions with the teacher were used to identify gaps in understanding and provide a summative evaluation of the learners' works. This study leaves open the door for assessment using multimodalities to assist learners in their development of understanding content and developing linguistic proficiency using CDFs combined with multimodalities.

Chapter 3. Objectives and Research Questions

This section outlines the objectives and research questions from each of the publications in this Compendium.

3.1 de Boer, Leontjev, and Friederich (2023)

de Boer, M. A., Leontjev, D., & Friederich, L. (2023). From language to function: Developing self- and peer-assessment tools. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 94–104.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac014>

This study is a conceptual paper, leading the reader through the development of a tool based on the principles of Action-oriented Approach (Piccardo & North, 2019) and informed by Cognitive Discourse Functions (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). The objective of this study was to reconceptualise how a rubric could be modified to operationalise its use for the learner; that is, to create a tool that could guide learners through their writing process, rather than it being used as a means for summative assessment by the teacher. This study asks the following question:

1. How can a rubric traditionally used for summative assessment be reconceptualised, based on the principles of Action-oriented Approach and informed by Cognitive Discourse Functions, to create a self-assessment tool that guides learners' development of their writing process?

3.2 Leontjev & de Boer (2022)

Leontjev, D., & de Boer, M. A. (2022). Teacher as creator: Orchestrating the learning environment to promote learner development. *Language Teaching Research*, 0(0), 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688221117654>

The study's objective was to examine the classroom beyond a focus on single activities, building on the metaphor of *teacher as creator* of learner development (Vygotsky, 1997). This study led to the research question and sought to address:

1. How does a teacher building on ZPD activities, merging them into one development-oriented process, guide the development of coherence in learner L2 academic writing?

3.3 de Boer (2023)

de Boer, M. A. (forthcoming). *Multimodality in CLIL: A focus on learner development*. Cambridge University Press.

The objective of the research, which is the basis for this book proposal by de Boer (forthcoming), was to develop learners' linguistic and conceptual understanding of specific environmental issues and develop their communicative skills through their collaboration to conduct small research projects and give presentations on their findings. This was in response to the mandates from the Ministry of Economy, Trade, and Industry (METI, 2010) that university

students develop soft skills such as the ability to work in groups, take initiative and plan, and to be able to communicate in a foreign language (English) so that after graduation, they could engage in research and business overseas.

The research question from this study is:

1. What insights into learners' abilities emerge from the learners' interaction? In other words, how do learners use content and language to mediate their interaction within a particular assignment? How were the learners able to primarily use multimodalities and CDFs to co-construct their understanding of concepts asynchronously in a chat forum?

Chapter 4. Methodology

4.1 de Boer, Leontjev, and Friederich (2023) & Leontjev and de Boer (2022)

The context for the studies by de Boer, Leontjev, and Friederich (2023) and Leontjev and de Boer (2022) was identical. The data for these studies come from an Advanced Research Writing course at a Liberal Arts University in Japan, a required course for all undergraduate students in year 2 to earn their bachelor's in arts degree. There were 41 learners, and this course was conducted entirely online twice a week for 15 weeks. Most of the students in this course are L1 Japanese and have a language proficiency of B1-B2 CEFR. Some of the students have study-abroad experience prior to entering this institution. The objective of this course is two-fold: to develop language skills in tandem with writing skills, a critical step prior to taking EMI courses in the faculties of Global Business, Global Studies, or Education. This course is also a prerequisite before embarking on the required one-year study abroad at an international partner institution. The learners are required to submit a Primary Research paper of 3,500 words at the end of the course. To embark on the writing process, the learners need to write two papers. The learners' first submission is a 1,000-word Rationale Synthesis paper, requiring them to gain a conceptual understanding of the research they have chosen to undertake, based on the facts they can gather from the existing literature. Their second submission is a 1,000-word Explanatory Synthesis paper, requiring them to investigate the arguments from the existing literature, based on the factual information they have gathered for the Rationale Synthesis paper. The Rationale and Explanatory Synthesis papers are multiple drafts. They are assessed using a rubric created by the university's Writing Skills Chair, which was co-constructed with the rest of the faculty responsible for teaching this course. Yet, de Boer was unsatisfied with the rubric as it was used

for assessment of the final submission of each of these papers, since despite being a writing course where students learn to write, the process of writing seemed to be neglected and learners were given feedback once on the final draft of each paper and were expected to revise their writing based on that feedback. The change in assessment procedures came about when de Boer approached Friederich at the same institution and suggested that the rubrics did not allow for learners to understand how to improve their papers and that there was not enough focus on the process. This exchange began discussions centred around using the construct of Cognitive Discourse Functions. Leontjev was invited to be a collaborator shortly thereafter.

To create the self-assessment tool in de Boer, Leontjev, and Friederich (2022), the principles of AoA, namely backwards design (Piccardo & North, 2019), were followed, starting from the writing and language objectives of the course. The goal was to change the rubric to a peer- and self-assessment tool that would guide the learners through the process of their writing rather than it being used by the teacher as a rubric for assessment purposes. The self-assessment tool in this study was built for the Explanatory Synthesis paper after the learners had already completed their Rationale Synthesis paper. The Explanatory Synthesis paper would essentially become their literature review and the rest of their Primary Research paper would be developed around it.

As indicated in the self-assessment tool ‘Now I need to provide a link between the arguments I have presented and the primary research I present in my methodology section’, the tool extends beyond the Explanatory Synthesis paper to the methodology section of their Primary Research paper, indicating that the development of their paper goes beyond this last column.

Since the objective was to assist learners in developing their writing rather than focus on the deficiencies of their text, the assessment rubric and some learners’ writings were examined,

and it was determined that the level of writing was around B2 on the CEFR scale. Then, CDFs were examined, and (1) it was determined which would relate best to the Explanatory Synthesis paper, followed by (2) identifying which CDFs could be used to reflect a more developed text. For example, before *identifying* how the arguments the students have gathered from the literature differ from one another, they need to *explain* these arguments in detail, i.e., ‘I’ve *explained* my arguments in detail... now I need to *identify* how the arguments differ from one another’. In other words, the CDFs used were to guide the learner from column to column in the self-assessment tool as a means to assist them in developing their writing. This development of the scales was done with reference to the *Overall meditation* scales (Council of Europe, 2020) of the CEFR.

4.2 Leontjev and de Boer (2022)

In the university course outlined in the study by Leontjev and de Boer (2022), there were 41 learners, and this course was conducted entirely online twice a week for 15 weeks. The writing course involves the need for primary research, integrating the research with topics that incorporated international issues or problems that required understanding the issue from a broader perspective. The classes were arranged for learners to discuss their work with other peers through the use of breakout rooms in Zoom and also with the instructor (de Boer) if needed, as he would either move throughout the breakout rooms or have everyone in the main Zoom room. The course was set up so that there would be two peer review sessions, one at the end of the Rationale Synthesis paper and the other at the end of the Explanatory Synthesis paper. During this process, the learners also began to write their Methodology section for their Primary Research paper. Each learner had their paper reviewed by the instructor and one peer and they

were asked to arrange a Zoom session with the peer who reviewed their paper to discuss the comments they received. They recorded these sessions.

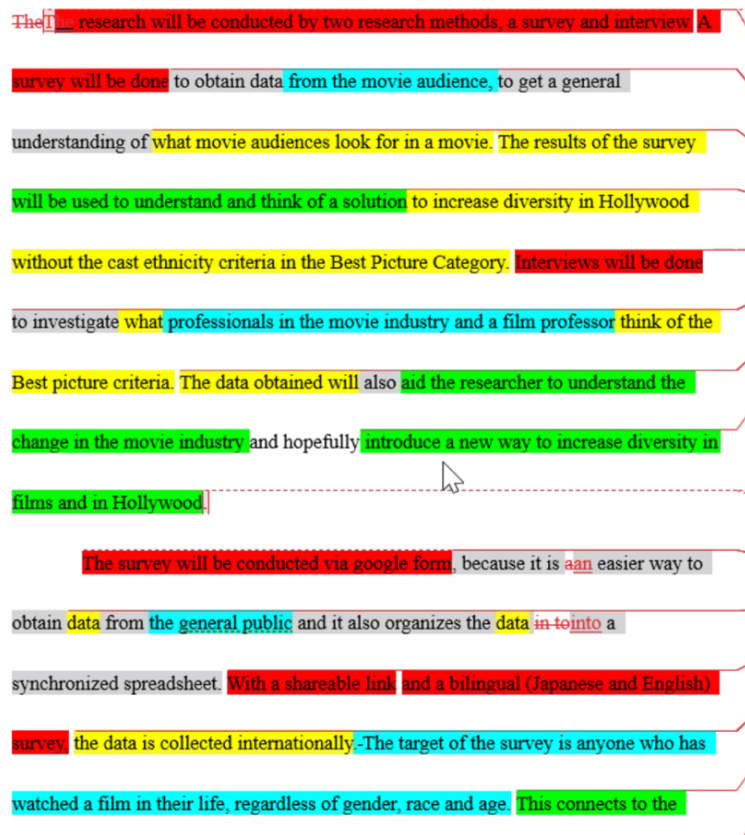
The instructor provided the learners with a short explanation of the information that should be included in the methodology section of their Primary Research papers. During the activity, the learners were asked to colour code their drafts as follows (see Figure 3):

- information they were looking for (yellow)
- reasons they looked for that information (green)
- target subjects (blue)
- reasons for this being their target subjects (pink)
- how they were to collect the data (red) and
- reasons for the methods of data collection (grey).

This resulted in a Group-Dynamic Assessment activity.

Additional data comes from an unplanned activity in the classroom involving a SCOBAs, which emerged from an unprompted question that one learner had about the clear order of the arguments in their text. Following the instructor's introduction of the SCOBAs and how to use it, the learners were allowed time in the Zoom breakout rooms to actualise the SCOBAs. This introduction of the SCOBAs followed later in the course, after the first peer review and the G-DA session. The history of these prior activities gave the instructor further insight into the issue of coherence in students' writings. Hence, the SCOBAs activity also was used to address the issue of coherence.

Figure 3. An example of a colour-coded methodology section.



The data corpus comprises (a) learners' written assignments (two papers) (a total of 41 texts for each paper), including written comments from peers and the instructor, (b) video-recorded peer-review sessions (each student pair submitted approximately a 10-minute recording for each peer-review for 21 recordings per paper), (c) video-recorded classroom activities (a total of 30 hours), and (d) an end-of-course interview (30 minutes) with one of the students to triangulate the data from the peer-review sessions. This study adopted a qualitative, exploratory, and case study approach and we analysed the coherence issues in learners' drafts by examining turn-by-turn interaction using mediational means as the unit of analysis, focusing on learners' responses to assistance. Peer-review and ZPD activities' effects were traced, showing how these collectively improved learners' understanding of coherence in their writing.

4.3 de Boer (*forthcoming*)

The data that this book proposal stems from is from a General English language course for first-year students at a national university in Northern Japan. This is a different context from the previous two studies in this Compendium. The learners have an English proficiency level of high A2 - low B1 CEFR and are considered advanced for this university. There were 34 learners in this course. The students were enrolled in the undergraduate degrees at the Engineering or Agriculture Faculties, and they would also take English for Specific Purposes course in their second or third year, so the course to be examined for the book (de Boer, *forthcoming*) was a prerequisite for the ESP course which would follow. The General English Language course was designed for the learners to develop skills such as speaking, working in groups, creating presentations and presenting them, and debating. There were several short activities such as creating assessment rubrics, individual presentations, short group presentations, Pecha Kucha, extensive reading, debates, and a full-term research project, including a poster and a PowerPoint presentation. The instructor's objective was to have the learners work on many smaller projects and the skills developed in those projects could be used in the research project.

The classes were largely devoted to presenting students' work or smaller collaborative projects, and the instructor also provided the learners with an online Moodle forum where they could chat asynchronously and share files outside class time. This was especially useful for the research project since little class time was provided to work on this. The learners used the online forum to share their files and to build their poster presentations they would present at the mid-term. Based on the feedback they would receive from peers and visiting professors during that poster presentation, they would create a PowerPoint presentation for the end of the term. Each iteration of the poster they shared, coined the *Improvable Object* (IO, Bereiter & Scardamalia,

1996; Wells, 2000), indicated where the group was regarding their thinking and development of their ideas. In the online asynchronous forum, each of the group members (n=4) took turns sharing a version of the poster as an attachment and in the forum message area indicated what they had done to update the poster.

The online forums were private for each group, i.e., the learners from one group could not see the interactions occurring in another group. The instructor, however, had access to the forums, yet he informed the students that he would not look at them unless they requested it for assistance. The data corpus comes from a) the history of all the interactions that occurred over the term and b) all the files shared for each group and saved in a separate directory. The methodology that will be used in this study will be qualitative and exploratory, adopting a multi-case approach. The data will be analysed using qualitative content analysis (Selvi, 2020) and multimodal interactional analysis (Norris, 2004) using Atlas.ti software.

Chapter 5. From Language to Function: Developing Self- and Peer- Assessment Tools (2023)

Original Publication

de Boer, M., Leontjev, D., & Friederich, L. (2023). From language to function: Developing self- and peer-assessment tools. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 94-104.

<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac014>

Abstract:

The action-oriented approach (AoA) is a powerful basis to inform teaching, learning, and assessment in the classroom that identifies learners as social agents and focuses on language learning through language use. This paper answers the call for developments that help teachers teach and learners learn in an AoA-informed way. We argue that cognitive discourse functions (CDFs) align with AoA, helping to develop learner thinking by focusing on the learners' use of language. We complement our conceptual discussion referring to the process of developing a self- and peer-assessment tool informed by AoA and CDFs and the initial application of this tool in an advanced academic writing course in a Japanese university with B1 and B2 level students. We discuss how this tool can guide learners' understanding of their writing process and fosters learners' responsibility for deciding how they mobilize their linguistic resources to express particular language functions.

Chapter 6. Teacher as Creator: Orchestrating the Learning Environment to Promote Development (2022)

Original Publication

Leontjev, D., & de Boer, M. (2022). Teacher as creator: Orchestrating the learning environment to promote development. *Language Teaching Research*, 0(0), 1– 22.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688221117654>

Abstract:

Sociocultural theory (SCT) is a powerful basis for exploring and guiding L2 (second/foreign language) learner development. For the most part, however, the focus of classroom SCT-L2 has been on single activities, for example, teacher mediation of learners' writing process or peer scaffolding. In this paper, we expand on these studies, building on Vygotsky's (1997) metaphor of teacher as a creator of learner development. We propose how activities (1) where agency for guiding development lies with learners, (2) where the teacher takes the lead in guiding learner development, and (3) where opportunities for development emerge in dialogical interaction between the teacher and learners can be orchestrated to collectively create learner development. We report on an academic L2 English writing course at a Japanese university. The instructor first created opportunities for learner development in peer interactions. The instructor then built on the information received from these with regard to learners' challenge with coherence in subsequent group dynamic assessment and frontal work using a SCOA. Finally, the instructor traced the change in learners' self-regulation in later peer interactions. We will focus on the development of one learner's L2 English writing throughout the course, illustrating how insights into areas of learners' struggle and mediated performance emerged in peer interaction, how the instructor built on these, and how this mediation guided the peer interaction to follow.

Chapter 7. Multimodality in CLIL: A Focus on Learner

Development

Book

de Boer, M. A. (*forthcoming*). *Multimodality in CLIL: A focus on learner development*.

Cambridge University Press.

Abstract:

This volume fills a rather large gap in the literature regarding how CLIL is viewed through multimodality. While there are volumes dedicated to multimodality, they mainly discuss it from the teaching perspective or identify how it is used to provide instruction to learners.

Other volumes are dedicated to CLIL that provide teachers, researchers, and educators with the current developments in CLIL and assessment. Other volumes focus on modalities, but this proposed volume intends to bring CLIL and multimodality together in a way that is useful for conceptualizing integration. This volume aims to combine multimodality and CLIL to re-conceptualize the integration of content and language.

Chapter 8. Discussion

This Compendium aimed to identify the process within a specific context where the learners had agency and were the ‘social agents’ as they interacted with other learners or with the teacher through the process of completing tasks. It was through the parameters of the task and the topic chosen that a centripetal force; that is, a unifying and centralising of language (Bakhtin, 1981) grounded the learners, while through their process of completing the tasks, they developed their linguistic proficiency and understanding of concepts. The tension between the centripetal and the centrifugal in this invisible pedagogy made the learning visible. Indeed, as learners co-constructed their poster as in the data for the book proposal (de Boer, *forthcoming*) or other presentation, the language and concepts they used stemmed from the learning prompt from the teacher (or their own prompt in the writing course), giving the latter a clear understanding of how the learners were developing their understanding of the concepts and how their language reflected this. This provided educational opportunities for the teacher, who could assist learners with means to guide them towards their developmental trajectory based on where they were at a particular point in their process and where they wanted to go. Ultimately, the goal of the classroom was to foster the development of the learner, so all three papers submitted in this Compendium were centred around this goal: *to assist the learner in their development through the interaction in the classroom and through planned interactions between the learners.*

While the papers submitted were not wholly related to each other through research, the overarching theme that links them is *how the teacher used the process in the invisible language pedagogy, approached from a complementary, multifaceted perspective.* They offer original

designs and proposals of how the classroom can be facilitated to foster the development of the learner by making the learning visible to the teacher.

There are several salient points to discuss:

1. Learners used the self-assessment tool as intended by the instructor, i.e., identifying where they were in their writing and what they needed to do to develop it further.

2. The classroom interaction between learners and between the learners and the teacher indicated that the focus was on the learning process rather than on the product. The collaboration was consistent with a competence-based syllabus with a focus on choice, creativity, and contingency (Leung & Morton, 2016).

3. The learners were social agents, and learner agency allowed them to work on their own objectives and collaborate with peers (and the teacher) in areas they found problematic in their writing. This was based on the principles of Action-Oriented Approach and a competence-based pedagogical approach (Piccardo & North, 2019).

4. The teacher's role in the classroom was that of a facilitator, providing activities and assignments that fostered collaboration and providing the necessary tools that further created opportunities for development.

5. CDFs (Dalton-Puffer, 2013) and multimodalities (Bezemer & Kress, 2015; Kress, 2017) played a pivotal role in how communication occurred in the classroom and how that communication was used to create intersubjectivity between interlocutors (Wertsch, 1985).

6. The concepts brought forth in this Compendium, based on a competence-based pedagogical approach with the learners as the social agents, fit the seven principles of CLIL (see Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010).

8.1 Making the Learning Visible

Throughout this Compendium, it had been shown that learners were indeed responsible for their learning, and the activities and tools the instructor used, as well as the structure of the classroom, allowed the learners to exercise agency. The ways in which the learners were engaged in the activities throughout this research aligned with the principles of AoA (Piccardo & North, 2019), as “action was conceptualised as social ... thus requiring some form of collaborative work in which the social agent is engaged” (p. 53). Their engagement also aligned with a competency-based approach (Leung & Morton, 2016).

The self-assessment tool was instrumental in several ways. First, *it served as a means for learners to examine their own writing*, which provided insights on how to identify where they were in their writing, as well as where they needed to go; that is, specific goals that needed to be reached to develop their paper further, and how to achieve those goals. Guided by the principles of AoA and the construct of CDFs (Dalton-Puffer 2013; 2016), the self-assessment tool served to illustrate to the learners the *process* of writing, which clearly differed from the traditional rubrics designed to assess the final product. Learners could work with the self-assessment tool independently, identifying where they were (or thought they were) in their writing, working on their own objectives, and examining and self-assessing their own writing and language development process before engaging with peers or the instructor.

This brought the second point: *the self-assessment tool promoted communication between learners and also between the instructor and the learners*. The self-assessment tool and the embedded CDFs created intersubjectivity (Wertsch, 1985) between the various interlocutors. For example, the peer-review process provided learners with the means to use the self-assessment tool in discussing their papers, using the language of the self-assessment tool to discuss where

they were in their writing process. This was a powerful way for learners to understand the assessment process and understand how other students went through their process of writing. In addition, during the instructor-learner discussion, the self-assessment tool became the mediational object, i.e., the instructor could ascertain from the learner's own self-assessment whether they were accurate in their own assessment and what they felt needed to be done to further develop their paper. The self-assessment from the learner and the discussion that followed with the instructor would certainly make the learning visible to the instructor and provide opportunities for guidance, while still ensuring learner agency. Therefore, *this self-assessment tool was intended to make the learning visible by focusing on the process of writing.*

In the Advanced Writing course, the learners undertook the tasks, using language in a meaningful way, rather than engaging with the language along a linear path of gradually acquiring linguistic, grammatical, and syntactic competence of native speakers. The course's objectives included critical reading and primary research techniques, learning the writing process, developing coherent content, understanding coherent structure, and applying academic conventions of expression. While the learners were B1/B2 CEFR based on prerequisites for this course, the writing course was a way for the students to develop their language skills in writing, as they were expected to demonstrate accurate language use, as indicated in the course description. As Piccardo and North stated, the "aim of language education is to enable users/learners to learn how to mean" (2019, p. 282).

For the learner to be the social agent, the instructor needed to create learning situations; that is, creating conditions "for the social agent to act effectively and be successful, and thus ensure that effective development and learning can take place" (Piccardo & North, 2019, p. 251). In the Advanced Writing course, the parameters of the task were already defined, yet to ensure

that effective learning could take place, the role of the teacher moved towards a perspective of action, rather than that of an instructor, to observe, analyse, orient, and “to provide, make available or construct, according to circumstance, the tools which are necessary for this completion” (Piccardo & North, 2019, p. 251).

The learners had agency and were given opportunities to work through their own writing and engage in peer review. The recordings of these peer-review sessions were made available to the instructor so he could observe the discussions between the learning pairs. This gave the instructor insight into the problematic areas that learners had with their own writing and what other learners had also observed. Subsequently, aware of the discussions between the learners in the peer reviews, the instructor was able to address the issue in class when the student posed the question about ‘clear order’.

The learning was made visible from two instances, one being the peer review and the other being the whole class discussion. Therefore, the instructor’s use of the learning that was made visible was to introduce the SCOPA (Ohta, 2017) as a means to address the issue of coherence to the entire class, where the learners could adapt it to their own writing process. While the SCOPA was created to address the issue of coherence and made visible by the peer-review process and the prompt from the learner, it resulted in a powerful way to address this issue in a way that maintained the competency-based approach. It allowed learners to work through their own problematic areas and discuss them with other students.

The group dynamic assessment (G-DA) activity was also effective in that the learners could move through their ZPD with the instructor. The instructor created the colour-coding activity with the intention of revealing the issues of coherence in a section of writing that was relatively simple to organise based on content. Indeed, the G-DA was facilitated by the

instructor, yet the instructor also invoked learners to ask each other questions and observed and responded based on the ensuing discussion. The G-DA was cumulative, as each student built on the discussion from previous learners' responses. The instructor's mediation moved from implicit to more explicit during the discussion, leading the students to realise that the activity helped them organise their writing and that the colour-coding was helpful for understanding what they were writing. To be sure, this was an example of an activity, orchestrated by the instructor, that *made the learning visible through the very process*, as it was happening and being discussed as a class.

The projects that required the learners to co-construct a poster and PowerPoint presentation (de Boer, *forthcoming*) revealed what the learners were doing through each post they shared in the online forums. The interaction was consistent with a competency-based syllabus with a focus on choice, creativity, and contingency (Leung & Morton, 2016) as the learners co-constructed knowledge through the process of sharing iterations of their poster. However, it was found that in the forum message area the group members primarily used *language for learning*, i.e., they did not post content-related messages there, but rather, used language such as 'I fixed something' or 'I changed something', and uploaded the newer version of the poster, leaving the other group members the task of finding out what had been changed.

Observed from the uploads was that the learners were using the content of the posters, i.e., the different modalities (Kress, 1997; 2017) or language *of* and *through* learning (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). The students used different modalities, language, and other semiotic resources to mediate the co-construction of knowledge, to communicate about the content relevant to the final product, to metatalk about the content and the steps to follow and interpret each other's actions to advance their joint understanding. Moreover, their use of multimodal

mediational means evidenced how they implicitly embedded different CDFs into this process, such as evaluating, explaining, comparing, reporting, classifying, and defining. Students seemed to interpret the CDFs and built on them to further contribute to the joint construction of the final product through transduction (Kress, 1997), i.e., preserving the CDF but changing the modality (de Boer & Evnitskaya, 2024). It was also revealed that the learners used both the everyday and academic language interchangeably, as Leung and Morton (2016) indicated: “individuals draw on the skills and knowledge they already use in informal contexts for use in educational contexts” (p. 244). In addition, each iteration of the poster needed to be understood and interpreted as it was shared, so it was evident that “trying to understand and to respond to others can be seen as part of learning ... Content does not come into view in sharp relief, as all content meaning is meaning created by the ongoing dialogue” (p. 245).

Evident in the online forums was the ongoing dialogue and the content being co-constructed, which contained all interpretations of the poster and evidence of how the learner(s) proceeded to the next iteration, implicit CDFs, and multimodalities, which gave the instructor a look into the rich learning process, i.e., once more, *made their learning visible*. The learners needed to take into account what was said in the preceding poster and online forum prior to adding to or making changes. Through this social learning, the flow of dialogue built their interactional fluency (Peltonen, 2024), making the learning visible to the instructor, who could observe and analyze the joint construction of the poster at each iteration.

The thread that ran through these three studies, i.e., the concept of making the learning visible, was evident in the tools provided by the instructor and the ways that the classroom and activities had been structured to build on the natural proclivities of the learner. The instructor’s objective was to maintain a competency-based approach with a focus on choice, creativity, and

contingency, allowing the learners to interact in ways with which the instructor could offer assistance based on what was evident in their learning process. The tools provided by the instructor also contributed to this process, putting the onus on the learner, the social agent, for their learning.

8.2 The Seven Principles of CLIL

The concepts brought forth in this Compendium, based on a competence-based pedagogical approach with the learners as the social agents, fit the seven principles of CLIL (see Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). The common threads that wove through the three papers were focused on the development of the learner through the assessment that took place *during* the process of their learning. To examine the process and to be able to guide the learners through their development, the teacher should have been a ‘guide on the side’ rather than a ‘sage on the stage’ (King, 1993). That was, the teacher provided the learners with opportunities to learn using pre-planned tools, or ones that emerged from the interaction, in a context where the natural proclivities of the learner were activated. The seven principles (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010) are:

1. Content mastery is not only about acquiring knowledge and skills, but also about learners creating their own knowledge and understanding and developing skills (personalized learning).
2. Content is related to learning and thinking (cognition). To enable the learners to create their own interpretation of content, it must be analyzed for its linguistic demands.
3. Thinking processes (cognition) need to be analyzed for their linguistic demands.

4. Language needs to be learned, which is related to the learning context, to learning through that language, to reconstructing the content, and to related cognitive processes. This language needs to be transparent and accessible.
5. Interaction in the learning context is fundamental to learning. This has implications when the learning context operates through the medium of a foreign language.
6. The relationship between cultures and languages is complex. Intercultural awareness is fundamental to CLIL.
7. CLIL is embedded in the wider educational context in which it is developed and therefore must take account of contextual variables in order to be effectively realized. (Coyle et al., 2010, pp. 43–44)

Each of the papers presented in this Compendium espoused the first principle of CLIL, as all learning was personalised for each learner. In the Advanced Writing course and the first-year General English course, the development of content and language was left to the learners in a way that activated their natural proclivities; that is, the learners could indeed choose their own path for learning, even within both the task and institutional constraints. The writing task research topic was chosen by each individual student based on their own research interests, and as their readings and discussions progressed, they could advance their understanding of the issue and develop their writing further. The onus was on them, as social agents, to progress in their writing through their development of conceptual understanding and their language to articulate that understanding for the reader. In the General English course, the learners chose their topics based on the available topics and parameters set by the teacher, yet they had the freedom to develop the content and language for their presentations from the initial prompt from the teacher. The second and third principles of CLIL were dealt with from two perspectives. First, in a

competence-based pedagogy, with a focus on choice, creativity, and contingency, the onus was on the learner to develop their language as they needed to, the focus being on opportunities for dialogue. The contingent nature of the dialogic interaction “can generate meaning through talk, writing or other forms of representation” (Leung & Morton, 2016, p. 245). The learners had more opportunities to use the language that they were already aware of as they drew on skills and knowledge that they would typically use outside of the classroom or that they had previously learned, as they “do not come to school as empty vessels” (Engestrom, 1991, p. 254).

Competence was developed through the learners’ ability to handle meaning embedded in preceding utterances through their interaction or as was observed in the General English course (de Boer, *forthcoming*), in the embedded meaning in each of the shared uploaded documents which contained the content. Second, the instructor could assess for learning (see Davison & Leung, 2009) as the guide on the side (King, 1993) using the necessary pedagogical tools available to guide the learner, rather than dictate the direction in which the students should be moving. It was up to the instructor, then, to assess the content and language for their linguistic demands, and to possibly challenge them in those individual cases or use dynamic assessment with necessary pedagogical tools to guide them. As was observed in some of the dialogue between the learners in the data for the book proposal (de Boer, *forthcoming*), there was meta-talk of cognitive discourse functions within the content itself, or as the data was being analysed, the cognitive functions appeared embedded in the modalities.

The fourth principle of CLIL was the essence of this thesis. The papers in this Compendium showed that the centripetal force provided at the beginning of the activity or writing was indeed related to the language being learned in context, learning through language, and reconstructing the subject themes. The role of the activity and the centripetal force opened

this process to the instructor and *made the learning visible* so that the instructor could provide guidance wherever and whenever necessary.

The fifth principle was also embedded throughout the papers submitted in this Compendium. In all instances, the essence of the classroom was predicated on the interaction between the learners. During the writing process, learners needed to spend time on their own writing, but in the classroom, the interaction between the learners or between the learners and the instructor created the necessary opportunities for dialogic interaction, giving rise to instances where the instructor could intervene and provide guidance, such as in the case of the SCOBAs, or in the dialogue surrounding the G-DA activity. The learners also had ample occasions to interact, as in the examples of the peer review or instances where the instructor orchestrated the interaction to transpire.

Intercultural awareness in the sixth principle was implemented by the instructor through the task parameters. The writing course involved the need for primary research, integrating the research with topics that incorporated international issues or problems that required understanding the issue from a broader perspective. In the General English course, the prompt set by the instructor involved issues that were all glocal, i.e., global, yet had implications at even the local level. Within the dynamics of the course, learners also worked in different groups with different students, ensuring that all students had occasion to interact with every other student in the classroom. With learners not being used to the interactive nature of the classroom and the nuances of conflicting personalities during activities where co-constructing was a large part of the requirements of the course, the instructor gave learners opportunities to understand the workplace, even if their classmates were in the same cultural context.

The seventh principle was dealt with in a way that was unique to the context of Japan. Currently, CLIL in Japan is still in its infancy (see Ikeda et al., 2015) and is primarily grassroots, as discussed earlier. The principles of CLIL and how they were promoted through the research shown here were ground-breaking in that they offered a new way for teaching and learning to occur in different types of classrooms, both in content and language classrooms. Japan tended to put CLIL in the language classrooms and there was a “focus on explicit language knowledge (not necessarily related to content)” (Leung & Morton, 2016, p. 237) in a more visible language pedagogy with a lower disciplinary orientation to language (see Ikeda et al., 2021; Tsuchiya & Pérez-Murillo, 2019). Therefore, examples of CLIL classrooms which are of a less visible language pedagogy with a lower disciplinary orientation to language where there is a focus on choice, creativity, and contingency are rare, but they offer a unique perspective to how learning can materialise under those circumstances.

8.3 Theoretical Contribution

This thesis aimed to show that in a CLIL context with a focus on choice, creativity, and contingency, learners are given agency and are the social agents to build on their natural proclivities to develop further their content and language knowledge and understanding. Within this context, learners are focused on the learning process; despite it being an official language classroom, they are not being taught language explicitly by the teacher, nor do they study grammatical structures or focus on form, but rather they are developing the language they need and the conceptual understanding of content as they work through their tasks. The papers contributing to this Compendium identify how the learners guide each other in this interactive learning environment and how the teacher also assists learners in their development.

In a pedagogy that has a less visible language component and a lower disciplinary orientation to language, each task has specified parameters. In some cases, the teacher provides information about the concepts that the learners need to investigate and, in other cases, the learners decide on the research topics and, in doing so, provide the concepts that will be the basis for their writing. These concepts and the parameters of the task are coined as the centripetal force, where the language is centralised and unified, as it is specific to the research topic. At the same time, learners, given agency, develop their linguistic abilities and content understanding through centrifugal tendencies; in other words, they build on and develop their language and understanding of the concepts as they need. Within this ‘invisible pedagogy’ (Leung & Morton, 2016), as stated, there is an implied community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) perspective, and rather than pre-specifying linguistic elements to be learned, the teacher created the conditions for students’ communicative repertoires to grow (Leung & Morton, 2016). The learners, while being grounded by the centripetal force of the task, work out meanings from previous utterances, and develop competence from being able to handle the contingent meaning. The content, as shown, does not come into sharp relief; it is created by the ongoing dialogue. In this process, the tension between the centripetal and the centrifugal, i.e., the process through which the learners struggle to develop their language and conceptual understandings based on the parameters of the task and in the context through which it is occurring, makes the learning visible.

8.4 Practical Contribution

The ‘un-concealing’ of the learning process affords educators an understanding of learner-learner interaction. The practical contribution of this study is to raise awareness for

educators wanting to gain further insight into learner abilities to promote learning where the learner is at the heart of the assessment process. Through observation of the learners or through dialogue, the educator can engage with the learner, in particular when unplanned assessment for learning opportunities arise (see Davison & Leung, 2009), having learners expand on their ideas or explain the content in interaction with the teacher. Raising educators' awareness in this regard will be the practical contribution of this thesis.

Chapter 9. Conclusion

To be sure, the self-assessment tool (de Boer, Leontjev, & Friederich, 2023), the writing course (Leontjev & de Boer, 2022), and the collaboration in the online forums discussed in the book proposal (de Boer, 2023) provide a means for the instructor to understand the process through which the learners advanced their joint understanding of the issues they were researching. The self-assessment tool is indeed a means through which learners, by using it, could understand the process of writing, which, in turn, fostered opportunities for dialogue with the instructor or with other students. The writing course was also created in a way that opened up the process of writing through which the instructor provided support (G-DA), tools (the SCOPA), and means through which learners could collaborate (the peer review), therefore, making the learning visible to the instructor as the learners moved through the writing process.

The book proposal online forum data gives insight into the process of the learners' development, but it also serves to develop an assessment framework based on transduction from one multimodality to another while preserving the cognitive discourse function across the two modalities. The assessment framework that will be developed in the proposed volume aims to make educators aware of the process of transduction and how that process can be used to develop the learners' linguistic competency and conceptual understanding of the content. Indeed, Leontjev and de Boer (2022) argued that assessment of the final product does not reveal what a detailed analysis of the process could, in terms of the learners' conceptual understanding. Therefore, instructors can view *how* the learners created joint understanding throughout the process, i.e., through a competency-based syllabus.

This Compendium, through its publications and through the thread that draws them together, has shown how valuable it is to examine the process of learning, to guide learners through their developmental trajectories rather than focus on the product, or the deficiency model of education (Piccardo & North, 2019). A competency-based approach with a focus on choice, creativity, and contingency (Leung & Morton, 2016) activated the natural proclivities of the learners. What was seen here specifically were the ways that the instructor revealed the learning process by not only orchestrating the class in a way that fostered co-construction of knowledge, but also by allowing for the development of language to occur. A lower disciplinary orientation to language and a less visible language pedagogy, with weak framing and weak classification, indeed a broadly invisible approach to pedagogy, was a different means for the teacher to guide the learners. The orchestration of the classroom and the tools that guided the learners' process were meant to preserve their choice and creativity allowing them to learn how to handle contingent and situated meaning that emerged from their interaction. The tools provided were meant to guide learners and allow for intersubjectivity between the interlocutors, helping them build on their understanding of the processes involved and the concepts they were researching. As Leung and Morton (2016, p. 248) stated, "a higher visibility of language ... with an emphasis on 'performance' (in Bernstein's terms) will not squeeze out creativity and contingency", which ultimately is what this thesis is about. There comes a point in which instructors need to lay the foundation of learning and then step aside, to place the onus on the learners to engage with the learning process. Then and there, the instructor provides the means to make the learning visible. As Vygotsky (1997) stated about being a teacher:

He has to become the director of the social environment which, moreover, is the only educational factor. Where he acts like a simple pump, filling up the students with knowledge, there he can be replaced with no trouble at all by a textbook, by a dictionary,

by a map, by a nature walk. When the teacher presents a lecture or explains a lesson, in these instances he is only partially acting in the role of teacher, say, in that area of his labor which establishes the child's relationship to all the elements of the environment which affect him. Where he is simply setting forth ready-prepared bits and pieces of knowledge, there he has ceased being a teacher. (p. 339)

Therefore, our role as teachers in the classroom should be one of guiding development, which I have attempted to show in this Compendium.

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Summary of the Thesis in Spanish

Titulo:

AICLE en la Educación Superior: Haciendo visible el aprendizaje

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Introducción

Introducción general

En los últimos 25 años, el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) se ha convertido en un área de investigación y práctica en rápido crecimiento en muchas zonas del mundo. Tiene una fuerte presencia en Europa, en particular en España (Pérez Cañado, 2012; 2021) y en cierta medida en Asia (Ikeda et al., 2013; Ikeda et al., 2021). La investigación continúa abriéndose en varios frentes, por ejemplo, la evaluación (de Boer y Leontjev, 2020), el desarrollo docente (Lo, 2020), la integración (Nikula et al., 2016) y la multimodalidad en AICLE (Liu y Lin, 2021), así como la investigación sobre las funciones cognitivas del discurso en AICLE (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, 2016; de Boer, 2020; Morton, 2020).

Sin embargo, como docente-investigador en el contexto asiático, involucrado en la formación de docentes en AICLE, soy consciente de los problemas que afectan a su implementación, principalmente en lo que respecta a las prácticas de evaluación y las tendencias históricas que han tenido un fuerte arraigo en las tradiciones de enseñanza y aprendizaje de idiomas en Japón. Por ejemplo, los desafiantes exámenes de ingreso a la universidad imponen restricciones institucionales sobre lo que se enseña y cómo, particularmente en las aulas de inglés (Green, 2016). La cultura de la enseñanza en Japón (Ogawa, Odate y de Boer, 2023) dicta las políticas de evaluación y las aulas carecen de cualquier interacción entre alumnos. Japón ha tenido una historia tumultuosa en el aprendizaje y la educación lingüística (Tsuchiya, 2019). Desde principios de la década de 1900, el inglés se convirtió en una asignatura que debía estudiarse en preparación para los exámenes de ingreso a la universidad. Se hizo hincapié en el aprendizaje de la gramática inglesa a través del *yakudoku*, es decir, el método de traducción gramatical (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006; Verde, 2016; Nishino y Watanabe, 2008), lo que implica que "las reglas gramaticales se presentan en una serie de pasos con listas de palabras y ejercicios de traducción" (Howatt y Widdowson, 2004, p. 132) y no fomenta las habilidades de comunicación en los alumnos (véase Ishikawa y Otaki, 2021; Iwamoto y Kramer, 2020). Los exámenes de alto importancia siguen siendo prominentes y las aulas tradicionales centradas en el profesor y la gramática siguen siendo omnipresentes (Green, 2016). Estos exámenes también causan problemas para aquellos profesores de inglés que desean implementar el AICLE pero

están obligados a enseñar utilizando libros de texto emitidos por el Ministerio de Educación, Cultura, Deportes, Ciencia y Tecnología (MEXT). La cultura de las pruebas en Japón también afecta negativamente a los alumnos (Comunicación personal, Saki Ogawa, Yukina Odate, 29 de noviembre de 2023), ya que a los profesores de secundaria no se les enseña a evaluar y se les indica que resten puntos por todos los errores, estén o no relacionados con la tarea. De hecho, a los alumnos se les enseña que todos los errores son significativos, lo que resulta en el miedo a cometer errores y perder la motivación para usar el idioma. La enseñanza se lleva a cabo a través de un enfoque basado en el rendimiento utilizando estos libros de texto autorizados por el gobierno; por lo tanto, la evaluación sumativa es la forma principal de evaluación, en la que las calificaciones determinan la trayectoria educativa del alumno. Como resultado de este tipo de práctica de enseñanza y evaluación, cuando los estudiantes llegan a la universidad, han perdido su motivación para estudiar inglés (Landsberry, 2018).

Si bien cada vez más universidades en Japón están adoptando un enfoque AICLE (véase de Boer y Leontjev, 2020; Ikeda et al., 2021; Tsuchiya y Pérez-Murillo, 2019), la evaluación se está convirtiendo en un tema cada vez más acuciante. Las prácticas de evaluación continúan en la misma línea sumativa desde la secundaria hasta el final de la universidad y se centran solo en el producto del aprendizaje, es decir, la prueba, pero no examinan el proceso de aprendizaje en sí. En Japón está surgiendo un movimiento de base, a través de la organización J-AICLE (jjelil.com) para la aplicación de AICLE en todos los niveles de la educación; por lo tanto, existe la oportunidad de alejarse de las pruebas gramaticales tradicionales y, en su lugar, desarrollar habilidades productivas, es decir, las habilidades lingüísticas del alumno para usar el idioma meta para formular enunciados significativos, explicar fenómenos o desarrollar habilidades como escribir o presentar en el contexto de un aula AICLE.

Los artículos de este Compendio adoptan un enfoque diferente del aula, a saber, examinar el proceso de aprendizaje, hasta el punto en que los profesores pueden guiar a los alumnos a través del desarrollo de su competencia lingüística y comprensión conceptual de los contenidos en un contexto AICLE. A medida que los estudiantes llegan al contexto universitario con una formación de seis años en el estudio del inglés, aunque sea a través de la traducción gramatical, el profesor (el autor de este Compendio) organizó su aula de tal manera que diera más agencia a los estudiantes. La agencia debía permitirles desarrollar su propia comprensión del contenido y el lenguaje, pero a través de un enfoque de aprendizaje basado en competencias, basado en los

principios del enfoque orientado a la acción (Piccardo y North, 2019) y a través de tareas que se centraran en la elección, la creatividad y la contingencia (véase Leung y Morton, 2016). Lo que se mostrará es cómo este tipo de aulas, si bien adoptan un enfoque AICLE, abren el *proceso de aprendizaje y lo visibilizan*.

Publicaciones

En el núcleo de los tres artículos que componen este Compendio de Tesis Doctoral se encuentra una postura innovadora sobre el tema de la evaluación y el desarrollo en las aulas donde se adopta un enfoque AICLE y este tema se aborda desde una perspectiva rica, complementaria y multifacética. Las publicaciones se enumeran a continuación:

Publicación 1

de Boer, M. A., Leontjev, D. y Friederich, L. (2023). From language to function: Developing self- and peer-assessment tools. *ELT Journal*, 77(1), 94–104.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac014>

Publicación 2

Leontjev, D. y de Boer, M. A. (2022). Teacher as creator: Orchestrating the learning environment to promote learner development. *Language Teaching Research*, 0(0), 1–22.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688221117654>

Publicación 3

de Boer, M. A. (forthcoming). *Multimodality in CLIL: A focus on learner development*. Cambridge University Press.

A continuación se ofrece un breve resumen de cada documento:

El primer artículo (de Boer, Leontjev y Friederich, 2023) reconceptualiza las rúbricas de una manera que las desplaza de su uso tradicional previsto para la evaluación sumativa a una que guía a los alumnos a través de su proceso de escritura como herramienta de autoevaluación.

Utiliza un enfoque orientado a la acción (AoA) (Piccardo y North, 2019) informado por las Funciones Cognitivas del Discurso (CDF) (Dalton-Puffer, 2013).

El segundo artículo (Leontjev y de Boer, 2022) examina cómo un profesor (de Boer) organizó su aula de manera que guió a los alumnos a través de su proceso de escritura. Este abarca un espectro de diferentes instancias de interacciones profesor-alumno y alumno-alumno que fueron fundamentales para ayudar a los alumnos a mejorar su escritura, es decir, sus dificultades con la coherencia. Específicamente, examina el uso de revisiones por pares, la introducción por parte del profesor de un esquema para una base de acción de orientación completa (SCOBA) y la Evaluación Dinámica de Grupo (G-DA). También se realiza el seguimiento a una alumna y se muestra cómo se resolvió el problema de coherencia en su proceso de escritura.

El tercer artículo (de Boer, en prensa) es una propuesta para un volumen de un solo autor que se tradujo en un contrato de libro con Cambridge University Press. En esta propuesta se reconceptualizó la integración de contenidos y lenguaje en AICLE a partir del análisis interaccional multimodal de las interacciones alumno-alumno utilizando datos de un aula universitaria de Lengua General Inglesa. Las interacciones entre alumnos proporcionaron una base sólida para examinar el papel de las multimodalidades en AICLE y, en particular, cómo las CDF eran evidentes en las multimodalidades y estas CDF desempeñaban un papel en la comunicación entre alumnos.

Objetivos y preguntas de investigación

En esta sección se describen los objetivos y las preguntas de investigación de cada una de las publicaciones de este Compendio.

Publicación 1: de Boer, Leontjev y Friederich (2023)

Este estudio conduce al lector a través del desarrollo de una herramienta basada en los principios del Enfoque Orientado a la Acción (Piccardo y North, 2019) e informada por las Funciones Cognitivas del Discurso (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). El objetivo de este estudio fue reconceptualizar cómo se podría modificar una rúbrica para operacionalizar su uso para el

alumno, es decir, crear una herramienta que pudiera guiar a los alumnos a través de su proceso de escritura, en lugar de ser utilizada como un medio para la evaluación sumativa por parte del profesor. En este estudio se plantea la siguiente pregunta:

1. ¿Cómo se puede reconceptualizar una rúbrica tradicionalmente utilizada para la evaluación sumativa, basada en los principios del Enfoque Orientado a la Acción e informada por las Funciones Cognitivas del Discurso, para crear una herramienta de autoevaluación que guíe el desarrollo del proceso de escritura de los alumnos?

Publicación 2: Leontjev y de Boer (2022)

El objetivo del estudio fue examinar el aula más allá de un enfoque en actividades individuales, basándose en la metáfora del *profesor como creador* del desarrollo del alumno (Vygotsky, 1997). Este estudio condujo a la pregunta de investigación y buscó abordar:

2. ¿De qué manera un docente que se basa en las actividades de ZPD, fusionándolas en un proceso orientado al desarrollo, guía el desarrollo de la coherencia en la escritura académica de segunda lengua (L2) del alumno?

Publicación 3: de Boer (en prensa)

El objetivo de la investigación, que es la base de esta propuesta de libro de de Boer (en prensa), fue desarrollar la comprensión lingüística y conceptual de los estudiantes sobre temas ambientales específicos y desarrollar sus habilidades comunicativas a través de su colaboración para llevar a cabo pequeños proyectos de investigación y hacer presentaciones sobre sus hallazgos. Esto fue en respuesta a los mandatos del Ministerio de Economía, Comercio e Industria (METI, 2010), por los cuales los estudiantes universitarios debían desarrollar habilidades blandas como la capacidad de trabajar en grupo, tomar la iniciativa y planificar y ser capaces de comunicarse en un idioma extranjero (inglés) para que, después de graduarse, puedan participar en investigaciones y negocios en el extranjero.

La pregunta de investigación de este estudio es:

2. ¿Qué ideas sobre las habilidades de los alumnos surgen de la interacción de los alumnos? En otras palabras, ¿cómo utilizan los alumnos el contenido y el lenguaje para mediar su interacción dentro de una tarea en particular? ¿Cómo pudieron los alumnos utilizar principalmente las multimodalidades y los CDF para co-construir su comprensión de los conceptos de forma asincrónica en un foro de chat?

Metodología

de Boer, Leontjev y Friederich (2023) y Leontjev y de Boer (2022)

El contexto de los estudios de de Boer, Leontjev y Friederich (2023) y Leontjev y de Boer (2022) fue idéntico. Los datos de estos estudios provienen de un curso de Escritura de Investigación Avanzada en una Universidad de Artes Liberales en Japón, un curso obligatorio para que todos los estudiantes de pregrado en el año 2 obtengan su Licenciatura en Artes. Hubo 41 alumnos y este curso se llevó a cabo completamente en línea dos veces por semana durante 15 semanas. La mayoría de los estudiantes de este curso hablan japonés como lengua materna (L1) y tienen un dominio del inglés de B1-B2 MCER. Algunos de los estudiantes han realizado estudios en el extranjero antes de ingresar en esta institución. El objetivo de este curso es doble: desarrollar habilidades lingüísticas junto con habilidades de escritura, un paso crítico antes de realizar cursos de EMI en las Facultades de Negocios Globales, Estudios Globales o Educación. Este curso también es un requisito previo antes de embarcarse en el estudio requerido de un año en el extranjero en una institución asociada internacional. Los alumnos deben presentar un trabajo de investigación primaria de 3.500 palabras al final del curso. Para embarcarse en el proceso de escritura, los alumnos deben escribir dos trabajos. La primera presentación de los alumnos es un documento de Síntesis de Justificación de 1.000 palabras, que requiere que obtengan una comprensión conceptual de la investigación que han elegido emprender, basada en los hechos que pueden recopilar de la literatura existente. Su segunda presentación es un documento de Síntesis Explicativa de 1.000 palabras, en el que se les pide que investiguen los argumentos de la bibliografía existente, basándose en la información fáctica que han reunido para el documento de Síntesis de Fundamentos. Para los documentos de Justificación y Síntesis, los alumnos realizan múltiples borradores. Después, se evalúan mediante una rúbrica creada por la Cátedra de Habilidades de Escritura de la Universidad, que fue co-construida con el resto del

profesorado responsable de impartir este curso. Sin embargo, de Boer no estaba satisfecho con la rúbrica, ya que se utilizaba para la evaluación de la presentación final de cada uno de estos trabajos –a pesar de ser un curso de escritura en el que los estudiantes aprenden a escribir, el proceso de escritura parecía descuidarse y los alumnos recibían una retroalimentación sobre el borrador final de cada trabajo y se esperaba que revisaran su escritura en función de esa retroalimentación. El cambio en los procedimientos de evaluación se produjo cuando de Boer se acercó a Friederich, en la misma institución y sugirió que las rúbricas no permitían que los alumnos entendieran cómo mejorar sus trabajos y que no se prestaba suficiente atención al proceso. Este intercambio inició discusiones centradas en el uso del concepto de las Funciones Cognitivas del Discurso. Leontjev fue invitado a colaborar poco después.

Para crear la herramienta de autoevaluación de Boer, Leontjev y Friederich (2022), se siguieron los principios del AoA, es decir, el diseño inverso (Piccardo y North, 2019), a partir de los objetivos de escritura y lenguaje del curso. El objetivo era cambiar la rúbrica por una herramienta de autoevaluación y de pares, que guiara a los alumnos a través del proceso de su escritura en lugar de ser utilizada por el profesor como rúbrica con fines de evaluación. La herramienta de autoevaluación de este estudio se creó para el documento de Síntesis Explicativa después de que los alumnos ya hubieran completado su trabajo de Síntesis de Fundamentos. El artículo de Síntesis Explicativa se convertiría esencialmente en su revisión de la literatura y el resto de su trabajo de investigación primaria se desarrollaría en torno a esto.

Como se indica en uno de los elementos de la herramienta de autoevaluación 'Ahora necesito proporcionar un vínculo entre los argumentos que he presentado y la investigación primaria que presento en mi sección de metodología', la herramienta se extiende más allá del artículo de Síntesis Explicativa a la sección de metodología de su trabajo de investigación primaria, lo que indica que el desarrollo de su artículo va más allá de esta última columna.

Dado que el objetivo era ayudar a los alumnos a desarrollar su escritura en lugar de centrarse en las deficiencias de su texto, se examinaron la rúbrica de evaluación y los escritos de algunos alumnos y se determinó que el nivel de escritura se situaba en torno al B2 en la escala del MCER. A continuación, se examinaron los CDF y (1) se determinó cuál se relacionaría mejor con el documento de Síntesis Explicativa, seguido de (2) la identificación de las CDF que podrían utilizarse para reflejar un texto más desarrollado. Por ejemplo, antes *de identificar* cómo los argumentos que los estudiantes han recogido de la literatura difieren entre sí, deben *explicar*

estos argumentos en detalle, es decir, "He *explicado* mis argumentos en detalle... ahora necesito *identificar* cómo difieren los argumentos entre sí". En otras palabras, los CDF utilizados fueron para guiar al alumno de columna en columna en la herramienta de autoevaluación como un medio para ayudarlo a desarrollar su escritura. Este desarrollo de las escalas se realizó con referencia a las escalas *generales de meditación* (Consejo de Europa, 2020) del MCER.

Leontiev y de Boer (2022)

En el curso universitario descrito en el estudio de Leontjev y de Boer (2022), había 41 alumnos y este curso se llevó a cabo íntegramente en línea dos veces por semana durante 15 semanas. El curso de escritura implica la necesidad de una investigación primaria, integrando la investigación con temas que incorporen temas internacionales o problemas que requieran comprender el tema desde una perspectiva más amplia. Las clases se organizaron para que los alumnos discutieran su trabajo con otros compañeros mediante el uso de salas desdobladas en Zoom y también con el profesor (de Boer) si era necesario, ya que se movía por dichas salas o tenía a todos en la sala principal de Zoom. El curso se organizó de manera que hubiera dos sesiones de revisión por pares, una al final del trabajo de Síntesis de Justificación y la otra al final del trabajo de Síntesis Explicativa. Durante este proceso, los alumnos también comenzaron a escribir su sección de Metodología para su trabajo de investigación primaria. El profesor y un compañero revisaron el trabajo de cada alumno y se les pidió que organizaran una sesión de Zoom con el compañero que revisó su trabajo para discutir los comentarios que recibieron. Estas sesiones se grabaron.

El profesor proporcionó a los alumnos una breve explicación de la información que debería incluirse en la sección de metodología de sus trabajos de investigación primaria. Durante la actividad, se pidió a los alumnos que codificaran por colores sus borradores de la siguiente manera:

- Información que buscaban (amarillo)
- Razones por las que buscaron esa información (verde)
- Sujetos objetivos (azul)
- Razones por las que estos son sus sujetos objetivos (rosa)
- Cómo debían recopilar los datos (rojo) y
- Razones de los métodos de recogida de datos (gris).

Esto dio lugar a una actividad de Evaluación Dinámica de Grupo.

Los datos adicionales provienen de una actividad no planificada en el aula que involucró un SCOPA, que surgió de una pregunta espontánea que un alumno tenía sobre el orden de los argumentos en su texto. Después de que el profesor presentara el SCOPA y cómo usarlo, los alumnos tuvieron un tiempo en las salas de reuniones de Zoom para actualizar el SCOPA. Esta introducción del SCOPA se produjo más adelante en el curso, después de la primera revisión por pares y la sesión de G-DA. La historia de estas actividades previas le dio al profesor una mayor comprensión sobre el aspecto de la coherencia en los escritos de los estudiantes. Por lo tanto, la actividad del SCOPA también se utilizó para abordar la cuestión de la coherencia.

El corpus de datos comprende (a) las tareas escritas de los alumnos (dos trabajos) (un total de 41 textos para cada trabajo), incluidos los comentarios escritos de los compañeros y del profesor, (b) sesiones de revisión por pares grabadas en video (cada pareja de estudiantes envió aproximadamente una grabación de 10 minutos para cada revisión por pares, lo que resultó en 21 grabaciones por trabajo), (c) actividades de clase grabadas en video (un total de 30 horas), y d) una entrevista de fin de curso (30 minutos) con uno de los estudiantes para triangular los datos de las sesiones de revisión por pares. Este estudio adoptó un enfoque cualitativo, exploratorio y de estudio de caso, donde analizamos los problemas de coherencia en los borradores de los alumnos examinando la interacción paso a paso utilizando medios mediacionales como unidad de análisis, centrándonos en las respuestas de los alumnos a la ayuda recibida. Se rastrearon los efectos de la revisión por pares y de las actividades de ZPD, mostrando cómo estos mejoraron colectivamente la comprensión de los alumnos sobre la coherencia en su escritura.

de Boer (en prensa)

Los datos en los que se fundamenta esta propuesta de libro provienen de un curso de inglés general para estudiantes de primer año en una universidad nacional del norte de Japón. Este es un contexto diferente al de los dos estudios anteriores de este Compendio. Los alumnos tienen un nivel de dominio del inglés de alto A2 - bajo B1 MCER y se consideran avanzados para esta universidad. Hubo 34 alumnos en este curso. Los estudiantes estaban matriculados en las carreras de pregrado en las Facultades de Ingeniería o Agricultura y también realizarían el curso de Inglés para Fines Específicos (ESP) en su segundo o tercer año, por lo que el curso que

se examinaría para el libro (de Boer, en prensa) era un requisito previo para el curso de ESP que iría a continuación. El curso de Inglés General fue diseñado para que los alumnos desarrollasen habilidades como hablar, trabajar en grupos, crear presentaciones y presentarlas y debatir. Hubo varias actividades cortas, como la creación de rúbricas de evaluación, presentaciones individuales, presentaciones grupales cortas, Pecha Kucha, lecturas extensas, debates y un proyecto de investigación a tiempo completo, que incluyó un póster y una presentación de PowerPoint. El objetivo del profesor era que los alumnos trabajaran en muchos proyectos más pequeños y que las habilidades desarrolladas en esos proyectos pudieran utilizarse en el proyecto de investigación.

Las clases se dedicaron en gran medida a presentar el trabajo de los estudiantes o proyectos colaborativos más pequeños y el profesor también proporcionó a los alumnos un foro Moodle en línea donde podían chatear de forma asincrónica y compartir archivos fuera del horario de clase. Esto fue especialmente útil para el proyecto de investigación, ya que se dedicó poco tiempo de clase para trabajar en esto. Los alumnos utilizaron el foro en línea para compartir sus archivos y elaborar sus presentaciones de pósteres que presentarían a mitad de curso. A partir de los comentarios que recibían de sus compañeros y profesores visitantes durante la presentación del póster, creaban una presentación de PowerPoint para el final del trimestre. Cada iteración del póster que compartían, llamada el *Objeto Mejorable* (IO, Bereiter y Scardamalia, 1996; Wells, 2000), indicaba dónde se encontraba el grupo con respecto a su pensamiento y desarrollo de sus ideas. En el foro asincrónico en línea, cada uno de los miembros del grupo (n=4) se turnó para compartir una versión del cartel como archivo adjunto y en el área de mensajes del foro indicó lo que habían hecho para actualizar el póster.

Los foros en línea eran privados para cada grupo, es decir, los alumnos de un grupo no podían ver las interacciones que se producían en otro grupo. El profesor, sin embargo, tenía acceso a los foros, pero informó a los estudiantes que no los miraría a menos que solicitaran ayuda. El corpus de datos proviene de a) el historial de todas las interacciones que ocurrieron durante el curso y b) todos los archivos compartidos para cada grupo y guardados en un directorio separado. La metodología que se utilizará en este estudio será cualitativa y exploratoria, adoptando un enfoque multicaso. Los datos se analizarán mediante análisis de contenido cualitativo (Selvi, 2020) y análisis interaccional multimodal (Norris, 2004) utilizando el software Atlas.ti.

Resultados

Publicación 1

El estudio (de Boer, Leontjev y Friederich, 2023) tenía como objetivo desarrollar una herramienta de autoevaluación y una herramienta que también pudiera utilizarse para la evaluación por pares de un curso avanzado de redacción de investigación en una Universidad de Artes Liberales de Japón. La herramienta cambió el enfoque de la evaluación sumativa de los productos de escritura de los alumnos, es decir, los trabajos finales presentados para una calificación, al proceso de escritura, ayudando a los alumnos a externalizar su pensamiento. La rúbrica original utilizada en el curso se adaptó de varias maneras. En primer lugar, el texto de la rúbrica se redactó en primera persona para que el alumno se identificara con, por ejemplo, "*he hecho*". En segundo lugar, la rúbrica se alineó con los descriptores B1 y B2 del MCER, que estaban en línea con la rúbrica original. La herramienta de autoevaluación también incorporó Funciones Cognitivas del Discurso que enfatizan los verbos de acción para guiar a los alumnos en la comprensión y mejora de su escritura. Las pruebas iniciales de la herramienta de autoevaluación mostraron resultados positivos a medida que los estudiantes reflexionaban de manera más crítica sobre su escritura. En sus etapas iniciales de uso, la herramienta apoya la retroalimentación continua, guía el desarrollo de los estudiantes y fomenta la comunicación entre los estudiantes durante la retroalimentación entre pares y entre estudiantes y profesores.

Publicación 2

El segundo estudio (Leontjev y de Boer, 2022) examinó los cambios en la coherencia de escritura de los alumnos en función de la forma en la que el profesor organizó el aula. El profesor se enfocó específicamente en tres áreas a través de la forma en que el profesor planificó el aula: 1) sesiones de revisión por pares, 2) evaluación dinámica grupal (G-DA) y 3) esquema para una base de acción de orientación completa (SCOBAs).

Sesiones de revisión por pares

Al hablar específicamente de estudiante (S2), el análisis detallado de las interacciones entre pares destacó cómo esta facilitó su comprensión de la coherencia. En la primera sesión de revisión por pares con S4, S2 se esforzó por dejar claro el conflicto en su trabajo, pero afirmando claramente "*Lo entendi*", lo que indica que entendía cuál era el problema con su escritura, ya que comenzó a comprender la importancia de alinear su introducción con su conclusión para aclarar el conflicto. En el segundo artículo, S2 recibió comentarios de S13 sobre un problema específico de coherencia, que, aunque S13 abordó a través de una discusión guiada, S2 autorreguló en sus respuestas a S13, afirmando claramente "*Lo tengo*", esta vez, entendiendo claramente el problema. El cambio autoinformado de S2 de una comprensión superficial a la búsqueda activa de claridad marcó un desarrollo significativo en su escritura, confirmado por su entrevista con los investigadores.

Evaluación Dinámica de Grupo (G-DA)

La actividad G-DA tenía como objetivo evaluar y desarrollar la comprensión de la coherencia por parte de los alumnos. Utilizando códigos de colores, los alumnos identificaron y organizaron diferentes tipos de información en sus textos. A pesar de las dificultades iniciales, este método ayudó a los alumnos a darse cuenta de dónde sus textos carecían de coherencia. S2, por ejemplo, reconoció la necesidad de una estructura más clara en su sección de metodología, entendiendo la necesidad de una estrategia de codificación por colores que le ayudara a identificar cómo organizar su escritura.

Actividad SCOA

La pregunta de un alumno provocó la respuesta del profesor de presentar y explicar el uso del SCOA para ayudar a los alumnos a organizar sus textos de forma lógica o "*en un orden claro*". El profesor utilizó ayudas visuales y discusiones interactivas para guiar a los alumnos en la estructuración de sus párrafos de manera coherente. El profesor demostró cómo mantener un orden claro cuando los alumnos estaban escribiendo sus argumentos, modelando y manipulando el SCOA, dándoles una indicación de cómo deberían pensar en un "*orden claro*" en su

escritura. Los alumnos aplicaron estos conocimientos en las sesiones de trabajo, mejorando su capacidad para crear textos coherentes y bien estructurados.

El estudio demostró una mejora significativa en la coherencia de la escritura de los alumnos a través de actividades específicas y sesiones interactivas de retroalimentación entre compañeros e profesores. Inicialmente, 25 alumnos tenían problemas de coherencia en sus primeros borradores, pero este número se redujo a 14 en los segundos. Una prueba de McNemar confirmó que esta mejoría fue estadísticamente significativa ($p = 0.013$). La naturaleza del aspecto de coherencia, como la necesidad de trasladar información o ampliar el contenido de los párrafos, siguió siendo coherente en todos los proyectos, aunque la coherencia general mejoró.

Publicación 3

En el tercer estudio (de Boer, en prensa), cada grupo creó y entregó un póster y una presentación de PowerPoint sobre el *tema glocal* (global, pero identificable localmente) que habían elegido de la indicación proporcionada por el profesor. El profesor había proporcionado un foro asincrónico en línea para cada uno de los grupos, donde podían discutir, compartir y co-construir sus presentaciones. Los archivos de presentación (documentos de Word para el póster y archivos de PowerPoint para la presentación final) se compartieron entre los miembros del grupo y cada iteración que se compartió sería cambiada por uno de los miembros del grupo antes de ser cargada nuevamente en el foro. En el área de mensajes de los foros se notó la falta de lenguaje *de o a través del* aprendizaje, y el idioma *para* el aprendizaje fue el más prevalente, lo que indica que los alumnos confiaron en el contenido del póster como su medio para comunicarse con los demás miembros del grupo. El contenido de cada iteración del póster contenía multimodalidades como gráficos, imágenes, diagramas, números, texto y había una cantidad notable de disposición espacial del contenido. La disposición espacial de las diferentes modalidades dio una estructura clara al flujo de información en el cartel. Las funciones cognitivas del discurso (CDF) también fueron evidentes en los pósteres y los resultados también indican que los CDF desempeñaron un papel en la forma en que los alumnos pudieron construir un póster final y una presentación de PowerPoint a través del chat asincrónico a través de iteraciones compartidas. Los resultados revelan una forma única en la que los alumnos, a los que se les da la capacidad de actuar, se comunican para lograr un producto final a través de un proceso que revela las complejidades de su co-construcción.

Discusión

Este compendio tenía como objetivo identificar el proceso dentro de un contexto específico en el que los estudiantes tenían agencia y eran los "agentes sociales" mientras interactuaban con otros estudiantes o con el profesor a través del proceso de completar tareas. Fue a través de los parámetros de la tarea y del tema elegido que una fuerza centrípeta, es decir, una unificación y centralización del lenguaje (Bakhtin, 1981), arraigó a los aprendices, mientras que a través de su proceso de completar las tareas, desarrollaron su competencia lingüística y comprensión de conceptos. La tensión entre lo centrípeto y lo centrífugo en esta pedagogía invisible hizo visible el aprendizaje. De hecho, a medida que los alumnos co-construyeron su póster, como se muestra en los datos para la propuesta de libro (de Boer, en prensa), la presentación, el lenguaje y los conceptos que utilizaron se derivaron de la indicación de aprendizaje del profesor (o de su propia indicación en el curso de escritura), lo que le dio a este último una comprensión clara de cómo los alumnos estaban desarrollando su comprensión de los conceptos y cómo su lenguaje lo reflejaba. Esto brindó oportunidades educativas para el profesor, quien pudo ayudar a los alumnos con medios para guiarlos hacia su trayectoria de desarrollo en función de dónde se encontraban en un momento particular de su proceso y hacia dónde querían ir. En última instancia, el objetivo del aula era fomentar el desarrollo del alumno, por lo que los tres trabajos presentados en este Compendio se centraron en este objetivo: *ayudar al alumno en su desarrollo a través de la interacción en el aula y a través de interacciones planificadas entre los alumnos*.

El tema general que vincula estos tres estudios es *cómo el docente utilizó el proceso en la pedagogía del lenguaje invisible, abordado desde una perspectiva complementaria y multifacética*. Asimismo, los estudios ofrecen diseños y propuestas originales de cómo se puede utilizar el aula para fomentar el desarrollo del alumno haciendo visible el aprendizaje para el profesor.

Hacer visible el aprendizaje

La herramienta de autoevaluación fue fundamental en varios sentidos. En primer lugar, *sirvió como un medio para que los alumnos examinaran su propia escritura*, lo que proporcionó información sobre cómo identificar dónde se encontraban en su escritura, así como hacia dónde debían ir, es decir, objetivos específicos que debían alcanzarse para desarrollar aún más su trabajo y cómo lograr esos objetivos. Guiada por los principios del AoA y el concepto de los CDF (Dalton-Puffer 2013; 2016), la herramienta de autoevaluación sirvió para ilustrar a los alumnos el *proceso* de escritura, que difería claramente de las rúbricas tradicionales diseñadas para evaluar el producto final. Los alumnos podían trabajar con la herramienta de autoevaluación de forma independiente, identificando dónde estaban (o pensaban que estaban) en su escritura, trabajando en sus propios objetivos y examinando y autoevaluando su propio proceso de escritura y desarrollo del lenguaje antes de interactuar con sus compañeros o con el profesor.

Esto condujo al segundo punto: *la herramienta de autoevaluación promovió la comunicación entre los alumnos y también entre el profesor y los alumnos*. La herramienta de autoevaluación y los CDF incorporados crearon intersubjetividad (Wertsch, 1985) entre los diversos interlocutores. Por ejemplo, el proceso de revisión por pares proporcionó a los alumnos los medios para utilizar la herramienta de autoevaluación en la discusión de sus trabajos, utilizando el lenguaje de la herramienta de autoevaluación para discutir dónde se encontraban en su proceso de escritura. Esta fue una forma poderosa para que los alumnos entendieran el proceso de evaluación y entendieran cómo otros estudiantes pasaron por su proceso de escritura. Además, durante la discusión entre el profesor y el alumno, la herramienta de autoevaluación se convirtió en el objeto de mediación, es decir, el profesor podía determinar a partir de la propia autoevaluación del alumno si era preciso en su propia evaluación y qué consideraba que debía hacerse para seguir desarrollando su trabajo. La autoevaluación del alumno y la discusión que siguió con el profesor sin duda harían que el aprendizaje fuera visible para el profesor y proporcionarían oportunidades de orientación, al tiempo que garantizarían la agencia del alumno. Por lo tanto, *esta herramienta de autoevaluación pretendía visibilizar el aprendizaje centrándose en el proceso de escritura*.

En el curso de Escritura Avanzada, los alumnos emprendieron las tareas, utilizando el lenguaje de una manera significativa, en lugar de comprometerse con el idioma a lo largo de un camino lineal de adquisición gradual de la competencia lingüística, gramatical y sintáctica de los

hablantes nativos. Los objetivos del curso incluían la lectura crítica y las técnicas de investigación primaria, el aprendizaje del proceso de escritura, el desarrollo de contenidos coherentes, la comprensión de la estructura coherente y la aplicación de las convenciones académicas de expresión. Si bien los alumnos tenían un MCER B1/B2 según los requisitos previos para este curso, el curso de escritura fue una forma de que los estudiantes desarrollaran sus habilidades lingüísticas por escrito, ya que se esperaba que demostraran un uso preciso del idioma, como se indica en la descripción del curso. Como afirmaron Piccardo y North, el "objetivo de la educación lingüística es permitir que los usuarios/aprendices aprendan a dar significado" (2019, p. 282).

Para que el alumno fuera el agente social, el profesor necesitaba crear situaciones de aprendizaje, es decir, crear las condiciones "para que el agente social actúe de manera efectiva y tenga éxito y así garantizar que el desarrollo y el aprendizaje efectivos puedan tener lugar" (Piccardo y North, 2019, p. 251). En el curso de Escritura Avanzada, los parámetros de la tarea ya estaban definidos; sin embargo, para garantizar que el aprendizaje efectivo pudiera tener lugar, el papel del profesor se movió hacia una perspectiva de acción, más que la de un profesor, para observar, analizar, orientar y "proporcionar, poner a disposición o construir, según las circunstancias, las herramientas que son necesarias para esta realización" (Piccardo y North, 2019, p. 251).

Los alumnos tuvieron capacidad de acción y se les dio la oportunidad de trabajar a través de su propia escritura y participar en la revisión por pares. Las grabaciones de estas sesiones de revisión por pares se pusieron a disposición del profesor para que pudiera observar las discusiones entre las parejas de aprendizaje. Esto le dio al profesor una idea de las áreas problemáticas que los alumnos tenían con su propia escritura y lo que otros estudiantes también habían observado. Posteriormente, consciente de las discusiones entre los alumnos en las revisiones por pares, el profesor pudo abordar el tema en clase cuando el estudiante planteó la pregunta sobre el "orden claro".

El aprendizaje se hizo visible a partir de dos instancias: una fue la revisión por pares y la otra fue la discusión de toda la clase. Por lo tanto, el uso que hizo el profesor del aprendizaje que se visibilizó fue introducir el SCOPA (Ohta, 2017) como un medio para abordar el tema de la coherencia con toda la clase, donde los alumnos pudieran adaptarlo a su propio proceso de escritura. Si bien el SCOPA se creó para abordar la cuestión de la coherencia y se hizo visible

mediante el proceso de revisión por pares y la indicación del alumno, resultó en una forma poderosa de abordar este problema de una manera que mantuvo el enfoque basado en competencias. Además, esto permitió a los alumnos trabajar en sus propias áreas problemáticas y discutir las con otros estudiantes.

La actividad de evaluación dinámica de grupo (G-DA) también fue efectiva en el sentido de que los alumnos podían moverse a través de su ZPD con el profesor. El profesor creó la actividad de codificación por colores con la intención de revelar los problemas de coherencia en una sección de escritura que era relativamente simple de organizar en función del contenido. De hecho, el G-DA fue facilitado por el profesor, pero el profesor también animó a los alumnos a hacerse preguntas entre sí y observó y respondió en función de la discusión subsiguiente. El G-DA fue acumulativo, ya que cada estudiante se basó en la discusión de las respuestas de los estudiantes anteriores. La mediación del profesor pasó de lo implícito a lo más explícito durante la discusión, lo que llevó a los estudiantes a darse cuenta de que la actividad les ayudaba a organizar su escritura y que el código de colores era útil para comprender lo que estaban escribiendo. Sin duda, este fue un ejemplo de una actividad, organizada por el profesor, que hizo visible *el aprendizaje a través del proceso mismo*, a medida que sucedía y se discutía en clase.

Los proyectos que requerían que los alumnos co-construyeran un póster y una presentación de PowerPoint (de Boer, en prensa) revelaron lo que los alumnos estaban haciendo a través de cada publicación que compartieron en los foros en línea. La interacción fue coherente con un programa de estudios basado en competencias y tenía un enfoque en la elección, la creatividad y la contingencia (Leung y Morton, 2016), ya que los alumnos co-construyeron el conocimiento a través del proceso de compartir iteraciones de su póster. Sin embargo, se descubrió que, en el área de mensajes del foro, los miembros del grupo utilizaban principalmente *el lenguaje para el aprendizaje*, es decir, no publicaban mensajes relacionados con el contenido, sino que utilizaban un lenguaje como "arreglé algo" o "cambié algo" y subieron la versión más reciente del cartel, dejando a los demás miembros del grupo la tarea de averiguar qué se había cambiado.

A partir de las iteraciones compartidas se observó que los alumnos utilizaban el contenido de los carteles, es decir, las diferentes modalidades (Kress, 1997; 2017) o el lenguaje *del aprendizaje* (Coyle, Hood y Marsh, 2010). Los estudiantes utilizaron diferentes modalidades, lenguaje y otros recursos semióticos para mediar la co-construcción del conocimiento, para

comunicarse sobre el contenido relevante para el producto final, para "metahablar" sobre el contenido y los pasos a seguir e interpretar las acciones de cada uno para avanzar en su entendimiento conjunto. Además, el uso de mediadores multimodales evidenció cómo incorporaron implícitamente diferentes CDF en este proceso, como evaluar, explicar, comparar, informar, clasificar y definir. Los estudiantes parecieron interpretar los CDF y se basaron en ellos para contribuir aún más a la construcción conjunta del producto final a través de la transducción (Kress, 1997), es decir, preservar la CDF pero cambiar la modalidad (de Boer y Evnitskaya, 2024). También se reveló que los alumnos utilizaban indistintamente tanto el lenguaje cotidiano como el académico, como indicaron Leung y Morton (2016): "los individuos recurren a las habilidades y conocimientos que ya utilizan en contextos informales para su uso en contextos educativos" (p. 244). Además, cada iteración del póster debía entenderse e interpretarse a medida que se compartía, por lo que era evidente que "tratar de comprender y responder a los demás puede verse como parte del aprendizaje... El contenido no aparece en un relieve nítido, ya que todo el significado del contenido es un significado creado por el diálogo en curso" (p. 245).

En los foros en línea se evidenció el diálogo continuo y el contenido que se co-construyó, que contenía todas las interpretaciones del póster y evidencia de cómo los alumnos procedieron a la siguiente iteración, CDF implícitas y multimodalidades, lo que le proporcionó al profesor una mirada al rico proceso de aprendizaje, es decir, una vez más, *hizo visible* su aprendizaje. Los alumnos debían tener en cuenta lo que se dijo en el póster y en el foro en línea anteriores antes de añadir o hacer cambios. A través de este aprendizaje social, el flujo de diálogo promovió la fluidez interaccional (Peltonen, 2024), haciendo que el aprendizaje fuera visible para el profesor, quien pudo observar y analizar la construcción conjunta del cartel en cada iteración.

El hilo conductor de estos tres estudios, es decir, el concepto de hacer visible el aprendizaje, era evidente en las herramientas proporcionadas por el profesor y en las formas en que el aula y las actividades se habían estructurado para aprovechar las inclinaciones naturales del alumno. El objetivo del profesor era mantener un enfoque basado en competencias con un enfoque en la elección, la creatividad y la contingencia, permitiendo a los alumnos interactuar de manera que el profesor pudiera ofrecer asistencia en función de lo que era evidente en su proceso de aprendizaje. Las herramientas proporcionadas por el profesor también contribuyeron a este proceso, poniendo la responsabilidad en el alumno, el agente social de su aprendizaje.

Aportaciones teóricas y prácticas

En una pedagogía que tiene un componente lingüístico menos visible y una menor orientación disciplinaria hacia el lenguaje, cada tarea tiene parámetros específicos. En algunos casos, el profesor proporciona información sobre los conceptos que los alumnos necesitan investigar y, en otros casos, los alumnos deciden los temas de investigación y, al hacerlo, proporcionan los conceptos que serán la base de su escritura. Estos conceptos y los parámetros de la tarea son conocidos como la fuerza centrípeta, donde el lenguaje se centraliza y unifica, ya que es específico del tema de investigación. Al mismo tiempo, los alumnos, cuando se les da agencia, desarrollan sus habilidades lingüísticas y la comprensión del contenido a través de tendencias centrífugas; en otras palabras, construyen y desarrollan su lenguaje y comprensión de los conceptos según lo necesiten. Dentro de esta "pedagogía invisible" (Leung y Morton, 2016), como se ha dicho, existe una perspectiva implícita de comunidad de práctica (Lave y Wenger, 1991) y en lugar de pre-especificar los elementos lingüísticos a aprender, el profesor creó las condiciones para que los repertorios comunicativos de los estudiantes crecieran (Leung y Morton, 2016). Los alumnos, al mismo tiempo que se basan en la fuerza centrípeta de la tarea, elaboran significados a partir de enunciados anteriores y desarrollan la competencia al ser capaces de manejar el significado contingente. El contenido, como se muestra, no se pone de relieve; es creado por el diálogo en curso. En este proceso, la tensión entre lo centrípeto y lo centrífugo, es decir, el proceso a través del cual los alumnos luchan por desarrollar su lenguaje y sus comprensiones conceptuales en función de los parámetros de la tarea y en el contexto a través del cual está ocurriendo, hace que el aprendizaje sea visible.

El "desocultamiento" del proceso de aprendizaje permite a los educadores comprender la interacción alumno-alumno. La contribución práctica de este estudio es sensibilizar a los educadores que deseen obtener una mayor comprensión de las habilidades del alumno para promover el aprendizaje en el que el alumno está en el centro del proceso de evaluación. A través de la observación de los alumnos o del diálogo, el educador puede interactuar con el alumno, en particular cuando surge una evaluación no planificada de las oportunidades de aprendizaje (véase Davison y Leung, 2009), haciendo que los alumnos amplíen sus ideas o expliquen el contenido en interacción con el profesor. La sensibilización de los educadores en este sentido será la contribución práctica de esta Tesis.

Conclusión

Este Compendio, a través de sus publicaciones y a través del hilo conductor que las une, ha demostrado lo valioso que es examinar el proceso de aprendizaje para guiar a los alumnos a través de sus trayectorias de desarrollo, en lugar de centrarse en el producto o en el modelo de deficiencia de la educación (Piccardo y North, 2019). Un enfoque basado en competencias con un enfoque en la elección, la creatividad y la contingencia (Leung y Morton, 2016) activó las inclinaciones naturales de los alumnos. Lo que se vio aquí específicamente fueron las formas en que el profesor reveló el proceso de aprendizaje no solo organizando la clase de una manera que fomentó la co-construcción del conocimiento, sino también permitiendo que ocurriera el desarrollo del lenguaje. Una menor orientación disciplinaria hacia el lenguaje y una pedagogía lingüística menos visible, con un marco débil y una clasificación débil, de hecho, un enfoque pedagógico ampliamente invisible, era un medio diferente para que el profesor guiara a los alumnos. La configuración del aula y las herramientas que guiaron el proceso de los alumnos estaban destinadas a preservar su elección y creatividad, permitiéndoles aprender a manejar el significado contingente y situado que emergía de su interacción. Las herramientas proporcionadas estaban destinadas a guiar a los alumnos y permitir la intersubjetividad entre los interlocutores, ayudándoles a desarrollar su comprensión de los procesos involucrados y los conceptos que estaban investigando. Como afirmaron Leung y Morton (2016, p. 248), "una mayor visibilidad del lenguaje (...) con un énfasis en el 'rendimiento' (en términos de Bernstein) no exprimirá la creatividad y la contingencia", que en última instancia es de lo que trata esta Tesis. Llega un punto en el que los profesores deben sentar las bases del aprendizaje y luego hacerse a un lado, para poner la responsabilidad en los alumnos de participar en el proceso de aprendizaje. En ese momento, el profesor proporciona los medios para hacer visible el aprendizaje.

Por lo tanto, nuestro papel como docentes en el aula debe ser el de guiar el desarrollo, lo que he tratado de mostrar en este Compendio.

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